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TYPY SLOVNÍKU V TRADIČNÍ ANGLICKÉ LEXIKOGRAFII

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Prohlašuji, že jsem práci zpracoval samostatně a použil jsem jen uvedených pramenů a literatury.

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Introduction

The English language is the third most spoken language in the world and it is usually learned as a second language in a large number of schools. Nowadays we can use the English language to communicate with foreigners from all around the world, however, we cannot learn a foreign language without a dictionary. A dictionary is an important part of gaining knowledge of a foreign language and even our mother language.

First of all, the aim of this thesis is to present a typology of dictionaries, English monolingual dictionaries in particular, and gives a brief summary of their function and purpose. Second of all, it examines differences between American and British lexicography and finally, to compare three different English thesauruses in regards to their microstructure and macrostructure. The second chapter consists of twelve sub-chapters from which the first four sub-chapters are dedicated to the lexicography, its description, purpose, history around the world, and furthermore to lexicology compared with lexicography. Next sub-chapters are focused on dictionaries with regards to the components of their microstructure and macrostructure and present the basic criteria according to which dictionaries are classified and compiled. And finally, the last sub-chapters are dedicated to the typology of monolingual dictionaries in English traditional lexicography.

The practical part states differences in American and British ways of compiling dictionaries, where the author has selected the most well-known publishers, and furthermore, compares the individual features of different Oxford thesauruses, the amount of stored information and the dictionary entries. And the last part of this work is conclusion stating results of the analysis.

2 Lexicography

The definition of lexicography in The New Oxford Dictionary of English is: the practice of compiling dictionaries, whilst internet encyclopaedia defines lexicography as follows: lexicography (is) the applied study of the meaning, evolution, and function of the vocabulary units of a language for the purpose of compilation in book form.^[1] The main object of lexicography is the dictionary. Lexicography as one of the linguistics discipline is subdivided into two types of lexicography. The first type of lexicography deals with writing, editing and compiling dictionaries and it is called practical lexicography. There are different functions of practical lexicography:

- Educational function – presumes that the language will be taught.
- Legislative function – tries to estimate a form of a language, studies how to normalize it.
- Communicative function – considers the reality of intercultural communications
- Scientific function – evaluates the vocabulary of a language in a different period of time.

Practical lexicography is also concerned in history of words that is subdivided into 3 periods:

- Pre-dictionary period – a period of time where there were no dictionaries, only collections of words so called “glosses”. The word “gloss” comes from Greek and its translation is “tongue”, “language. Lexicographers tried to explain difficult words that people didn’t understand well.
- Period of early dictionaries – in this period lexicographers examined literary languages and compiled dictionaries of words that were different from a spoken language.
- Period of developed lexicography – is a period of compiling proper dictionaries.^[2]

The second type is called theoretical lexicography and its role is analysing and describing the semantic, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relationships within a

vocabulary of a language.^[3] It is also concerned in codification of any language lexicon that is presented in different types of dictionaries, and tries to organize the characteristic features of words. Theoretical lexicography studies typology of dictionaries and their new types, it is concerned in development of dictionary macro- and microstructure, which are described further in this thesis. Needless to say that practical lexicography would not exist without theoretical lexicography as there is a need of research to gain knowledge to start compiling dictionaries.^[4]

2.1 History of lexicography

Before lexicography people in the past did not have glossaries and dictionaries to prove something is wrong or to simply check correct spelling, etc., they used the language as they knew it. Dictionaries and glossaries were compiled in the early age in China, India, Middle East, Greece and Rome.^[5]

First glossaries were found in Sumerain in the 25th century B.C. They were the first sets of bilingual word lists which contained Sumerian and Akkadian words that were engraved on clay boards. Dictionary making in China dates back to 9th century B.C. where glossaries were used for literary purposes and it was called “Shizhou”^[6], unfortunately, the work was forgotten. However a few hundred years B.C the lexicographic work was restored and new dictionaries such as “Yupian” and “Qieyun” were compiled which helped to understand ancient texts.^[7]

First Greek glossaries were made approximately in the 10th Century, and Homer’s glossaries dates back to the 5th century B.C. in the 2nd century A.D. the Greek Atticists compiled a dictionary that had a great significance since the language was changing and explanations were necessary.^[8]

During the first millennium there are first signs of different styles of dictionaries in Ancient India where Indian lexicographers started a collection of obscure words called “Nighantu” and over hundreds of years they collected a large amount of words, which helped future lexicographers, as it provides them with models of lexicographic work from early years.^[9] Over the time the field of dictionary making evolved as one discipline of linguistics. They started to classify dictionaries in regards to their gender, meaning, and usage over the years and later they compiled single-volume dictionaries

that included all three types of word information, however the dictionaries did not have alphabetical order, some dictionaries were constructed in verse forms, that is, ordering words according to the number of syllables and seldom according to the final syllable or they grouped words into classes on the basis of particular word feature.^[10]

Dash states that the art of lexicography in Iran began in the pre-Islamic period and between the 1st and 7th century the first dictionaries “Qim” and “Pahlavic” were compiled. They started to compile Persian dictionaries as it was an expansion of literature in Persia. Over the years in 14th century Persian spread across other countries and the Persian language was accepted “as the language of the Royal court and literature”^[11] in Turkey and the subcontinent. In the 19th century the lexicographic work was still growing and they were compiling a different kinds of dictionaries. The lexicographers had the characteristic of compiling encyclopedic dictionaries.^[12]

2.2 Beginnings of English Lexicography

The beginning of English lexicography goes back to the Old English period when Anglo-Saxon priests and teachers started compiling glossaries of Latin words with English note in order to help others who were not able to read Latin manuscripts and bible, since the language of the Roman Church was Latin.^[13] “As English monks studied the manuscripts, they would write the English translation above or below the Latin word in the text, to help their own learning, and as a guide to subsequent readers. These one-word translations, written between the lines of the manuscript, are called ‘interlinear glosses’; they are seen as the beginnings of (bilingual) lexicography.”^[14]

The first English-to-Latin dictionary called “Promptorium Parvulorum” was compiled approximately in 1440. It was an alphabetized dictionary consisting of around twelve thousand entries where verbs and nouns were recorded separately. The first Latin-English dictionary “Bibliotheca Eliotata” was compiled by Sir Thomas Elyot in 1538 and followed by John Withals’ English-Latin dictionary “Shorte Dictionarie for Young Begynners” which was released attributed in a printed form in 1553. Thomas Cooper was one of the first lexicographers who compiled a French-English dictionary in 1556.^[15]

The first monolingual English dictionary is called “A Table Alphabetical” and it was compiled by Robert Cawdrey in 1604. It was a dictionary containing around 3000 words with spelling and definition and it was aimed at unskilful people.^[16] Cawdrey’s work was followed by other compilers of monolingual dictionaries such as John Bullocker, Henry Cockerman, Thomas Blount, Edward Philips, John Kersey and Nathan Bailey, however, none of their dictionaries were as comprehensive and trustworthy as “The Dictionary of the English Language” compiled by Samuel Johnson in 1755.^[17]

Johnson’s dictionary did not include only words which were hard to understand, he tried to compile a dictionary with all English words which took him almost nine years. He is also considered to be the first lexicographer who included over 42,000 entries along with illustrative quotations from famous writers such as Shakespeare.^[18]

Francis Grose had a completely different idea of compiling dictionaries and in 1785 became one of the first lexicographers who compiled dictionary of slang words “The Vulgar Tongue” which he gathered with Tom Cocking from thieves, bandits and the rest of the society.^[19]

In the 1857 Richard Chenevix Trench, Herbert Coleridge and Frederick Furnivall were members of a Philological Society, which was unsatisfied with then-current dictionaries as the dictionaries did not include historical information, therefore they planned to compile a complex dictionary with words dating back to the Early Middle English period, a dictionary that would replace Johnson’s.^[20]

In 1879 James Murray, who was a great philologist and lexicographer, became an editor of a new English dictionary. The Philological society thought it would take upto ten years to complete a four-volume reference work, however, after 5 years they still did not finish the letter “A” and therefore new editors had to join Murray’s team.^[21] After many years “The New English dictionary” was finished in 1928 with 400,000 entries and later in 1933 the dictionary was renamed to “The Oxford English Dictionary” (OED) covering words from the English-speaking countries such as North America, Australia, New Zealand, etc., and became the most comprehensive British reference book.^[22]

