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ASPECTS OF THE LEARNER'S DICTIONARY WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE
TO ADVANCED PAKISTANI LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

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Doctor of Philosophy

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The University of Aston in Birmingham

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advanced Pakistani Learners of English

Summary

The present work is an empirical investigation into the "reference skills" of Pakistani learners and their language needs on the semantic, syntactic, phonetic, lexical and pragmatic levels in dictionaries. The introductory chapter discusses the relatively problematic nature of lexis in comparison with other aspects of EFL learning and spells out the aim of this study. Chapter II provides an analytical survey of the various types of research undertaken into the different contexts of dictionaries, and explains and justifies the eclectic approach adopted in the present work. Chapter III studies the "reference skills" of this category of learners against the background of the highly sophisticated information structure of the Learner's Dictionaries under examination and suggests some measures for improvements in this context. Chapter IV considers -- with a focus on specific L1 speakers -- various criteria, eg. pedagogic, linguistic and sociolinguistic, for determining the macro-structure of Learner's Dictionaries. Chapter V is concerned with various aspects of the semantic information -- viewed with regard to both comprehension and production -- provided in the dictionaries concerned, matched against the needs of Pakistani learners. The model, scope and presentation of grammatical information in these dictionaries are analysed in Chapter VI with the object of discovering their role and utility for the learner. Chapter VII explores the rationale for providing phonological information, the extent to which this guidance is vital and the problems of phonetic symbols employed in Learner's Dictionaries. Chapter VIII brings into perspective the historical background of English-Urdu bilingual lexicography and evaluates bilingual dictionaries currently popular among the Pakistani student community, with the aim, firstly, of discovering the extent to which they have taken account of the modern tenets of lexicography and, secondly, of investigating their validity as useful reference tools in the learning of English. The final chapter concludes the presentation of the research findings on individual aspects of the main problem addressed, and culminates with a succinct assessment of the viability of the original hypothesis that Learner's Dictionaries would be more useful if they were compiled with a specific set of users in mind.

Key Terms

Learner's Dictionaries

Reference skills

Language needs

Bilingual dictionaries

L1-specific Learner's Dictionaries

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCING THE PRESENT STUDY

1.1 Introduction

During the course of language learning, EFL learners encounter varied complex questions of a syntactic, semantic, phonetic, stylistic, pragmatic and lexical nature. Various investigations into FL learning have indicated that these aspects are not equally problematic to learners at all stages of language learning; some of them are difficult to cope with simply in the initial stages, others appear to be so even up to advanced levels, albeit depending on different kinds of sociolinguistic, linguistic, psycholinguistic and pedagogical factors. The belief, however, has been growing in recent times that the lexical tasks involved in FL learning are far more complex than any others, even in advanced FL work (cf. Wilkins 1972; Richards 1976; Marton 1977; Meara 1978, 1980). Studies in error analysis are also providing substance for the notion that the majority of errors made by learners even at advanced levels are not syntactic but lexical (cf. Hennings 1973; Tomaszczyk 1987). The reaction of native speakers to errors made by FL learners is one of the means of evaluating their linguistic performance; native speakers reportedly perceive lexical errors to be more irritating than any other type of error, given that lexical errors are characterised by certain expressions which are sufficiently unacceptable to interrupt smooth communication (Olsson 1973; Ensz 1982). In fact, as the linguistic activities

of advanced learners expand, so does the number of lexical errors they make both in speech and writing.

One of the causes for this complexity is supralingual, inherent in the nature of lexis itself. Halliday (1964:33) defined lexis as an "open set" meaning thereby that the lexical items of any natural language are hard to coerce into a "closed system" in the way syntax and phonology can be, comparatively amenable to structural and systematic study. The interference of learners' L1 also accounts for many deficiencies which manifest themselves in learners' L2. In order to achieve a native-like level of lexical performance in L2, foreign learners are supposed, at an advanced stage, to be able to produce lexical items appropriate to context, discriminate among synonyms, distinguish between various meanings of a polysemous word, identify stylistic levels, understand register characteristics, appreciate the connotative values of words, be conscious of collocational restraints and develop sensitivity vis-a-vis the idiomatic use of language. Thus, in the learning of an L2, the problems posed by the constant need to choose lexical items correctly are obviously by far the largest.

Despite the fact that FL learners themselves regard vocabulary learning as a major source of difficulty this is an area which has been largely ignored in linguistics. The relative neglect of this vital research area is usually accounted for by the dominant influence of structuralism which concentrates on formal aspects of language, such as phonology and syntax. Bloomfield (1933:274) thought that "the lexicon is really an

appendix of the grammar". Similar is the view of Trager (1949:5) who claimed that "lexicology often passes out of the field of linguistics into metalinguistics". Even in the school of Transformational Generative Grammar the main preoccupation of linguists has been with sentences and their syntactic structures. In pursuit of transformationalist doctrine it has been maintained in FL teaching too that the internalization of syntactic rules imparts to learners the creative aspect of linguistic competence which makes it possible for them to produce an infinite number of well-formed sentences. By contrast, however, British linguistics has, to its credit, a fairly sound background of lexicological studies aimed at organising vocabulary for multiple pragmatic purposes and describing lexis rigorously for the purposes of codification in reference works (cf. Palmer 1933, 1934; Ogden 1930; West 1953; Faucett et. al. 1936; Hornby 1933). This tradition eventually culminated in a unique and currently well-established form of pedagogical lexicography inspired originally by the aim of meeting the practical needs of foreign learners of English. Lexicology has been recognised only quite recently as a distinct level of scientific language discussion on a par with other aspects of language. Richards (1976:77) remarks aptly: "Within linguistics the word has only recently become a candidate for serious theorising and model building".

This relative neglect of vocabulary on a theoretical level has had a noticeable impact, perceptible both in a pedagogical context and in research into L2 vocabulary acquisition. In L2 research vocabulary acquisition has received only peripheral

attention (cf. Meara 1980); most research has been concerned with grammar. This practice is well reflected in all fields of research, notably error analysis and inter-language studies. Only research in contrastive analysis can equip us to understand the lexical problems affecting the acquisition of lexical competence in a L2. Such analyses are extremely useful for elaborating learner's dictionaries, of course. In language teaching methodology also, vocabulary has routinely been relegated to secondary status in favour of an emphasis on the teaching of syntactic structures. As a result, students are left to tackle vocabulary learning in the most unordered, random and haphazard manner (cf. Keller 1978). In fact, vocabulary teaching has not been acknowledged as a vital skill in its own right, only rather as a component of the wider objectives of the language learning process (cf. Rivers 1968, Mackey 1965). Consequently, for foreign learners left to their own devices, the only reliable sources of information are dictionaries. Whatever the nature, scale and character of language-learning problems may ultimately be it is a fact that dictionaries, pedagogically oriented and based on comprehensive descriptions of lexis, can offer an ideal source of reference to which FL learners can resort with confidence. We do not, however, know exactly in what way(s) dictionaries are useful in the overall process of foreign language learning -- this is not intended to imply, of course, that students, on confronting any linguistic problem, should always consult a dictionary; rather, they should have recourse to a dictionary when all other strategies have failed --

eg. guessing the meaning of a lexical item from morphology, context and knowledge of the subject matter.

1.2 The inadequacy of bilingual dictionaries

We concluded the previous section with remarks that the role of a good dictionary in L2 learning is highly important, but as to which type -- bilingual or monolingual -- this is a point still widely discussed in the literature. There are supporters, among linguists and language teaching methodologists, of bilingual dictionaries (cf. Tomaszczyk 1983; Ellegard 1978; Rivers and Temperley 1978). Others (cf. Celle-Murcia & Rosenzweig 1979) do not see any significant harm if the use of bilingual dictionaries is permitted at an early stage of language learning; still others favour a graded progressive introduction of pupils of all types to the productive use of dictionaries (cf. Beattie 1973) but many are sceptical of their usefulness at an advanced level (cf. Orszagh 1969; Ard 1982; Baxter 1980; Yorkey 1974). The most interesting aspect of this controversy is that, by and large, it is only a matter of personal opinion unsupported by any empirical evidence. It is clear, however, that learners themselves seem to be more favourably inclined towards bilingual dictionaries rather than monolingual ones especially in the early stages of learning a foreign language (cf. Baxter 1980; Hartmann 1983c). To claim that monolingual dictionaries are decidedly superior to bilingual dictionaries would be tantamount to making too broad a generalization but there are certain areas in which monolingual dictionaries have an obvious edge. Monolingual dictionaries, for instance, have the extra advantage of leading

learners directly into the conceptual system of the L2 (cf. Tomaszczyk 1981), thus contributing to the acquisition of lexical competence which may be said to be the ultimate target of learners when they have progressed to an advanced stage. Bilingual dictionaries, on the other hand, foster dependence on L1 as a reference point and consequently their use is quite likely to promote L1 interference in production. Moreover, the principle of equivalence in the strict sense of the term is now also being called into question (cf. Snell-Hornby 1984). Given the nature of bilingual dictionaries in general and in English-Urdu/Urdu-English compilations in particular (see Chapter Eight), it must be postulated that monolingual English learner's dictionaries represent the dictionary type which is best poised to cater for EFL learners' needs, both with respect to comprehension and to production.

1.3 Aims of the present study

The research described here is prompted by a conviction that foreign learners' demands on monolingual dictionaries are widely different from those of native speakers (cf. Hornby 1965; Whitcut 1979; Cowie 1978, 1979; Mackin 1978; Scholfield 1979; Stein 1979; Urdang 1979). It is based on the idea that monolingual dictionaries, like the OED or the COD, are designed for native speakers, and that they can be used with profit only by those who already have an advanced knowledge of English, the L2 in this case. In fact, what EFL learners need is monolingual dictionaries pedagogically oriented and addressing themselves to the foreign

learners that they are, whilst taking into account their respective L1, language needs, reference skills, inter-linguistic and cultural problems. This is a distinctive and relatively new perspective in L2 lexicography, pioneered by Hornby (1948): the concept of a dictionary especially compiled for foreign learners. Quite a number of such dictionaries have now appeared from different publishing houses (e.g. LDOCE 1978/81; CULD 1980; CELD 1974): these dictionaries claim to cater for all foreign learners of English, regardless of their specific language needs and problems. It is suggested in this thesis that a learner's dictionary designed for specific advanced learners (in our case Pakistani advanced learners of English) would be much more useful than more general compilations currently available on the market: this study explores the validity of this notion and attempts to calibrate it, as far as such a thing is possible, by means of an empirical survey. The idea of compiling learner's dictionaries along the lines described above is also based on the assumption that there is a certain degree of linguistic and cultural "relativity" (cf. Lyons 1968): particular languages reflect in their vocabulary the culturally important artefacts, concepts and infrastructure of their societies as reflected by their institutions and activities, their modes of thought and style of life. According to Jain (1981), if learner's dictionaries are to serve as efficient comprehension-production tools, they should include a maximum of lexical-semantic information; he recommends lexicographers to have an eye to both intralingual and inter-lingual perspectives when compiling learner's dictionaries in

order to achieve this objective. Jain's views are based on data produced by foreign learners in the form of assignments in which a learner's dictionary was obligatorily used. Russian linguists, who can themselves rely on a solid background of pedagogical lexicography, also emphasise the learner's native linguistic background:

"Hornby's dictionary, with all its merits and advantages, has an essential demerit -- it does not take into account the user's linguistic background, so it cannot foresee and prevent the possible language problems of this or that national group of English learners" (cf. Ginzburg 1979:228).

Even the remarkable Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary (ISED) was initially compiled for Japanese students of English (cf. Naganuma 1978); it was quite considerably later that Oxford University Press reprinted the ISED (1942) under the title of Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English in 1963 and gave it an international boost.

CHAPTER II

APPROACHES TO THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

One of the most significant conclusions of the Indiana University Conference on Lexicography (1960) was that dictionaries should be designed not just with special sets of users in mind and for their actual specific needs. Subsequent emphasis on this point of principle led to various investigations -- conducted in different contexts -- of the "image" of dictionaries among certain groups of users, their dictionary needs and skills, and the suitability of particular dictionaries for certain tasks. Using different techniques and methods, researchers attempted to shed light on a wide spectrum of issues related to dictionary use. Hartmann (1987) offers a comprehensive and thoughtful review of this work.

2.1.1 Assessment of "dictionary image"

In order to assess what has sometimes been idiosyncratically called "the image" of commercially produced popular dictionaries, Barnhart (1962) circulated 108 questionnaires in 99 colleges in 27 states, eliciting responses on the use of dictionaries by some 56,000 American freshmen students. Barnhart's particular concern was to gain some feedback on the various information categories deemed relatively useful to potential users. Teachers were asked to rate six types of information commonly given in college dictionaries according to their importance to the college

freshmen. Their replies indicated that the students used their dictionaries most frequently for meanings and spellings. Pronunciation was third in importance with synonyms and lists, usage notes and etymologies far behind. Although Barnhart's findings are not based on any direct responses from users his investigation was the first of its kind and one which sparked off a series of more in-depth empirical surveys by bringing the user perspective into sharper focus.

Quirk (1973) reported on the use of monolingual English dictionaries by a group of undergraduate native speakers, 220 strong, at University College London in the academic year 1971-72. His subjects were mixed, drawn from both the Sciences and Humanities. The data yielded were analysed in relation to several parameters, such as the subjects' field of study and the average frequency with which they consulted dictionaries. The results of this survey claimed to be indicative of the British student population as a whole. Quirk asked 30 questions on different aspects of dictionaries. The majority of the subjects, irrespective of their field of study, were found to have a dictionary. Quirk discovered a marked tendency among students of the Humanities to make greater use of dictionaries; they also evinced considerable interest in finding synonyms and antonyms. The less general interest in pronunciation, in Quirk's view, was not due to difficulty in understanding systems for indicating pronunciation but rather to a general indifference. Only a small number of subjects said they would look up words for syntactic information, while the majority disclaimed any interest in this.

Meanings and definitions were of central importance to most of the subjects. All the students appeared to have a deep respect for dictionaries which afforded Quirk the opportunity to maintain that dictionaries occupy an important place in British society. Quirk refers to additional comments which his informants made, offering constructive criticism. Most of the students were dissatisfied with their dictionary's handling of what, in their opinion, were important issues -- meanings, derivatives, and metalanguage. They also suggested improvements in definitions, coverage and layout, stressing that definitions should be less complicated. Quite a few felt that improvements could be made in typography as they found the dictionary entries too cramped and difficult to follow. Thus Quirk's findings, in contradistinction to those of Barnhart, are based on direct responses from real users and help to assess their view of dictionaries, their expectations and prejudices objectively.

Another empirical survey using a similar process of questioning informants is reported by Greenbaum et al. (1984), who administered a questionnaire similar to that of Quirk to 240 American college students drawn almost equally from both the Sciences and Humanities at the University of Wisconsin (Milwaukee) in the academic year 1977-78. The main purpose of the study, as the researchers stated, was "to investigate the image of the dictionary among American students and to determine in what respects it differed from the image in the minds of British students". Correlations were looked for between the responses with respect to the students' field of study and their

self-report on the average frequency of dictionary use. One other consideration was to see whether sex or the year of studies were factors affecting responses. Substantial differences were discovered between Humanities and Science students, presumably due to the nature of their subjects. It was also found that dictionaries have a higher status -- at least among college students -- in the US than among their counterparts in the UK. Not only are dictionaries consulted more often in the US but also less dissatisfaction is expressed with them. Like the UK students, the US students consulted their dictionaries mainly for information on the meanings of words, but the US students seemed to have greater problems with spelling. The US students were more willing to have British words included in dictionaries than the UK students were to have American words incorporated. Of course, the students in these two countries differed as to the dictionaries they owned. The differences between the responses in the surveys suggest that they represent general differences of experience, needs and expectations between college students from the two countries concerned.

2.1.2 Research into dictionary content

Apart from conducting useful investigations into ascertaining the image various dictionaries have for certain groups of users, another area linguists have concerned themselves with is user-oriented research into dictionary content.

Bujas (1975) tested the performance of a bilingual English-

Croatian dictionary against the requirement of reading American and British topical current texts, newspapers, journals, fiction, "pop literature", satirical and underground publications. Some 18 subjects (all of them undergraduates in the Department of English, University of Zagreb) followed two procedures under Bujas' guidance: the first group looked up in the dictionary only those items which they expected to be absent from the dictionary; they had to go through more texts, as many as three issues of a newspaper or magazine before they were able to compile the 400 items they were assigned to collect. The other group looked up every word in the text, reaching their target after reading only 30 to 50 pages of a text. The subjects spotted inadequacies in the dictionary, such as the complete absence of collocational information and the inadequacy of translation equivalents. Finally, the students, assuming the role of active lexicographers, recorded 6,272 vocabulary items, of which 78.3% were recommended for insertion in a revision of the dictionary. Thus Bujas' study demonstrated a workable procedure for improving the text coverage of dictionaries in specific areas.

Opitz (1979) carried out an experiment at Hamburg Polytechnic in 1978 to check on the presumed inadequacies of various -- monolingual, bilingual, general purpose and specialised -- dictionaries when applied to a specialised text. To determine the range and limits of "technical register", he chose a text of roughly 100 words in length from a nautical journal and asked his students to single out those items in the text which in their view belonged to the field of navigation.

The items thus collected were checked in four dictionaries with a focus on the specialised denotation of the word. Opitz found out that dictionaries differed sharply from each other with regard to coverage of specialised vocabulary items, their definitions and labelling methods.

2.1.3 Research into dictionary skills

It is a highly complex task to discover how users actually use dictionaries. Some insights can, however, be gained from studies undertaken for this purpose.

Bensoussan et al. (1981) reported the results of three studies carried out independently at Ben Gurion and Haifa Universities between 1977 and 1979 to ascertain the effect of dictionary use on students' performance in a reading comprehension test with multiple choice questions. The subjects tested were of the same level of English proficiency, and most of them had received guidance at high school as well as at university on how to use a monolingual English dictionary. The main purpose of the investigators was to determine: 1) to what extent the use of monolingual or bilingual dictionaries affects examination performance, and 2) to what extent the use of dictionaries affects the amount of time taken to complete the test. Students were allowed a certain amount of time to complete the test and were permitted to use a dictionary. They indicated the time (number of minutes) spent in taking the test and the choice of dictionary (monolingual, bilingual or none). The results revealed that the use of a dictionary has no significant

effect on reading comprehension test scores based on multiple choice questions. Neither does its use affect the time students need to complete the test. Although the findings are based on impressive empirical data they leave some essential questions unanswered: whether the students knew how to use the dictionary efficiently during an examination, and whether it is possible to construct test items which can be tackled regardless of whether a dictionary is used in reading a text or not.

Ard (1982) was interested in analysing actual instances of dictionary use by foreign learners of English. Actual instances of dictionary use included: 1) students' recollection of how they used bilingual dictionaries, 2) actual instances of words retrieved from bilingual dictionaries when writing in class, and 3) protocols of students' writing and their simultaneous oral comments about their writing. In the case study reported on by Ard, two ESL students -- one Japanese female and the other Arabic-speaking male -- wrote a short composition and simultaneously orally described what they were doing. Their protocols were video-recorded and their oral comments taped. The Japanese female used a bilingual dictionary, while the Arab male did not. From the results it emerged that the use of bilingual dictionaries frequently leads to errors of certain kinds and that these types of error are understandable when viewed vis-a-vis the L1. Further errors of similar types are reinforced even when bilingual dictionaries are not used. Although it is hard to generalise on the basis of a limited case study, the technique of direct observation is nonetheless useful for studying some of the

issues empirically.

Kipfer (1987) studied the reference skills of intermediate level American students in the year 1983-84. A preliminary questionnaire on dictionaries was given to these students, followed by a series of tests to investigate:

- 1) the relation between language needs and dictionary skills for intermediate students;
- 2) the acquisition of dictionary skills, and their relationship to needs and attitudes;
- 3) the influence of dictionary skills on reading and writing ability at this level;
- 4) the utilization of these tools for the improvement of reference skills and communication: instruction, learner's dictionaries, and the computerised dictionary.

In Kipfer's estimation it is most probable that the major problem in the acquisition of reference skills by students is the lack of dictionary instruction in educational institutions rather than the design features of most dictionaries themselves. As a natural corollary, most of the students fail to use dictionaries appropriately. The fragmentary knowledge they have acquired about dictionaries in their early school years is carried forward unimproved and unadjusted to the changed learning situation. The results of the tests she administered to students after minimal reinforcement support the claim that clear benefits can be derived from teaching dictionary skills. She also discovered that learner's dictionaries are as good for native intermediate

students as for EFL learners. She suggested that -- in addition to intensive instruction in dictionary skills and to the promotion of learner's dictionaries -- the introduction of computerised dictionaries should prove to be a valuable complementary pedagogic device for helping students to achieve learning goals.

2.1.4 Research into FL learner's dictionary needs

Assessing the dictionary needs and reference skills of FL learners/users is another vast area of research, the importance of which was heralded by Tomaszczyk (1979). He conducted a detailed survey based on a questionnaire consisting of 57 items. His questionnaire was sent to 1000 different learners and users, and 449 valid copies were received back for statistical analysis. The subjects were divided into two major groups: the first group of 284 EFL learners included 55 foreign students at Polish universities and 167 Polish students of university foreign language departments; the second group of 165 foreign language speakers included 60 language instructors, 25 translators of belles-lettres and 80 technical translators. The information obtained was not exclusively on English but also included Russian, French, Polish and German. Tomaszczyk's informants were at different levels of competence and had different needs, as was reflected in their answers to the questionnaire.

The results obtained are very informative: almost all the subjects used bilingual dictionaries (L1-L2), no matter how sophisticated they were, but all assigned importance to L2-L1

dictionaries. This was true of all the subjects and languages involved. The figure for the use of bilingual dictionaries in translation was higher than in other activities. The most interesting aspect was the rather higher figure for the use of bilingual dictionaries in exercising basic receptive skills, not only among the learners but also among the much more advanced speakers. The subjects did not make too much of the bilingual-monolingual distinction but preferred instead to go by usefulness. Almost all the subjects considered L1-L2 dictionaries inferior to monolingual dictionaries. Many beginning and intermediate students did not have any clear idea what their dictionaries contained. The subjects expected dictionaries to include encyclopaedic information and thought that pictures and drawings would help them understand some of the vocabulary items more easily than otherwise. Tomaszczyk, however, noted that while the feeling of dissatisfaction with dictionaries among foreign language learners was widespread and criticism of dictionary shortcomings often vociferous, very little is in fact known about the role of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries in the process of language acquisition.

Baxter (1980) studied the comparative usefulness of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries as perceived by Japanese students, with the main focus on dictionary use as a formative factor in students' vocabulary proficiency. He administered a questionnaire, consisting of six items, to 342 subjects at three national four-year universities in Japan. The profile emerging from the questionnaire responses suggests that the use of

bilingual dictionaries is predominant among students irrespective of their education level. Baxter, however, strongly argues that students should use a monolingual English learner's dictionary because this not only demonstrates that definition is an alternative to the use of translation equivalents but that it also provides the means to actually employ definition. Whereas monolingual English dictionaries promote fluency in spoken English and help in other encoding activities, a bilingual dictionary, in contrast, tends to offer single-word translation equivalents which hardly fit into the real context of the target language. Baxter also warns that when students have a long background of extensive bilingual dictionary use, have developed learning strategies accordingly and have a staunch belief in the ease of using this type of dictionary -- they need special training in using monolingual English dictionaries appropriately.

Bejoint (1981) undertook a study of the "language needs" and "reference skills" of French undergraduates using monolingual English dictionaries at the University of Lyon. In a group of 122 students 63 were in their second year, 43 in their third year and 16 were in the fourth year. He asked 21 questions to a sample much more homogeneous than that of Tomaszczyk. The results he obtained were interesting in themselves and in some ways supplement the findings of other similar studies done by Tomaszczyk (1979) and Baxter (1980).

Bejoint found that a majority of the EFL learners had at least one monolingual dictionary. They bought learner's

dictionaries such as the OALDCE or the LDOCE on their teacher's recommendations. French students used monolingual English dictionaries more often than the Japanese students reported on by Baxter (1980). Of the seven critical types of information, the students placed meaning first, followed by syntactic information, synonyms, spellings, pronunciation, language variety and etymology last of all. This overriding preoccupation with meaning suggested that dictionaries were mainly used for decoding activities rather than encoding. The majority of the students said that they did not use the coding systems at all, which led Bejoint to state that many students are not aware of the riches that their dictionaries contain. He, therefore, suggested that rather than embarking on more and more lexicographic innovations, students should be taught how to use their encoding dictionaries to get the most out of them.

With the object of finding out what sorts of bilingual dictionaries were used by learners of German, for what sorts of activity and what they achieved with them, Hartmann (1983) distributed a triplicate questionnaire to 200 educational institutions in the Southwest of England. In each establishment, one questionnaire was filled in by a teacher and two by students, either singly or in groups. He obtained 185 valid returns which were analysed, using a computer-assisted statistical procedure. The questionnaire contained 23 sets of questions on a variety of topics, eg. ownership, frequency of use, type of information sought, contexts in which the dictionary is consulted etc.

Hartmann found out that of the seven types of activity

prompting dictionary consultation translating is by far the most popular followed by reading and writing. Of the information categories consulted, grammar and meaning predominate while pronunciation seems relatively unimportant. Hartmann, however, observed that his study covered only a small fraction of the complex field of bilingual lexicography and emphasised strongly the need for more studies of the "sociology of dictionary look-up situations" (Wiegand, 1977). Such studies, in his -- that is, Hartmann's -- view, would replace impressionistic opinions and speculating by factual evidence based on empirical research and would help to: a) increase our knowledge about the image dictionaries have among users; b) make dictionary compilers and publishers more conscious about how the information is transmitted from the lexicographer to the learner/user. This could help them to revise old dictionary typologies and classifications, replacing hitherto simplistic approaches by specific compilations geared to clearly designated groups of potential users. More importantly, such a user perspective would help determine the real needs of real people in contexts of communicative conflict and deficit.

2.2 The present approach

There could be a wide range of possible research approaches to choose from: the eventual choice, however, depends mainly on the suitability of the approach in the given circumstances and on the ultimate objective of the investigation itself. Hartmann (1987) has provided a comprehensive critical account of the

various research techniques into dictionary users, their "reference needs", and their "reference skills". Our option in this study for a survey by questionnaire was determined by various factors of a logistic and methodological nature.

"Case studies" (Ard 1982) are considered too small to be representative of any general trend among a large community, such as that comprising advanced EFL learners in Pakistan. "Controlled direct observation" by means of sight of eye, audio and video recordings, or computer tests is a method considered virtually ideal but implementing it presupposes the ready availability to the field researcher of modern technology -- such facilities are simply not available in Pakistan. "Error analysis" (Jain 1981; Maingay and Rundell 1987) of students' assignments, however, gives an objective picture of their linguistic performance and impinges very strongly on dictionary design for offering optimal solutions to the problems encountered by closely defined groups of students. Even this method, however, is far from being a comprehensive evaluation technique for subjects' "reference needs" and "reference skills". "Tests" (Bensoussan et al., 1980), as Hartmann himself acknowledged, are "more difficult to devise and possibly therefore rare". Most studies in the context of EFL, therefore, are based on the "survey by questionnaire" method (Tomaszczyk, 1979; Baxter, 1980; Bejoint, 1981).