2.3 Beginnings of American lexicography

Thanks to British settlers the English language was brought to the North America in the 17th century and by the end 18 century the population increased up to 4 million people who were British and lexicographers wanted to start their own dictionaries, however the first reference works were only sets of words of a poor quality used in schools. By coincidence the first American dictionary called “A school Dictionary” was published by a man whose name was also Samuel Johnson and it contained around 4,100 words.^[23] Nevertheless, the first dictionary that showed some signs of Americanization was called “A selected Pronouncing and Accented Dictionary” published by Samuel Johnson and John Eliott in 1800. The dictionary also included borrowed words from the Indian language e.g. tomahawk, totem, etc. ^[24]

One of the most significant American lexicographers is Noah Webster who is also called the father of American lexicography compiled the most comprehensive American dictionary called “An American Dictionary of the English Language”.^[25] Webster started compiling the dictionary in 1807 and published it in 1828 with 70,000 words. Since Webster was against the British influence and thought that British spelling is unnecessarily complex, he reformed the spelling of words and became an innovator.^[26]

Joseph Worcester who was Johnson’s supporter and followed the British tradition of compiling dictionaries led a war with Noah Webster called “war of dictionaries” and in 1846 published an important work “A Universal and Critical Dictionary of the English Language” which included many new words (neologism). Joseph Worcester was claimed the winner of the war with his dictionary called “A Dictionary of the English language” published in 1860, however, Webster’s dictionary became a model of compiling new American dictionaries.^[27]

William Dwight Whitney was the chief editor of the largest encyclopedic dictionary in the English language called “The Century Dictionary and Cyclopaedia” published in 24 parts between the years 1889 and 1891. The reference work was reformatted in 1911 and it contained over 500,000 entries in 5 double volumes and one extra volume for the Cyclopaedia. The dictionary got a great attention because of its quality of entries, design and illustration and it became a source of information for subsequent dictionary makers. ^[28]

2.4 Lexicology

It is important not to confuse lexicology and lexicography as they are two separate linguistic disciplines, yet closely related to each other. Lexicology is a study of words, units which form words, word-groups, and phrases in respect to their origin, and development, therefore lexicology and lexicography have a common subject “lexicon”.^[29] however lexicography studies lexicon in a different way. Whereas Lexicology studies a word and its unit as a part of the system, in lexicography words are studied individually in respect to their meaning and usage. Lexicology gathers all information about lexicon and analyses it, on the other hand, lexicographer does not have to mention everything in his work, it is his decision what word information is appropriate and important for his dictionary.^[30]

2.5 Dictionaries

“The word “dictionary” comes from the Latin “dictio“ which means „the art of speaking“ and was first mentioned in a Latin manuscript in 1225”.^[31] In the Oxford dictionary the word “dictionary” is described as a “book dealing with the individual words of a language (or certain specified class of them) so as to set forth their orthography, pronunciation, signification and use, their synonyms, derivation and history, or at least some of these facts, for convenience of reference“.^[32] Therefore, the main object of dictionaries is a word. Words belong to a system of signs formed in units and such system is called language.^[32]

There is a large number of dictionaries that vary according to size, from desk-size, through concise, to pocket and smaller with different dimensions, numbers of pages, and coverage.^[33] According to Sterkenburg it is almost impossible to count all types of dictionaries, as there is a countless number of different kind that can be individual focused on different things, different group of people. To state some examples, there are dictionaries such as children’s dictionary, translation dictionaries, retrograde dictionaries, dictionaries of slang, curses and dialects, dictionaries of proper names and dictionaries of synonyms, rhyming dictionaries, technical dictionaries, dictionary of folklore, dictionary of place names, electronic dictionaries, on-line dictionaries and dictionaries on CD-ROM.^[34]

2.6 Use of dictionaries

A dictionary is used as a helpful tool for different types of linguistic information. It can serve to find information related to spelling, to verify the existence of a word, to look up a derivation we are not sure of or a word we have met, however, we are not familiar with and we want to ascertain the word's meaning or to find out word's pronunciation which we have encountered only in writing. Certain dictionaries can help to find the origin of words, different meaning or different register and usage of words. However, dictionaries are not aimed only at language learners, they also help people improve and expand their vocabulary, to learn which words have a different register, whether it is a slang or formal word, etc. ^[35]

2.7 Structure of dictionaries

Dictionaries are not meant to be read as a book, but to look for words that are in need of clarifying. The presentation of text in dictionaries is telegraphic and it is rather a collection of alphabetically ordered data. A dictionary with regard to its structure is divided into two groups, that is, macrostructure and microstructure. ^[36]

2.7.1 Microstructure of dictionaries

From the linguistics' point of view, microstructure is a complex of information within dictionary entries and their demonstration. The microstructure states "how information about the headword is provided and presented, and the appropriateness of the discourse structure of the entry for benefit of the anticipated user"^[37]. It is a merged and dynamic unit, where phonological, graphic, grammatical, semantic, pragmatic, stylistic, textual and inter-lexeme axes/layers. With utilisation of acronyms and highlighted typographical modifications are individual sets of informative data encoded in a fixed order and economically. Among highlighting typographical modifications are for example: interpunctuation, symbols, fonts etc. ^[38]

2.7.2 Entry definition

According to Hartman and James the entry is defined as a "basic reference unit in a dictionary of other reference system such as a library catalogue". ^[39]

As a main type of word description is considered to be a qualitative interpretation or definition. There are some formal restrictions when using metalanguage [odkaz na mon dic] in writing dictionary entries, since definitions and their whole structure must be user-friendly and acceptable for laymen. The dictionary definition must be precise, clear, apt, unambiguous and stylistically refined.^[40]

Structure of dictionary entry usually consist of:

- headword (lemma, form to be looked up)
- Pronunciation
- part of speech category or word class
- semantic specification – senses and reference
- collocations an derivation
- example sentences
- etymological or historical information^[41]

2.7.3 Lexeme, lemma and canonical form

Lexemes can be "simple words (e.g. face), complex words (preface), phrasal and compound words (face up to, face-lift), ‘multi-word expressions’ (fly-by-night, face the music), and shortened forms which can stand by themselves (prefab)."^[42]

Lemma is a particular form of a word that was selected to represent word's canonical form, e.g. a headword in a dictionary. For example the word “run” is stated in a dictionary as a headword, however its inflected forms such as “runs, ran or running” are not necessarily given in a dictionary, it depends on a lexicographer what purpose his dictionary is, therefore, the user searching for an inflected word might not find it in a dictionary.^[43]

The canonical form is "the base form under which several variants of a word or phrase can be cited as a headword" whereas "compilers and users of dictionaries follow standard conventions about which affixes may have to be removed from a word stem to determine the form under which the word can be cited or looked up."^[44]

2.7.4 Spelling

It may occur that a word has more than one correct spelling since some words were borrowed from different languages or respelled from another variety of English and dictionaries can be the source of possible variants and let the user choose what he/she prefers. It also is one of the reasons why dictionary users examine a dictionary. [45]

2.7.5 Pronunciation and Transcription

Pronunciation is the way how a word sounds and it is known that in the English language one word can be pronounced differently, according to the speaker's background, location, education, etc. Words presented in a dictionary normally have transcription of their pronunciation and it is mostly transcribed by mean of The International Phonetic Alphabet which is a graphic alphabet consisting of phonetic symbols representing sounds of how words are pronounced.^[46] Pronunciation is one of the well-known reasons why people studying English as a second language or even native speakers look words up in the dictionary, they may have encountered a word only in a written language and they want to ascertain the word's pronunciation. Pronunciation is normally found next to the headword of entry. ^[47]

2.7.6 Part of speech category

Another part of an entry is the word class of headwords. Words are categorized on the basis of their use and functions into different parts of speech. Nouns represent names for people, things, places, and animal. Adjectives modify and specify the characteristic of nouns or pronouns. Pronouns have a function of replacing nouns in sentences. Verbs express the action (run, cook, study). Adverbs is also a modifier, however they usually states manner, time, place, etc. Prepositions specify place and time. Conjunctions connects clauses, phrases and words together and the function of interjections is to express emotions. (The class is usually represented by its abbreviation, however, a compiler of a dictionary states all the abbreviations used in the guidelines of his work to make sure all the abbreviations can be identified. ^[48]

2.7.7 Types of entries

There are four types of dictionary entry: standard lexical entry, the abbreviation entry, the grammatical word entry and the encyclopaedic entry. They differ by types of lexical items used.