This is, however, not to imply that "survey by questionnaire" has no limitations at all. The view (Hatherall 1984; Hartmann 1987) that evidence based on "observed activity" is more reliable than evidence from "elicited opinion" is well

founded, yet these objections do not totally invalidate studies based on questionnaires (Bejoint, 1987). Given the conditions in which the present study was pursued, "survey by questionnaire" was considered more suitable as our aim was to broadly assess the underlying trend of a large student community drawn from each of the four provinces of Pakistan and then to gauge the possibility of compiling a dictionary which essentially suits the "reference skills" and "reference needs" of the above students.

An attempt was therefore made to tackle the inherent problems of the questionnaire approach, partly by a "pilot test" designed to measure its content validity. This helped to eliminate several potential sources of difficulty. One particular feature here was the decision to personally administer the questionnaire in an attempt to forestall several problems of a different nature (e.g. a low return rate of completed questionnaire forms, the use of metalanguage in some of the questions, uncertainty on the part of respondents, misunderstanding of questions etc.). In addition, the present approach is eclectic; it adds new dimensions to gain a more comprehensive picture of the phenomenon under study. Although the main reliance is certainly on the questionnaire administered to students with the purpose of identifying their "reference skills", "dictionary needs" and common linguistic and cultural difficulties in learning English, other parameters were also added, such as, firstly, structured interviews with senior English language teachers, aimed at recording their attitudes to dictionaries and, secondly, certain language tests deemed

necessary for data substantiation. Moreover, the teaching methods generally adopted in classrooms, the English language syllabus for advanced learners, and the aims of learning English in Pakistan are also taken into account. All these factors, viewed together, are reckoned to have a formative influence on learners' language needs and dictionary look-up habits.

Our empirical evidence was further analysed in the light of new advances in the various sub-disciplines of linguistics: sociolinguistics, or the learners' cultural and linguistic background and its effect on learning English in a Pakistani milieu; psycholinguistics, that is, the relation between L2 and L1 in the process of foreign language learning; applied linguistics, with its studies in error analysis and contrastive analysis; and -- finally -- new insights from lexicology and pedagogical lexicography. The present survey was conducted mainly along the lines proposed by Cowie (1983) and had as its aims:

- 1) the assessment of Pakistani advanced learners' reference skills, eg. their ability to make effective use of the information dictionaries contain;
- 2) their language needs on the semantic, syntactic, phonetic, stylistic, pragmatic levels and their relative importance in terms of production and comprehension;
- 3) the general difficulties encountered by this category of learners;
- 4) the most convenient way of making the information readily accessible to them.

2.2.1 The questionnaire

The questionnaire comprises 54 items divided into six sections:

Section A
Reference skills and learners' use of dictionaries
(14 questions)

Section B
General language needs of the learners
(16 questions)

Section C
Meaning of lexical items
(6 questions)

Section D
Syntactic information in dictionaries
(4 questions)

Section E
Pronunciation in dictionaries
(6 questions)

Section F
Evaluation of dictionaries by subjects
(8 questions)

Every effort was made to make the questions as simple, logical and straightforward as possible. Most of the questions admit of simple "yes" or "no" answers. Fixed alternatives were provided to almost all the questions in a frame of reference relevant to the purpose of enquiry. With the open-ended questions labelled "other" respondents were given the opportunity to describe things in their own way.

2.2.2 The subjects

The use of informants is an established technique in any field-work; their role is just as vital as that of the experts

who promote the present-day "addressee-conscious" lexicography. The informants (700) in this research (all second-year graduates) were chosen randomly from all four provinces of Pakistan. They were studying English as a compulsory subject during the year 1983 and were deemed to have quasi-identical competence and performance; thus they were assumed to form an homogeneous sample. BSc students were not included on the grounds that their syllabus in English language was much more limited and orientated more towards the sciences. Similarly, intermediate students in Pakistan form a mixed group coming from both Sciences and Humanities; they may not reach the prescribed level of advanced language study and hence are not included in the category of advanced learners for this investigation. Second-year graduate students are of course considered advanced learners of English. This is defined as the stage of language study following the attainment by learners of a certain communicative minimum characterised operationally as the ability to decode virtually anything and to encode all important meanings into the target language. Thus understood, the advanced level of language study aims at and assumes a near-native or native-like language competence and performance. Since the overwhelming majority of advanced learners have yet to realise this goal, they need to learn how to express any given meaning they wish to convey not only in such a way that the receiver of his message understands its essence, but in a way comparable to what a native speaker would say under the circumstances. Thus, there is still ample scope for advanced learners to progress and improve

linguistically, particularly in the area of acquiring lexical and sociolinguistic competence, and achieving greater syntactic flexibility.

2.2.3 The evaluation of Learners' Dictionaries

Our set of criteria for evaluating all the learner's dictionaries available on the market [The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 1978-81 (hereafter LDOCE); The Chambers Universal Learners' Dictionary, 1980 (CULD); The Collins English Learner's Dictionary, 1974 (CELD) and the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English, 1948/74 (OALDCE)] takes into account how far these dictionaries measure up to the needs of Pakistani advanced learners and identifies features which call for the design of a learner's dictionary that would address itself exclusively to this group of learners in view of their specific dictionary skills and typical linguistic and cultural problems. Since the idea of compiling such a dictionary is bound up with its commercial viability, another survey was conducted, on the basis of our findings, to see if dictionary publishers were willing to undertake such a project for the better satisfaction of their users (in our case, Pakistani advanced learners).

The results of our survey seem to be quite encouraging. Mair (of Chambers) remarked:

"We shall, of course, look with great interest at your research."

Thomas (of Collins) showed keen interest in our findings and proposals:

"On the question of your proposal to develop a dictionary tailored exactly to the needs of Pakistani learners, I would certainly like to register Collins' interest in this project. However, I must make clear that the economics of dictionary development and dictionary publishing do require very massive unit sales at a reasonable level of revenue for the publisher."

Summers (of Longman) stated:

"The survey was interesting and your analysis of it, I thought, was on the whole highly accurate ... We at Longman would certainly wish to be kept informed about the development of your project, and indeed if you wish to make some sort of proposal to us on using one of our dictionaries as a basis for yours, I would be happy to entertain the idea."

The publishers of OALDCE, however, stated that they appeared to have mislaid the material we sent to them for comment.

Since the idea of compiling a dictionary specifically for Pakistani students has considerable pedagogic significance, the Ministry of Education in Pakistan -- under whose sponsorship this project was conducted -- might also take some practical measures in this regard.

2.3 Data analysis

The data were analysed by computer with the help of the well-known SPSS package (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). It should be noted that any analysis of statistical data must take strict account of the type of data involved: statisticians discriminate between various data types and array them on a cline of amenability to statistical treatment. The points on this cline are usually stated as being: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. The full power of statistical

methods, such as properly parametric techniques, can only be used on ratio data and -- to a slightly lesser extent -- interval data. Generally speaking, only non-parametric, or "distribution-free" methods must be used on ordinal and nominal data, with the latter category of data representing the least helpful case as far as statistics is concerned. Our data was limited to these latter two cases, with the nominal type predominant. This meant that only the most elementary and robust methods of statistical analysis could easily be applied; any attempt to conduct more delicate analyses would have led well beyond the scope of the present work. Full statistical descriptions are, however, always available -- and have been provided -- but the opportunity to use inferential techniques was severely limited on this dataset. Accordingly, only indicative extrapolations have been derived from our sample about the underlying population's behaviour. A number of subsidiary problems which cropped up during the analysis of our questionnaire responses were solved by programs specially prepared for the purpose. Appendix I presents the consolidated results from actual figures concerning both nominal and ordinal scales. Appendix II illustrates the results by percentage for each question. Appendix III is an index of qualitative variation in descending order, while Appendix IV in contrast presents the qualitative variation in the order of questions. Appendix V suggests approximate values for relevant populations in Pakistan. Appendix VI demonstrates the frequency distribution of results in tabular form. Appendix VII is a graphic representation of results on bar charts. Appendix VIII is a summary of the interviews with language teachers in

Pakistan.

The results of the survey are self-explanatory but it is to remark that the degree of association between various variables does not seem to be very strong. Although the results tend to portray a mixed behaviour, there is definite evidence of particular trends.

CHAPTER III

THE REFERENCE SKILLS OF ADVANCED LEARNERS AND THE INFORMATION STRUCTURE OF DICTIONARIES

3.1 Introduction

Whatever the academic status of compiling dictionaries as an art, craft or science may be, and whatever controversy may indeed exist over the fundamental postulates of its theoretical foundations (c.f. Hartmann 1983; Sinclair 1984; Wiegand 1984), there is no denying the fact that lexicography has drawn considerably on both applied and descriptive linguistics in order to accomplish its various complex processes, such as are reflected across the whole gamut of lexicography's micro- and macro-structure. Ilson (1984:80) described three aspects of lexicography which seem to have been especially affected:

- 1) conventions of order and arrangement;
- 2) conventions of appearance or form, and
- 3) conventions of language.

In this chapter we describe how the information structure of monolingual English dictionaries in general and of pedagogical dictionaries in particular has been influenced by the findings of modern linguistics; we also look at what approaches are available for the codification of various lexicographic conventions and what repercussions they have for the ordinary dictionary user.

3.2 The Information structure of dictionaries

Ever since de Saussure distinguished between "Langue" and "Parole", in contradistinction to the traditional conception of language as a monolithic whole, the notion of language variety

has been explored ever more deeply by linguists, although they have been unable to follow any generally agreed framework for studying, classifying and describing language varieties and the contexts which determine them. In the absence of any general consensus among linguists, lexicographers have attempted to codify language varieties and usage labels by following their own impressionistic choices. We can, however, isolate some of the main categories adopted and adapted in different dictionaries in different ways:

- 1) idiolectal variants, labelled as derogatory etc.;
- 2) register variants, labelled according to subject fields, e.g. chemistry, literature etc.;
- 3) stylistic variants, labelled as formal, informal, slang etc.;
- 4) dialectal variants, labelled as Northern English, Yorkshire etc.;
- 5) temporal variants, labelled as archaic, obsolete etc.;
- 6) national, labelled as British, U.S., Australian etc.;
- 7) interlingual, labelled as Arabic, French etc.

The elaborate treatment of grammatical information in learner's dictionaries, chiefly intended to serve the encoding needs of foreign learners, is based on modern descriptions of English. Traditional English dictionaries usually restrict their grammatical description to the rudimentary labelling of parts of speech. Since foreign learners need far more extensive syntactic guidance, learner's dictionaries have to reflect an awareness of their special needs. The unique achievement of Hornby's Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1948) was to respond to foreign learners' needs by distinguishing between countable and

uncountable nouns and particularly by devising a fully developed analysis of the syntactic functions of English verbs which took account not only of transitivity but also of the various types of objects and complements which a verb could take, representing them via a replete coding system. Capitalising on the pioneering work of its predecessors, LDOCE went a stage further; it incorporated not only an extensive treatment of the syntactic sub-classification of verbs, but its description includes adjectives, adverbs and nouns also. In similar fashion, the treatment of collocations and idioms in the OALDCE made use of the results derived from a programme of lexical research carried out under the auspices of the Institute for Research into English Teaching in Japan. The method adopted by Hornby in the treatment of collocations is in line with the theoretical positions of Firth who introduced the term in order to account for the tendency of linguistic forms to habitually and systematically co-occur in different texts and contexts.

Phonetics has provided linguists with a set of descriptive norms as a result of which it has become feasible to provide a comprehensive and exhaustive description of the forms in which the lexis of a language such as English, say, is realised by a RP native speaker (Gimson, 1981). Taking into account the special needs of foreign learners, lexicographers have incorporated such phonetic transcriptions in their compilations so as to reflect pronunciation, stress-markings and syllabification, not only of lexemes but also of compounds, derivatives and idioms. This is normally achieved by the use either of an adaptation of the

International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) or of the IPA in its original form. Whichever method is actually used matters little -- what does matter is the fact that both methods are directly based on research into segmental and prosodic phonology.

The introduction of a controlled defining vocabulary in the LDOCE, aimed firstly at avoiding circularity between the right-hand and left-hand sides of the dictionary and secondly at shunning abstruse words in the definiens, is another mark of certain linguistic insights, developed initially by West (1935) in sequel to his outstanding work on basic vocabulary in English.

A large proportion of the vocabulary of a language consists of polysemous words and linguists have hence suggested different criteria to distinguish between the various related sub-senses of such lexical items (e.g. Cruse 1987). In similar vein Gold (1981:42) has described as many as seven methods for the purpose of actually arranging dictionary entries:

- 1) according to the importance of senses;
- 2) in order of their frequency;
- 3) according to logical ordering;
- 4) according to empirical ordering;
- 5) following semantic criteria;
- 6) following syntactic criteria, and
- 7) in order of historical appearance.

Presentation, however, varies from one dictionary to another, both in the number of and in the relationship between the meanings of an entry. Much depends, of course, on prospective users' needs and on what ordering is considered appropriate for particular types of dictionaries.

In considering the needs of the various categories of

potential dictionary users various authors have, from time to time, re-examined the question of classifying dictionaries from a typological point of view (c.f. Shcherba 1940; Malkiel 1967; Sebeok 1962; Zgusta 1971; Al-Kasimi 1977; Landau 1984). As a consequence of these periodic reappraisals we see a vast variety of dictionaries available on the market, aimed at different users. No dictionary therefore sets out to be comprehensive in its coverage of all the linguistic aspects of the English language; different dictionaries serve different purposes. A substantial variation among dictionaries is noticeable with regard to their size, the range of information presented, the method of presentation and the level of vocabulary found in definitions of meaning, all of which implies that finding information in one dictionary can be a much more demanding task than finding similar information in another dictionary. The scope of the dictionary is usually highlighted by the editor(s). Commenting on dictionary types Barbara Kipfer (1984:11) states:

"a dictionary may deal with a special corpus (variety, period, subject/activity, text); special items (kinds of vocabulary -- slang, idiom); special functions (such as learner's dictionaries) or special information (encyclopaedic, etymological, pronunciation, spelling, usage)."

The phenomenon of homonymy is of great significance for lexicographers because of vast grey areas which make distinguishing it from polysemy problematic and also because of the severe difficulties of presentation in any descriptive dictionary of a language. What criteria a lexicographer establishes for the differentiation of homonymy is a reflection

of one of the most controversial points in linguistics, having a direct impact on lexicography (Moon, 1987). Lyons states that "it is in the last resort indeterminate and arbitrary". Hence, although there are no definitive criteria, lexicographers have to make decisions depending either on their own intuition or on the inter-personal impressions of native speakers. Homonyms are, on the other hand, usually distinguished in dictionaries by separate numbers in the alphabetic sequence.

In the pursuit of providing maximum information to dictionary users, lexicographers often resort to specific metalanguage so as to save space. The concepts underlying the metalanguage or lexicographic conventions may be embedded in the division of linguistic structures into a number of levels -- phonology, orthography, lexicology, grammar, textology -- each with a number of sub-levels -- e.g. phoneme-syllable-foot in phonology, or morpheme-word-phrase-clause-sentence in grammar. They may also have been borrowed and adapted from other related fields, for instance, semiotic dimensions of a linguistic sign, such as semantic, syntactic and pragmatic (Hartmann 1983). The linguistic information thus conveyed through diverse conventions of form and appearance -- e.g. different scripts, punctuations, abbreviations, spatial layout, brackets, type faces, symbols and labels -- may not be explicit to ordinary dictionary users.

The brief discussion in this section of the salient features of information structure and its presentation in dictionaries is aimed at establishing that dictionaries have now become more sophisticated and at suggesting how the traditional reference

skills of ordinary users may not be adequate enough for them to appreciate fully the scope and richness of dictionaries and thereby retrieve information efficiently and confidently.

3.3 Reference Skills

The learning of a foreign language in a formal environment is basically a conscious attempt to acquire a set of complex linguistic and cognitive skills, and the learning of reference skills is a most essential component in the process. Describing what reference skills constitute Cowie (1983:136) observes that it is

"the skill which the user is assumed to possess, or can be expected to acquire, in handling a dictionary and making effective use of the information it contains".

In a broader sense, we understand by reference skills; firstly, knowledge of the fundamental lexicographical principles underlying the design features of various dictionaries, as outlined in the preceding section. This is assumed to enable the learner to be aware of the wealth of information contained in different types of dictionary and also to recognise the various ways in which linguistic information may be structured. Secondly, reference skills imply a command of requisite strategies for retrieving required information from dictionaries in an appropriate and efficient manner.

To make the best use of dictionaries therefore, learners at an advanced level are assumed to have a working knowledge of those language varieties which may and probably do form the basis of different types of dictionary. We may enumerate the

various factors involved as follows:

- a) some idea of how languages change over a period of time under the impact of various sociolinguistic variables;
- b) the distinction between a monolingual English dictionary designed for native speakers and one intended for foreign learners;
- c) the limitations of bilingual dictionaries;
- d) the linguistic significance of collocations;
- e) the function of verbal illustrations;
- f) the various ways in which the main entry word, sub-entry, idiom, homonym, and different senses of a polysemous lexical item may be represented;
- g) the principles underlying phonetic transcription and stress-marking, and
- h) familiarity with various symbols, grammatical codes and abbreviations etc.

The retrieval of information from the dictionary may apparently sound like a simple operation, but it is in fact a most complex process. For comprehension, e.g. the learner has to find the right entry for the target word to establish that it is the one which has to be studied closely to gain access to the relevant information. The learner must moreover understand how entries are structured, must identify the relevant part of the definition, must relate the appropriate sense to a given context and must manipulate the dictionary definition of a target word so that its meaning may be merged appropriately with the sentence which acted as the stimulus for consultation. The learner, therefore, needs to know specific strategies so that the look-up process is quick and not off-putting. Rather than performing a purely mechanical operation, Scholfield (1982) suggests seven steps which, if followed, could teach the learner with type of strategy needed for the successful retrieval of information:

- 1) Locate the word(s) or phrase you do not understand.
- 2) If the unknown is inflected, remove the inflection to

discover the form to look up.

3) Search for the unknown in the alphabetic list.

4) If you cannot find at least one main entry for the unknown, try the following procedures:

a) If the unknown seems to be a set phrase, idiom, or compound word, try looking up each main element.

b) If the unknown seems to have a suffix, try the entry for the stem.

c) If the unknown appears to be an irregularly inflected form or a spelling variant, scan nearby entries.

d) If there is an addendum search it.

5) If there are multiple senses or homographic entries, reduce them by elimination.

6) Understand the definition and integrate it into the context where the unknown was met. This may involve:

a) Looking up unknown words in the definition itself.

b) Adjusting for complementation and collocation.

c) Adjusting for part of speech, and

d) Adjusting for breadth of meaning.

7) If none of the senses entered seems to fit, attempt to infer one that does from the senses you have. If more than one fits, seek further contextual clues in the source text to disambiguate.

Similarly, the learner needs to employ a different set of strategies in order to use the dictionary for encoding, although it is rather difficult to see how he can accomplish this task by using a monolingual dictionary. The acquisition of the necessary skills for encoding is the all-important question. However, a student can look up a near synonym in a thesaurus and then check it in the learner's dictionary, whilst bearing in mind its stylistic, collocational, semantic, pragmatic and connotative constraints.

3.4 Previous investigations into reference skills

The picture emerging from the various empirical investigations undertaken in different countries with the purpose of assessing the assumed abilities of students in handling dictionaries suggests that essentially learners need to be educated if dictionaries are to be used effectively.

Tomaszczyk's (1979:116) study concluded that

"while advanced learners and speakers seem to know what they can expect of their dictionaries and appear to be getting the most out of them, many beginning and intermediate learners do not know their dictionaries well enough and frequently they have unreasonable and contradictory demands with respect to them".

Bejoint (1981:119) was rather more pessimistic about users:

"it seemed to us that monolingual dictionaries are not used as fully as they should be: their introductions are not commonly referred to and neither are the coding systems for syntactic patterns. Certainly many students are not aware of the riches that their monolingual dictionaries contain".

Consequently he emphasised that

"students need to be taught how to use monolingual dictionaries ... so as to get the most out of them".

Baxter (1980) arrived almost at the same conclusion; his informants preferred a bilingual dictionary simply because it was easier to use and they criticised monolingual dictionaries, complaining that definitions are difficult to understand.

3.5 Dictionary-using guides

The insight that the reference skills of any category of dictionary users are limited and that learners require skills which are far beyond what the average user normally possesses has prompted several attempts to provide systematic training in the form of workbooks especially designed for foreign learners.

The publishers of the OALDCE have brought out a work book, Use Your Dictionary, (Underhill, 1980) to give users practice in utilizing the information provided. Similarly, Learning with LDOCE, (Whitcut, 1979) and Chambers Universal Learner's Workbook,

(Kirkpatrick, 1981) were published with this purpose in mind. In spite of the fact that these workbooks contain a lot of useful information about their respective dictionaries and incorporate many practical exercises, they do not pay attention to the cultivation of real strategies.

"Rather than being organized in terms of learner's strategies, they tend to progress through a language-oriented gamut of topics, showing off what the dictionary has to say about sound, spelling, grammar, etc." (Scholfield, 1982).

It is in fact only by developing retrieval skills and imparting basic lexicographical knowledge to learners that success in dictionary use can be facilitated.

3.6 Reference Skills of Pakistani advanced learners

Awareness of EFL learner's reference skills is as important as their prospective needs and hence must be considered in the design of a learner's dictionary. In fact, the two factors are inevitably integrated with each other; neither can be genuinely studied to the exclusion of the other. This conviction underlies the fact that the first set of items in our questionnaire was intended to elicit students' reference skills as summarised below:

- 1) Subjects' level of education
- 2) Background of learning English
- 3) Ownership of dictionaries
- 4) Familiarity with the range of dictionaries
- 5) Dictionary normally consulted
- 6) Stage of dictionary use
- 7) Stimulus for using a dictionary
- 8) Dictionary recommended by school/college
- 9) Guidance on the use of dictionary
- 10) Home assignments based on dictionaries
- 11) Image of the dictionary
- 12) Use of introductory matter
- 13) Memorisation of symbols etc.

14) Place of most frequent dictionary consultation.

The learning of English as a foreign language in Pakistan normally starts in the sixth grade (at the age of 12) but at the present time there exist some English-medium schools where it is introduced at the primary stage. We considered this factor by including in our sample of approximately 700 degree students of both types, with a view to analysing whether the difference in their educational background was a significant factor in forming their specific reference skills and language needs. As a matter of statistical fact, however, the majority of students in Pakistan come from Urdu-medium schools.

The notion that the dictionary is the most important tool in FL learning is well reflected by the fact a very large number of students (92.47%) possess a monolingual dictionary of their own -- this goes a long way towards explaining the unquestioning faith of foreign learners in the authority of the dictionary. Yet, in sharp contrast, their familiarity with the range and orientation of various monolingual English dictionaries is unsatisfactory. With regard to the dictionaries most commonly used by learners, the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary was on top (48.29%), followed by the Concise Oxford (36.43%), the Collins English Learner's Dictionary (12.71%), the Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary (11.14%), the Oxford Illustrated Dictionary (10.57%), the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (8.86%) and the Chambers Universal Learner's Dictionary (8.14%). This clearly demonstrates students' inadequate knowledge of the fundamental difference between learner's dictionaries

especially designed for them as opposed to dictionaries aimed at native speakers. The main reason quoted by many students for not using learner's dictionaries seems to be a lack of appropriate guidance from educational institutions. Although students seem to have started using dictionaries at school it is clear that this was not really a guided process. The majority of students (67.71%) bought their dictionaries on their teachers' recommendation but did not receive any proper advice about the type of dictionary to select. Only 15% said that they were recommended a specific dictionary at school -- the corresponding percentage for students who bought dictionaries on the recommendation of their college lecturers was 28.14%. In answer to the question whether they had had any formal guidance on the use of dictionaries from their teachers the finding of grammatical information (44.43%) was the only significant skill reported as having been addressed by their teachers. Other skills received no specific attention. In evaluating students' reference skills it is important to consider whether any instruction in the use of dictionaries has ever been integrated with language teaching at any level; only 30.96% of students affirmed experience with dictionary-based exercises set by school or college. Thus it is understandable why the place of the most frequent dictionary consultation is still the home.

Publishers would find it encouraging to discover that dictionaries enjoy a very high "image" among the student community; most students (74.71%) preferred to resort to dictionaries rather than to their teachers for seeking the most

satisfactory answer to any word problem, although they do not seem to have received any systematic teaching -- of the type eloquently argued for by Herbst and Stein (1987) -- designed to help them use dictionaries confidently, correctly, and efficiently. As a natural corollary to this point, few students (42.29% -- only once a year) made any conscious and consistent effort to memorise the various symbols, labellings and codes. The perusal of front matter in the dictionary is also found to be an area where student behaviour is inconsistent: for clues on arrangement of entries 27.71% of the sample never referred to the dictionary introduction at all, for phonetic transcription 32.14% referred there only once a year, whereas for abbreviations 48% resorted to the dictionary front matter only once a year. Thus the cumulative picture emerging from the questionnaire responses makes it clear that students lack adequate knowledge about dictionaries, their distinguishing features, and hence are not using them properly to obtain the maximum benefit from them.

3.7 Structured Interviews

Structured interviews with college lecturers provided significant information on the whole issue of students' reference skills; they complemented in many ways the students' responses to the questionnaire and helped determine the ways students learned their rudimentary reference skills. A sample of college lecturers was asked sixteen questions on different aspects of dictionaries; in this section we discuss only those points which relate to the reference skills of students:

- 1) Recommendation of monolingual English dictionaries to students;
- 2) Familiarity of college lecturers with the range of learner's dictionaries available on the market;
- 3) Teaching of dictionary use;
- 4) Type of dictionary considered suitable for advanced learners and
- 5) Recommendation of specialised dictionaries.

Of the 25 college lecturers interviewed, 23 recommended specific dictionaries to advanced learners and 2 left it to the students' own discretion to choose the dictionary they deemed suitable for themselves. The most surprising thing however is the fact that only 13 recommended learner's dictionaries, 10 recommended general monolingual English dictionaries not usually considered ideal for foreign learners and 2 did not recommend any dictionary at all, even though it was to be expected that all of the lecturers would have recommended learner's dictionaries. Teachers' own familiarity with the range of pedagogical dictionaries available on the market is bound to have a formative impact on students' choice of dictionaries: only 10 lecturers were shown to know all the learner's dictionaries, 15 were not familiar with all of them and the only dictionary with which every one seemed to be conversant was the OALDCE. The LDOCE does not seem to have gained much ground in Pakistan, probably due either to its recent advent onto the market, as compared with the OALDCE, or to lack of adequate information and publicity about it. Both teachers and students seem to be resigned to accepting the old publications as best and to be unwilling to explore new ones. The arbitrary, inconsistent and optional characteristics of teaching students "how to use the dictionary"

are well reflected by the prevalent attitude of at least a sample of the teaching community, in that only 15 affirmed having taught students how to use a dictionary (although it is still dubious at what stage, how regularly and following what dictionary using guide); 2 simply had not time had to do so in class, one carried out this task informally and one did not give any guidance at all. One could easily infer that, in some classes, instruction in dictionary using skills may not have taken place at all, leaving students ignorant of invaluable knowledge about dictionaries; this might have been presented in other classes but with few details and less emphasis on subtle points. It is also possible that, in many cases, instruction was not followed by sufficient practice to transform knowledge into a permanent skill, or perhaps it was not reinforced after graded and logical progression in their language abilities. Thus, it turns out that students are provided with ample chances to "unlearn" what fragmentary knowledge they had acquired previously. Yet somehow the concept that monolingual English dictionaries serve better than bilingual dictionaries seems to be entrenched in the teaching community: 14 were in favour of monolingual, 4 in favour of bilingual and 7 viewed both types as suitable, depending on the language proficiency of the students. The part that reference books other than dictionaries proper play in the context of teaching and learning a foreign language is very important too; these reference books generally compensate for the deficiencies and limitations of general language dictionaries. Even encyclopaedias, although they focus on things, i.e. realia, rather than words, do contribute to the enrichment of students'

vocabulary. In our sample, 19 lecturers informed students about other reference books but 6 did not: the most prominent among these books were thesauri and dictionaries of pronunciation. Most of the students, in this way, seem to have been denied vital knowledge of the alternatives or "complementaries" to proper dictionaries and the information as to their actual usefulness and use.

One of the main reasons for the status quo is the educational training of lecturers themselves; the majority of them have no linguistic or professional teaching qualification whatsoever. It is, therefore, quite likely that they do not fully appreciate the modern principles of teaching English as a foreign language or realise the need for cultivating a degree of enthusiasm among their students for the study of reference books, study skills and reference skills. For lecturers at Intermediate and Degree level, the only training they undergo takes the form of an advanced study of English literature. If lecturers do not impart the necessary knowledge to their students in this area it is because they themselves are not fully sensitive to the importance of reference skills. Secondly, the teaching of reference skills has never formed part of any regular language teaching curriculum and is seldom integrated into classroom activities. Teaching in this respect seems to have been mostly a matter of lecturers' personal will and whim. Thirdly, the dictionary users' guides which accompany different learner's dictionaries are not available in Pakistan, probably due to lack of demand or because they are not known to the teaching community

at large for want of proper publicity about them.

3.8 Dictionary Using Guide for Pakistani learners

Both the interviews with college lecturers and responses to the questionnaire demonstrate an urgent need for formally educating Pakistani learners in the skills of using dictionaries and imparting to them fundamental linguistic and lexicographical knowledge conducive to the learning of the English language. We believe that Kipfer's (1984) workbook on lexicography is quite comprehensive and it can therefore be considered suitable as a textbook for use on a beginner's lexicography course. Given the language proficiency of the average advanced learner in Pakistan, it ought to be considered possibly too technical and difficult for advanced learners to follow independently. The currently available brochures produced by dictionary publishers are aimed at helping the users of particular dictionaries; yet they lack guidance on developing specific strategies for retrieving information. The introductions to learner's dictionaries, explaining how to use the dictionary, are far from comprehensive. What we conceive is a dictionary user's guide -- concise, easy-to-follow, systematic, general and specially tailored to the needs of Pakistani advanced learners. We suggest here a tentative rubric for such a guide for this group of learners. All sections would have relevant exercises appended to them.

This "guide" is not primarily concerned to set out facts about lexicography: its basic rationale is to help users get on with the job of using dictionaries efficiently. It is addressed

partly to English language teachers who -- in the absence of a "guide" especially designed for Pakistani learners -- find it difficult to cultivate the necessary "reference skills" in their students. Guide books of this sort are also aimed at students who -- after having formally practised in the classroom the exercises given at the end of each section -- are expected to cope with their lexical problems independently. Such exercises should be based on all possible dictionary-related study activities of both an encoding and a decoding nature. This would enable students to acquire a better appreciation of the major differences between the various types of reference tool, and of how to retrieve from them any information required. It would also teach students about the limitations of each type of dictionary.

All this, of course, would be achieved by a maximal use of exercises and exemplification and by a minimal use of terminology. To avoid the use of terms absolutely may not be possible as most of the information in pedagogical dictionaries is provided via some sort of metalanguage in the interests of saving space. Nevertheless, the metalanguage employed in the proposed "guide" would be incidental, the major focus being on making the learner an efficient dictionary user.

1. Information on fundamental concepts of language and linguistics

- A. Language as a system subject to constant changes
- B. A brief history of English
- C. Language varieties in terms of such fundamental notions as:
 - 1. written vs. spoken
 - 2. general vs. technical
 - 3. standard vs. slang

4. formal vs. informal
2. Information on fundamental concepts of lexicography
- 2.1 Types of dictionaries
- A. Monolingual
 - B. Bilingual
 - C. Learner's dictionary
 - D. Specialised dictionaries
 - E. Historical
 - F. Etymological
- 2.2 Types of lexical information in the dictionary
- A. Grammatical (eg. on verb; noun; adverb; adjective)
 - B. Semantic (eg. on meaning: denotative, connotative, collocational)
 - C. Spelling (British, American, preferred)
 - D. Pronunciation (British, American; stress marking on words, compounds, idioms, derivatives)
 - E. Synonyms
 - F. Etymology
 - G. Usage (Temporal, stylistic, subject, spatial)
 - H. Verbal "Illustrations":
 - (1) Supplementing the information in the definition;
 - (2) Showing the entry word in context;
 - (3) Distinguishing one meaning from another;
 - (4) Illustrating grammatical patterns;
 - (5) Showing typical collocations;
 - (6) Indicating appropriate registers or stylistic labels
 - (7) Explaining ethnographical differences in speech acts
- 2.3 Types of encyclopaedic information in the dictionary
- A. Front matter (eg. the introduction/preface)
 - B. Within the dictionary (eg. pictures and tables)
 - C. Back matter, eg.
 - a) Tables, charts, instructional materials
 - b) Biographical and geographical information
 - c) Signs and symbols
- 2.4 Metalinguage used in the dictionary
- A. Grammatical codes
 - B. Pronunciation symbols
 - C. Abbreviations
 - D. Typefaces
 - E. Labels
 - F. Punctuation marks
 - G. Scripts
- 2.5 Retrieval Strategies
- 2.5.1 For decoding
- A. Working out the unknown item
 - B. Recognising inflections
 - C. Using the alphabetical ordering fluently
 - D. Learning to look in more than one place
 - E. Reduction of polysemy or homography
 - F. Integration of definition into the context
 - G. Using contextual clues for matching sense
- 2.5.2 For encoding

A. As explained in 3.3

3.0 Alternatives to language dictionaries

- A. Thesaurus
- B. Conceptual dictionary with illustrative examples
(e.g. Longman lexicon)
- C. Dictionary of usage
- D. Encyclopaedia
- E. Dictionary of idioms
- F. Dictionary of collocations
- G. Dictionary of synonyms

A dictionary user's guide compiled along the lines proposed, if introduced officially in language classes both at Intermediate and Degree level or followed independently, would certainly contribute to the efficient learning of English by Pakistani learners. In fact, the learning and teaching of reference skills should occur from Matriculation onwards in schools and should be reinforced logically at subsequent stages at college. There is also an urgent need for the promotion of learner's dictionaries, for the perusal of introductory matter in dictionaries, and for the teaching of dictionary use to occupy a pivotal position in language classes. The gap that currently exists between the descriptive sophistication of some of the features in learner's dictionaries and the traditional skills of ordinary users can only be bridged by formal and progressive teaching on the fundamental concepts of language, linguistics, lexis, lexicography and strategies required for retrieving information from dictionaries. We do not think that the design features or the information structure of various learner's dictionaries is too complex to be grasped by advanced learners; Kipfer's (1987) investigation has proved that, after instruction in dictionary use, students no longer found dictionaries problematic. In fact, guidance in dictionary use contributed

greatly to the whole understanding of the ways in which a language works. We also believe that, with improved reference skills, Pakistani learners are expected to be more research-oriented, confident and independent pursuers of knowledge; it is likely to make them conscious of new concepts of self-study and improve their language abilities both in terms of encoding and decoding.

CHAPTER IV

THE LANGUAGE NEEDS OF STUDENTS AND THE MACRO-STRUCTURE OF LEARNERS' DICTIONARIES

4.1 Introduction

It is a linguistic fact that the lexical items of any language are open-ended; no dictionary can claim to cover the total lexicon of a language per se in all its various aspects. The lexicographer has to decide a priori on the selection of lexical items and their density -- that is, the ratio of the size of the definiens to that of the definiendum -- depending, of course, on the type of users for whom the dictionary is intended. If a diachronic dictionary (e.g. The Oxford Dictionary of English on Historical Principles: 1884-1928) attempts to cover the entire vocabulary of a language, a synchronic dictionary deals with the lexical items of a particular period (e.g., Grassman: Dictionary of the Rig Vedic Sanskrit, 1873); a dictionary of basic language (e.g. West: A General Service List of English Words, 1953) is characterised by its coverage of the central core. A specialised dictionary is concerned with the lexical items restricted to an identifiable linguistic register. The learner's dictionary is, however, markedly different from other types of dictionary: its macro-structure has to be sensitively determined and configured on a scale of usefulness which itself depends upon certain sociolinguistic criteria. The precise determination of the scope of a learner's dictionary is highly important in the sense that its potential users should neither be submerged by the abundance of lexical coverage nor should feel frustrated by the absence of

any vital lexical item. In order for a lexicographer to compile a learner's dictionary which satisfies the lexical needs of its users well it is necessary for him to identify beforehand the potential needs of its users as accurately as possible.

Although there is currently no single totally objective method of analysing learner needs and although even the allegedly most rigorous models do not deserve that epithet as they depend heavily on the subjective value judgements of learners, there are nonetheless certain parameters which, if pursued empirically, can be expected to lead to a much greater degree -- albeit still suboptimal -- of objectivity. This is clearly superior to virtually total reliance on subjective appraisals by learners or indeed to any assessment of the range of users' language needs which is arbitrarily based on lexicographers' own impressionistic judgements. These parameters serve as a set of guidelines whereby the language needs of FL learners could be determined for the purposes of designing dictionary macro-structures. This chapter is concerned with a learner needs analysis which is basically conceived in terms of ideal "encoding" and "decoding" strategies which then largely determine the macro-structure, or scope of the resultant learner's dictionary. Other aspects of perspective, presentation, or micro-structure are taken up in the subsequent chapters.

4.2 Linguistic activities of FL students

The basic linguistic activities that students usually perform during the course of their language study are understood

to be concerned with the process often termed "encoding" and "decoding". Encoding activities subsume writing, speaking and translating from L1 to L2, whereas decoding ones include listening, reading and translating from L2 to L1. It is the proportion of these activities that suggests the main thrust of the dictionary as either one geared to helping students essentially in comprehension or in production or in both. A brief description of the nature of these activities is given below, highlighting the range of potential problems with which the learner would have to cope and as a result of which he might feel impelled to consult a dictionary.

4.2.1 Reading

Reading in a foreign language is a fairly demanding task; it is quite difficult to say how a student has or has not understood a text. Problems in foreign language reading therefore have been variously attributed to:

- 1) L1 interference;
- 2) linguistic incompetence;
- 3) inadequate conceptual knowledge;
- 4) ignorance of cultural background;
- 5) failure to apprehend text structure;
- 6) choice of false reading strategy.

Whatever the reading processes students employ, it is in essence some features of text that cause readers difficulty. Among the linguistic variables it is lexical items that most often prove to be stumbling block in comprehension. Reviewing the literature in this field, Alderson (1984) concluded that the lexical and conceptual difficulties of texts are far greater than the syntactic difficulties, and -- to a great extent -- Cooper's

(1984) findings confirm this conclusion. Alderson and Richards (1977) also found vocabulary problems to be the most important contributors to text difficulty although they simultaneously discovered that there were students who did not have vocabulary problems but still found the text difficult to understand. According to Beaugrande (1980), in order to interpret texts at an optimum level, the reader needs three types of competence: linguistic, cultural and textual. These may be broken down into the following components:

1. word recognition skills
2. understanding the semantic range of lexical items
3. recognising and interpreting cohesive devices
4. understanding complex syntactic structures
5. interpreting discourse markers
6. recognising functional value
7. following rhetorical organisation
8. recognising the presuppositions underlying the text
9. recognising implications and making inferences
10. prediction
11. interpretation and application

4.2.2 Listening

Listening comprehension of a foreign language is a complex operation integrating both linguistic and cognitive knowledge in ways which are still very imperfectly understood. It is, however, a fact that -- like reading -- a major way of learning a foreign language is by listening to others; in formal settings students learn a great deal by listening to their teachers. Outside the classroom there are various "non-interactive" sources of listening such as films, plays, television and radio. There may also be, of course, the opportunity to witness direct interaction between native speakers.

Traditionally it has been maintained that oral and written language comprehension represents essentially the same process; reading a written text simply involves decoding the orthographic symbols into a phonemic representation and then comprehending that as if it were speech. Yet a more recent view is that, although the two processes share significant features, they differ in significant ways. As a corollary, the reasons which make students turn to the dictionary in reading may not be essentially the same as in listening. Similarly, proficiency in one skill may not result in complete transfer to the other.

Nichols and Lewis (1963) differentiate between three types of listening: a) appreciative listening to any kind of stimuli gratifying to the senses of the hearer; b) critical listening to a persuasive speech for the purpose of evaluating the speaker's approach and evidence; c) discriminative listening to informative speech (usually in an instructional situation) for the purpose of comprehension and perhaps later utilisation of the speaker's ideas and information. Students' problems, of course, would depend on the type and purpose of listening comprehension in which they are most often involved.

It is a common observation that students often do not face such problems in listening to their class teacher as far as the phonological aspects of his speech are concerned. Yet the real problems arise from the typical character of a native speaker's spontaneous natural speech which is very different in form and function from written language, in spite of the fact that



decoding in the spoken medium contains several clues to meaning provided by such extralinguistic factors as proxemics, kinesics, deictics and prosodic elements. Although these features lack the semantic precision of verbal utterances, in pragmatic terms they are quite important because of their contribution as a type of gloss to the message. Students' phonological problems while perceiving natural speech may include difficulty with regional accent, variant pronunciation, vowel and consonant reduction, temporal voice quality, given that speakers do not always pronounce words in the manner specified by a dictionary. Another source of problems for the language learner in listening comprehension, in contrast to other receptive skills, is the small degree of control he has over the intake of language since this is enunciated by the speaker. People's ability to predict in listening comprehension which is cultivated by an awareness of speech acts and ethnographic cues typical of each language, is of course the major difficulty encountered by the EFL learner.

In vocabulary comprehension students have not only to cope with many inconsistencies of sound-symbol correspondence (e.g. cough/though/dough/through/laugh/enough) but are often uncertain about the correct positions of stress (e.g. $\overline{\text{per}}\text{mit}/\overline{\text{per}}\text{mit}$) and this causes them to misconstrue a word with which they are already familiar. The most important problem in perceiving natural speech is the greater proportion of colloquial expressions which are likely to be unfamiliar to foreign students who are mostly exposed only to formal written English -- even their regular teachers tend to speak as they write in prose.

Above all, the foreign learner needs a wide recognition vocabulary for rapid comprehension of natural speech.

4.2.3 Translating

Translation may arbitrarily be defined as the transposition of certain messages expressed in one linguistic code into equivalent messages expressed in another linguistic code (cf. Nida, 1969). Viewed from this perspective, translation is a kind of composite activity requiring linguistic competence in both the source and target language operating essentially within a framework of comprehensive interlingual contrasts on various levels, e.g. semantic, syntactic, lexical, stylistic, pragmatic, textual, conceptual and cultural.

Theoretically, linguists have distinguished various types of translation, depending on the degree of fidelity to be attached to the formal and functional aspects of the two languages involved. It is, however, almost generally agreed that an ideal translation attempts to reproduce something with the same effect which is supposed to have existed in the original, conforming of course to structural correspondence as closely as possible. Of significant relevance to our discussion in this regard is the notion of "linguistic relativity" and its implication of positive and negative transfer in the process of translation from one language to another in the context of foreign language learning. Any pair of languages could possibly be considered "the same" in the sense that all languages are potentially capable of expressing all kinds of cognitive experience, but since speakers

of two languages often perceive, segment and verbalise concepts differently, they are different. This is well reflected in the distinctions made on the lower levels in terms of "perception" (e.g. in the shape and size of things) and on a higher level in terms of conception (e.g. the way people think about objects, events and qualities). Each language in this sense is unique, reflecting distinctive syntactic and lexical structures. The surface structure perceivable in both syntax and vocabulary may in some respects be common in some languages but there is never a complete parallelism. Languages also differ in the way they structure their discourse; cultural polarities are also significant. On a lexical level, one language may not have a word for a concept verbalised in other languages; thus in the process of translation various types of interlingual contrasts are simultaneously at work.

Foreign learners engaged in translation activities might presume one-to-one lexical correspondence in the two languages involved and be misled into thinking that bilingual dictionaries offer precise TL equivalents which is not the case. Pinchuck (1977:233) cautioned against the potential pitfalls:

"the role of the bilingual dictionary ... is to give approximations rather than the true equivalents. There may be one-to-one correspondence in a particular context, but the correspondence may just as easily be many-to-one or one-to-many. A bilingual dictionary is like a direction post that tells us where to turn off or stop."

Learners need to be extra-careful in decoding or encoding target language lexical items with the help of a bilingual

dictionary because apparent correspondences on this level may be only partial. The understanding of how collocations function is of utmost importance to the learner since preferences by languages for certain lexical items to co-occur differ very significantly. Moreover, where the words seem to correspond lexically in their denotation, they may diverge considerably in their connotations. Similarly, idioms whose meanings cannot be elicited from the separate meanings of their component words are never translatable literally.

4.2.4 Writing

Writing in a foreign language is undoubtedly the most difficult task: it is a kind of integrative activity dependent on various sub-skills applied together to form actual pieces of discourse. In traditional pedagogy four types of prose are generally distinguished:

- 1) expository;
- 2) argumentative;
- 3) descriptive and
- 4) narrative, each demanding a specific discourse pattern.

Although in most writing these four forms are mixed, in each individual piece of writing one mode stands out prominently. Apart from writing in these traditional forms of prose, learners are also expected to be able to cope successfully with other major types of transactional writing, such as summarising, drafting etc. It is also a fact that in EFL courses, the most frequent learning assignment and the most popular instrument of student assessment is the written task.

The skills required for competence in writing at an advanced

level involve a deep awareness of the themes under discussion, rhetorical organisation, coherence, cohesion, stylistic appropriateness, lexical choice, punctuation and spelling etc. Thus the complexities of prose composition are varied. Some linguists consider the problems of learning to write to be a problem of converting a language production system geared to conversation into a language production system capable of functioning independently.

Discussion of themes in writing requires searching one's own memory of conceptual knowledge. Rhetorical pattern is an organised sequence of thoughts, expressed in particular language functions, which is used in recognised types of discourse such as stories, reports or sets of instructions. The EFL learner tends to select and organise ideas in L2 writing in the same way as he does in his first language. In this way students are tempted to use processes which are entirely logical in L1 but not quite so in L2. From a study of approximately 600 ESL writing assignments Kaplan (1976) found that there were significant differences between the construction of expository paragraphs among student writers whose L1's were English, Semitic, oriental, Romance and Slavic. Differences were most noticeable in the patterns of logic which writers used in ordering ideas within paragraphs. According to Kaplan, these arise particularly from systematic differences in cultural modes of thinking which are reflected in each culture's own rhetorical style. Cohesion as discussed by Halliday and Hassan (1976) is concerned with the way in which sentences relate to each other within the same text, thereby

forming larger units such as paragraphs or even longer pieces of discourse. The foreign student who wishes to be able to write English fluently must understand and use the cohesive devices in English well (e.g., reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, lexical cohesion etc.).

The choice of appropriate lexical items plays an important role in the shaping of a text. Students are often reported to have difficulty in finding the right word far more often than they fail the equally crucial task of discovering the right sentence-structure. This is so because syntactic choices are relatively limited, whereas the lexicon seems to be open-ended, offering rich and varied possibilities. Good writing demands not only an extensive vocabulary but also a nice sense of appropriateness of words and phrases suited to the text. Speech is accompanied by a whole paraphernalia of pitch, intonation, delivery tempo, rhythm, stress and accents to convey the different shades of meaning; in writing it is accompanied by punctuation (e.g. comma, quotation mark, parenthesis, colon, dashes, slash, semi-colon etc.). English spelling also poses problems for EFL learners in writing because of its lack of consistency.

4.2.5 Speaking

One of the most fundamental stimuli for learning a foreign language is developing an ability to communicate appropriately in real life situations. The ability to manipulate syntactic structures of a language correctly is only part of what is

involved in complete language learning. Viewed from this perspective, Chomskyan linguistic theory postulated in terms of linguistic "competence" and linguistic "performance" does not take into account the sociolinguistic aspects involved in learning a language. Linguistic "competence" as perceived in this theory is concerned with the internal structure of a language, and linguistic "performance" is understood as the manifestation of its internal structure as realised by a native speaker. Sociolinguists and others have long realised the limitation of this theory and have stressed the need to include in the model knowledge of the rules of use and communicatively appropriate performance. Hymes (1972) introduced the notion of "communicative competence" to cover the kind of knowledge a fluent speaker of a language must possess in order to produce and understand contextually appropriate and comprehensible utterances in a language. This type of knowledge is of vital importance for a FL learner to be able to communicate with native speakers without causing any pragmatic failure.

Research into EFL learning has found that even at an advanced level learners face problems in acquiring the appropriate ways to communicate language functions. Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) undertook a research project into how native and non-native speakers verbalise expressions of gratitude and concluded that

"advanced non-native speakers of English had considerable difficulty adequately expressing gratitude in the target language. Some problems were pragmalinguistic in nature, exhibiting divergence from native use in lexical and syntactic levels. Learners

were often unable to approximate to native idioms and routines ... Socio-pragmatic limitations were more severe, because the socio-cultural incongruities they revealed created the potential for more serious misunderstanding".

It has also been established in other investigations that speech acts differ cross-culturally in their functions, distribution and frequency of occurrence (cf. Scarcella 1979a, 1979b; Rintell 1979; Walters 1979; Scollon and Scollon 1979; Schmidt and Richards 1980; Carrell and Konneker 1981; Cohen and Olshtain 1981; Blum-Kulka 1982). Studies in the ethnography of communication have highlighted differences in the social roles of language use and interactional styles in cultures and found this phenomenon to be a possible source of misunderstanding between speakers from different cultural backgrounds (cf. Gumperz and Tannen 1979). Thomas (1983a) distinguishes two types of pragmatic failure which arise due to socio-linguistically inappropriate comprehension or production by a non-native speaker:

- 1) pragmalinguistic failure (e.g., the inappropriate transfer of speech act strategies from L1 to L2 or transferring from L1 to L2 expressions which are semantically or syntactically equivalent but have different interpretative bias);
- 2) socio-pragmatic failure (e.g. mismatches which arise from cross-culturally different assessments within the social parameters affecting linguistic choice, size of imposition, social distance between speaker and hearer and relative rights and obligations).

Given the fact that certain aspects of the communicative

properties of a language are culture-specific, it is fairly difficult to acquire knowledge of all the communicative properties necessary for effective use of the target language in one's own country. As a recognition of this problem, emphasis has quite recently been on communicative aspects of language teaching (cf. Widdowson 1978). The rationale behind notional syllabi (cf. Wilkins 1976) is moreover to help teachers provide a set of useful guidelines.

Thus, to be able to communicate appropriately, the advanced learner is supposed to be competent in handling all types of syntactic structures; he is supposed to be in command of enough vocabulary to be able to verbalise all the concepts he wants to in all real-life situations, although it has been shown by psycholinguists that an individual's productive vocabulary is far smaller than his receptive vocabulary. Eringa (1974) and Michel (1972) found that receptive vocabulary in L2 is about double the size of productive vocabulary. In L1, according to Chamberlain (1965), the productive vocabulary of an average native English speaker is about 2000 words, while receptive vocabulary is five to six times larger. Moreover, learners need to be aware of the exact range of the meanings of various lexical items (e.g. denotative, connotative, collocational, polysemous etc), understand the difference between written and spoken language, and know the range of lexical codifications for various language functions, particularly when they differ significantly from L1. This would help learners avoid problems of pragmatic failure due to deviant speech acts in the target language.

4.2.6 A "holistic" approach

It may be contended that language learning is too vast and complex an area to be captured and separated out into linguistic components of a traditional kind; the pedagogic division, therefore, of linguistic activities into "decoding" and "encoding" which then branches out into reading, listening, translating, writing and speaking is arbitrary. Actually, one skill complements another and simultaneously contributes to "holistic" language learning. Some linguists with an ethnographic and sociolinguistic thrust do not acknowledge the validity of the traditional division of language skills: they emphasise inclusion in the pedagogical model of various types of linguistic behaviour that occur when people produce or comprehend language for a particular purpose in a particular situation. Thus, the skills involved in each of these components may not be understood as absolutely separate but rather as the ones contributing as a whole to the acquisition of native-like linguistic and communicative competence.

The possession of a wide lexical repertoire, for instance, is an asset equally helpful for reading, writing, listening and speaking. Similarly, sensitivity to the various shades of meaning is an advantage in tackling tasks associated with encoding as well as decoding. An awareness of how writers achieve coherence and cohesion in a text is desirable for both reading and writing. Sound extralinguistic knowledge is a factor which could make all types of conversation as well as

written tasks, an easier job to cope with. Realisation of native-like speech, along with its prosodic features, enables one to achieve a good degree of listening comprehension with ease, as well as make the performer feel competent in producing native-like speech himself. Mastery of complex syntactic sentence structures and grammatical behaviour of lexical items is conducive to the unravelling of the underlying message of a text as well as to the encoding of such a message into written text. Learner's communicative competence helps to avoid pragmatic failure both in comprehension as well as in production. Thus, from a purely linguistic point of view, learners need a dictionary which is equally good for both comprehension and productive use of the language. Sociolinguistic factors such as the official status of English, methods of instruction, variant models of English and the social prestige of the language may, however, not cultivate an equal stimulus for the user with regard to encoding and decoding.