Standard lexical entry is a type of an entry that has its lemma. These types of entry are nouns, adjective, verbs, adverbs and interjections. However, abbreviations can also be treated as a lexical word and these types of abbreviations are called acronyms. [50]

Acronyms and abbreviations are the second type of abbreviation, however, there is a clear distinction between them. Whereas acronym is a type of abbreviation that is pronounced as a lexical word and is treated as one, abbreviation is spelled letter by letter. [51]

Then next type is the grammatical word entry. These words hold syntactic function and can occur in form of auxiliary verbs, conjunctions, determiners, particles, interjections and pronouns. [52]

The last type of dictionary entry to mention in this chapter is the encyclopaedic entry, which is a kind of entry that is known for its expressivity, which is called "multi-word expression". It is more detailed and includes a larger amount of information for a particular item. [53]

2.7.8 Content and range of entries

To establish what number of dictionary entries a dictionary should be consisted of could be a difficult task for the dictionary maker as well as by defining a lexical unit, i.e. limiting the number of words used in a word definition. The negative factor of compiling a written dictionary is limited space. The dictionary maker is responsible for choosing the number of entries and the amount of words to define a word and what the compiler has to consider is who will be the dictionary for, whether for native speaker or for foreign learners. [54]

2.7.9 Ordering of meanings within an entry

In English language as in every language there are words with more than one meaning and this kind of words is called a polysemous word. Definitions are usually

numbered, the first definition is a primary definition and gives an explanation of a lexical unit. According to the size of written dictionaries the compiler is limited regarding the size of dictionary, whereas in the computational lexicography a dictionary maker has no limit in regards of what number of definitions he chooses. However, by selecting definitions for written dictionaries compilers should have in mind whether he makes a learner's dictionary or native speaker dictionary. ^[55]

2.8. Macrostructure

Whereas microstructure is concerned in the content of entries and in what way the content is structured, macrostructure deals with the overall structural organisation and design of dictionaries.

The macrostructure of dictionaries includes:

- Front matter (foreword, publisher's note, list of contributors, user guide and elementary information)
- body (organization of entries)
- end matter (appendices and additional information) come under macrostructure. ^[56]

2.8.1 Front Matter

The first part in the macrostructure of English monolingual dictionaries after which follows the main body consisted of headwords is called the front matter. The structure of information presented in the front and back matter can vary in every dictionary, meaning the position of information given is located in different place of each dictionary, as there is no required structure to follow. It is lexicographer's choice what information is provided in the front and back matter. ^[57]

2.8.1.1 Foreword

It is a part of dictionary where the publisher introduces his publication the reasons for his publication. The front matter can contain information of what the author's intentions are or information important for the reader, such as information about previous version of the publication and what had been changed. ^[58]

2.8.1.2 Publisher's note, list of contributors

Publisher's work is elaborate work requiring vast knowledge and there are logically more lexicographers involved in compiling one publication, however, not as important to be stated as authors. It is a common sense/reasonable that publisher compiling is influenced by other works and ideas of other people, therefore there is part called publisher's note or acknowledgement where he would like to thank to people who influenced his work. ^[59]

2.8.1.3 User guide and elementary information

User guide is a manual aimed at how to properly use a dictionary. It is designed to give the user information about the arrangement of the dictionary, and to help the user find the sought information more easily and without struggle, as without this kind of information searching could become a time-consuming activity, therefore it is important for the user to comprehend the system of the dictionary. ^{60}

Most of dictionaries include the International phonetic alphabet (IPA) in the front matter in order to help the user with pronunciation. These phonetic symbols represent sounds in form of graphic symbols. (appendix)

As it is mentioned in the microstructure part (see Chapter 2.5.1) dictionary entries include a large amount of abbreviations and it is vital for the user to understand them in order to use the dictionary properly. A large amount of abbreviation is due to save space to provide a satisfactory amount information to the reader. ^[61]

2.8.1.4 Arrangement of entries

Headwords "are arranged in some stated order, now in most languages, alphabetical, and in larger dictionaries the information given is illustrated by quotations from literature".^[62] Although there are also word books that are arranged by topic or theme. In contrast to encyclopaedias, whose complex of headwords consists mainly of describing subjects of reality, in dictionary macrostructure the set of headwords consists of all parts of speech (adjectives, prepositions, verbs, pronouns, etc.) ^[63]

2.8.1.5 End matter

The end matter follows after the body of a dictionary and the end matter consists of "personal and place names; weights and measures; military ranks; chemical elements; alphabetic and numerical symbols; musical notation; quotations and proverbs", although, it is completely a dictionary maker's choice, whether parts such as Appendix and phonetic alphabet are included in the front matter or in the end matter. The features such as Bibliography, index and other notes are prone to be stated at the end of the reference work. ^[64]

2.9 Types of dictionaries

Firstly, it is unnecessary to provide information in what way dictionaries are classified and what aspects influence the classification before a dictionary of a particular type is compiled. The complex work of dictionary making from the planning stage to the press copy, from collecting materials, selecting entries, arranging their meaning and providing definitions is governed on the basis of which the dictionary is classified.^[65]

The typology can be established on the basis of various criteria, varying from the nature of the lexical entry to the prospective user of the dictionary. The main criteria according to which dictionaries can be classified by:

- Density of entries: whether the word list is general or restricted and special, such as social dialects jargons and slangs or archaisms
- The number of languages involved: monolingual, bilingual, multilingual etc.
- The nature of entries: whether lexical only or also encyclopaedic,
- Axis of time: whether diachronic or synchronic
- Arrangement of entries: alphabetical, semantic or analogical
- Purpose: whether prescriptive or descriptive
- The prospective user: whether a dictionary is meant for the general reader to search for general linguistic information or it is aimed at special users who would like to know some special aspects of the lexical unit, such as etymology. Whether it is meant for the general language or only for a particular branch of a language, such as language of literature, dialects, slangs, etc.^[66]

Nowadays dictionaries are separated into linguistic and encyclopedic dictionaries. The main difference between encyclopaedic dictionaries and linguistic ones is, whereas encyclopedic dictionaries describes objects, phenomena, people, real world and provides certain information about them, the linguistic dictionaries describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin and their usage.^[67] However, the difference between dictionary and encyclopedia is not always easy to draw, as there are

often elements of one in the other, nevertheless, they do not share the same headword list and they do not provide the same information for the headwords that they do have in common.^[68] One example to compare encyclopedia and dictionary entries for toad:

Toad Any of the more terrestrial warty-skinned members of the tailless amphibians (order Anura). The name commonly refers to members of the genus *Bufo*, family Bufonidae, which are found worldwide, except for the Australian and Polar Regions. Toad may grow up to 25 cm/10in. long. They live in cool, moist places and lay their eggs in water. The eggs are laid not in a mass as with frogs, but in long strings. The common toad *B. bufo* of Europe and Asia has a rough, usually dark-brown skin in which there are glands secreting a poisonous fluid which makes it unattractive as food for other animals; it needs this protection because its usual progress is a slow, ungainly crawl.^[69]

Toad /transcript/ n. 1 Any froglike amphibian of the family Bufonidae esp. Of the genus *Bufo*, breeding in water but living chiefly on land. 2 any of various similar tailless amphibians. 3. A repulsive or detestable person. Toadish adj. [Old English *tadige*, *tadde tada*, of unknown origin. ^[70]