There is one physical attribute of dictionaries which can be used to stamp them as volumes designed for either encoding or decoding and it is very indicative: the average length of the definiendum. A dictionary designed for encoding and containing, say, 3,000 entries is likely to be of the same physical dimensions, as a book, as a decoding dictionary containing perhaps as many as 12,000 entries! This stems from the fact that a much richer information structure is required, both in terms of metalinguistics and on the plane of exemplification -- in terms of relativities the latter should, of course, predominate.

4.3. Questions in summarised form

Our subjects were asked questions on the following points, the results of which are discussed in the relevant sections of the needs analysis profile.

- 1) language needs in general
- 2) factors affecting the purchase of dictionary
- 3) reasons for not having a personal dictionary
- 4) use of more than one dictionary simultaneously
- 5) use of specialised dictionaries
- 6) the need to use specialised dictionaries
- 7) browsing through dictionaries in leisure time
- 8) use of monolingual dictionaries
- 9) use of bilingual (English-Urdu) dictionaries
- 10) preference between mono-(bi) dictionaries
- 11) the need to use bilingual (Urdu-English) dictionaries
- 12) the reasons for bilingual dictionaries being considered more useful
- 13) kinds of activities monolingual dictionaries are used for
- 14) kinds of information looked for in the dictionary
- 15) kinds of words looked for in the dictionary
- 16) use of appendices

4.4. Language needs in general

The first parameter aimed at eliciting student needs relates to their earliest conception of dictionary use. A minimum level of 50% was considered a significant reference point against which to measure up the general trend. Regarding students' initial ideas as to the type of language needs for which a dictionary might be used, quite a stereotyped and traditional view has emerged: looking up word meaning (99.43%) in the dictionary is the most basic requirement followed in descending frequency order by spelling (85%), pronunciation (43.43%), grammatical information (42.71%), example sentences (40.14%) and idioms and phrases (24.29%). There is, however, some difference between

what students initially thought of as their dictionary needs and their subsequent consideration of linguistic factors after they had actually bought one for their long-term use. This may partly be due to their improved information on dictionary contents. However, the following priority order is noticeable: example sentence (82.57%), grammatical information (75.29%), easy pronunciation key (74.43%), idioms and phrases (64.14%) and current colloquialism (38.29%). Question 17, for instance, asked students to give reasons for not having a dictionary of their own: only 10.29% reported having relied on sources other than dictionaries, the rest had their own personal dictionary and this, to a great extent, confirms the result of Question 3 on dictionary ownership.

It was also found that a significant number of students (66.14%) use more than one dictionary and that the most frequently used other types are mainly bilingual dictionaries: English-Urdu dictionaries are used by 20.71% of students at least once a week (Question 23), and Urdu-English dictionaries by 76.14%, as indicated in Question 25. This suggests that students' reliance on bilingual dictionaries is considerable in spite of the fact that 51.29% used a monolingual English dictionary at least once a week and also reported their experience with them as being satisfactory. Students' preference for bilingual dictionaries is probably based on the assumption that translation equivalents are easier to comprehend than definitions in the target language; other aspects (e.g. grammatical information, stylistic appropriateness, synonyms,

idioms and phrases) are not considered to be of vital importance in the bilingual dictionary.

Question 19 was intended to evaluate the use of specialised dictionaries for restricted purposes; it was partly aimed at assessing students' satisfaction with general monolingual English dictionaries vis-a-vis these aspects. Although a good number of students (69.14%) felt the need to use specialised dictionaries the frequency of specialised dictionary use is nevertheless not impressive: idioms dictionaries are used by 22.43%, encyclopaedias by 19.14%, synonym dictionaries by 18.7%, technical dictionaries by 11.29%, pronunciation dictionaries by 9.86%, slang dictionaries by 5.57% and other dictionary types by 2.43%.

4.4.1 Dictionary use in relation to linguistic activities

The second parameter relates to the type of linguistic activities for which the dictionary is most often consulted. The frequency scale from "regularly" to "never" demonstrates dispersion of frequency of use against the seven types of activity listed in Question 27. We presume that consultation of dictionaries at least once a week is the desired frequency of use and the figures against each of the linguistic activities mark the general tendency of students accordingly. However, it may also be noticed that the percentage of users increases as the frequency of use decreases. There are also quite a few missing cases which are most probably an indication of students' uncertainty about the frequency of use of dictionary with regard

to the various linguistic activities they perform.

Question 27 requested information about the kinds of activity for which monolingual dictionaries are used; the answers to this question were as follows:

1) reading	53.29%	once a week
2) writing	28.57%	once a week
3) translating from L2-L1	21.29%	once a week
4) translating from L1-L2	17.86%	once a week
5) speaking	13.29%	once a week
6) listening	8.71%	once a week
7) other	2.71%	once a week

One could safely infer from these results that the number of regular dictionary users is not very impressive, although it was expected that at least 50% of students would use dictionaries quite frequently. However, the figures make one point quite explicit: it is basically a decoding activity for which the dictionary is most often used, as the highest percentage of dictionary use is reported to be, firstly, for reading rather than for writing and, secondly, for translating from L2 to L1 rather than for translating from L1 to L2. The only exception to this was an apparent propensity for dictionary use for speaking as against for listening. Other activities (e.g., word games etc.) are negligible.

4.4.2 Language needs in relation to kinds of information looked for

The kinds of information sought in the dictionary are other factors which need to be taken into account in assessing users' needs. They provide information not only in their own right but

also function as a cross-check for other parameters, together to paint a cumulative picture of the profile of learners' needs. The list of possible types of information could be extensive indeed, but we included only those specific items considered relevant in the context of FL learning. The nine items of information are ranked in accordance with the frequency order (once a week) on the scale presented in Question 28.

1) meaning	39.14%
2) spelling	33.86%
3) example sentences	26.43%
4) pronunciation	20.19%
5) grammar	9.00%
6) terminology	6.57%
7) synonyms	6.14%
8) etymology	5.71%
9) other	2.43%

In this area too decoding needs predominate: looking up meaning (39.14%) is the most overriding concern which consequently would require the dictionary to specify all shades of meanings -- denotative, connotative, collocational, various sense relations etc. Referring to dictionaries for spellings forms a part of composition work. The two information types, though they may be distinct, require dictionaries to cover the maximum possible number of lexical items regarded as useful for learners. Examples of sentences may be looked up for both encoding and decoding purposes. Resorting to the dictionary for clarifying points of grammar and pronunciation is minimal, followed by synonyms and etymology etc.

Table 1: Contrastive analysis of language needs

Language needs in relation to linguistic activity		Languages needs with relation to information		Language needs with relation to words looked for	
Reading	53.29%	word meaning	39.14%	content words	46.86%
Writing	28.57%	spelling	33.86%	function words	16.14%
Translating (L2-L1)	21.29%	example sentences	26.43%	idiomatic expressions	13.57%
Translating (L1-L2)	17.86%	pronunciation	20.14%	literary terms	13.29%
Speaking	13.29%	gram. info.	9.00%	encyclo. words	8.86%
Listening	8.71%	terminology	6.57%	technical words	8.43%
		synonyms	6.14%	culture-specific words	5.43%
		etymology	5.71%	slang	5.29%
		Other	2.43%	other	2.3%

4.4.3 Language needs in relation to types of words looked up

The last parameter of this empirical needs analysis is concerned with the kinds of entries the learner refers to quite frequently in the dictionary. The answers to this question were expected to correlate with the kinds of linguistic activity learners frequently perform and with the types of information they look for in each entry. The results of Question 29 seem to a great extent to be compatible with the answers to Questions 27 and 28 as shown in the contrastive analysis table. The results given below help us determine what kinds of words it is essential to incorporate in the dictionary in contrast to those which can be left out.

1) content words	46.86 (%)	once a week
2) function words	16.14 (%)	once a week
3) idiomatic expressions	13.57 (%)	once a week
4) literary terms	13.29 (%)	once a week
5) encyclopaedic words	8.86 (%)	once a week
6) technical words	8.43 (%)	once a week
7) culture-specific words	5.43 (%)	once a week
8) slang	5.29 (%)	once a week
9) other	2.03 (%)	once a week

In contrast, when students were asked whether they expected the dictionary to include certain types of words, their reaction was as follows:

1) literary terms	83.00%
2) common words	65.14%
3) swear words	62.57%
4) synonyms for head words	47.57%
5) slang words	43.14%
6) antonyms for headwords	41.29%
7) foreign words	40.43%

It is a common observation that the lexicon of any language is generally divided into two major categories:

1) Content words, which name the various objects, realia, events and characteristics and abstractions which possess extralinguistic reference: they comprise nouns, main verbs, adjectives and true adverbs.

2) Function words, which are used to indicate relationships between content words, or with other parts of sentences and paragraphs: these include articles, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs and prepositions.

Most importantly, what distinguishes content words from function words is the fact that content words belong to an "open class" and function words belong to a "closed class". It is essentially the "open class" which is more variegated and more problematic to the FL learner and which requires greater sensitivity on his part. Thus the simplistic classification of vocabulary items into content and function words is not tenable for pedagogical lexicography. We need an extensive taxonomic segmentation of content words backed up by contrastive lexical analyses across languages with a focus on problematic lexical items. This would enable lexicographers to give to these words the depth of treatment they obviously deserve.

Drawing up word lists for various pragmatic purposes, especially language pedagogy, has been practised for a long time (cf. Thorndike, 1921; Palmer 1931; Palmer and Hornby 1937; West 1953; Kucera and Francis 1967) and use is made -- variously -- of both subjective and objective, as well as of combined approaches.

The selection of various words or categories of words can also be based on frequency of occurrence. The problem with the frequency approach, however, is that it is not a fully reliable measure of all the lexical items which may actually be required. Moreover, almost all available frequency lists for English are based on written corpora only. Finally, we do not at present have available any comprehensive and authoritative frequency count of different categories of words in English.

4.4.4 Needs with relation to sociolinguistic desiderata

In order to properly contextualise the relevance of dictionary needs to the sociolinguistic situation in Pakistan we shall here deal with the following two points in some detail.

4.4.4.1 The social status of English in Pakistan

When Pakistan came into existence in 1947, English had already been taught and learnt for about a century in the sub-continent of Indo-Pakistan, that is, during British rule. After independence, Urdu and Bengali were recognised as the two national languages of West and the then East Pakistan respectively, with English being retained as a lingua franca and as the official language for the whole country. There were some people in the country who, prompted by nationalistic feelings, opposed the retention of English and demanded a complete transition to Urdu in all spheres of life. Such a complete transition was not, however, feasible by virtue of some very practical reasons, such as the lack of textbooks and of reading material on all branches of human knowledge. An additional factor

was the absence of any established scientific and technical terminologies in Urdu. Under the circumstances, the 1956 Constitution of Pakistan clearly defined that English would continue as the official language for 20 years, during which time efforts would be made to replace it by the national languages. Later, reviewing this at a language conference in 1957, the then Minister of Education had the following comment to make to the conference:

"English has been the medium of instruction in the schools and colleges for several generations in the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent and this language has played that role right up to the present day for the obvious reasons that English alone is the common medium of communication between the different parts of Pakistan. Apart from its present role in Pakistan itself, English today has attained the status of an international language. It is the official language of many important countries and is also spoken and understood in many parts of the world. In fact, in several countries English is replacing European languages which were studied as second languages. Therefore, apart from its present role and utility in Pakistan, it appears to us that it will be in our national interest to maintain English as the second language of the country, as it would give us a tremendous advantage in maintaining our contacts in the international field."

Thus, today the need to use English in Pakistan has become inevitable as a result of its importance on the world scene as a means of international communication and as a medium of access to developments in science and technology and also in other branches of knowledge.

Apart from this, English enjoys a privileged place in the country as a "social dialect". Those who can communicate well in English receive more attention in social circles. There exists

a great need in daily life for linguistic and communicative competence in English: all the interviews and competitive examinations for selection in the Civil Service, Army, Airforce or Navy are held in English, for instance. About 15 daily and weekly newspapers are regularly published in English. Television and all the broadcasting stations of Radio Pakistan transmit regular news bulletins and programmes in English. English films are quite popular in big cities. Many young scholars go abroad every year in pursuit of their higher education in various fields, aided by different agencies such as the Central Overseas Training Scheme, British Council, Columbo plan, United States Educational Foundation in Pakistan (USEF), United States Agency for International Development (USAID) etc. This undoubtedly reminds Pakistani students of their close links with English and their need to acquire a really comprehensive knowledge of it. This is in contrast to the situation in other countries where English may be viewed as just another foreign language or is simply taught to cultivate reading and writing skills among students -- an additional problem arises when the model of English imitated and taught is American rather than British. Thus -- to make a general point -- the status of English and students' need to use it varies considerably from country to country: this has extensive implications for dictionary-making.

4.4.4.2 The teaching of English in Pakistan

The methods of English teaching usually followed in the classroom provide another sociolinguistic dimension to the

question of students' language needs. Their predisposition for particular sources of lexical information (e.g. monolingual or bilingual dictionaries), frequency of dictionary use, and the kind of information sought on lexical items are all to a great extent determined by the formative impact of the language teaching methodology adopted by the classroom teacher. Although English teaching has been carried on in Pakistan ever since the country came into existence it has rarely been conducted in conformity with the modern principles of FL teaching. A number of factors may be responsible for this: language classes are overcrowded; few teachers are really qualified to teach foreign languages; audio-visual aids are simply not available. Language teachers under such circumstances have no choice but to resort to the comparatively easier "Grammar-Translation" method. This explains in part why many students in our survey preferred to use bilingual dictionaries rather than monolingual dictionaries for finding semantic information.

It is believed that the learning of FL vocabulary is greatly affected by the way learners are taught although we need more empirical evidence about this, prior to taking any conclusive stance on the issue. Faersch et al. (1984) described three strategies which learners presumably employ in handling lexis. Each strategy, in these writers' view, is due to the effect of specific methods of language teaching:

- 1) the learner relates L2 words directly to what he refers to in the world around him;
- 2) the learner relates L2 words to L1 words;

3) the learner relates L2 words to already learned L2 words.

The first strategy adopted by the learner could be relatable to the "Direct Method" in foreign language teaching which insists on relating the acquisition of lexical items directly to objects, concepts, situations, and actions etc. This strategy is quite likely to lead the learner to refer to monolingual dictionaries when confronted by lexical problems.

The second strategy could be associated with the "Grammar-Translation method" still popular in many countries. In this approach the learner tends unconsciously to establish links between the lexical items of the two languages involved and transfers at least part of the meaning potential in lexis from L1 to L2, particularly in the case of cognate words. He is likely to consult a bilingual dictionary more often than a monolingual dictionary.

The third approach is most probably found at a fairly advanced stage when learners, already possessing large vocabularies, attempt to understand the meanings of words by their relationships to other words.

4.5 Current practice in Learner's Dictionaries

The CELD mentions its coverage of over 30,000 words and phrases with extensive examples of written and spoken usage highlighting the importance between British and American English. The publishers of the CULD do not find it appropriate to boast of the number of entries in the dictionary; they refer only to the

number of 54,000 examples of modern English usage. The OALDCE claims to have covered about 50,000 head-words and derivations, and 11,000 idiomatic expressions, whilst the LDOCE says that it has over 55,000 entries. Almost all of them state up-to-dateness as their chief distinguishing mark. Yet none of the dictionaries spells out its methods of vocabulary selection for determining the relative number and kinds of lexical items to be included in their dictionaries. There is no mention of the citational corpora on which these dictionaries are based except that Randolph Quirk, in the preface to the LDOCE, writes that the editors "had frequent recourse to the Survey of English Usage at University College London" (p.vii). However, the LDOCE and the OALDCE have been widely acclaimed for their up-to-dateness and their coverage. In our questionnaire we asked our students if they remembered any particular word(s) which were not included in their dictionaries. The only response we received was a few swear words; they could probably not recall other omissions. In fact, we need more in-depth analysis of Pakistani students' textbooks in order to establish the kind of words they most often encounter. There is also a greater need to prepare frequency lists of all types of lexical items to be included in the dictionary on the basis of their pragmatic value.

CHAPTER V

SEMANTIC INFORMATION IN LEARNER'S DICTIONARIES

5.1 Introduction

It is a common observation in semantic analysis that the meanings of a lexical unit are not solely circumscribed by its denotation; its meanings could be perceived from different perspectives by virtue of its habitual co-occurrence with other linguistic items (collocational meaning); typical emotive reactions it evokes in people's minds (connotative meaning) and its special relationship with time, place and audience (pragmatic meaning). This chapter is concerned with the description of lexical meanings, in all the varied forms and distributions considered necessary in a learner's dictionary, especially one designed for Pakistani advanced learners.

5.2 Definitions

Whatever the dictionary type, the defining of vocabulary items is one of the most fundamental functions that a dictionary is supposed to perform. In their initial stage dictionaries were merely limited to providing intra- or interlingual glosses, but it is now generally recognised that defining is an area highly complex and protean in nature. That is why, probably, far more time and attention is devoted to this aspect of dictionary design than any other. Dr. Johnson realised the problem long ago:

"That part of any work on which I expect malignity most frequently to fasten is the explanation; in which I can not hope to be pleased, since I have not always been able to satisfy myself. To interpret a language by

itself is very difficult; many words can not be explained by synonyms, because the idea signified by them has more than one appellation, not by paraphrase, because simple ideas can not be described To explain requires the use of terms less abstruse than that which is to be explained, and such terms can not always be found"

One can well imagine the scale of difficulties the modern lexicographer encounters while writing definitions for a learner's dictionary, with a strong realization that the lexical competence of the user is limited and the definitions are expected to possess the merit of leading the learner right into the conceptual framework of L2 (cf. Tomaszczyk, 1981) thus contributing to the acquisition of L2 lexical competence (cf. Jain, 1981). Thus, definitions in pedagogical dictionaries are supposed to be framed in such a way that EFL learners will find them simple, precise and really helpful in acquiring L2 lexical competence and performance. Robinson (1962) distinguished seven different methods of defining a word. The choice, of course, out of a multiple range of methods available to the lexicographer, depends on the one hand on the type of lexical item being defined, and on the other, on the prospective user and his specific needs.

The character of lexical items plays a vital role in determining what defining method is most appropriate to treating them. A method that yields a useful dictionary definition for one lexical item may not necessarily be so for another (Zgusta, 1971; Moon 1987). In the previous chapter we emphasised the need for a comprehensive typological classification of lexical items and a contrastive lexical analysis of the learner's L1 and L2

together with a focus on lexical items considered relatively problematic in the learning of L2. This would provide the lexicographer with a check-list of such lexical items, enabling him to adapt his defining methods, decide on the degree of linguistic or extralinguistic information required and determine whether the definition is self-explanatory or needs to be supplemented by a verbal illustration, typical phrase, collocational pattern or stylistic information. According to Tomaszczyk (1983) a fairly large proportion of any language's lexical items is culture-specific and it is essentially this area which needs specific attention. The most important and generally recognised criteria for a good dictionary definition, however, are considered to be accuracy, clarity, comprehensibility and succinctness.

The framing of good dictionary definitions is also conditioned by the user for whom the lexicographer is designing the dictionary. Definitions in Webster's Third New International seem to have been written with the aim of catering for the scholar who presumably needs the most elaborate information; the Concise Oxford Dictionary (1982) apparently envisages the native speaker who needs information most often for decoding purposes, whereas the LDOCE addresses itself to the EFL learner who would look up words both for comprehension and production. Thus the choice of the potential user, if it is an editorial decision, would play a formative part in the adoption of defining techniques to achieve the goals desired for the dictionary. We understand from various investigations (cf. Barnhart 1955; Quirk

1973; Greenbaum et al. 1984) that looking up word-meaning is the most central activity among native speakers of English. It is also found in studies undertaken in the context of FL learning (cf. Tomaszczyk 1979; Baxter 1980; Bejoint 1981; Hartmann 1983) that word-meaning is the most frequent information sought in the dictionaries whether mono- or bilingual. Yet the main difference between L1 and L2 dictionary users is that the former are interested only in decoding, whereas the latter need information on decoding as well as encoding.

5.2.1 Findings on definitions in the dictionaries

Question 33 in our survey asked subjects about the evaluation of how headwords are defined in their dictionaries: 54.29% found them adequate, 6.14% too long, 36.86% too short and 2.71% did not report at all. The percentage of students reported to have found dictionary definitions satisfactory is to a great extent compatible with the number of students (51.29%, once a week) using monolingual English dictionaries as contrasted with English-Urdu bilingual dictionary use (only 20.71%, once a week). Yet when questioned as to the circumstances in which they found bilingual dictionaries more helpful than monolingual dictionaries, a large number of students (69.86%) found them more helpful in explaining the meanings of a word. It suggests that foreign learners are often not satisfied with the results of their inquiries in retrieving semantic information from the monolingual dictionary or that they are provided with an explanation they find difficult to comprehend. As a result they

resort to bilingual dictionaries where they apparently do not have to face the problem of not understanding the words provided, (cf. Bensoussan et al., 1981) though still not realising that there are normally no exact translation equivalents of lexical items. Illusions could be more numerous with regard to polysemy which in bilingual dictionaries is generally handled by listing one or two more translation equivalents. In another Question (36), about whether the definitions made the sense clear for synonyms: 61.86% answered affirmatively, 35.86% did not seem to be satisfied and 2.29% were uncertain about it. As a matter of fact, given an EFL learner whose knowledge of L2 is far from perfection, his evaluation of synonyms cannot be regarded as fully accurate: in most cases, he is likely to unquestioningly accept any type of definition given for synonymous words as genuine. It is also known that in a strictly theoretical sense, there are no true synonyms; any translation equivalent or definition by synonym, therefore, is of limited significance to the dictionary user. This point is strengthened further by the fact that most FL learners do not possess the necessary reference skills: they are unaware of such linguistic subtleties as synonym discrimination. According to Jain (1981), a proper sense of equivalence in most learner's dictionaries is blurred by the fairly common but circular glossing technique of one-word synonyms: it cannot be used without misleading the learner. Hornby (1965:106) had a similar observation: "words that appear to be synonymous are usually different in some way or other. They may enter into different patterns of syntax or they may be different in their stylistic value". The use of definition by

synonyms in EFL dictionaries as the only technique is hence not without pitfalls. Students most probably look for suitable synonyms and antonyms in the dictionary for their composition or translation work: 47.59% (Q.34C) wanted synonyms and 41.29% (Q.34D) antonyms to be given in the dictionary.

5.2.2 Current definitional practice in Learner's Dictionaries

The CELD states in its introduction that "great care ... has been taken to make sure that definitions are easy to understand". The CULD in the preface says the "the aim of this dictionary is to provide comprehensive information in as simple a form as possible. This is shown in the simple worded definitions ...". Moreover, on the back cover the use of "clear and accurate definitions in simple language -- but no awkward definitions resulting from an unnaturally restricted vocabulary" is claimed to be one of its outstanding features. The OALDCE claims on its cover to have "practical definitions ... in simple English". But nowhere in these dictionaries is it spelled out how easiness, simplicity, clarity or practicality in definitions have been determined. It is the distinction of the LDOCE to have used a limited vocabulary of approximately 2000 words for definitions. The general introduction explains this feature in detail:

"This very important feature marks this dictionary out from any but the smallest of its predecessors as a tool for the learner and student of language. All the definitions ... in the dictionary are written in a controlled vocabulary of approximately 2,000 words which were selected by a thorough study of a number of frequency and pedagogical lists of English, particular reference having been made to A General Service List of English Words (Longman, 1953, reprinted 1977) by Michael West. Furthermore, a rigorous set of principles was

established to ensure that only the most "central" meanings of the 2,000 words and only easily understood derivatives, were used The result of using the vocabulary is the fulfilment of one of the most basic lexicographic principles -- that is that the definitions are always written using simpler terms than the words they describe, something that can not be achieved without a definite policy of this kind. The vocabulary is however applied flexibly; by an extensive cross-referencing system the user is encouraged to look elsewhere in the text for synonyms and related words which will be useful to him The dictionary has been compiled with the help of computer-checking programs ... and every definition has been machine-checked to ensure that it is part of the controlled vocabulary."

Definition by means of a controlled vocabulary is undoubtedly a significant step forward in L2 lexicography. The main rationale behind such a move is to facilitate better learner comprehension. The idea of a controlled vocabulary is not a innovation in the LDOCE, however; it was implicit in Ogden's Basic English (1930) and used in lexicographical work by Gougenheim (1958) in his French dictionary and by West (1935) in his New Method English Dictionary of 24,000 words. A controlled vocabulary has no doubt the merit of being simple and comprehensible, two aspects highly desired by the learner. Dictionary definitions couched in simple words may bring the meanings of lexical items within the verbal repertoire of the user, but sometimes definitions via a controlled vocabulary become oversimplified, imprecise, vague and often fail to bring out all the important constituent meaning features of a lexical item which is more specific by reason of culture-specific words. MacFarquhar and Richards (1983) undertook an empirical study of learner perception aimed at comparing the intelligibility and clarity of dictionary definitions in three dictionaries -- LDOCE,

OALDCE and WNWD, which follow different definition principles. A random sample of sixty entries were chosen for comparison. The subjects were all foreign students enrolled in courses at the English Language Institute at the University of Hawaii. The result was clearly in favour of controlled vocabulary: definitions from the LDOCE were judged to be 51.5% clearest, from the OALDCE 28.5% and those from the WNWD for 20% of the items. There has, however, been a mixed reaction on the part of some lexicologists and lexicographers (cf. Stein, 1979; Jain, 1981; Michiels and Noel, 1984; Jansen et al., 1987) as to the total validity of controlled vocabulary mainly due to its incompatibility with semantic adequacy. A proposal on this account has been made to increase the number of words in the defining vocabulary and to code the words in the defining vocabulary for the sense indicated in the dictionary definition, with a superscript if the headword happens to be polysemous (cf. Neubauer, 1983).

A controlled vocabulary has its limitations, but there is currently no single method available to the lexicographer which allows him to deal with all the lexical items adequately. The lexicographer has to be eclectic, making use of all ranges of definition types and other complementary information. The framing of appropriate definitions in a pedagogical dictionary is a big challenge to the lexicographer. This aspect of L2 lexicography needs special attention due to the fact that the overriding interest of EFL students is to consult the dictionary for word-meaning.

5.3 Illustrative examples

The use of illustrative examples variously termed as "contextual examples", "verbal illustrations", "citations" or "quotations" is quite an old lexicographical practice, although such examples have been used with different objectives by different lexicographers. For instance, as the main aim of the early Arab lexicographers was to record the complete lexicon of their language, they used illustrative examples in their dictionaries to prove the existence of a word or its particular meaning. Dr. Johnson, who was among the first to promote the use of illustrative examples in English lexicography and who was arguably the greatest exponent of this practice, used them as a complementary device to defining. In L2 lexicography, however, the role of illustrative examples is far more important because of their multi-functionality (Cowie, 1978). According to Drysdale (1987), illustrative examples have the following functions to perform in L2 dictionaries:

1. To supplement the information in a definition
2. To show the entry word in its context
3. To distinguish one meaning from another
4. To illustrate grammatical patterns
5. To show other typical collocations
6. To indicate appropriate registers or stylistic levels.