According to Zgusta's classification of dictionaries the linguistic dictionaries are divided into two classes. The first class is regarded only to monolingual dictionaries and the second class to multilingual dictionaries, although, this thesis deals with monolingual dictionaries only. The monolingual dictionaries are divided into synchronic dictionaries and diachronic dictionaries. Diachronic lexicography is concerned in history, development and evolution of English language, synchronic lexicography deals with contemporary lexicon. Diachronic dictionaries have two subclasses, and thus, etymological and historical. Synchronic dictionaries are further divided into general and limited. General dictionaries are divided into comprehensive and standard dictionaries. To specialized dictionaries belong dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, collocations, word-frequency, neologisms, slang, pronouncing, etymological, phraseological, and others. ^[71]

2.10 Monolingual dictionaries

The description of Lexems (see Chapter 2.7.3) in monolingual dictionaries should always be linguistic, i.e. it should not have characteristics of encyclopaedic dictionaries, no terminology, direct and structured (i.e. based on semantic analysis) and it should use widespread means. Lexicographer compiling a monolingual dictionary faces to a very difficult task: to clarify a meaning of lexical units of a given language through the use of the same instruments and lexical units of the same language. The situation of a lexicographer may be compared to a painter, who should explain his creative purpose of a particular painting through another painting.^[72]

2.11 General dictionaries

Monolingual general dictionary is a base and also a generalization of existing specialized dictionaries. It is the elementary type of dictionary and it is based on lexical material of contemporary language and serves as an instrument of metalanguage (use of a language to describe itself).^[73] It follows its intersubjective form, as communication assumes similarity. Lexicon is the material of monolingual dictionaries. It is about describing and interpreting a particular object. These dictionaries fulfil different functions such as scientific, national, cultural, and of course normative.

Dictionary compiling should be based on these relevant grounds:

- Lexical material – should fulfil requirement of time, space, society etc. Considering the time aspect of materials it is necessary to take into account generational layers of language. It is also important to grade obsolescent, outdated and obsolete words on the bases of prognosis and evolutionary tendency. However, contemporary language as a dynamically conceived material cannot be understood as material of eighties and nineties. To determine criteria of selecting headwords it is necessary to separate standard, slang and normative units of the language.
- Collective of lexicographers – since on the dictionary quality is being put more emphasis, it is obvious that dictionary will never be work of an individual. However it could result in problems in the form of organization, different opinions and teamwork as a unit. It is impossible to estimate the right number of

participants on compiling dictionary, nevertheless, the number should be higher in order to be able to publish a dictionary of more volumes as one unit within a particular period of time. Although, there are more participants compiling one dictionary, the form of dictionary-processing should be unified. It can be assumed that this problem can be eliminated with exploitation of computer.

- Lexicographer's personality – should show thorough linguistic knowledge and have a sense for language material and its layers. Lexicographer's compiling method, whose aim is to broadly and objectively evaluate language subunits and their relations and during which a lexicographer must include necessary and useful language information in a way they are easily found.
- User of dictionary – is an individual with an interest in broadening and improving language knowledge. The user can be either a linguist, non-linguist, native-speaker, or foreigner. Therefore, a dictionary should be an all-purpose handbook, in which all users find all required information. There are factors that influence the user's intention to buy a dictionary. The first factor is the content and its range, the second one is a size of a dictionary, i. e. whether a dictionary consists of more volumes or it is a one big dictionary due to the requirement of quick and convenient manipulation with a dictionary.
- Type of dictionaries – the right choice of a dictionary and specifying its purpose is an assumption of successful work on a dictionary. In a simple way dictionaries can be divided into three types: small, medium-sized and big. On the basis of relation and extent of macrostructure and microstructure lexicon can be divided into complex, fundamental, common, active and passive vocabulary. There is an actual requirement of common lexicon, i. e. commonly used words in a particular national society.⁽⁷⁴⁾

As mentioned above monolingual dictionaries are further divided into two groups:

- Diachronic monolingual dictionaries
- Synchronic monolingual dictionaries

2.12 Diachronic dictionaries

„In general, diachronic dictionaries provide information on the historical development or origin of the recorded words.“ [75] They are both concerned in respect to form and to meaning. As mentioned above, according to Zgusta, the diachronic dictionaries are divided into historical dictionaries and etymological dictionaries, which are described further in this chapter, nevertheless, some dictionaries include aspects of etymological dictionary as well as aspects of historical dictionary. [76]

2.12.1 Historical dictionaries

Historical dictionary is considered to be a reference work that concentrate on how words change their meaning and their form over a period of time for which there are files supported by evidence. Another feature of historical dictionaries is that they include new words which were derived from original words. [77]

2.12.2 Etymology

Before etymological dictionaries will be described, there is a need to introduce Etymology itself, which is next discipline of diachronic lexicography. It is a study of a word origin, its formation and development and tries to go further back in time than historical lexicography, where language is not captured in history, i.e. etymology deals with prehistory of language. Historical dictionary comes quite handy while working with texts from various periods of time. [78]

2.12.3 History of etymology

Etymology is one of the oldest linguistic discipline. Its beginnings can be found by old Greeks and Indu with the same intention: to categorize words into particular lexical family in order to find out its semantic motivation why things were given its/their names, since they believe that clarification the origin meaning of words will lead them to the reason of the naming phenomenon. [79]

2.12.4 Origin of words

In every language there are words of different age. Some words can either go back thousands of years and are represented in many of the Indo-European languages,

or as well as only a few years. The older the word is the harder it is to track its origin.

[80]

2.12.5 Loanwords

Loanwords are lexical borrowings from different language. The words are exported from one language to English. There are words that were borrowed either without an orthographical change (orthography= spelling), e. g. the french word ‘toast’, or with an orthographical change, e.g. the word ‘tunneling’ from the Czech language.

[81]

2.12.6 Etymological dictionaries

Whereas historical dictionaries focuses on the words for which there is a historical evidence, etymological dictionaries deals with “the pre-history of the words“ which appeared “before the beginning of the textual tradition“.^[82] Furthermore, etymological dictionaries are concerned more with the form of words than the of words. The etymology of words can be found through the research of languages of the same language family, which are Germanic languages such as France, German, Dutch, etc.^[83] “Prototypical forms are hypothetical word form, i.e. word form who existence cannot be directly proved by textual evidence“, however, “some etymological dictionaries overlap with historical dictionaries in that they also include new derivations and compositions derived diachronically from the relevant word.“^[84] Etymological dictionaries are further divided into general and limited dictionaries, depending on the amount of lexicon. The general etymological dictionary provides learners with the core lexicon of a particular language, whereas the limited etymological dictionary presents a smaller amount of vocabulary of a particular according to its topic, e.g. words of a specific dialect or a terminology of a particular field.^[85]

2.13 Synchronic dictionaries

The aim of synchronic dictionaries is to provide users with thoroughgoing information on the present vocabulary, however, some synchronic dictionaries often include etymological data. Such dictionaries also provide complete grammatical

information of words. ^[86] According to Jackson distinguished according to their size, however, it is also the number of entries that matters by their differentiation:

- The Unabridged dictionary – the most comprehensive dictionary that has not been reduced in size by omission of terms or definitions. It includes rich definitions,
- The desk dictionary – represents the standard vocabulary of a language
- The college dictionary – such dictionaries are intended for college students, it contains more entries connected with education and college terminology.
- Pocket dictionary – is a small portable dictionary as it contains a reduced lexicon.^[87]

Furthermore, synchronic dictionaries are subdivided into advanced and learner's dictionaries. Whereas, the advanced/comprehensive dictionary is a complex unit of language data, learner's dictionary provides shorter definition in a clear and simple language, as it is intended for non-native speakers who have some knowledge of a language. Furthermore, learner's dictionary does not include as many entries as the advanced dictionary.^[88]

2.14 Thesaurus dictionaries

Thesaurus is a type of dictionary considered to be a helpful tool for either native speakers or language learners who would like to expand and enrich their vocabulary in a particular language. Its aim is to provide learners a wide variety of information about language and the core vocabulary of a language.^[89]

Thesaurus provides synonyms which are words of the same or similar meaning. It helps language learners express themselves in more precise and interesting ways and enable them to distinguish between a different register and therefore users will learn which words can be used in a particular situation.^[90]

3 Practical part

The first aim of the practical part is to undertake analysis of American and British lexicography and state differences in compiling dictionaries in America and Britain, and for this purpose two well-known publishers were selected, The Merriam-Webster publisher being the American press, and the Oxford University Press being the British press.

The second aim of the practical part is to analyse and compare three printed thesauruses from a macrostructure and microstructure's perspective. The analysis compares their form, number of entries, features used in their entries, differences in the layout. The thesauruses were selected according to their availability in libraries. In order to make the analysis and comparison of dictionaries explanatory as well as comparable, there is a table at the end of the practical part giving dictionaries' data and photos and dictionaries can be found in the appendix

3.1 Differences of compiling American and British dictionary

For the comparison of compiling dictionaries in American and British lexicography are selected the two most well-known publishers of dictionaries, that is, The Merriam-Webster publisher being the American press, and on the other side the Oxford University Press being the British press.

First of all it is important to mention that this research is not based on to proclaim which dictionary is better than the other, since It is a matter of personal preference, when learners want to learn standard American English, they would want to use the Merriam-Webster Dictionaries (MWD) or it would be the right selection, on the other hand when somebody wants to learn Standard British English they would choose the Oxford English Dictionaries (OED).

3.1.1 Inclusion of words in a dictionary

Before a word is included in a dictionary lexicographers examine words people use. The process starts by reading and studying published materials such as books, newspapers, magazines, website and blogs looking for words and their real evidence in

use. They do not search only for new words but also for new usage and meaning of existing words, different spellings and anything that is important for the lexicographer to decide where a word belongs in a dictionary. Webster's lexicographers call this "reading and marking", when such words are found they are marked and stored with information about their usage and context.

Kory Stamper, current editor and lexicographer of MWD states three criteria that all words must meet in order to be included in the dictionary, and that is:

- Widespread usage – meaning a word must be used in a variety of different sources, not just by one person, otherwise it would not be considered as a candidate for inclusion in a dictionary. On the same principle is based the word selection by Oxford's lexicographers.
- Sustained usage – means that a word must be used over a period of time. The editor Stamper does not mention the approximate period of time, however, Oxford's lexicographers state that they consider including the word when it has been used over period of two or three years. Moreover, Webster will not include modern words that are used only for a period of time and are rather to fade out.
- Meaningful usage – means that a word has its meaning which is currently used.

The last criterion differs with the criterion of the OED, which is described further in next section.

3.1.2 Exclusion of words in a dictionary

Words in MWD are selected on the basis of actual evidence of usage that means when a word falls out of its meaningful usage and become obsolete, it is removed from the dictionary. Or when a word does not meet the three criteria anymore, it is taken out of the dictionary. OED works on a different principle, even if a word fall out of its use,

become obsolete or it is no longer used, Oxford's lexicographer will not remove such words from OED. Moreover, the OED would state a word origin or etymological information of a word. The entries are ordered chronologically, that is, the first meaning stated is the earliest meaning found, and therefore the OED is more comprehensive and contains more information than the MWD. This aspect is considered to be one of the main differences between American and English dictionary.

3.1.3 Spelling, pronunciation and lexicographers

The English language was brought to America by British settlers and over the years the British dialect in America changed along with spelling of particular words and became the American dialect. MWD as the American dictionary states the American spelling first and then the British spelling, whereas the OED states the American spelling after the British spelling.

British English words that end in *-re* end in *-er* in American English:

- centre – center
- litre – liter
- theatre – theater

British English words that end in *our* end in *-or* in American English:

- colour – color
- flavour – flavor
- humour – humor

British English verbs that end in *-yse* are spelled *-yze* in American English:

- analyse – analyze
- paralyse – paralyze

In British English when a verb ends with a vowel and *l*, the *l* is doubled when endings that begins with a vowel. In American English there is no doubling:

- travelled – traveled

- traveller – traveller
- fuelled – fuelled

In British English words ending with –ence are spelled –ense in American English:

- defence – defense
- licence – license
- offence – offense

British English words that end in –ogue are spelled either –og or –ogue:

- catalogue – catalog or catalogue
- analogue – analog or analogue

And the same situation is by pronunciation of words, to transcribe a there are variable sets of symbols. Both dictionaries use a different transcription to state a word pronunciation, the MWD uses transcript symbols similar to the IISCA transcription, whereas the OED uses the International Phonetic Alphabet. (see Appendix, Figure1) MWD offers the American pronunciation while OED the British is more likely to offer both pronunciations.

When collecting possible candidates for a dictionary entry MWD uses more in-house lexicographers for their entry, whereas OED outsource their lexicographical work from different sources, they even ask people to send them words they have encountered with and think they are worthy to be included in a dictionary.

3.2 Analysis of thesauruses

This section analyses the selected printed thesauruses and compares their features from the lexicographical perspective, that is, the amount of content, parts of thesaurus entries, etc.

3.3 The selected thesauruses

This section states the thesauruses selected for the analysis and provides basic information such as the name of the publisher and the year they were released.

The first thesaurus is the Compact Oxford Dictionary Thesaurus & Wordpower Guide 2nd edition (hereandafter only as CODT) was published by Oxford University Press in 2006. The second dictionary is the Oxford Learner's Thesaurus 1st edition (hereandafter only as OLT) was published by Oxford University Press in 2008. And the third dictionary is the Logman Synonym dictionary (hereandafter only as LSD) was published by Longman Group Limited in 1986.

All of the thesauruses are considered to be desk dictionaries, however each thesaurus is of a different type. CODT is a combination of a dictionary and thesaurus for intermediate learners, OLT is a thesaurus aimed at intermediate learners and LSD is a thesaurus aimed learners with upper-intermediate to advanced level of English.

3.4 Macrostructure

This section compares parts of thesauruses' macrostructure. As it is stated in chapter 1.8 the macrostructure is divided into the front matter, main body, and end matter the comparison.

The macrostructure of OLT includes Table of contents, Guide to Thesaurus entries, Preface, Introduction and Thesaurus Trainer, Thesaurus, Thesaurus Trainer, Study pages, Topic maps, exercises, Topic index, Key to Thesaurus Trainer and exercises which are described further in this section. CODT is consisted of introduction, Table of contents, Guide to the dictionary, Labels, Pronunciation, Thesaurus and Wordpower guide. The front matter of LSD includes Introduction and Guide – How to use the dictionary.

3.4.1 Introduction

The introduction is included in all three thesauruses, however, different information is stated in each thesaurus. The introduction of OLT explains what thesaurus is and gives further reasons for its use, information of how to work with the thesaurus and addresses users to the Thesaurus Trainer, which is described further in the macrostructure section. The introduction of CODT states for whom the thesaurus is, what it consists of about provides brief information about the macrostructure, the number of entries and where the content of CODT was adapted from. The introduction of LSD points out differences that can be found by synonyms and states a few examples. One curious note in the introduction is that when someone using the thesaurus feels something is not right in it, they are more than welcome to write the editor.

3.4.2 Guides

In each dictionary there is a component that give the user the conception of how to use the thesaurus. It usually indicates all the features that the headword consist of. OLT the Guide to Thesaurus entries is stated on the back side of the front cover to save as much space as possible. CODT's guide shows the structure of dictionary and thesaurus entries separately. As OLT and CODT are reference works of Oxford they are quite similar in regards to the layout, however some features are different and they are described in the microstructure section. Unlike CODT and OLT LSD has only a written guide consisting of a few paragraphs that explain features and.

3.4.3 Labels

Register labels help user to identify in which situation a particular word is used appropriately. For example whether a word is informal or formal, offensive, literary, technical or humorous. It states geographical labels in abbreviated forms whether a word comes from or is used in Australian English or British English. Subject labels or field labels that indicates if a subject is connected to a particular field such as Medicine, Cricket, Music, etc. CODT, OLT and LSD all include labels, however LSD includes more labels such as Metaphysics, Ornithology, Theology, etc. OLT has one more feature to offer and that is a grammar usage label that indicates whether an adjective stands only or usually before a noun, etc.

LSD and OLT have list of labels and their abbreviations in the end matter. LSD states the abbreviations and then the full words, whereas CODT and OLT gives a full explanation of labels used. CODT has no abbreviation of labels apart from the geographical one and OLT uses abbreviation for the grammar labels only.