The EFL learner most often needs to use the dictionary for interpretation; illustrative examples can clarify the connotative meaning involved, given the fact that sometimes definition alone cannot adequately explain the word. If, also, the definition allows for linguistic information, illustrative examples can make

the point clear by describing or providing encyclopaedic information about the lexical item being defined. Showing the word in context by means of illustrative examples helps interpretation as well as encouraging imitation by placing the word in an acceptable semantic environment (cf. Drysdale, 1987). Example sentences help to illustrate the sense discrimination of words with multiple meanings and the differentiation of synonyms. Even if a polysemous entry word could be defined clearly, the illustrative examples have the merit of giving concrete references and they highlight the semantic features peculiar to certain synonyms. In addition to illustrating semantic aspects of an entry word, example sentences serve to provide syntactic information in a more concrete form than any other grammar book; they can be employed to explain the syntactic behaviour of a word in terms of its transitive and intransitive uses, the different kinds of objects and complements it takes, whether it is countable or uncountable etc. Examples of this kind are of more immediate value than cryptic codes. Similarly, collocational and stylistic information can best be provided by means of example sentences to the learner.


5.3.1 Findings on illustrative examples


Three questions in our survey were aimed at illustrative examples. Question 31 asked informants whether they found illustrative examples helpful: 32.71% found them so once a week and 44.29% once a term. When asked (Q.32) whether enough examples were given in their dictionaries: 53.14% answered in "Yes", 44.29% in "No" and 2.57% did not report. But a dominant

majority (93.43%) is strongly in favour of seeing illustrative examples included in the dictionary. In Bejoint's (1981) study 70% used examples and quotations. These figures prove how useful illustrative examples are for the EFL learner in the dictionary. Their inclusion, however, raises some serious questions for the lexicographer regarding the type of lexical items to be accompanied with examples, their selection from written or spoken text and the actual text type of example sentences. Decision as to the selection of these factors would, of course, depend on the type of lexical item, although ideally each lexical item deserves verbal illustration to put it in its right perspective. Drysdale's (1987) classification of the functions illustrative examples can perform is quite comprehensive but it misses out something very important from the point of view of the foreign learner. It is that illustrative examples should be framed with an ethno-methodological orientation aimed at making the foreign learner aware of the typical speech acts peculiar to various settings in daily life in the target language culture. This is undoubtedly an area in which the learner needs information most specifically to build up his communicative competence. The choice of speech acts to be illustrated would depend on the type of lexical item, frequency of use and the sense(s) involved. Viewed in this context, example sentences would assume new dimensions: rather than strictly being limited to monologue types, they may well be extended to dialogue types where needed. A comprehensive classification of speech acts can be worked out along the lines


already suggested (cf. Austin 1962; van Ek 1977; Wilkins 1976; Munby 1978; Yorio 1980). Giving illustrative examples, this orientation in L2 lexicography would obviously make the task of lexicographers a challenging one, but it is certainly an aspect which demands much closer attention.

If illustrative examples have to play multiple roles then how does the learner know the typical point emphasised? It is quite clear that the learner would only be able to benefit from the illustrative example if he knows the point highlighted and the way to recognise it. The best form of demonstration is to underline the particular point in the sentence (e.g. typical phrase, collocational pattern, stylistic level, speech act, syntactic behaviour or semantic range etc.) with a superscript explained at the top of the page along the guide words or at the bottom of the dictionary page. This information would make the search operation immediately rewarding for the learner, rather than setting him off on a journey leading to sifting through the introductory matter each time and transforming the look-up process into a potentially vicious circle.

The OALDCE, however, follows a typographical system to this effect. When a headword is used as more than one part of speech, -- e.g. the word picture which can be used either as a noun or verb -- the different sections within an entry are divided from one another by a large box . Similarly, a compound or a derivative of a headword can sometimes be used as more than one part of speech, for instance, in the entry for white, the compound word whitewash can be used as a noun or as a verb. The

different sections in that part of an entry which deals with compounds or derivatives are divided from one another by a small box . The swung dash  is used to draw the user's attention to the ways in which a word (or a derivative or compound formed from the word involved) is used: example phrases and sentences are quoted for this purpose. The idea is to make it convenient for the user to see how word-derivational morphemes are used to form new words, e.g. alongside grit there is ty. However, if the spelling of the headword is changed when a derivative is formed, this new word is shown in full, e.g. alongside pretty there is prettily. The slant mark / is used in example phrases and sentences, compounds and idioms to show an alternative word or phrase, e.g. in as mad as a March hare / as a hatter, the slant mark means that this idiom can be used in either of these forms: as mad as a March hare or as mad as a hatter. This mark is also employed to demonstrate collocational information, e.g. inspired poet / artists and inspire sb. with hope / enthusiasm / confidence. All this means that the learner wishing to make up sentences of his own will find the examples containing the slant mark helpful.

Idioms and idiomatic expressions are printed in bold italic so as to capture the attention of the user. Two or more idioms may be divided from one another by a semicolon: this suggests that the idioms thus listed have the same meaning, e.g. take it from me and take my word for it which are listed together, separated only by a semicolon in the entry for the verb take, have the same meaning, i.e. "believe me when I say this". Taboo

words are followed by the sign  . This typographical convention, although convenient in some ways, needs to be extended to cover other aspects of the language, e.g. formulaic expressions, connotative reference, special phrases, stress shift etc.

5.3.2 Current illustration practice in Learner's Dictionaries

On its title cover the CELD claims to have "over 35,000 examples of usage" which have been provided "where the meaning of... words is not obvious" (vii). Thus their prime function is explanatory, helping the learner to understand the meanings fully. Yet the examples are also aimed at catering for production needs. The introduction states "it is one of our aims that the reader should be able to use this dictionary not simply to understand new words, but also to make them part of his active vocabulary. For this reason, plentiful use has been made of example sentences and example phrases" (vii).

The CULD includes "54,000 examples of modern English usage", as stated on the title cover. As to the source and rationale behind the inclusion of the illustrative examples, the preface comments: "copious and detailed examples of usage have ... been given to show words in their usual context. These examples are interesting, modern and lively and will encourage the student to become familiar with English usage" (vi).

As described on its back cover, the OALDCE contains "90,000 illustrative phrases and sentences". There is no mention of the

source of these example sentences except that these are "examples showing their use in current English" (xiii). However, the number of examples covered in this dictionary gives it an edge over others of this type.

The LDOCE is also well stocked with 69,000 illustrative examples according to the back cover. Referring to their source, it states: "many of the examples are taken from the Survey of English Usage, Collection of Spoken and written material". The LDOCE includes more colloquial examples than others because of its more recent publication. The real distinction, however, of the LDOCE is that even the illustrative examples are given in the controlled vocabulary.

In any dictionary for Pakistani learners the importance of illustrative examples cannot be underestimated. It is quite encouraging that all the learner's dictionaries currently available on the market seem to be aware of the need to provide illustrative examples, though in varying degree. Yet the basic orientation of example sentences needs to be looked at afresh in view of FL learners' communicative needs. As a matter of fact, students in Pakistani educational institutions acquire much of their FL learning from books. Even when conversations or dialogues appear, they are often unrepresentative of natural and native speech. The type of colloquial and conversational language the learner acquires carries an unmistakable colouring of literary expressions, the type he is most often exposed to during the course of his advanced language studies. Moreover, the speech acts he performs in L2 are simply the translation of

those in his L1.

5.4 Collocations

The notion of "collocation" derives primarily from Firth who used it to account for the tendency of some linguistic forms to co-occur on various occasions, although he does not spell out any criteria for its descriptive analysis. Defining the term he says:

"Meaning by collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic level and is not directly concerned with the conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words. One of the meanings of night is its collocability with dark, and of dark, of course, collocation with night."

The broad field of collocability, however, was later refined (cf. Halliday 1966; Lyons 1966; Mitchell 1966, 1971), subjected to rigorous descriptive analysis (cf. Cowie 1978, 1981; Aisenstadt 1979; Benson 1985; Brown 1974; Newmark 1973; Greenbaum 1979) and established statistically (cf. Sinclair and Jones 1973; Haskel 1971; Berry-Rogghe 1973). With respect to types of collocability Benson (1985) classifies them into two major categories: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. A grammatical collocation in his view is a recurrent combination of a dominant word (verb, noun, adjective) followed by a function word (typically, a preposition). Thus, "abide by" (verb + preposition), "admiration for" (noun + preposition) and "adjacent to" (adjective + preposition) are instances of grammatical collocations. Lexical collocations, on the other hand, are characterised by a pattern of "two equal lexical components", e.g. adjective + noun, verb + adverb, and adverb + noun

combinations. These collocations are generally subdivided into "open" and "restricted" collocations by virtue of the relative freedom which words possess to co-occur with other words, e.g. "run a business / theatre / a bus company / an institution" and "command respect / obedience / attention" etc., respectively. Aisenstadt (1979) defined restricted collocations as

"combinations of two or more words used in one of their regular non-idiomatic meanings, following certain structural patterns, and restricted in their commutability not only by grammatical and semantic valency but also by usage."

Although lexical and syntactic patterns may be considered distinct they are basically interrelated levels of structure. For example, the word "consent", when it occurs with its collocates "mutual" or "common", may be considered in one sense a lexical collocation. Yet it also occurs in a syntactic function as a noun followed by a preposition "to" (e.g. "he finally consented to go") and in a lexico-grammatical role (e.g. "by mutual consent"). These examples tend to suggest that the "patterns of co-occurrence can be grammatical in that they result primarily from syntactic dependencies or they may be lexical in that, although syntactic relationships are involved, these patterns result from the fact that in a given linguistic environment certain lexical items will co-occur" (Carter, 1987)

There are great problems in presenting collocational information in minute detail (Cowie, 1978), yet in a L2 dictionary the indication of collocations, along with their "open" and "restricted" distinctions, is essential for the

learner, so that mistakes in the productive use of the language can be avoided. Many investigations into the dictionary habits of FL students suggest that dictionaries are most often used for decoding activities; presenting collocational information -- whether in detail or in a restricted manner -- may not be as fruitful as expected. There is, however, another aspect too: the specification of collocability provides a word's semantic range. Although the phenomenon of collocation is found in every language it differs across languages with regard to its specific structures, meanings and usages. Thus languages vary in the collocations they permit. Most of the errors made on the lexical level by FL learners which result in deviant collocations are in part due to interference from their L1, and in part due also to over-generalisation. A contrastive study of collocations of learners' L1 and L2 could shed some light on the errors which are due to the transfer of L1 collocations into L2.

5.4.1 Findings on collocations

We asked students (Q.39) whether they wanted the dictionary to give for each headword all frequent collocations: 84.57% answered in affirmation, which makes a strong case for their inclusion in the dictionary. Collocational information is useful for both interpretation as well as making active use of the language. It has been observed that a very large proportion of collocations in English does not pose much difficulty in comprehension but the construction of appropriate collocations in speech or writing does pose problems for the FL learner, as the gift of doing this comes only after long and continuous exposure

to the L2 language. In order to assess the validity of this view, we administered a simple test to a group of 20 postgraduate students at Multan University in Pakistan. Five structural types were chosen for the test:

- a) verb + adjective, e.g. love dearly/passionately;
- b) adverb + noun, e.g. severely/badly injured;
- c) adjective + noun, e.g. terrible/awkward situation;
- d) verb + noun e.g. draw/ pay attention;
- e) noun + noun e.g. tea service/spoon.

The results showed that none of the students could write all the combinations correctly: this proves the point that even the most simple and common collocations pose difficulty for the FL learner. We also believe that none of the above collocations would be difficult in comprehension.

The most important point worth mentioning in this regard is that dictionaries usually do not provide the collocational information in the form in which the user is most likely to look for it. A student, for example, may like to look for a suitable adverb intensifier to go with "love" but he would be disappointed to find none in any of the learner's dictionaries. Similarly, for "injured", he would most probably need an appropriate adverb to go with it. There seems to be no consistent policy in this context and in most cases, collocations are listed where they are less likely to be sought. Moreover, there are differences in treating the same lexical item in different dictionaries which Cowie (1981) rightly attributes to lack of empirical evidence of collocational frequencies available to the compilers of learner's dictionaries.

5.4.2 Current practice in Learner's Dictionaries with regard to collocations

The coverage of collocations in the CELD is far from satisfactory. The introduction does not mention anything about how collocations have been presented in the dictionary. Almost all the collocations covered are illustrated through example sentences, without making the user aware of their open v. restricted characteristics. Similarly, the CULD has no information on collocations in the introductory matter. It mainly relies on example sentences to suggest collocational patterns, to the ignorance of the user as to the type of pattern involved in the combination. The OALDCE makes use of both phrases and example sentences for this purpose. Collocational information in this sense is merged into illustrative examples, which is quite acceptable as pressure on space demands that example sentences should perform several functions simultaneously. Yet, in order to make the user aware of such information the dictionary should evolve a metalanguage along the lines suggested in the section on illustrative examples. The LDOCE also uses both phrases and example sentences to convey collocational information to the user. Quite differently from others, the LDOCE explains, in its introduction, the meaning of a collocation and how it is presented in the dictionary. In addition to this, the LDOCE clarifies collocations by explanation in the usage notes.

5.5 Pragmatic information in Dictionaries

Pragmatics is defined as

"the study of language from the point of view of the user, especially of the choices he makes, the constraints he encounters in using language in social interaction, and the effects his use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication" (cf. Crystal, 1980).

The language varieties perceived in this context may be related to such factors as:

- 1) the mode of communication in relation, for example, to written or spoken language;
- 2) the speaker's social role, with reference to its specificity to his interlocutor;
- 3) the subject-matter, with regard to its specificity to different fields of knowledge;
- 4) the goal of communication such as requesting, persuading etc;
- 5) regional variation specific to different speech communities within the same language;
- 6) temporal differences referring to old and contemporary etc.

All these factors have a strong bearing on the lexical choices made by a speaker or writer.

Lexicographically, pragmatic information relates to the complex issue of marking usage in the dictionary with the aim of sensitising the user to the usage-specificity of various lexical items of a language. Usage generally implies the way words and phrases are actually used; it also refers to the question of suitability of words and phrases with regard to parameters referred to in the first paragraph. There have been two different traditions of treating usage in English lexicography: a) prescriptive and b) descriptive. Prescriptive dictionaries label usage with an authoritative tone, a tradition attributed to

Dr. Johnson who stated in the introduction to his dictionary:

"Every language has ... its improprieties and absurdities, which it is the duty of the lexicographer to correct and proscribe."

This trend grew out of a desire to maintain "purity" in language; labels, therefore, were applied prescriptively rather than based on instances of actual use. Descriptive dictionaries on the other hand tried to be objective and tended to describe language as it existed in its popular usage. This tradition comes from the Oxford Dictionary of English. The preface states:

"The main aim of this dictionary is to present in alphabetical series the words which have formed the English vocabulary from the time of the earliest records down to the present day, with all the relevant facts concerning their form, sense, history, pronunciation and etymology. It embraces not only the standard language of literature and conversation, whether current at the moment or obsolete, or archaic, but also the main technical vocabulary and a large measure of dialectal usage and slang."

The descriptive trend thus ushered in a new era in which impressionistic opinion as a criterion of linguistic correctness is greatly reduced. The proper function of a dictionary, from the standpoint of modern linguists, is to be descriptive rather than prescriptive.

5.5.1 Findings on Usage

In our survey (Q.34) 86.86% students expected stylistic labelling and 80.43% expected information on subject-area to be included in the dictionary. These figures point to the significance of information on usage for the FL learner. General language dictionaries usually do not cover this area, seemingly

operating under the impression that the native speaker does not need this guidance, whereas it is vital in the learner's dictionary as the EFL learner needs full guidance on the idiolectal, stylistic, dialectal, temporal, national and attitudinal variants of language. Thus pedagogical dictionaries are expected to give far more extensive information on the usage of lexical items in order to make the user understand the fine differences of meaning. It is likely that a EFL learner is mistaken about the stylistic value of various lexical items; he may misunderstand the intention of a speaker or writer using a specific word or he may use it himself in an appropriate way. Yorkey (1974) agrees that "he (the EFL learner) needs guidance much more than do native speakers in the choice of language registers. In matters of divided usage or meanings that are often confused, he needs explanations and advice". It is important, therefore, that such indications are given for words when they are restricted with regard to their usage, and it is still vital despite the fact that most learners use the dictionary for interpretation. It is to be hoped that, with their improved reference skills, they will make better use of dictionaries and will avail themselves of the information relating to usage.

5.5.2 Current practice in codifying pragmatic information in Learner's Dictionaries

All the four learner's dictionaries employ labels to indicate pragmatic information for the user. It is however confusing to find that there is no general consensus among the

dictionaries over the coverage of lexical items or phrases considered to be restricted in this context, the range of labels used, the variety of fields covered and the actual assigning of labels to words and phrases as reflected in the following example:

stick-in-the-mud (informal)	CELD
stick-in-the-mud (inf. derog.)	CULD
stick-in-the-mud (infml.)	LDOCE
stick-in-the-mud (colloq.)	OALDCE

The CELD in the introduction (p.vii) states:

"We are aware that non-native users of English are often unsure of the appropriateness of the vocabulary they use. We have therefore given, as far as we could, information on such matters as whether a word is regularly formal or informal in its use, whether it is old-fashioned or restricted to a certain field e.g. law, medicine."

This is followed by a brief explanation of the significance of the labels "formal" and "informal", and an exemplification from a number of disciplines and/or professions to which some words, or one of their meanings, may be restricted in use. The CELD thus is comprehensive neither in the coverage of information on usage nor elaborate in its explanation to the user.

The CULD gives a brief description of "usage" in the preface (p.xi) under the sub-title "Other labels":

"Often there is a label in italic type in brackets which does not refer to any aspect of grammar. Such labels tell you, for example, which field or subject a word belongs to or in what kind of situation a particular word is suitable."

Each label in the dictionary is fully explained and listed

in alphabetical order:

(amer), (arch), (Brit), (derog), (dial), (euph),
(facet), (fig), (formal), (list), (inf), (ironic), (legal),
(liter), (loosely), (offensive), (old), (orig), (), (sl),
(tech), (vulg).

The CULD has also indicated comparison into the field of usage labels. A verb like "commence" is not simply called "formal", it is put into relation with "begin" and "start", e.g. El commence ... (more formal than begin and start).

The OALDCE provides a comprehensive list of labels separately under "specialist English registers" and "stylistic values" on the front page, but does not explain all the labels used in the dictionary. This aspect of the OALDCE has been viewed as one of the "weak points" in the otherwise superbly well-produced dictionary. Without adequate explanation in the dictionary it is hard for the learner to make proper distinction e.g. between "humorous" and "jocular", "archaic" and "old use" or "derogatory" and "pejorative". In the introduction, under the sub-title "style" (p.xxxvi) however, the dictionary gives more formal advice to the user on how to use the words correctly in the context.

"To help you there is information in an entry when the word is to be used only in a particular style or context. For examples, formal words are not used in everyday conversation, or in letters to friends and relations, while colloquial words are not used in business letters, or in conversation with a person who you do not know well or who is your superior."

The LDOCE also lists various labels on the front page but it

unnecessarily mixes the usage labels with other abbreviations. In the "guide to the dictionary" under "labels" (p.xxiv), there is a brief explanation of what each label represents. Since usage is an ever-changing phenomenon, the LDOCE includes statements such as "sometimes" "rare" or "often" which makes it distinctive from other dictionaries in this respect. In addition to this, the LDOCE has employed "usage notes" to highlight various differences of semantic as well as pragmatic nature for instant comprehension by the user.

5.6 Encyclopaedic information

Dictionaries and encyclopaedias are considered to be essentially separate kinds of reference works serving different purposes. A dictionary as such deals with linguistic information, e.g. semantic, syntactic, pragmatic, etymological, phonological, and lexical characteristics of the word. The encyclopaedia, on the other hand, is concerned with the concepts and objects of the extralinguistic world. There is however a tendency among contemporary general-purpose dictionaries (particularly pedagogical dictionaries) to combine the features of the two to some extent. Hence they are encyclopaedic in nature, though the degree of inclusion of encyclopaedic information and the treatment of individual lexical items differs from one dictionary to another. A learner's dictionary may achieve this characteristic by drawing on the following features:

- (1) Assuming that the EFL learner might face difficulty in comprehending the full import of the culture-specific words if

conveyed by linguistic definition alone, the dictionary can give encyclopaedic description to complement the deficiency of definitions;

(2) Some of the lexical items belong to various branches of human knowledge like chemistry, history or law; when such words are marked with subject labels they imply the encyclopaedic context involved;

(3) The use of "illustrative examples" is also made to convey some encyclopaedic information by focussing on the underlying concept;

(4) pictorial illustrations "perform graphically what an illustrative phrase or sentence does verbally" (Landau, 1984). Since they elaborate on definitions, their prime motive is to provide encyclopaedic reference and direct the user's attention to the extralinguistic world. Graphic illustration is, of course, defined as "ostensive definition".

(5) The introductory matter of the dictionary which usually contains a "preface", "introduction" and "users' guide", and the back matter which includes a variety of information related to different spheres of life is essentially encyclopaedic in function.

5.6.1 Findings

Encyclopaedic information in the dictionary helps the learner particularly where cultural polarity exists between languages. Any information to supplement the lexical definition, either in the form of a picture, encyclopaedic description of a

word, verbal illustration conveying the underlying concept of a lexical item, or any other such information contained in the front or back matter of the dictionary will certainly contribute to better learning of the language. Students in our survey hardly bothered to read the introductory matter; neither is their consultation of appendices very encouraging as reflected in the following figures (Q.30).

	<u>Once a term</u>	<u>Once a week</u>
for geographical names	14%	28.43%
numerical expressions	7.86%	22.86%
musical notations	5.43%	7.86%
weights and measures	11.43%	30.00%
common abbreviations	22.00%	30.14%
common suffixes and prefixes	19.14%	30.43%
family names	12.86%	29.86%
irregular grammatical forms	21.86%	35.86%

According to these figures "common abbreviations" and "irregular grammatical forms" seem to be the information most frequently looked for in the appendices. However, about 81.86% of students expected illustrations and pictures, and 58.29% wanted encyclopaedic information to be included in the dictionary. The teachers (22 out of 25) considered the information contained in the appendices very useful to students; they also recommended a few items of information which could be instructive to the learner if included in the appendices, though some of the information is already supplied in some dictionaries.

- a) a list of difficult phrases
- b) a list of most common literary terms
- c) a list of most common mythological figures usually encountered in English literature.
- d) pronunciation of foreign words and phrases
- e) a short history of dictionaries

- f) a world map
- g) capitals of countries
- h) important dates of world historical significance.

5.6.2 Current practice in providing encyclopaedic information in Learner's Dictionaries

As shown in table (2) all the four learner's dictionaries provide sufficient encyclopaedic information in the introductory as well as the back matter. But it is the distinction of the LDOCE that it is the most comprehensive and consistent in its presentation. Apart from the CULD, all the other dictionaries supplement their definitions with graphic illustration, though the OALDCE with 318 illustrations covers this area more than in the LDOCE, with 92 and the CELD with 205. The LDOCE is again superior to others in its coverage of culture-specific words (e.g. "Yorkshire pudding" and "Cornish Pastie") and provides encyclopaedic descriptions of such lexical items. It is also ahead of others in assigning "usage labels" characteristic of various fields of human knowledge to a maximal number of words. What is more urgently required is the drawing up of a check-list of culture-bound words on the basis of contrastive and error analysis to treat them in the dictionary with the most satisfactory encyclopaedic orientation, depending of course on the nature and complexity of the word.

5.7. Organisation of entries

An ideal dictionary for quick accessibility is considered to be the "one in which you can find the information you are looking for -- preferably in the very first place you look." (Haas 1967).

Table 2: Comparison of encyclopaedic information as contained in the introductory and back matter of the four Learners' Dictionaries.

<u>OALDCE</u>	<u>LDOCE</u>	<u>CULD</u>	<u>CELD</u>
Key to phonetic symbols	Preface	Preface	Preface
Abbreviation used in the text	General introduction	<u>Arrangement of entries</u>	<u>Introduction</u>
Contributors	<u>Guide to the dictionary</u>	Headword	The range of information
Acknowledgements	Explanatory chart	Derivatives	How to find it
General preface	Types of words	Compounds	Order of entries
Preface to the phonetic inf.	Syllable division	Phrases	Pronunciation
Key to entries	Variants	<u>The Entries</u>	Grammatical info.
<u>Introduction</u>	Pronunciation	Spelling	Spelling
Using the dictionary	Inflection	Pronunciation	Appropriateness
Finding words and meanings	Labels	<u>Grammatical labels</u>	Cross references
Written English	Punctuation in the dictionary	Nouns, Verbs and phrasal verbs	<u>American & British English</u>
Speaking English	Examples	Adjectives	Pronunciation
Grammar	Cross-references	<u>Other labels</u>	Spelling
Style	Idioms	<u>Position of labels</u>	Vocabulary
Verb patterns	Collocations	<u>Definitions</u>	<u>Abbreviations</u>
Anomalous verbs	Related words listed without explanation	<u>Examples of usage</u>	<u>Appendices</u>
Strong and weak forms	Affixes & Combining forms	<u>Other info.</u>	Irregular verbs
Contractions	Usage notes	<u>Pronunciation</u>	Weights and measures
<u>Appendices</u>	Grammar in the dic.	Stress	Geographical names
Irregular verbs	<u>Appendices</u>	American pronunciation	Personal names
Common abbreviations	List of words used in the dictionary	<u>Labels and abbr. used in the dic.</u>	Abbreviations
Affixes	Irregular verb forms	<u>Appendices</u>	Punctuation marks and symbols
Numerical expressions	Spelling table	Numbers, fractions and numerical expressions	Mathematical symbols
Weights and measures	Number table	Geographical names, nationalities and langs	Punctuation and the use of capital letters
Geographical names	Weights and measures	Ranks in the British armed forces	Plurals of nouns
Common forenames	Animal table	Musical notation	Letter writing and forms of address
Shakespeare's works	Family relations	Weights and measures	Group names and collective nouns
Punctuations	Military ranks	The solar system	
Books of the Bible	Nationality and money table	The English alphabet	
		Abbreviations and symbols	
		Some common affixes & combining forms	

The compiler of the dictionary therefore should base his policy on the needs of the potential user. If the dictionary is supposed to be dominantly used for comprehension then it is required to organise each lexical item alphabetically with separate entries for derivatives, compounds, phrasal verbs and idioms. On the other hand, if the dictionary is aiming to cater for productive use of the language, then the clustering of sub-entries around the simple lexemes would serve the purpose better (Cowie 1983). There are, however, very considerable difficulties involved in implementing such an editorial policy because of clustering vagaries, dispersal, and the loss of integrity in alphabetisation. Since all the learner's dictionaries aim to function as an aid to both comprehension as well as production, they follow an eclectic approach depending very much on the type of lexical item under consideration. Idioms and compounds, however, because of their typical structural nature distinct from other lexical items pose special problems to the lexicographer with respect to presentation in the dictionary and cause difficulty to the user insofar as quick retrieval is concerned. A compound like "magnetic tape" could be given as an independent entry, or could be treated as a run-on under "magnetic" or "tape". Such is the case with idioms like "bone of contention" or "a pig in a poke".

5.7.1 Findings

As discussed in chapter three, advanced Pakistani learners use their monolingual English dictionaries predominantly for

comprehension activities rather than for productive use of the language. A dictionary compiled exclusively for this category of users may -- as a corollary -- be oriented towards the fulfilment of this need. Yet we also know that students' "reference skills" are far from satisfactory; students are not fully aware of the different ways in which information is structured in various kinds of dictionary. Again, students may at present not feel the strong urge to use the dictionary for productive use, but with improved "reference skills" there is bound to be a demand for guidance on productive aspects of dictionaries. However, it would be very helpful to the learner if dictionaries had comprehensive sub-entry schemes and also listed derivatives as headwords if their meaning, spelling or pronunciation is different from the "base" words. Similarly, idioms and compounds need to be specified as headwords if their meanings cannot be worked out from their base words by following a consistent strategy for entering in the dictionary in search of them.

Questions 38 and 39 (a kind of test implied in the questionnaire) were aimed at obtaining an idea of students' retrieval strategies for looking up idioms and compounds in the dictionary. In the idiom get rid of, 37.43% of students looked up under "get" and 61.29% under "rid", and in taken aback, 36.29% looked up under "take(n)" and 61.39% under "aback". This is partly a reflection on students' inconsistent retrieval strategies; in fairly explicit idioms as given in the test, a good number of students tried to locate them under the words which are less likely to be the key constituent in the idiomatic

combination. Compounds, however, could always be tricky, for example, "magnetic tape" and "false alarm" can be specified under either of the constituents. Our test showed the following tendency in the retrieval of idioms:

magnetic tape	magnetic	79.86%
	tape	19.14%
boil down to	boil	93.86%
	down	4.43%

5.7.2 Cuurent practice in the organisation of entries in Learner's Dictionaries

The CELD follows the traditional policy as stated in the introduction: "To give the reader extra assistance compounds, phrasal verbs, idioms etc. have been set out as sub-entries on separate lines thus making them easier to find." The CULD and the OALDCE are also organised on the same principle, but the LDOCE has deviated from this tradition and tends to create separate entries for compounds and phrasal verbs. Explaining its policy in this context the introduction says:

"among the advantages of placing phrasal verbs and compounds as main entries are that the student will soon learn where to look for a particular item ... and will not be expected to know that one word (such as madden) is derived from another (mad), but will find it in its exact alphabetic position..." (p.viii).

In the LDOCE idioms are usually found under the word that has the "most idiomatic meaning" (p.xxvii) so that bone of contention is found under bone because this is used in a more idiomatic way than contention. In the OALDCE, idioms are found

in the entry for the "more important" word in the phrase so that pick holes in is found under the entry for hole.

CHAPTER VI

GRAMMATICAL INFORMATION IN LEARNER'S DICTIONARIES

6.1 Introduction

This chapter puts into perspective the various theoretical positions taken on the relation of grammar and lexicon and the criteria for determining the model, scope and methods of presenting grammatical information in the learner's dictionary. The four learner's dictionaries are evaluated according to these vital aspects with respect to the needs of Pakistani learners of English.

6.2 The relation of grammar and lexicon

Grammar and lexicon have been conceived of by some linguists as two independent facets of linguistic description, resting on the assumption that the former can be stated in terms of general rules, whereas the latter does not lend itself easily to any categorical generalizations. According to Sweet (1899)

"Grammar... deals with what can be brought under general laws, and relegates all the other phenomena of language to that collection of isolated facts which we call the dictionary."

Bloomfield had the same distinction in mind when he said:

"lexicon is really an appendix of the grammar, a list of basic irregularities."

Following almost the same theoretical stance, Halliday et al. (1964:23) explain in a more explicit manner the distinction between grammar and lexicon:

"grammar deals with closed system choices, which may be between items ("then/that", "I/you/he/she/we/they") or

between categories (singular/plural, past/present/future); lexis with open set choices, which are always between items ("chair/settee/bench/stool" etc.)."

Some linguists (cf. Mathiot, 1973) have gone so far as to suggest that words which do not have lexical status, that is, function words as opposed to content words, do not belong in a dictionary. Insistence on the total separation of grammar and dictionary seems to be based on the notion that a dictionary is concerned with words as discrete meaningful elements of language and that syntax and morphology belong to grammar. Such a standpoint may have a theoretical validity but it is hardly tenable for various pragmatic tasks. It is even hard to make a cut-and-dried distinction between "grammar words" and "true lexical items" in the sense of Mathiot's description. Lexical items considered in isolation do not all convey their complete sense unless put into their proper context. Similarly, function words acquire some of their semantic content by entering into various constructions expressing temporal and spatial relationships. Sometimes, of the various senses of a polysemous word, some are rather lexical and others grammatical, e.g. a preposition like "on" has a lexical meaning in a phrase "on the table", where it expresses the situation of an object and can be replaced by another preposition with an observable effect on the meaning (behind the table, under the table) but in a sentence like "During her history, Korania declared war on many states", it has hardly any other function than a grammatical one (cf. Zgusta 1971). Gleason (1967) sums up the view taken up in this study:

"The dictionary should give for each item all pertinent

grammatical identification. It is inadequate, ... merely to label items as noun or verb if it is known that there are significant subclasses within such classes. The dictionary should indeed index the grammatical statement."

6.3 Grammar and pedagogical lexicography

The coverage of grammatical information in monolingual English dictionaries designed according to traditional patterns is quite peripheral, based probably on the premise that it is not required by the native speaker so very much. The dictionaries under review, therefore, identified each lexical item as a particular part of speech, e.g. verb, noun, adjective, adverb etc. within the model of traditional grammar. In some cases, however, further sub-classification was also marked (e.g. the plural for nouns, the gradation forms for adjectives, and the past and participle forms for verbs). The needs and problems of the EFL learner, however, are widely different from those of the native-speaker and this calls for an elaborate specification of grammatical information in the learner's dictionary. It is justified on various grounds: firstly, the foreign learner needs a comprehensive and unified description of the lexicon of his L2 in order to understand it comprehensively, which merits the inclusion of structural aspects, in addition to other dimensions of language. Secondly, it is a common belief that the EFL learner, even at an advanced stage of study, does not have a perfect grasp of grammar; the specification of requisite grammatical information, therefore, could save him from many pitfalls if he has the necessary skills to retrieve grammatical information from the dictionary. Thirdly, the aim of providing

detailed grammatical information in the dictionary is to help the student make productive use of the language and enable him to produce by himself correct and appropriate sentences in his L2. Fourthly, the inclusion of grammar helps the learner to comprehend the full import of a lexical item which in most cases hinges on both syntactic and semantic relationships. However justifiable, therefore, the theoretical standpoint may be in keeping grammar and the dictionary separate, the former is an essential component of an overall description of language in a pedagogical dictionary.

Three questions are of vital importance to the lexicographer if the dictionary is to aim to provide grammatical information -- the model, scope and presentation of grammatical information to be given in a learner's dictionary. There is, indeed, no single objective criterion for determining these parameters; in-depth empirical studies into the language needs of learners, backed up by error-analysis, interlinguistic and intralinguistic investigations could provide guidelines to meet the actual needs of the potential user in the dictionary.

6.3.1 Model of grammatical information

Advances in descriptive linguistics have offered new insights into the linguistic analysis of the morphological, word-class membership and syntactic properties of lexical items, leaving the lexicographer with a crucial choice to make between the traditional and the new terminology commonly used to characterise various grammatical functions and relations.

Although we have in this way started to acquire more scientific descriptions of language substantial differences in the categories used and the terms employed for describing various grammatical phenomena by different grammatical theories could be misleading to the uninformed dictionary user if incorporated in learner's dictionaries. The contrastive table designed by Mackey (1965) suggests treating parts of speech in English diversely. Some linguists (cf. Marckwardt, 1973) have even been quick to criticise lexicographers for not incorporating modern linguistic principles into the dictionary-making process. We also submit that language teaching in most countries has not fully kept abreast with advances in descriptive linguistics. It is, therefore, advisable that either the terms and categories for distinguishing word-classes, sub-classes and various other syntactic relations specified in dictionaries should be compatible with the grammar books generally prescribed for students; alternatively, new terms should be fully explained in the introduction of the dictionary (Lemmens and Wekker, 1986).

6.3.2 Scope of grammatical information

It is not feasible -- due to constraints on space -- for the dictionary-maker to provide a comprehensive grammatical description of each and every lexical item, but a good learner's dictionary cannot afford to omit the kind of grammatical information which is clearly vital for the learner. This would essentially depend on those aspects of vocabulary which are relatively more problematic. We understand that foreign students do not have a tendency to look up grammatical information in

Table 3: Mackey's table of parts of speech

TRADITIONAL		SWEET		SLEDD		JEPERSEN		ROBERTS		FRIES		HILL		
article	Declin-able	Undeclinable	Morpho-logical	Syntactic		Ranks		Parts of Speech		Form Classes	Structure Words	Form Classes	Function Word Groups	
pronoun	noun †		pronoun	Minor	Major	adverbs of degree	adjectivals	Pronouns †	nouns *	noun	deter-miners	1	A	pronouns
noun	adjective		noun	determiner	nominals	interrogative adverbs	secondaries	nouns †	adjective	adjective	pronouns	2	B	nouns
adjective	adjective		adjective	reflexive	primaries	preposition	tertiaries	verbs	verb	verb	auxiliary verbs	3	C	adjectives
verb	verb		verb	auxiliary	adverbials	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb	question words	4	D	verbs
adverb	adverb	adverb	adverb	adverbs of degree	adverbials	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb	preposi-tions		E	adverbs
preposition	preposition	preposition	preposition	interrogative adverbs	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb	conjunc-tions		F	preposi-tions
conjunction	conjunction	conjunction	conjunction	preposition	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb	sentence-connectors		G	conjunc-tions
interjection	interjection	interjection	interjection	conjunction	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb	subordin-ates		H	
				conjunction	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb	etc.		I	
				conjunction	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb			J	
				conjunction	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb			K	
				conjunction	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb			L	
				conjunction	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb			M	
				conjunction	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb			N	
				conjunction	tertiaries	conjunction	particles	verbs	adverb	adverb			O	

their dictionaries. Bejoint's (1981:219) conclusion is not encouraging:

"monolingual dictionaries are not commonly referred to, and neither are the coding systems for syntactic patterns. Certainly many students are not even aware of the riches that their monolingual dictionaries contain."

Nevertheless, morphologically, this information should cover irregular and unpredictable forms of lexical units. Regular inflections are described in the grammar and do not need to be repeated for each item in the dictionary. The irregular forms may be, for example, the plural of the noun tooth (teeth), the past tense of the verb keep (kept), the comparative and superlative of the adjective bad (worse, worst), and where there is an alternative between an inflectional suffix (-er, -est) and the use of more/most before the adjective.

Dictionaries are also expected to indicate word-class information, i.e. whether a word is classed a noun or a verb or an adjective etc. Part-of-speech labels provide vital information about inflectional and syntactic behaviour. According to Jackson (1985) this is needed on the ground that:

1) the word-class label is an indication about the kinds of inflections that are appropriate to the lexical item. The label "noun" implies the possibility of a "plural" and possessive inflection;

2) the word-class label provides basic information about the syntactic behaviour of a lexical item. The label "noun" communicates information about the places at which the word thus designated may occur in a syntactic structure, i.e. as head of a noun phrase.

Similarly, "adjective" refers to a lexical item's function as a modifier before the noun in a noun phrase (e.g. a good book) or as head of an adjectival phrase in the predicate of a clause (e.g. our visit was very rewarding). Then there is the question of sub-classifying various parts of speech, which is essential for various semantic and syntactic reasons. Nouns, for instance, could be sub-classified into count and non-count etc. Verbs can be categorised as transitive, intransitive, ditransitive etc. The functions of adjectival phrases can be distinguished in terms of their role as attributive and predicative. Similarly, adverbs can be treated further with regard to their uses as adjunct, conjunct or disjunct.

Syntactic information is needed in the dictionary to enable the learner to produce acceptable sentences in the target language. This is particularly vital in the case of verbs whose patterns are not easy for the learner to grasp unless he is sensitive to the minutest details. This is certainly the assumption underlying Hornby's verb-patterns incorporated in the OALDCE, and the same assumption underlies the description of verb complementation in LDOCE. There have been demands from various quarters for the provision of more information of a syntactic kind in learner's dictionaries, such as:

passivisation;
the clause patterns a verb may enter;
types of complementation a verb may take;
obligatory, optional or deletable items;
whether a verb can form progressive tenses and various kinds of phrasal verbs (e.g. verb and preposition and verb and adverb expression) etc. (Herbst, 1984).

It is incumbent on the dictionary-maker to select precisely from

this plethora of grammatical information only those vital aspects which would help learners resolve their uncertainties in a clear, unambiguous and efficient way.

6.3.3 Presentation of grammatical information

The presentation of grammatical information in dictionaries is an issue widely discussed in the literature and various methods have been suggested for dealing with this question. One of the old methods -- popular in the past -- was to indicate grammatical information by means of abbreviated forms, e.g. "n" for noun and "v" for verb etc., with the headword as found in the COD. Coverage in this way is undoubtedly fragmentary and does not fully measure up to the needs of the EFL student. The second strategy is to devise a comprehensive coding system which covers not only morphological and word-class information but also details of a syntactic kind. The OALDCE and the LDOCE are the best examples of such coding systems which refer users to a tabular explanation in the front-matter of the dictionary. Yet devising a system of coding which is reliable, clear and easy-to-use requires a great deal of ingenuity. The findings of various investigations suggest that the complexity of coding systems is often off-putting to many students. They also find the constant need to refer to explanatory tables time-consuming. Bejoint (1981) found that the complexity of coding systems inhibits their use.

Quotations and examples are instead far more frequently used than codes. Greater stress therefore has been laid on

simplicity, directness of presentation, and the adoption of symbols which have a mnemonic value (Heath 1982; Braecke 1981). Lemmens and Wekker (1986) have proposed an alternative coding system claiming it to be more adequate and pedagogically acceptable. The actual usefulness, however, of various coding systems could be established by empirical investigations. Thirdly, extensive verbal illustrations should be provided, perhaps to the exclusion of any type of codes. Al-Kasimi (1977: 90-91) maintains that examples should not take the place of grammatical statements. Ellegard (1978:236), however, is strongly in favour of illustrative examples rather than codes. Explaining the usefulness of the former he observes:

"the learner will certainly in the first place use the examples provided under the respective verbs in order to find out about the possible constructions of the verb. He will do so for at least two reasons. Firstly, because he gets these examples directly, and does not have to look up the meaning of the symbols in the introduction (they are far too many to remember). Second, because the examples under the actual entry contain the word he is interested in. They are therefore concrete -- they do not require him to grasp an abstract rule, or to abstract a rule from another example."

The fourth strategy is to be eclectic and employ all available means to get the message across -- a) by means of pattern codes; b) through illustrative examples; c) by means of explanation in usage notes, depending of course on the nature and intricacy of the lexical item under consideration.

6.4 Findings on grammar

Our questionnaire comprised two types of questions -- explicit and implicit -- intended to elicit the attitudes of students to grammatical information provided in the dictionary.

In a direct question (Q.37) 86.86% students reported that they consulted the dictionary on grammatical matters, e.g. to ascertain which word-class a lexical item belongs to; 72.57% were satisfied with their search operations and 76.43% wanted more information on grammar. In another question (Q.16B) 75.29% students considered grammatical information as an important factor which affected their decision to buy the dictionary they now own. Only 8.43% (Q.26B) considered bilingual dictionaries more helpful than monolingual dictionaries in providing grammatical information. With respect to the kinds of information sought (Q.28E) 50.14% students looked for grammatical information periodically and 9% once a week. As far as the type of words is concerned (Q.29D), 16.14% looked up function words in the dictionary once a week, and 28.43% once a term. It was observed, however, that these responses to the overt questions do not fully confirm the answers to indirect questions, as only 44.43% stated that they had been instructed on how to retrieve grammatical information. Similarly, there is no serious effort noticeable on the part of students to refer to grammatical labels in the front-matter: 14% refer to them once a week and 16.14% once a term. It is thus not possible to ascertain with any degree of certainty how far learners make full use of grammatical information, given the fact that they do not seem to have the necessary skills to use the dictionary efficiently. It is assumed that most of the grammatical information looked for in the dictionary relates to morphological and word-class type which does not need any further reference to the front-matter, and the

Table 4: Coding system proposed by Lemmens and Wekker

Basic VP-structures	Verb types	Examples
1.V Ø (A)	Intransitive	John snores John drinks
2.V $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} NP \\ AdJP \\ PP \\ Cl \end{array} \right\}$ (A)	Copula	John is $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{a fool} \\ \text{foolish} \\ \text{in a good mood} \end{array} \right\}$ John is to be envied (co-inf.pass.) John grew old The milk turned sour They got rich John became an actor
3.V $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Loc \\ AdvP \\ PP \end{array} \right\}$ (A)	Loc Intransitive	John is $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{outside} \\ \text{in the garden} \end{array} \right\}$ John lives in Paris
4.V $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} PP \\ Cl \\ AdvP \\ NP \end{array} \right\}$ (A)	Ac Intransitive	John belongs to a left-wing party. John condescended $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to bribery} \\ \text{to help us} \end{array} \right\}$ He lived to be 90 This car drives smoothly It weighs 10 pounds It lasted (for) three hours
5.V $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Ac - Pc \\ NP \\ AdvP \end{array} \right\}$ (A)	Complex Intransitive	John died a Catholic Susan married young
6.V $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} NP \\ Cl \end{array} \right\}$ (A)	Monotransitive	John admires Susan John likes $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{to sing} \\ \text{singing} \end{array} \right\}$ (to-inf) (-ing) John hopes that you will help him (fin) John saw Susan $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{leave} \\ \text{leaving} \end{array} \right\}$ (NPinf) (NP-ing) John kept me waiting (NP-ing) John believes the dog to be hungry (NPto-inf) John found the money stolen from the box (NP-ed)
7.V IO/NP + DO/NP (A)	Ditransitive	John gave Susan the book
8.V DO/NP + $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Ac-Pc \\ NP \\ PP \end{array} \right\}$ (A)	Complex Monotransitive	She painted the door $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{green} \\ \text{all colours} \end{array} \right\}$ John saw Susan drunk He flung the door open They found John $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{a fool} \\ \text{foolish} \\ \text{in a good mood} \end{array} \right\}$ They appointed him chairman They christened the baby John They beat the prisoner unconscious
9.V DO/NP + $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Ac \\ PP \\ AdvP \end{array} \right\}$ (A)	Ac Monotransitive	John put the money $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{in a box} \\ \text{there} \end{array} \right\}$ John's firm posted him to Singapore John reminds me of his father John worded the letter carefully

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area where lexicographers have spent much time and energy, viz. syntactic information presented in the form of various codes, goes unheeded. This is also implied in the importance students attach to illustrative examples: 32.71% make use of them once a week, 44.29% once a term and 93.43% want the dictionary to include more example sentences. The situation is undoubtedly paradoxical:

"it is for encoding that students need the most information; it is encoding information which is the most difficult to supply; and yet this is the information which students use the least" Bejoint (1981).

It is however worth noticing that 90% of students (Q.34P) need more information on phrasal verbs (e.g. verb and particle/preposition and verb and adverb). This is undoubtedly an area highly difficult for the learner to master. Phrasal verbs constitute a formidable learning problem for the foreign student, to the extent that he often avoids using them altogether (cf. Cowie 1982). It should be recognised that phrasal verbs (e.g. abide by; adhere to etc.) and other grammatical collocations such as noun + preposition (e.g. access to; amazement at etc.) and adjective + preposition (e.g. accountable to; absent from) are inherently intricate for the foreign learner to master. As the number of these grammatical collocations is very large and forms an essential part of English vocabulary, learner's dictionaries should provide complete information on them all and present them as separate entries.

Cowie (1982) distinguished four major types of syntactic difficulty the foreign learner usually faces in coping with the

verb and particle construction in English. Firstly, the student in particular cases (e.g. break in, fall out, get through) is unable to recognise whether the verb takes a direct object or not, or could be used in both ways. Secondly, in certain combinations (e.g. break away, cope with, take off etc.), the learner is uncertain whether the second element functions as an adverbial particle or a preposition. Thirdly, the learner is not sure -- with reference to some combinations of verb + particle -- how to determine where the particle can freely be moved to either side of a short noun phrase object. Fourthly, the learner has difficulty in recognising the transformational possibilities (e.g. passivisation and nominalisation etc.) of a combination.

As a result of these inherent syntactic difficulties, learners usually tend to generalise in cases, for example, where there is prima facie relatedness in the form or meaning of two combinations; errors of this type are more common in combinations (verb + particle or verb + preposition) which have multiple related meanings but different syntactic characteristics. In much the same way, learners have a tendency to extend the majority transitive pattern to the intransitive meanings or vice versa and they use passive transforms for certain senses of a combination which are unacceptable.

6.5 Current practice in Learner's Dictionaries with regard to grammatical information

6.5.1 The CELD

Grammatical information in this dictionary is claimed to have been presented in as simple a manner as possible, achieved:

- a) by giving helpful examples of the word in normal use, and
- b) by giving information about parts of speech presented in abbreviated form, e.g. ne, nu; vi, vt; adj, pred adj, attrib adj; adv; aux, conj, determiner, intensifier, interj, prep and pron.

Morphologically, general rules for making plurals are given in the front-matter and those plurals which may give difficulty are indicated where the headword occurs in the dictionary. The present participle, past participle and past tense of verbs are given in full whenever they are irregularly formed or likely to be wrongly spelt. In addition, there is a list of irregular verbs in the appendix. Special notes are given on phrasal verbs, specifying them as a) intransitive; b) object preceded by the particle and c) object preceding or following the particle. No coding system is employed for syntactic information; the main reliance is on definitions and example sentences given in full.

6.5.2 The CULD

With regard to grammatical information, the preface states:

"the aim of this dictionary is to provide comprehensive information in as simple a form as possible. This is shown ... in the helpful grammatical information which has been provided in the individual entries in such a way that it is easy to understand immediately. This is a dictionary which individual learners will be able to use by themselves without necessarily relying on the help of a teacher".

This appears to vindicate the idea of not using codes for syntactic information which is further pointed out on the back cover:

"information on grammar ... included in individual entries -- no difficult coding system, no need for constant reference to the introduction".

The CULD gives due attention to morphological information, both

derivational and inflectional. Those derivatives whose meanings are clear (e.g. accurately and accuracy) from their headwords are not defined but derivatives which have been defined are given in alphabetical order and begin on a separate line to make them easier to retrieve from the dictionary. Also, derivatives which are not defined but have been given as examples of usage are also in alphabetical order and begin on separate lines. Some common affixes and combining forms are also provided in the appendix. Such inflectional information as is usually tricky has also been taken care of in the dictionary. In order to avoid ambiguity nouns have been labelled nc for noun countable, nu for noun uncountable, ncu for noun both countable and uncountable, nc (no pl) for noun countable (no plural), e.g. buzz, n pl for noun plural, n for noun where the question of countability is not relevant, e.g. in titles such as Home Office, Christendom etc., and pl for plural. All plural forms of nouns have been given where these are irregular. All cases of verbs whose pattern of conjugation is not regular, are indicated at the point of entry. Similar treatment is given to verbs whose past tense or past participle might cause difficulty due to spelling (e.g. abet -- pt, ptp abetted). Syntactically, the dictionary does not present any new coding system; rather, it has relied on a traditional part-of-speech labelling, classified further within the same framework and occasionally supplemented by useful notes intended to clarify the finer points involved. Verbs are labelled in the following way: a) Vt for verb transitive, b) vi for verb intransitive, c) vti for verb both transitive and intransitive, d) v. refl. for verb reflexive, e) vt fus. for verb transitive

fused (a fused transitive phrasal verb is a phrase which acts like a transitive verb and whose object can never come between the verb and its accompanying preposition, e.g. spy on as in "Our next-door neighbours are always spying on us"), f) vt sep. for verb transitive separable (a separable transitive phrasal verb is a phrase which acts like a transitive verb whose object can either come between the verb and its accompanying adverb or after the accompanying adverb, e.g. put aside), g) vt oblig. sep. for verb transitive obligatorily separated (a separable transitive phrasal verb is one in which the object must come between the verb and adverb, e.g. push around) and vt usu. sep. for verb transitive usually separated (a separable phrasal verb is one in which the object usually comes between the verb and adverb, e.g. bring round). Sometimes a preposition or adverb which (usually) accompanies a certain verb has been placed in brackets after it, e.g. abstain (often with from) etc.

Adjectives are classified into attributive (attrib) and predicative (pred) and those which are not labelled can be used in either position. Comparative and superlative forms have been given only where these are irregular. When certain adjectives are accompanied by a particular preposition: this is indicated in the labelling of the adjective, e.g. deaf 2 is labelled (pred. with to). Nouns are also labelled when they function attributively (attrib), as feminine (fem) or they appear in compounds (in compds). Heath (1982) compared three learner's dictionaries (OALDCE: 1980; LDOCE: 1978; CULD:1980) so as to assess how much information is typically given for the three

word-classes verb, noun and adjective, and how accurate it is. He assembled a comparative table with regard to the letters J, K and L, and drew the following conclusions from his investigations:

"1) Example sentences should be considered as important a source of grammatical information as any codes which might accompany headwords. If many users, as seems to be the case, ignore, or do not even notice, the codes, this demand seems doubly relevant since the examples then represent the only source of grammatical information.

2) If syntactic pattern codes are used, they should be able to be understood without the need for constant reference to an introduction or a back-cover. The usefulness of codes, which are after all only a grammatical short hand, is impaired by overcomplexity and a striving for perfection. It is preferable to make the user's needs the paramount concern rather than to aim for a linguistically "water-tight" description. In any case, both the ALD and the LDOCE coding systems are not wholly adequate -- in the eyes of the descriptive linguist. Should any pedagogically relevant system hope to be so?

3) If codes are used, they should be used consistently. Every verb should be labelled transitive or intransitive, every noun countable or uncountable, every adjective attributive or predicative, as the case may be. In this respect the CULD, with its simple coding, is perhaps the easiest dictionary for the learner to use.

4) When example sentences are used to exemplify information given in coded form, both the codes and the examples should be ordered in such a way that they are seen to be complimenting each other (the codes might immediately precede or follow an example sentence)."

6.5.3 The OALDCE

The back cover of the dictionary claims:

"the OALDCE provides detailed information on how to put words together in correct sentence patterns."