3.4.4 Pronunciation and transcription

The last page in OLT is dedicated to pronunciation and phonetic symbols. The pronunciation is given for more difficult words in phonetic symbols of IPA (International phonetic alphabet), therefore, it states symbols for vowels and consonants separately and gives examples of a particular pronunciation with generally known

words (such as pet, sit, ten, put, etc.) followed by their complete transcription (see Appendix, Figure 1). The pronunciation of words is easily accessible on the CD-ROM of OLT. CODT also states pronunciation only for more difficult words, however it does not use IPA. CODT lists vowels and consonants together as symbols of right pronunciation with example words (see Appendix, figure 2). LSD as a thesaurus for advanced learners does not include pronunciation.

3.4.5 Main body

In all thesauruses entries are ordered alphabetically. In CODT the top section consists of dictionary entries (headword and its definition), whereas the lower section of pages offer matching thesaurus entries for a large number of words. The top section is derived from the 3rd edition of the Colour Oxford Thesaurus and the thesaurus section is derived from 3rd edition of the Colour Oxford Thesaurus. Even though, its name is Compact Oxford Dictionary Thesaurus it is a middle-sized dictionary and consists of around 7,000 entries in the thesaurus part.

In OLT the headword is the most frequent word in each synonym group, that means if we were to look for the word "humorous" we would not find it among headwords, however, we would have to refer to the alphabetical index (described in Additional features) and look for the word there. The main body also includes a number of pictures to a particular group of synonyms (see Appendix, Figure 3). OLT provides approximately 17,000 synonyms and opposites, however it does not state how many headwords. LSD provides approximately 17,000 headwords with an average of 60 alternatives, which makes it the most comprehensive thesaurus from the selection. All three thesauruses has a two-column layout.

3.4.6 Additional components

One of the component of OLT is the Thesaurus Trainer which is a quite important part of this dictionary. It explains how the thesaurus works and provides information how to find the right entry since the headwords are consisted only of the most frequent words. It also offers exercises to try looking up a particular word, phrasal verb, register, idiom, patterns, collocations etc.

The second component is Alphabetical Index which includes all synonym in the thesaurus. How to look for the right entry the learner is referred to the thesaurus trainer. Since some words have more than one meaning, the index entry lists thesaurus entries which show the usage of the word. For example the verb “fix” the index gives six entries with examples of their meaning:

- Attach (fix the shelf to the wall)
- Cook (fix somebody a drink)
- Correct (fix a problem)
- Distort (fix a race or a match)
- Repair (fix the TV)
- Schedule (fix a date)

In case a word has more than one definition, there is a number by the index entry which refers the learner to the definition that is meant.

The third component is the Study section that is divided into 3 parts. Study pages, Topic maps and exercises and Answer key.

Study pages, which are full of exercises such as reading and filling gaps, choosing the appropriate synonym, finding pairs of synonyms, which forces the learner to work with the thesaurus. It also helps learners to improve their vocabulary, to express themselves in a different way. There are topics such as art and entertainment, work and jobs, travel and tourism. (see Appendix, Figure 4)

Furthermore, the study section includes pages with a vocabulary of a particular topic and exercises to it called Topic maps and exercises. The left pages list a vocabulary of a topic and the right page offers exercises to the vocabulary that are consisted of testing your topic vocabulary, matching synonyms, collocation matching and choosing the best word. There are topics such as health, education, sport and leisure, the media, etc. (see Appendix, Figure 5).

Next part of the end matter is the topic index that helps learners to find words under a particular topic or if learners want to see a vocabulary of a particular topic, this could be a really helpful tool since there are topics such as law and justice, the arts, fact and

opinion, politics, science and technology, etc. The topic is consisted of nouns, adjectives and verbs. If we examine the topic “law and justice” we would find words such as accomplice, bribe, cheat, compensation, guilty, legal, witness, etc.

CODT provides the Wordpower guide which is a guide helping users to find a word that is on the tip of one’s tongue, learn about commonly confused words, common spelling errors which could be really helpful for English learners as well as for native speakers. It also contains foreign words and phrases, word links, collective names for animal and birds (a herd of cattle, a skulk of foxes, a kit of pigeon, etc.) chemical elements and symbols, collectors and enthusiasts, e.g. someone who likes heavy metal music is called a headbanger, and someone who collects beer mats is a tegestologist.

- Word links – This section consists of headwords of different subject areas and offers word that are subordinate to the headwords. (see Appendix, Figure 6)
- Commonly confused words – Helpful tool for learner since there is a quite large amount of homophones (words that have the same pronunciation but the spelling is different). (see Appendix, Figure 7)
- Common spelling errors – This section in CODT helps learners to identify the words that are often spelled wrongly, words such as cappuccino, amateur, deceive, Portuguese, etc.
- Foreign words and phrases – This section offers a selection of foreign words and phrases. As it is known English language has derived a large amount of words during its existence that are commonly used, such as toast, bacon or salad from Old French but these words are no longer considered foreign for an English user, however there are words and phrases that still have a “foreign flavour”. Readers may encounter with these words in books or newspapers. They are usually written in italics. This section offers a selection of foreign words and phrases. For example words such as *ab initio* (means from the beginning), *ad hoc* (made or done for a particular purpose), etc.

LSD does not have any additional components.

3.5 Microstructure

3.5.1 Headword and non-canonical form

All three thesauruses are consisted of headwords in their canonical form which is the common form of the headword, however in some cases it is possible that the non-canonical form is also presented, e.g. ‘took’, ‘swimming’, ‘eaten’, etc. Sometimes, it can happen that a learner is looking for a word in a non-canonical form without knowing it. The aim of this chapter is to examine the thesauruses whether they include non-canonical forms or not.

3.5.1.1 Nouns

The result of the examination is that the only thesaurus that presents non-canonical forms of nouns (plural form) is CODT and it is stated in its dictionary, however, the non-canonical form is not presented as a headword but after the grammatical information and it is not by each dictionary entry. The non-canonical form is only presented by the nouns that end with ‘y’.

3.5.1.2 Adjectives

For the purpose of the search the author considers the non-canonical form ‘better’, which the comparative of the adjective ‘good’.

The non-canonical form was found in the dictionary part and thesaurus part of CODT and in LSD, however there is no presence of non-canonical adjectives in OLT.

Table 1

CODT	better	Superior, finer, of higher quality, preferable
LSD	better	Superior, of a higher grade, preferable, more desirable, more acceptable; excelling, surpassing, exceeding, transcendent

Table 1 presents alternatives for the word ‘better’. It is necessary to mention that the table presents only the first sense stated in the thesauruses and the grammatical features are omitted.

3.5.3 Verbs

For the purpose of the search the author considers the non-canonical form ‘ate’, which the past tense form of the word ‘eat’.

After the search it was found that only LSD and CODT includes the past form of verbs. OLT does not include past tense form among headwords, however it presents a list of irregular verbs at the end.

3.6 Comparison of headwords and their synonyms

This chapter focuses on the synonym alternatives presented in each dictionary. The method of comparing is based on selecting a word and comparing the amount of given alternatives.

Table 2 presents synonyms of the word ‘misunderstand’ in the selected dictionaries.

Table 2

CODT	misunderstand	Misinterpret, misconstrue, misconceive, mistake, misread, be mistaken, get the wrong idea, get (hold of) the wrong end of the stick
OLT	misunderstand	Misinterpret, get something wrong, get somebody wrong, mistake, misread, misjudge
LSD	misunderstand	Misapprehend, misread, misconstrue, misconceive, misinterpret, misjudge, miscalculate, miscount, misreckon, read it wrong, get it all wring, get the wrong idea, get a false impression, miss the point, see though a glass darkly.

It is clear from the table that LSD offers the most alternatives for the selected word, while the OLT the least alternatives, however, for this search was chosen only the

part in OLT that presents alternatives together without any other additional information. Further analysis of thesaurus entries is presented in the next section.

3.7 Comparison of entries' features

3.7.1 Transcription

As mentioned in ... the transcription is provided by more difficult words in CODT and OLT. Whereas CODT transcribes the word pronunciation with sets of letters. OLT uses the International Phonetic Alphabet. LSD does not use any means for transcription.

3.7.2 Part of speech

Part of speech follows after the headword in each of the selected thesauruses, however, CODT is the only thesaurus that does not use abbreviation and does not state, whether a noun is countable or uncountable or whether a verb is transitive or intransitive. On the other hand OLT is the only thesaurus that uses grammar usage labels which helps to understand the usage of adjectives with nouns.