This is further spelled out on the inside of the front page:

- a) special treatment of plural verbs;
- b) unrivalled information on grammatical vocabulary;

- c) irregular conjugations, plurals, comparatives and superlatives;
- d) labelling of countable and uncountable nouns;
- e) detailed information on verb patterns.

Derivations are listed alphabetically in bold type at the end of an entry. The derivatives which are consistent in spelling and meaning are written **ness**, **ly**, **ment**, etc. The swung dash represents the headword. Others are printed in full or have a separate entry where their spellings or meanings have changed. Many headwords can function as more than one part of speech (e.g. a verb, a noun or an adjective). These different roles within an entry are divided from one another by a large box . Similarly, a compound or a derivative of a headword can sometimes be used as more than one part of speech (e.g. the compound word whitewash can be used as a noun or a verb or alcoholic can be used as an adjective or a noun). These differences in the part of an entry which deals with compounds or derivatives are distinguished from each other by the small box .

Most of the adjective entries in the dictionary are given with correct prepositions they take (e.g. **conversant with** or **distinct from**) represented in bold print at the beginning of the entry. Brackets are used when the preposition is optional. Countability information for nouns is given in coded form by using symbols [c], [u] and [c, u]. Some of the noun entries contain information on the preposition(s) they take; the optional prepositional phrases are placed in brackets to single them out from the obligatory ones.

The most remarkable feature of the OALDCE is its system of

basic patterns of verbs presented in coded form. The system comprises 25 verb patterns running from [VP1] to [VP25] with 26 sub-patterns, for example [VP2B], [VP4C] etc. There is no obvious logical ordering of the VPs except that the first four, [VP1] to [VP4] are concerned with copulas and intransitives, [VP6] to [VP10] with monotransitives, [VP11] to [VP14] with ditransitives and [VP15] to [VP25] with complex transitives. It is therefore hard to figure out the meaning of these codes without resorting to the tabular explanation in the front-matter, which students often find uninteresting and time-consuming. In addition, the dictionary gives the correct particle or preposition, with the verb printed in bold italics in the entry so that the student can locate it easily. Brackets are used to suggest whether the verb can be used with or without a particle/preposition. Similarly, a verb with slants, e.g. go with sb/sth indicates that the phrase must be used with an object after the preposition. Apart from the inherent difficulties in coming to terms with the coding system of the dictionary, Lemmens and Wekker (1986) found many inconsistencies, inaccuracies and ambiguities in the coding system of the OALDCE. They discovered that:

- 1) terminology used in the description of the VPs is often confusing;
- 2) the labelling of sentence elements in the VPs is inconsistent;
- 3) there are too many sub-classes of the VPs;
- 4) identical structures are given by different labels;
- 5) Some VPs have no code at all;
- 6) VPs are not always supported by illustrative examples;
- 7) Transformational relations such as indirect object movement, passivisation, and extraposition are not brought out sufficiently.

Table 5: Contrastive study of complementations by Heath

<i>Verbs listed under letter J (jab to juxtapose)</i>	ALD	LDOCE	CULD
In all 75 verbs are listed in the three dictionaries, of these each dictionary includes: (47 verbs are common to all three dictionaries)	64	68	48
Of the total number of verbs included in each dictionary, verb pattern coding (CULD only transitive-intransitive distinction) is given for:	54/64	68/68	47/48
The total number of patterns given is	123	105	66
for all verbs	98	79	66
for the 47 verbs			
Of the total number of patterns given for the 47 verbs, the following percentages are			
simple intransitive	36%	32%	43%
simple transitive	37%	41%	48%
The number of verbs for which an example is given for each pattern indicated is:	10/47	16/47	44/47
Total number of examples given for the 47 entries	102	85	115

Nouns listed under letter L (lab to lamprey)

In all 75 nouns are listed in the three dictionaries, of these each dictionary includes: (40 nouns are common to all three dictionaries)	61	64	40
Of these 40 nouns countable/uncountable coding is given for the following number:	39/40	40/40	38/40
Of these 40 nouns, pattern information is given for the following number:	1/40	1/40	1/40
The number of prepositional collocates illustrated in examples (of a total of 12 in all three dictionaries) is:	7/12	4/12	4/12
The number of entries accompanied by at least one example:	15/40	9/40	34/40
The number of different meanings identified for the 40 nouns:	62	63	63
Of the total of different meanings, the following number was accompanied by at least one example:	23/62	12/63	49/63
Total number of examples given for 40 nouns	35	15	74
Of this total the number of noun phrases	32	12	22
Of this total the number of sentences	3	3	52

Adjectives listed under letters K and J (kaleidoscopic to large-sized)

In all 75 adjectives are listed in the three dictionaries, of these each dictionary includes: (42 adjectives are common to all three dictionaries)	68	66	49
Of the total number of patterns indicated in either examples or mentioned specifically, each dictionary includes:	9/13	10/13	7/13
The number of different meanings identified for the 42 adjectives is	60	69	53
Of these different meanings the following number is accompanied by at least one example to illustrate attributive and/or predicative use, as applicable:	11/60	18/69	47/53
Of the 42 entries, the following number is accompanied by at least one example:	12/42	23/42	38/42

All this suggests that the coding system is far from satisfactory and needs reorientation and improvement. Herbst (1984), dealing with adjective complementation within a valency approach, distinguished between complements which may be obligatory/optional and peripheral and found that the OALDCE presents this basic information in an inconsistent and incomplete manner.

6.5.4 The LDOCE

The LDOCE is more comprehensive than the OALDCE in providing grammatical information to the foreign learner presented variously in full form, in codes, in abbreviations and usage notes. The editor-in-chief claims that the grammatical information in the dictionary

"gives a comprehensive description of the syntactic behaviour of the individual items of vocabulary".

Inflections of all irregular parts of speech (e.g. noun, verb, adjective, adverb etc.) are shown in full form in order to avoid any misunderstanding due to spellings, pronunciations, meanings etc.

The most outstanding feature of the LDOCE is its coding system which is based on letters and numbers. The noun code in the LDOCE may be one or more of the following types: [A], [C], [E], [GC], [GU], [N], [P], [R], [S], [U] and [Wn]. The codes [C], [GC], [U] and [GC] refer to countability. [GC] and [GU] are subdivisions of [C] and [U], as they refer to countable and uncountable group nouns. Another sub-category of nouns [S] stands for singular nouns that cannot be used with one, but can

be preceded by a. Codes [A] and [E] stand for positions in phrases; [A] refers to premodifying nouns and [E] to postmodifiers. [N] is for nouns used as vocatives, [P] stands for nouns (and nominalized adjectives) that are used with plural verbs only and [R] stand for a group of nouns that are names. All [W] codes are mainly concerned with inflection and pronunciation but their numbers have different meanings for each sub-code and have no connection with the numbers linked to other letters. [Wn] and its sub-classes refer to names of certain animals and plants which do not follow the normal rules of pluralisation. Similarly, adjectives can have the following codes: [A], [B], [E], [F], [GU], [P] and [Wn]. The first four letters refer to phrase or sentence positions whereas [GU] and [P] apply to certain noun categories and nominalised adjectives. [GU] stands for adjectives that have no separate plural form. [P] refers to nominalised adjectives used with plural verbs and pronouns and [Wa] stands for adjectives that have no irregular comparative or superlative forms. Adverbs can have one or more of the following codes: [E], [F], [H] and [Wa]. [H] refers to those adverbs that can be used in combination with prepositions and with other adverbs.

Verbs may be of one or more of the following 6 types: [D], [I], [L], [T], [V], [X]. [D] is used for verbs followed by two sentence elements of which at least one is obligatory. [I] stands for verbs which are intransitives. [L] is used for linking verbs followed by a complement or an adverbial referring to the location of the subject. [T] stands for verbs which are

transitives. [V] is a sub-category of [T]. [X] is used for verbs that are followed by a direct object in position III and a complement or an adverbial referring to the direct object. To show how the rest of the clause or phrase is made up in relation to a particular verb, the dictionary uses numbers 0 to 9 for ten construction patterns. It further uses Wv1 -- Wv6 to represent certain facts about the forms and pronunciation of verbs.

In their analysis of the two learner's dictionaries, Lemmens and Wekker (1986) observe that

"on the whole the LDOCE is more consistent than the ALD. Although the LDOCE still does not exemplify all codes, it is more successful in supplying examples for most of them".

The system of codes used in this dictionary is undoubtedly quite comprehensive and economical for the lexicographer to provide maximal information but the claim of the dictionary that its code "is a system which is easily remembered and which requires no knowledge of grammatical theory to be fully understood" is not fully acceptable. It is fairly demanding and distracting, particularly in combining all the pieces of information. Scholfield (1980) remarks in this connection:

"The LDOCE has a complicated coding system of letters and numbers with little mnemonic value (simple transitive verbs are T1, but what does Wa5 suggest?). Such an abbreviated code, properly illustrated and explained in the "front-matter", is certainly the most succinct and exact way of giving the information but is hard to master, needs constant looking up, and consequently may be little used by the student."

CHAPTER VII

PHONOLOGICAL INFORMATION IN LEARNER'S DICTIONARIES

7.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the codification of phonological information in the learner's dictionary; it explores primarily the reasons which call for the inclusion of such information, followed by a discussion of the extent to which this guidance is required in learner's dictionaries and what criteria are available to lexicographers when they wish to choose one of the various models of English and systems of notation for their particular purposes. The results of our Questionnaire are measured against the principles followed in the four learner's dictionaries under review and the suggestions offered relate solely to advanced learners of English in Pakistan.

7.2 Orthographic problems in Pronunciation

Languages can exhibit great consistency in the graphic representation of their speech sounds but English, which is the most widely used international language in the contemporary world, has the blemish of being irregular from a grapho-phonemic point of view. That is why it is universally known that the orthography of English is not a reliable guide to actual speech. It is also a fact that the vast majority of EFL learners acquire language through the medium of the printed word: the irregular relationship existing between the written and spoken word is hence bound to have an adverse effect on pronunciation. Anyone

learning English as a foreign language has to come to terms with the complexities of English orthography. An ideal spelling system would have one grapheme for one phoneme; it is because of this lack of compatibility within the English spelling system that the foreign learner needs guidance on the correct pronunciation of words. Viewed in this context, learners are misled into believing that there are twenty-six letters in English, of which five (a, e, i, o, u) are vowels and the remaining twenty-one consonants. In reality, there are as many as twenty vowels and diphthongs; and twenty-four consonants resulting in forty-four (RP) phonemes. Roach (1983:3) has rightly observed:

"Because of the notoriously confusing nature of English spelling, it is particularly important to learn to think of English pronunciation in terms of phonemes rather than letters of the alphabet."

A few examples may be quoted to demonstrate the discrepancies between orthographic and phonetic representation of English letters.

<u>Vowel</u>	<u>Orthograph</u>	<u>Words</u>
/i:/	"ea", "ee", "ei", "ie", "e", "eo", "i", "ae"	"seat", "feet", "deceive", "piece", "evil", "people", "police" and "encyclopaedia" respectively
/i/	"i", "e", "o", "u" "ui", "y"	"bid", "pretty", "women", "busy", "build", and "symbol"
/e/	"e", "ea", "ai", "a" "ie", "eo",	"met", "head", "said", "many", "friend", and "leopard"
/ɜ:/	"ur", "ir", "or" "our", "yr"	"turn", "bird", "word", "journal" and "myrtle"

/ʌ/	"u", "oo", "ou" "oe", "o"	"run", "blood", "touch", "does" and "among"
/u:/	"food", "sue", "jewel", "flute", "two" "wo", "o", "oe"	"oo", "ue", "ew", "u" "womb" and "shoe"
/ʊ:/	"oo", "u", "o", "ou"	"good", "put", "wolf" and "could"
/ɔ:/	"au", "aw", "awe", "a" "o", "oa"	"cause", "law", "awe", "war", "orbit" and "broad"
/dz/	"j", "g", "ge", "gi" "region", "dge", "dg", "gg", "de", "di"	"jeans", "gene", "surgeon", "badge", "budget", "suggest", "grandeur" and "soldier"

Also, the neutral English vowel schwa, which is phonetically represented as /ə/, manifests itself orthographically as "a", "e", "i", "o", and "u". The result, of course, is that in a great many cases, the foreign learner can not tell from the spelling when schwa is the sound he should pronounce. So he proceeds to utter some other vowel that the spelling suggests to him. Thus, in many cases, mistakes of pronunciation may be ascribed directly to inconsistencies in English spelling. The discrepancy between spelling and sound has given rise in the past to various movements campaigning for English spelling reform. Reformers wish to revise the alphabet so that one letter would correspond to one sound and one sound to one letter, but their efforts have not yet gained much ground.

7.3 Competence in speech production

One of the prime objectives of FL learning is to be able to communicate in the target language. Speaking a language involves

more than simply pronouncing it, of course, but we are here concerned only with the acoustic aspect of FL learning. To be able to speak a language well one needs to have competence in the syntactic, lexical, semantic, pragmatic and stylistic aspects of the language, though competence in these vital fields could be vitiated by incompetence in the phonic medium: this, in fact, strongly justifies the learning of proper pronunciation. Opinions may, however, differ as to the level of performance to be aimed at when the learner has progressed to an advanced stage. Higgins (1969) proposed a four point scale for measuring student performance in speech production: a) unintelligibility; b) intelligibility; c) acceptability and d) near-native proficiency. The target, according to Higgins, for the advanced learner is to be "acceptable" at all times and "near-native" in well practised situations. Some linguists and language teachers consider the segmental features to be the primary sources of information for the listener and the suprasegmentals as the secondary sources of information. In connected speech, though, both are vital; it is one of the limitations of dictionaries that they cannot be comprehensive in their coverage of both types of information.

7.3.1 Segmental features and pronunciation

The learning of individual vowels and consonants is crucially important in learning to speak intelligibly. Fundamental, therefore, to any level of performance in speaking is the ability of the learner to articulate sounds in isolated word forms, paying due attention to phonemes, phoneme contrasts,

phoneme sequences and allophonic variants. The speaker who fails to make these distinctions will surely cause problems of comprehensibility to the listener. Or, if the learner tends to speak English via the phonetic and phonological system of his L1, the level of intelligibility to the native English speaker is bound to be adversely affected. In order to achieve an acceptable level of comprehensibility, the learner must master a set of segmental features which correspond to a great extent to the RP phonemic system. Vowels and consonants together form syllables which in turn make up words; articulating each syllable in its correct fashion enables one to pronounce a word in the way it is supposed to be pronounced. The phonetic realisation of syllabic fusion in speech plays a vital role in making perceptible to listeners those suprasegmental features which are intrinsic in polysyllabic words. The learner's dictionaries currently available on the market do not provide comprehensive and systematic information on this point and the LDOCE suffers from a lamentable confusion over the matter of syllable division and word division. The OALDCE too presents only fragmentary and partially conflicting information on word division. Word division appears to assume, in these dictionaries, precedence over the prime question of the phonology of the syllable in isolation and in juxtaposition.

7.3.2 Suprasegmentals and pronunciation

The proper realisation of suprasegmentals greatly contributes to making one's speech very effective. The two principal suprasegmental features -- stress and intonation -- are

described in this section so as to demonstrate their significance in speech.

7.3.2.1 Stress

Stress plays various important roles in spoken English:

1) it is vital for an appreciation of the rhythm of spoken English;

2) it is a tool for indicating the syntactic relationship between words, e.g.

a) various adj./noun-verb oppositions:

ábstract (A) ab'stract (V)

áconduct (N) con'duct (V)

ácontract (N) con'tract (V)

ácontrast (N) con'trast (V) ádesert (N) dé'sert (V)

áescort (N) e'scort (V)

b) distinction between two word phrasal verbs and compounds:

a 'walkout to 'walk 'out
a 'put-on to 'put ón

a 'pushover to 'push 'over

c) clarification of difference between a compound noun and adjective followed by a noun:

a 'hot dog (Food) a 'hot 'dog (an overheated animal)

The above-mentioned examples make it clear that stress is a part of English grammar which is revealed in speech but not in writing. Most of the FL learners acquire English through the written medium; they may not be fully aware of the functions of stress as such. Incorrect stress could cause serious problems of communication; with correct stress a foreign student of English

can still be understood even if his pronunciation of other segmental features is not up to the mark. It is, however, relevant to distinguish between two types of stress: word stress, which is the property of individual words and relatively fixed, and sentence stress, where stress falls on a particular word in a sentence. Word stress in English is hard to learn by rule, and the best way for the EFL learner is to treat stress placement as a characteristic of the individual word, to be learned on its own. The EFL learner must resort to the dictionary whenever he is uncertain about the placing of stress on words. It is also a truism that words pronounced in isolation or the manner in which they are specified in the dictionary are sometimes different from the way they are manifested in connected speech. Thus, the stress patterns that are found in individual words may be changed when words form part of sentences in conversation. Dictionaries have so far been restricted to providing stress-marking on individual words, although recently there has been a new call for marking stress on illustrative examples. There are various other dimensions of natural connected speech, which dictionaries because of their design, cannot capture and codify. These variables include the neutralisation of weak forms; the reduction of unstressed vowels; the modification of sounds, especially of word boundaries, via the process of assimilation; elision and liaison; and the articulation of stress patterns by virtue of rhythmic considerations. All the above are essentially matters of formal classroom instruction. The native speaker does not face any difficulty in acquiring all these features as knowledge of them forms part of his sub-conscious mastery of the linguistic

and communicative rules of the language.

7.3.2.2 Intonation

Intonation refers to the rise and fall of the voice in connected speech. It conveys significant linguistic information to the listener. The major functions of intonation may be summarised as follows:

- 1) it is used to convey our feelings and attitudes;
- 2) it marks syntactic boundaries, e.g. between phrases, clauses and sentences;
- 3) it highlights the central information in a tone group;
- 4) it controls the relation of the focal item to the structure of discourse;
- 5) it marks contrasts between questions, statements and commands.

This is undoubtedly the most difficult aspect of communicative competence for foreign learners to acquire as most of them do not have the opportunity to communicate with native speakers of English or listen regularly to colloquial speech. They are thus less likely to learn proper English intonation although they can acquire a good command of stress and other segmental features with the help of the dictionary. As a result of its basic design the general-purpose dictionary cannot record intonation for the guidance of the learner.

It is clear that the characteristic features of spontaneous connected speech are varied and complex and that the learner's dictionary can hence not cover them all; they must be learned formally in the classroom. Gimson (1980:p.297) rightly comments:

"whether or not he (the FL learner) uses such forms himself, he must know of their existence, for otherwise he will find it difficult to understand much of ordinary colloquial speech. This knowledge is particularly important because a second language is often learned on the basis of isolated word forms; in the speech of the native, however, the outlines of these words will frequently be modified, or obscured."

7.4 Listening Comprehension

Listening comprehension in a foreign language is a complex process, dependent not merely on the perception of phonetic and phonological rules such as assimilation, elision, liaison, accentual and intonational patterns in connected speech; it also relies heavily on various other linguistic and extralinguistic factors which can be considered as being contributory to this process. The acoustic signal is simply one of the several variables in the activity of comprehension. It is also thought that some of the segmental features lacking in speech could be compensated for by speakers' competence in these linguistic and extralinguistic factors. Nevertheless, the foreign learner needs to be sensitised to the primary acoustic signal, although it must be borne in mind that the acoustic cues accompanying words spoken in isolation are often simply not present in connected speech. It is also believed that segmental cues can often be ignored without undue interference with comprehension if the other meaning-bearing aspects -- accentual and intonational patterns -- are properly comprehended. Viewed from this perspective, learners need to pay more attention to those suprasegmental features which dictionaries provide the least measure of information about. It is now generally accepted that the foreign

learner finds it more difficult to understand a spontaneous natural speech than to express himself appropriately in the target language.

7.5 L1 interference in pronunciation

The degree of difficulty the foreign learner has to face in learning proper pronunciation can, to a great extent, be perceived by comparing the segmental and suprasegmental features of the learner's L1 and L2. It is noticed that in many cases the learning of L2 takes place when the learner has already matured his speech habits in his L1. Learners speak their native language by using the phonological system characteristic of that language and, when they learn a new language at a later stage, they tend to speak it at first with the sound system of their L1. Applied contrastive studies have been relatively better predictors of errors of a phonological nature than of any other linguistic aspects of foreign language learning. There have been a number of contrastive studies of the phonetic and phonological systems of English and Urdu, conducted with the aim of finding out potential problems in the learning of English as a foreign language (cf. Khan, 1971; Shamsuddin, 1983).

The following is an inventory of the principal contrasts between English and Urdu.

1. Sounds and letters do not stand in a one-to-one relationship in English, whereas in Urdu there is a great deal of consistency between letters and their sounds, with a very few exceptions, although the Urdu systems is beset by its own vagaries. It is due

to this factor that the English pronunciation of the Urdu speaker is "spelling pronunciation".

2. The phonemic system described for RP contains 44 phonemes, 24 consonants and 20 vowels. In Urdu, there are 57 phonemes, 37 consonants and 20 vowels. The phoneme inventory of Urdu may sound more extensive than English, but it is basically the pattern of the phonological system, as well as the quantitative and qualitative differences which cause problems in the pronunciation of English.

3. Vowels in English are pronounced differently with regard to place and manner of articulation. In Urdu, on the other hand, almost all vowels are realised in the neutral position of the oral cavity. Thus, the laxness feature of Urdu vowels is carried over by learners into their "English" vocalic system, thereby causing a diminution of diphthongization.

4. The pronunciation of English diphthongs is more problematic than that of single vowels. All the three diphthongs found in Urdu are different in their movement directions, as compared with English diphthongs. The English diphthongs /ai/ as in "lie" and /au/ as in "sow" do not cause problems as vowels in such sequences also exist in Urdu. The real difficulty is posed by /ei/, /ou/ and /ji/ and the three centering diphthongs /iə/, /eə/ and /uə/. In the case of the first three, the typical Urdu speaker picks up the more prominent initial sounds of the diphthongs, and the final sounds are then almost subsumed. In the case of the last three diphthongs, the Urdu speaker unnecessarily lengthens the /ə/ sound, for /ə/ never occurs

finally in Urdu.

5. The pronunciation of English is further complicated by the presence of triphthongs which simply do not exist in Urdu. In most cases these triphthongs are not heard at all in the English speech of the Urdu speaker; rather they are approximated to the nearest Urdu diphthong. Errors of this kind are apparent not only in the speech but also in the writing of many students.

6. The consonant system in Urdu is simpler than the English system. In English "P", "T", "K" are aspirated when they occur initially before a stressed vowel, but when these consonants occur medially, aspiration is very weak and in final position they are not aspirated at all. Thus a single phoneme /P/, /T/ or /K/ has a number of allophones. In Urdu, if "P", "T" or "K" is aspirated in the initial position it becomes a different phoneme altogether.

7. In Urdu, there is one "l" sound (like the English "clear l") which occurs in all positions and is pronounced in the same way in every position. Urdu speakers have no equivalent of the dark "l" found in English and have some difficulty in producing this sound.

8. The English fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ as in "thin" and "than" are not found in Urdu. They are replaced by Urdu /th/ and /d/ stops respectively, which sounds odd to the native speaker.

9. The most problematic aspect for Urdu speakers is their inability to distinguish between English /v/ and /w/, which results in the substitution of a labio-dental frictionless continuant [v] for both. Urdu speakers always tend to replace /w/ for /v/ and /v/ for /w/.

10. Urdu allows no initial consonant clusters; it allows only medial and final clusters with the limitation that not more than two consonants may be clustered in a word. When Urdu speakers are confronted with initial consonant clusters in English as in "black", "blue", "phrase", "skill", etc., they use a slight vowel sound between the clustering consonants. What troubles them most is the phonotactic system of the English language. In Urdu /s/ occurs after a voiceless or voiced stop; its sound will always remain the same. So an Urdu speaker following the system of his own language will say "dogs" instead of "dogz". Similar problems are created by inflectional endings in the past tense.

11. Difficulties in speech are often caused by the system of assimilation in English. Urdu has very few cases of assimilation; most Urdu speakers are reluctant to change the sound of the preceding consonant under the influence of the following consonant, or vice-versa.

12. Since most Pakistani students learn their English through written forms they can see no difference between e.g. escort (noun) and escort (verb) and hence cannot deduce that they belong to different parts of speech. In Urdu, stress is not such an important feature as in English. Pakistani students tend to adopt an end-stress pattern as opposed to the typical front-stress languages, that is, there is no fixed place for strong stress in the words of both languages. Yet there is a difference between the two: word stress in English is phonemic whereas it is not so in Urdu. In Urdu, wrong stress marking does not change the meaning but in English it may do.

The above illustrations suggest that the phenomenon of interference is quite prominent in the English pronunciation of Urdu speakers and they need to be sensitised to potential difficulties.

7.6 Model of Pronunciation

The choice of model for indicating pronunciation in the learner's dictionary is highly significant if it is to make the dictionary measure up to the real needs of its potential users. There are various linguistic, cultural and pragmatic desiderata which together play decisive roles in its determination. Apart from the major varieties of English (e.g. British, American, Australian etc.) which are spoken as a L1, there are various other types of English (e.g. Nigerian, Indian, Pakistani, South-African etc.) which have grown up into distinctive and separate varieties since the time when British English came into contact with local languages in the respective countries. These non-native varieties of English have acquired relatively consistent forms of their own as "community vehicles"; they differ considerably from the English of native speakers elsewhere in the world particularly with regard to pronunciation. Thus, native speakers of English may sometimes have difficulty in comprehending these non-native varieties. There are also differences between British and American English. It is because of these differences in the pronunciation of different varieties of English and the potential problems of communication that Gimson (1978) suggested the idea of evolving an international

form of English based on a reduced inventory of phonemes derived from an amalgam of existing forms which all could use and understand conveniently. He calls it Rudimentary International Pronunciation (RIP). The proposition sounds attractive prima facie but is probably not viable on account of the cultural difficulties involved.

The learner, however, would need to pursue a particular model of English depending on whether English was to be used within the country or for international communication. This, in fact, is a question of learners' immediate and future requirements with regard to English, and is a matter which is impossible to settle by any categorical decision. The majority of students, in most cases, need to use English within their own country; but if one has to learn English anyway, then why not acquire a variety which has maximum acceptability on the international scene? This, as a corollary, leads to a choice between the two major varieties of English -- American and British, which are to a great extent bound up with cultural ties with the particular "native" language and also with the tradition of English language teaching in the relevant country.

There is no doubt that a great number of people speak North-American English rather than British English; but as far as the linguistic situation in Pakistan is concerned, it is advisable to follow British English as learners there have been using this model for a very long time. Thus British "RP" would be the basic norm for the Pakistani speaker to pursue for his receptive as

well as productive competence in English pronunciation. The choice of "RP" is justified on the ground that it is the model comprehensively described in EFL textbooks and in pronouncing dictionaries; it is used in national and international broadcasting by the BBC, and is most widely intelligible even though it is a "minority" variety.