3.7.3 Non-canonical word forms

Entries in CODT include non-canonical forms of different parts of speech. As mentioned (non-canonical form) CODT states non-canonical forms of nouns, however non-canonical forms for verbs and adjectives are also stated. By the verb it offers the forms of the third person in present simple, past simple and past participle. By the adjectives it provides the comparative and superlative form. LSD provides no such information.

3.7.4 Synonym group

In each thesaurus the synonyms are ordered by frequency or according to the closeness of meaning to the headword. CODT also writes the closest alternative to the headword in a blue colour (see Appendix, Figure 8). OLT uses a synonym scale that shows the group of alternatives from the weakest to the strongest. (see Appendix, Figure 9).

3.7.5 Definition of headwords

LSD does not list any definition of headwords, only alternatives to the headword, whereas OLT offers a general definition for the synonym group and gives a clear definition to the individual alternatives with sentence examples (see Appendix, Figure 10). CODT offers definitions of the word in the dictionary section where it states alternatives with a brief definition or a sentence in the thesaurus dictionary. (see Appendix, Figure 11), however it does not include definitions by the thesaurus entries.

3.7.6 Antonyms, Collocation and Notes

The CODT and the OLT offer antonyms for headwords if possible (see Appendix, Figure 12). LSD does not offer this kind of feature.

Collocations are usually fixed groups of two or more words that often occur together. The CODT includes collocations and phrases, however the number of collocations is highest by the OLT (see Appendix, Figure 13).

The OLT offers a usage note that compares two or three words from the group to help the user to understand the differences between the usage of the words (see Appendix, Figure 14).

Table 2

	Number of entries	Synonyms	IPA	Index	Pictures	List of irregular verbs	Examples
CODT	7,000	unspecified	no	no	no	no	yes
OLT	17,000	unspecified	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
LSD	17,000	over 1,000,000	no	no	no	no	no

Table 3

Continuation of the table 2

	Topic index	Alphabetical index	Antonyms	Collocation	Derivatives	Definition
CODT	no	no	yes	yes	yes	no
OLT	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
LSD	no	no	no	no	yes	no

According to the table 1 and 2 the OLT has the largest number of features of the selected thesauruses. The OLT is the only one that offers transcription in IPA, pictures, list of irregular verbs, topic index, alphabetical index, collocation, and definitions of synonyms. And the least number of features has the LSD, however it includes the largest number of alternatives per headword which makes it the most comprehensive thesaurus. OLT

3.8. Results

The comparison of user guides shows that the CODT and the OLT have equally sophisticated user guides. On the other hand LSD has the least explanatory user guide. The comparison of Labels indicates that the largest amount of labels have the LSD. The results of the comparison of pronunciation and transcription is that the only thesaurus the uses IPA is OLT. LSD does not use any phonetic transcription. The comparison of the main body's layout of the selected thesauruses indicates that the CODT has the most elaborate layout, where the top section is used for dictionary entries and the bottom part is used for thesaurus entries. The result of comparison of thesauruses' additional components is that CODT has the most features. In regards to comprehensibility the OLT thanks to its Alphabetical index and Thesaurus trainer is the most elaborate Thesaurus from the selected with regards to the amount of time studying to know how to work with it, however it would be the best tool for learning since there are study pages to learn vocabulary of different fields. On the other side LSD is the simplest.

The next part of analysis compares the number of entries. The result of comparison of the amount of headwords and their synonyms is that OLT and LSD offer approximately the same number of headwords which is 17,000. The comparison of the number of alternatives to the headwords indicates that the LSD offers the largest number of alternatives. The lowest number has the CODT.

The last part of analysis points out the components of microstructure and extra features. The comparison of non-canonical forms indicates that the CODT includes non-canonical forms of nouns, adjectives and verb, whereas the LSD includes only adjectives and verbs. OLT does not include any non-canonical forms. The analysis of the thesauruses' microstructure shows that the OLT. The comparison of antonyms states that only the OLT and the CODT includes antonyms and collocations, however the number of collocations by the OLT is larger than by the CODT.

4 Conclusion

After the analysis it was discovered that between American and British lexicography is a number of differences, however, it does not make the other better. It is a person's choice, whether he/she wants to follow American English or British English, since the differences are in pronunciation and spelling, however, there is one significant aspect in compiling a dictionary which I consider significant is that the MWD remove words when they become obsolete and that would never happen by OED.

The comparison of thesauruses was a complicated process at the beginning and involved a thorough analysis, fortunately, I came to conclusion that all thesauruses have something special about them. The CODT and its powerguide is a powerful tool to improve one's knowledge, the LSD and its countless alternatives to synonyms provide a large number of possibilities and with his amount of synonyms easily surpass the new thesauruses, however I consider the OLT the best choice for intermediate and upper-mediate learners, since it has a definition by every synonym with a note about their contrast and nuance, it provides collocation, antonyms and study pages.

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Abstract

This work presents a typology of dictionaries in traditional English lexicography, comparison of American and British lexicography and comparison of different types of thesaurus. The theoretical part is dedicated to the linguistic discipline 'lexicography' describing its divisions and purpose along with its history. This thesis describes detailed microstructure and macrostructure of a dictionary, provides information according to which criteria dictionaries are classified and according to which criteria dictionaries shall be compiled. Furthermore, it states what kind of dictionaries in English lexicography there are and presents their description and purpose.

The aim of the practical part is firstly to analyse American and British lexicography and state differences in compiling dictionaries in American and British lexicography, and for this purpose two well-known publishers were selected and compared. Secondly, the practical part compares three different types of thesauruses by means of analysis their microstructure and macrostructure. The conclusion is that old thesauruses cannot be considered useless and outdated and the differences in compiling dictionaries in American and British lexicography are not that significant apart from a number of exceptions it cannot be said which is better as each represent different English, therefore it is a person's choice whether he/she chooses American or British dictionary.

Keywords: Lexicography, Traditional lexicography, Typology of dictionaries, Macrostructure, Microstructure, Thesauruses.

Resumé

Tato práce uvádí typologii slovníku v tradiční anglické lexikografii, porovnání americké a britské lexikografie a různých typů thesaurů. Teoretická část je věnovaná lingvistické disciplíně 'lexikografii', která popisuje její rozdělení, účel a historii. Práce popisuje mikrostrukturu a makrostrukturu slovníku, poskytuje informace o kritériích, dle kterých jsou slovníky klasifikovány a dle kterých by slovníky měli být sestavovány. Dále tato práce uvádí, jaké druhy slovníků existují v tradiční lexikografii, uvádí jejich popis a účel.

Cílem praktické části bylo nejprve porovnat a uvést rozdíly mezi americkou a britskou lexikografií a za tímto účelem byly vybrány a porovnány dvě známé nakladatelství. Dále praktická část porovnává tři typy thesaurů prostřednictvím analýzy jejich mikrostruktury a makrostruktury.

V závěru práce vyplývá, že nelze považovat zastaralé thesaury jako nepoužitelné, a že rozdíly v sestavování slovníků v anglické a americké lexikografii nejsou, až na pár výjimek markantní a nelze tvrdit, že jeden je lepší než ten druhý, jelikož záleží na preferenci potencionálního uživatele, jestli se chce učit americkou nebo britskou angličtinu.

Klíčová slova: Lexikografie, Tradiční lexikografie, Typologie slovníků, Makrostruktura, mikrostruktura, Thesaury

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Appendices

Figure 1 - The international phonetic alphabet of OLT

ɜ:	fur	/fɜ:(r)/
ə	about	/ə'baʊt/
eɪ	say	/seɪ/
əʊ	go	/gəʊ/
oʊ	go	/goʊ/

Figure 2 - Phonetic symbols in CODT

Vowels	Examples
oy	as in boy
u	as in cup
uh	as in along
uu	as in book
y	as in cry
yoo	as in unit
yoor	as in Europe
yr	as in fire

Figure 3 - Synonyms of the word 'curve' in pictures in OLT

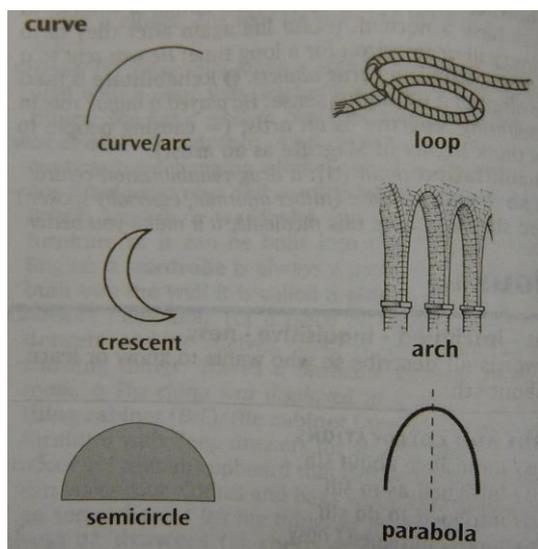


Figure 4 - Example of the study pages in OLT

A Read the text below and do the exercise that follows.

Enter our competition and you could WIN a fantastic treat for your WHOLE FAMILY!

Is there someone in your family who is extra ¹ _____? Someone who is always there for you or other people? Perhaps someone who has ² _____ you through a difficult time in your life or has come through ³ _____ times themselves?

We are ⁴ _____ a competition to find a family member who is 'simply the best'. It could be anyone in your family – a parent, a grandparent, a cousin or a sibling. If you would like to ⁵ _____ a ⁶ _____ for this ⁷ _____, write and tell us what makes them so special. What do you ⁸ _____ about them and how have they ⁹ _____ your life?

Send us your competition entry by the closing date, when our ¹⁰ _____ of ¹¹ _____ will choose one lucky winner and two ¹² _____. The ¹³ _____ family will be treated to an all-¹⁴ _____-paid outing for the whole family.

Figure 5 - A part of study pages of OLT

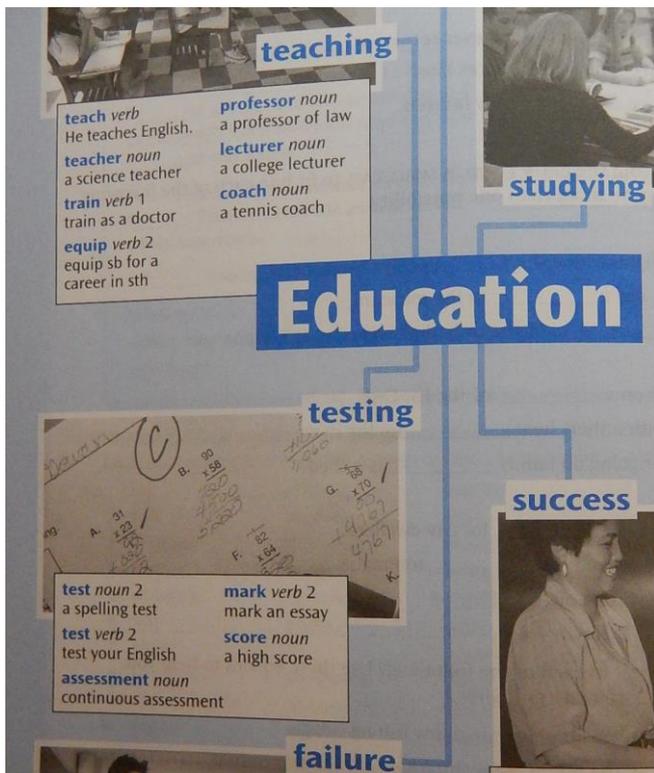


Figure 6 - Word links in CODT

religion denomination (*recognized branch of a Church or religion*), divinity, theology (*study of religion*), fundamentalism (*strict following of the doctrines of a religion*), heresy (*belief which goes against traditional teachings*), scripture (*sacred writings of a religion*); proselytize (*convert someone from one religion to another*); major religions: Baha'i, Buddhism, Christianity, Hinduism, Islam, Jainism, Judaism, Shinto, Sikhism, Zoroastrianism.

Figure 7- Commonly confused words from CODT

Word 1	Meaning	Word 2	Meaning
chord	a group of musical notes	cord	a length of string; a cord-like body part
climactic	forming a climax	climatic	relating to climate
coarse	rough	course	a direction; one of the stages of a meal; a series of lectures or lessons

Figure 8 - the closest synonym in blue in CODT

general adjective **1** *suitable for general use:*
widespread, common, extensive, universal,
 wide, popular, public, mainstream. **2 a**

Figure 9 - Synonym scale in OLT

plump stout fat obese
 chubby overweight

Figure 10 - Individual definition of synonyms in OLT

cool *adj.*

cool • brazen • shameless • presumptuous • unabashed • unashamed
 These words describe sb who is very confident or feels no embarrassment, often in a way that does not show respect or that other people find shocking.

PATTERNS AND COLLOCATIONS
 ▶ brazen / presumptuous of sb
 ▶ a brazen / shameless **display**
 ▶ in a shameless / presumptuous **way**
 ▶ unabashed / unashamed **luxury**

cool (*rather informal*) calm and confident in a way that lacks respect for other people, but makes people admire you as well as disapprove: (BrE) *She just took his keys and walked out with them, cool as you please.*

brazen /'breɪzn/ (*disapproving*) open and not feeling ashamed, usually about sth that people find shocking: *She's known for her own brand of brazen sexuality.* ◇ *I can't believe anyone would be so brazen about something like that.*
 ▶ **brazenly** *adv.*: *She brazenly admitted cheating.*

shameless (*disapproving*) feeling or showing no shame about sth, although other people think you should: *It was a shameless display of greed.* **OPP** **ashamed** → SORRY, See also **shame** → GUILT

Figure 11 - 3rd definition of the word 'cool' in CODT

3 *David seemed distinctly cool:* **unfriendly**, distant, remote, aloof, cold, chilly, frosty, unwelcoming; informal stand-offish. **4** *his ability to keep cool in a crisis:* **calm**,

Figure 12 - Definition of 'dress' plus the antonym in CODT

dress verb **1** *he dressed quickly*: **put on clothes**, clothe yourself, get dressed. **2** *she was dressed in a suit*: **clothe**, attire, deck out; informal get up. **3** *she enjoyed dressing the tree*: **decorate**, trim, adorn, arrange, prepare. **4** *they dressed his wounds*: **bandage**, cover, bind, wrap.
OPPOSITES undress.

Figure 13 - Collocations with 'misunderstand' in OLT

misunderstand verb

misunderstand • **misinterpret** • **get sth wrong** • **get sb wrong** • **mistake** • **misread** • **misjudge**
These words all mean to not understand sb/sth correctly.

PATTERNS AND COLLOCATIONS

- ▶ to misunderstand / misinterpret / mistake / misread sth as sth
- ▶ to misunderstand / misinterpret / mistake / misjudge **what...**
- ▶ to misunderstand / misinterpret / mistake sb's **meaning / intentions**
- ▶ to misunderstand / misinterpret / misread / misjudge a **situation**
- ▶ to get a **situation** wrong
- ▶ to **badly** misunderstand / mistake / misread / misjudge sb / sth
- ▶ to **seriously** misunderstand / mistake / misread / misjudge sb / sth
- ▶ to **completely** misunderstand / misinterpret / mistake / misread / misjudge sb / sth
- ▶ to **totally** misunderstand / mistake / misread sb / sth
- ▶ to get sb / sth **badly / seriously / totally / completely** wrong
- ▶ to **deliberately** misunderstand / misinterpret sb / sth
- ▶ to be **easily** misunderstood / misinterpreted / mistaken / misread / misjudged

Figure 14 - Note for the words 'fast' and 'quick' in COLT

NOTE FAST OR QUICK? Fast is the usual word when you are talking about travelling, especially in a vehicle: a *quick car/road* ◊ *Don't drive so quickly!* A person who is able to do sth with speed may be **fast** or **quick**: a *fast/quick reader/worker/runner/thinker/learner/brain*. However, **fast** is NOT used in other expressions when sb does sth in a short time: *The kids were fast to learn.* ◊ *Try to be fast! We're late already.* See also the entry for QUICK