7.6.1 Range of variants

In Britain, there are various accents such as Scottish, Welsh, Irish and Cockney, which are viewed as quite normal in their respective regions. "RP", however, is an accent transcending regional boundaries; it is in fact a social accent characteristic, originally, of educated London speech; it is spoken and understood throughout Britain. Another contending variant for a learner's dictionary might be "General American". It is, however, assumed that the foreign learner -- as long as he is learning English in his own country -- should concentrate on one major model of pronunciation (e.g. "RP"); any attempt to familiarise himself with variant accents is bound to lead to confusion. Gimson (1981:251) rightly evaluates the EFL learner's needs in this regard:

"In general, he is not interested in variants, either within one accent or between accents, but requires a single pronunciation to be recommended as correct."

7.6.2 Choice of notation system

It is quite explicit from the discussion in section 7.2 that some sort of metalanguage is required to enable people to come to grips with the inconsistencies of English orthography. The

choice of a notation system for indicating pronunciation in the learner's dictionary is therefore highly critical; the choice of such a system is fundamentally between a transcription system based on respelling and the phonetic symbols promoted by the IPA. It is generally believed that respelling systems are not comprehensive enough to cope with all the irregularities of English orthography. Some use of italics, digraphs and diacritics has to be made to make up for deficiencies: for instance, it is hard to highlight the difference in vowel sound between good and food and to distinguish the initial consonant in think and their etc. unambiguously via traditional orthographic conventions.

On the contrary, IPA symbols are considered to be more scientific and precise as each symbol represents a unique sound. Even the IPA transcription system is not without its complications, however; there are several varieties of IPA, which causes a lot of confusion. Thus, one of the most perplexing phenomena for the EFL learner to cope with in using the dictionary for pronunciation purposes is the diversity of phonetic symbols employed in various dictionaries. There is a greater need of uniformity in the use of phonetic symbols, particularly in learner's dictionaries. The IPA symbols used for transcribing consonants are relatively straightforward; the real problems lie in figuring out symbols transcribing vowels, their qualitative and quantitative differences, diphthongs and triphthongs.

7.7 Findings on phonetic information

Our findings on phonetic information in the dictionaries are based on both direct and indirect analysis. The indirect analysis embraces several parameters: a) the reference skills of students; b) their initial ideas about their pronunciation needs and c) the kinds of activity for which they mostly use the dictionary. The direct analysis pertains to what they themselves think about their needs vis-a-vis pronunciation.

7.7.1 Findings with relation to reference skills

It was shown in Chapter III, on the subject of "reference skills", that students are at present unable to obtain the knowledge they require about dictionaries and about how to use them to their best advantage. That is why students' choice of dictionary and the skill with which it is used seem to be based mostly on their own impressionistic and stereotyped considerations. The results in this regard (Q9A) demonstrated that 62.29% of students did not have any formal guidance on how to transcribe phonetic symbols and 54.43% were unaware of the rules governing stress placement. The retrieval of phonetic information is not something which students could learn on their own; it has to be learned formally in the classroom. The learner needs formal guidance in distinguishing between, e.g. long and short vowels, phonemic contrasts, allophonic variants, stress placement, and awareness of the position and manner of articulation in order to produce precise sounds in actual speech. The reason for this deficiency is quite obvious; most language

teachers have no background of linguistics themselves to realise this. As students have not been instructed in this area, it is not surprising if the frequency with which they refer to introductory material in the dictionary for clues on phonetic information is negligible: 3.43% refer regularly; 10.57% once a week and 11.43% once a term.

Similarly, among the kinds of information (Q28D) they look up in the dictionary, pronunciation does not figure prominently (20.14%, once a week and 16.14%, once a term). With improved knowledge and skill, students would presumably use this information more often than the present figures indicate.

7.7.2 Findings with relation to students' initial ideas

When students were questioned about their initial views on language needs, they considered pronunciation third (43.43%), placing more stress on spelling (85%) and word meaning (99.4%). Yet when it came to buying a dictionary they attached the greatest importance to illustrative sentences (82.6%), followed by grammatical information (75.29%). Pronunciation, however, was once again allocated a mere third place, with only (74.43%) stressing it. Even this relatively lower figure is suggestive of the sub-conscious desire in the FL learner to be able to speak his target language, although he may not be able to realise it due to his educational handicaps. In Pakistan English enjoys the status of a privileged social dialect. A good pronunciation often guarantees a good job. Sociolinguistically, therefore, there is a demand for oral communication conducted with a

reasonably acceptable pronunciation.

7.7.3 Findings with relation to linguistic activities

The kinds of activity for which students use their monolingual dictionaries most provide another dimension of insight into their phonetic needs. In this context too, the most infrequent activities are:

listening	8.71% once a week
	8.43% once a term
speaking	13.29% once a week
	26.86% once a term

whereas reading, writing and translating are relatively more frequent. One of the reasons for the imbalanced focus on these skills is that the importance of oral communication is not fully realised in the English language curriculum; the major emphasis is on reading and writing. Opportunities for students to use English outside educational institutions are minimal. What is tested most in examinations is written skill in the language, to the total exclusion of listening and speaking skills; there is no explicit provision for these skills in the syllabus. As a result, neither the teacher nor the student feels the inevitable necessity to give equal importance to these skills. The situation currently, however, is undergoing change as a result of the introduction of orientation courses for English language teachers, with the aim of making them more aware of the tenets of modern FL teaching.

7.7.4 Direct assessment of phonetic information

To judge from the answers to direct questions, students' interest in phonetic information appears to be relatively decisive: 50.29% (Q41) of the students indicated their approval of phonetic symbols used in the dictionaries although almost an equal number of students (48.7%) do not seem to be happy with them and 1.71% are uncertain about giving any value judgement. It is hard to make any conclusive decision that students find the system of phonetic symbols comprehensible and transparent, given the knowledge that their reference skills are not up to the mark. Similarly, students without a formal basic knowledge of phonetics are unlikely to go into the details of comparing the systems of transcription used in various dictionaries; it is understandable why 99.86% (Q42) have never considered comparing dictionaries on this point. Again, students with no formal education would not aspire to acquire various models of pronunciation or their variants; most students (53.86%) seem to be happy simply with one model of pronunciation, that is British English. However, as there does not seem to be much technical knowledge involved in following syllabic division and the placement of stress on words, their approval of the fact that this information is included in dictionaries is quite clear: 81.29% of the students (Q44) consider stress marking helpful and 80.86% (Q45) regard the syllabic division of words as useful in terms of being clues for the right pronunciation. The use of divergent phonetic symbols is undoubtedly confusing to learners; 88.14% want all the dictionaries to employ the same symbols. In spite of the efforts of the International Phonetic Association lexicographers continue

to employ different symbols to the confusion of learners, particularly when they switch over from one dictionary to another.

7.8 Current practice in Learner's Dictionaries with regard to pronunciation

7.8.1 The CELD

The CELD uses a simple version of the IPA as a guide to pronunciation, mainly based on the 13th edition of Daniel Jones's English Pronouncing Dictionary revised by A.C. Gimson (1967). There is, however, one exception; in the pronunciation of the diphthong as in "go", the old transcription of the 12th edition, i.e. [OU] has been followed instead of [əʊ]. The pronunciation of derivatives is given only where there is a change e.g. acid [ˈæsid] adj [əˈsɪdɪti] nu. The main stress of words is shown by a small vertical line which appears in front of the syllable that is stressed, e.g. [ˈɪnsekt], [ɪnˈsɪst]. The stress of compounds is not shown in all cases. Words with no stress mark in the compound are deemed to have even stress. The asterisk at the end of a pronunciation indicates that a word-final "r" is pronounced only if a vowel follows it.

As shown in the comparative table of English consonants, two symbols [dʒ] as in "jump" and [tʃ] as in "cheer" are missing in the pronunciation key but are transcribed in the dictionary. There is, however, an additional symbol [x] as in "loch" [lɒx] indicated in the key to pronunciation. Example words for consonants should have been given in alphabetical order to facilitate the retrieval of required symbols quickly.

7.8.2 The CULD

Every headword is transcribed phonetically with IPA symbols following the "RP" variety of English as a model. It does not indicate American pronunciation consistently, nor the variants of British English; instead general rules regarding American English are stated in the introduction (p.xix). The pronunciation of derivatives is given only when there is a change in the pronunciation. Both primary and secondary stress marks are indicated by (') and (,) just before whichever syllable in each word is pronounced with respective force or stress. Primary stress (and occasionally secondary stress) is indicated in compounds and phrases where some clarification of the stress pattern is considered necessary.

In the key to pronunciation for vowels the CULD employs three additional symbols \tilde{a} , \tilde{e} and \tilde{o} for the vowels of French words "blanc", "vin" and "bon", respectively. It is necessary for learner's dictionaries to use symbols which are easy to remember for the FL learner; the symbols used in the CULD are, for example: /i:, i, u:, U, a:, a, o:, o/ for indicating the length feature which occurs in the first member of the pairs green-pity, root-full, farm-hat and board-rot. Gimson (1981), however, argues that a notation of this kind can be misleading as it obscures the more significant qualitative differences between the members of the pairs. In the key to pronunciation for consonants the symbol [ʒ] is not crossed and the example words are not arranged in alphabetical order. There is, however, an


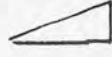
additional symbol of [x] for "loch".

7.8.3 The OALDCE

The OALDCE, the pioneer of pedagogical lexicography, uses "RP" as a basic model but also shows American pronunciation, where there are marked differences, by using the same IPA symbols. In addition to every headword, compounds, idioms, and inflections are indicated with phonetic transcription when they differ from the general pattern which is fully explained in the introduction. The same is true of stress marking. For the indication of American post-vocalic /r/, the dictionary relies on a general rule explained in the introduction. Like other learner's dictionaries the OALDCE too does not explain in its introduction the salient features of connected natural speech, particularly with regard to stress and segmental features. The OALDCE, however, provides a short list of strong and weak forms to give the learner some idea about natural speech. The most significant feature of the OALDCE is that it has an accompanying optional cassette which gives the learner specific guidance on appropriate pronunciation (Gimson and Ramsaran 1985).

7.8.4 The LDOCE

The LDOCE uses "RP" as the basic recommended "implementation" of English pronunciation, as enunciated by Gimson and employed in the 14th edition of the EPD (1977). Like the OALDCE the LDOCE provides phonetic information on each headword as well as unpredictable derivatives and irregular

inflection. Compounds and phrasal verbs which appear as headwords are not transcribed if their parts appear as separate headwords in their proper alphabetical place. It shows American pronunciation by employing additional symbols which may be very helpful to the person with some knowledge of phonetics, but it would be very confusing to any uninformed FL learner who might venture to understand this on his own. For foreign words and phrases different symbols are required; the LDOCE therefore includes a table of foreign words and symbols and their nearest equivalents. The LDOCE amply explains the rules of stress marking stated in the introduction but it also indicates at the point of entry -- with the help of a special mark  that in such compounds as second-language or plateglass the major stress shifts back wherever the compound is used attributively before a noun, e.g. in plate glass window, the entry shows the shift = plate glass /  /.

Another advantage of the LDOCE is that a cassette accompanies it to help EFL learners with listening practice and acquiring proper pronunciation.

Any dictionary designed exclusively for Pakistani learners must pay special attention to indicating proper pronunciation. If Pakistani learners do not often use dictionaries for guidance on pronunciation this is due to their inability to retrieve such information, not to a lack of need in this regard. Pronunciation cassettes accompany both the OALDCE and the LDOCE, but they address the FL learner in general. As a matter of fact, there is a need for cassettes designed for particular groups of users and

highlighting where new speech habits have to be formed and also pointing L1 interference wherever it is conspicuous. Such cassettes should also apprise learners of the various transformations words undergo when they are used in connected speech.

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Table 6: Comparison of English vowels as shown in the four Learners' Dictionaries.

Key words	LDOCE	OALDCE	CULD	CELD
bat	[æ]	[æ]	[a]	[æ]
farm	[ɑ:]	[ɑ:]	[a:]	[ɑ:]
set	[e]	[e]	[e]	[e]
above	[ə]	[ə]	[ə]	[ə]
fern	[ɜ:]	[ɜ:]	[ə:]	[ə:]
pity	[ɪ]	[ɪ]	[i]	[i]
green	[i:]	[i:]	[i:]	[i:]
pretty	[i]	[-]	[-]	[-]
rot	[ɒ]	[ɒ]	[o]	[ɔ]
board	[ɔ:]	[ɔ:]	[o:]	[ɔ:]
full	[ʊ]	[ʊ]	[u]	[u]
root	[u:]	[u:]	[u:]	[u:]
come	[ʌ]	[ʌ]	[ʌ]	[ʌ]
lie	[aɪ]	[aɪ]	[ai]	[ai]
sow	[aʊ]	[aʊ]	[au]	[au]
fate	[eɪ]	[eɪ]	[ei]	[ei]
ago	[əʊ]	[əʊ]	[ou]	[ou]
fair	[eə]	[eə]	[eə]	[ɛə]
here	[ɪə]	[ɪə]	[iə]	[iə]
toy	[ɔɪ]	[ɔɪ]	[oi]	[oi]
pure	[ʊə]	[ʊə]	[uə]	[uə]
tower	[aʊə]	[-]	[-]	[-]
employer	[ɪə]	[-]	[-]	[-]
player	[eɪə]	[-]	[-]	[-]
lower	[əʊə]	[-]	[-]	[-]

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Table 7: Comparison English consonants as shown in the four
Learners' Dictionaries

Key words	LDOCE	OALDCE	CULD	CELD
<u>b</u> ack	[b]	[b]	[b]	[b]
<u>d</u> ay	[d]	[d]	[d]	[d]
<u>th</u> en	[θ]	[θ]	[θ]	[θ]
<u>j</u> ump	[dz]	[dz]	[dz]	x
<u>f</u> ew	[f]	[f]	[f]	[f]
<u>g</u> ay	[g]	[g]	[g]	[g]
<u>h</u> ot	[h]	[h]	[h]	[h]
<u>y</u> et	[j]	[j]	[j]	[j]
<u>k</u> ey	[k]	[k]	[k]	[k]
<u>l</u> ed	[l]	[l]	[l]	[l]
<u>s</u> um	[m]	[m]	[m]	[m]
<u>s</u> un	[n]	[n]	[n]	[n]
<u>s</u> ung	[ŋ]	[ŋ]	[ŋ]	[ŋ]
<u>p</u> en	[p]	[p]	[p]	[p]
<u>r</u> ed	[r]	[r]	[r]	[r]
<u>s</u> oon	[s]	[s]	[s]	[s]
<u>f</u> ishing	[ʃ]	[ʃ]	[ʃ]	[ʃ]
<u>t</u> ea	[t]	[t]	[t]	[t]
<u>ch</u> eer	[tʃ]	[tʃ]	[tʃ]	[-]
<u>th</u> ing	[θ]	[θ]	[θ]	[θ]
<u>v</u> iew	[v]	[v]	[v]	[v]
<u>w</u> et	[w]	[w]	[w]	[w]
<u>z</u> ero	[z]	[z]	[z]	[z]
<u>pl</u> ea <u>s</u> ure	[z]	[z]	[z]	[z]

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CHAPTER VIII

BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

8.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the nature and potential of English-Urdu/Urdu-English dictionaries. It is intended to bring into sharper perspective the historical development of English -- Urdu bilingual lexicography. An analysis is then presented of the attitudes of linguists and language teaching methodologists towards the use of bilingual dictionaries, measured against student predispositions for bilingual rather than for monolingual dictionaries. The most popular and currently available bilingual dictionaries of both the productive and the interpretative kind are evaluated against the tenets of modern lexicography, with the prime aim of investigating their validity as useful reference tools for the learning of EFL by advanced learners in Pakistan. Suggestions are offered as to how these bilingual dictionaries might be improved so as to really cater for the needs of their users.

8.2 Historical perspective of English-Urdu lexicography

The practical orientation of dictionaries has pervaded the art of lexicography throughout its history. Dictionaries, whether mono-lingual or bilingual, have been compiled in response to various social needs, but the pragmatic rationale underlying these two types of dictionary has not always been the same. Whereas monolingual dictionaries were compiled in their inception in order to meet the needs of native speakers, bilingual

dictionaries were in some cases initially compiled to cater for non-natives. In China, for instance, the task of writing bilingual dictionaries was first undertaken by Buddhists and later by Western Christian missionaries who wished to learn Chinese and to introduce their own religion to "natives". (cf. Chien and Creamer, 1986). English-Arabic bilingual lexicography grew as a result of Western interest in Oriental studies. The earliest Arabic-English dictionary designed for English users was Lane's Lexicon (1862) and the first English-Arabic dictionary was Badger's Lexicon (1882). However, the two types of bilingual dictionary designed exclusively for Arab users were not compiled until the beginning of the twentieth century (cf. El-Badry, 1986).

In the same fashion, the roots of English-Urdu bilingual lexicography can be traced back to the advent of English traders and the concurrent arrival of missionaries in India. The British came to India in the sixteenth century, initially as traders but on immediately finding that the prevalent political situation was in chaos, they gradually took power. In order to rule this vast country they needed to learn a language which could serve as a lingua franca everywhere. For this purpose they chose Urdu -- which was then more popularly known as Hindustani -- to establish their rapport with the people, to carry out their administrative jobs and to maintain their political sway through this common language. The establishment of Fort William College at Calcutta in 1800 was inspired by the explicit need to provide a forum for the military and civil personnel of the East India Company to

learn this language. The other potent factor responsible for stimulating work on bilingual lexicography was the activity of British missionaries who wanted to preach Christianity to the natives via a common local language. This ushered in, inter alia, an era of English-Urdu bilingual lexicography which saw the publication of various dictionaries, all designed for English-speaking learners of Urdu. The most famous were:

1. Ferguson, J. (1773) A Dictionary of the Hindustan language.
2. Gilchrist, J. (1786) An English-Hindustani Dictionary.
3. Shakespeare, J. (1817) A Dictionary of Hindustani and English
4. Brice, N. (1847) A Romanised Hindustani and English Dictionary.
5. Forbes, D. (1848) A Dictionary, Hindustani and English.
6. Fallon, S.W. (1879) A New Hindustani-English Dictionary.
7. Platts, J.T. (1884) A Dictionary of Urdu, Classical Hindi, and English.

All these works, though important milestones in the history of English-Urdu bilingual lexicography, are now out-of-date to all practical intents and purposes. The dictionary needs of the indigenous population never came to the forefront until the introduction by Lord Macaulay of English as a medium of instruction in India. Bilingual dictionaries which envisage the needs of the native-born population did not appear until as late as the twentieth century. We shall review here only the most popular and currently available bilingual dictionaries on the market:

1. Ferozsons Urdu-English dictionary -- a comprehensive dictionary of current vocabulary (hereafter called FUED) (1975).

2. Ferozsons English to English and Urdu Dictionary (FEUD) (1977).

3. Qureshi, Bashir Ahmed, com = Kitabistan's twentieth century practical dictionary, English into English and Urdu (KTC) (N.D.).

8.3 Attitudes to Bilingual Dictionaries

There have been divergent attitudes to the use of bilingual dictionaries on the part of students, linguists and language teaching methodologists. Richard Yorkey (1974) objects to the foreign student using a bilingual dictionary on two grounds:

(1) "At the initial stage of learning, students may assume that a language is just "a bagful of names," and that there exists a word-for-word correspondence between their own language and English. This attitude can result in the many translation howlers that teachers know so well".

(2) "Students may become overly dependent, and then prolong their reliance on its use. At some point in the study of English -- preferably sooner than later -- teachers should wean their students away from these word glosses and encourage them to use a specially prepared English-English dictionary".

Tomaszczyk (1983:41), on the other hand, recommends the bilingual dictionary -

"In the range of FL learning and teaching aids there is a slot that can be usefully filled by bilingual dictionaries. Indeed, it is a need which can hardly be met by any other type of reference material."

Tomaszczyk's ideas are based on the consideration that the culture-specificity of certain lexical items is not adequately handled in monolingual dictionaries and that the reference skills of foreign learners are not sophisticated enough to enable them to make efficient use of them. Ard (1982) investigated actual instances of bilingual dictionary use by ESL students while writing composition in English and he came to the conclusion that

"bilingual dictionary use promotes immediate errors" He further added that:

"the strengths and weaknesses of bilingual dictionaries need to be recognized and appropriate advice to students needs to be provided, based on these strengths and weaknesses. For example, bilingual dictionaries are better suited for building up active competence in the English lexicon and are less suited for finding correct words for a particular composition that needs to be as error-free as possible."

In Snell-Hornby's (1987) view use of dictionaries should be made judiciously, following the natural language-learning process. She perceives the language-learning process as consisting of three stages, each with distinct implications for dictionary use. At the first stage of FL learning the use of dictionaries should be completely forbidden -- vocabulary may be learned as items embedded in a FL context, following the notion that each language is an independent system of communication. At the second stage independent reference tools, e.g. a learner's grammar presented in simple language (with a translation) should be introduced, implicitly contrasting the L2 grammar with the learner's L1. At the third stage she rates both monolingual as well as bilingual learner's dictionaries as equally useful, representing this view by her diagram illustrated below.

Stages in learning	Language base	Grammar System	Lexical System
1	Text	Related grammar	glossary
2	L2 system	learner's grammar	
3	L1 - L2 systems		LED

Scholfield (1982) suggests that "bilingual dictionaries" both to and from the L1 need not be totally frowned upon but rather merit careful consideration by teachers. He proposes a checklist of basic kinds of qualities to be present in each type of dictionary before it is recommended to students. He further recommends:

"It is possible to develop some skills of the learner to make the most of what is there, and instil a general strategy which makes BD use maximally "failsafe". While English L1 BD's can be used with guidance from the beginning of learning English, I have argued that L1 English BD's can only safely be used at the intermediate and later level in conjunction with good monolingual dictionaries. The single most important mistake in the whole area of dictionaries in relation to ESL/EFL ... is for the learner to get into the habit of using a L1 English dictionary (of any size) freely as his sole guide for writing/speaking vocabulary items he has little or no grasp of."

Yet the attitude of actual users of dictionaries is at variance with those of linguists and language teaching methodologists. In a survey of dictionary users which included FL students at university level, language teachers and translators, Tomaszczyk (1979) found that

"although the use of monolingual dictionaries becomes more extensive and frequent as the subjects' sophistication increases, almost all of them continue to use the bilingual ones."

Although Baxter (1980) himself is strongly in favour of monolingual dictionaries, he discovered in his survey of Japanese students that:

"Students begin their studies in English in junior high school, buying their first dictionary, a bilingual English-Japanese one, at that time. Over the next few years, two more bilingual dictionaries are acquired. Only if the university major of a student is English, will a student purchase a monolingual English dictionary. At the University level, as with the

lower levels, an English-Japanese is used most often. Non-English majors rarely if ever refer to a monolingual English dictionary, and while English majors do so more frequently, few of them use a monolingual dictionary daily. By comparison, most of them give their English-Japanese dictionaries daily use. Very significantly, students attribute to the bilingual dictionary, in contrast to other reference levels, the greatest degree of importance in their studies of English."

Bensoussan et al. (1981) investigated whether the use or a non-use of dictionaries had any formative effect on students' performance in a EFL reading test and discovered that where there was a free choice the majority of the students showed a preference for bilingual dictionaries. Similarly, according to Hartmann's (1983c) empirical study of learners of German in schools and colleges in South-West England

"the use of bilingual dictionaries is so entrenched in and outside of formal language classes -- where translation activities still reign supreme ... the idea of 'weaning away' the learner from the translation dictionary seems rather unrealistic."

In our survey too, although the monolingual dictionary is used more often (51.29%, once a week) than the bilingual dictionary (20.71%, once a week) the majority of students (69.86%) consider bilingual dictionaries to be more useful in explaining the meaning of words. This apparently gives credence to Snell-Hornby's (1987) observation that in most cases

"the vocabulary of the foreign language is internalised and interpreted, not against its own social and cultural background, but in terms of suggested dictionary equivalents in the native language".

The situation therefore calls for a re-evaluation of existing bilingual dictionaries and a need for bilingual learner's dictionaries which help learners avoid mistakes in their language

work.

8.4 Typological classification of dictionaries

The modern principles of lexicography strongly emphasise a priori determination of the principal function which a dictionary is intended to perform before any work is initiated on any project. This is, of course, of vital significance to the lexicographer in helping him to project with maximal precision the essential features of his dictionary in both its macro- and micro-structure. The most important distinction in this regard has to be made between a dictionary aimed at productive use of the language and one orientated to serve the user in the comprehension of FL text or discourse. Allied with this is the equally important question of the potential user. Whether the prospective user of the dictionary is a speaker of the source language or the target language also has deeper implications for the whole design of a dictionary. Thus the range of bilingual dictionaries differs, primarily depending on the users they are intended to serve and the needs for which they aim to cater. With this perspective in view bilingual dictionaries may be compiled on the basis of the following distinctions.

1. Dictionaries for source-language speakers vs. dictionaries for target-language speakers.
2. Dictionaries for productive use of the language vs. dictionaries for the comprehension of text.

This distinction is well illustrated in the diagram by Al-Kasimi (1977) reproduced below:

SPEAKER	PURPOSE	
	For comprehension	For production
Speaker of L1	1. Passive use TL - SL	2. Active use SL - TL
Speaker of L2	3. Passive use SL - TL	4. Active use TL - SL

8.4.1 Evaluation

Judged by these criteria, the KTC is essentially a dictionary designed to help the Urdu-speaking learner with the comprehension of English texts, but it is addressed to users irrespective of the level of their linguistic competence. One fails to understand whether it is supposed to be ideal for students at tertiary or advanced level, or whether it is aimed at a group of users whose needs are at variance with those of the student community. The KTC preface states:

"this dictionary has been compiled with an eye to the needs of those learning English through the medium of Urdu."

Similarly, the FEUD is a dictionary meant for Urdu-speaking learners of English at various unspecified stages of language learning. The preface observes:

"men and women of all walks of life will find it reliable, dependable and authentic."

This bold claim is further spelled out on the back cover:

"it is an indispensable work of reference for students, teachers, scholars, officials and journalists who will find it reliable, dependable and authentic".

It is nowhere indicated whether this dictionary is aimed at serving speakers of source or target language, or both. The FUED

is an Urdu-English dictionary ostensibly compiled with a view to helping Pakistani users with speech and writing, but it too, like the other Ferozsons publication (the FEUD), does not specify any desired users. Thus, it is evident that at least the currently popular English-Urdu dictionaries shy away from defining the categories of user they intend to serve; they claim to cater for the needs of both SL and TL speakers and for the language problems of various types of user in each category in one and the same volume.

8.5 Introductory matter

The provision of introductory matter is of highly pragmatic significance in any kind of dictionary: this is normally taken to mean a "preface" and a "user's guide". The preface or introduction of a dictionary is important in that it highlights, for the essential enlightenment of the user, all the salient features of the dictionary:

- a) its function, whether it is a reference tool designed for comprehension or production;
- b) its potential users, whether it is meant for the speaker of SL or TL;
- c) its scope, whether it covers its stock of lexical items synchronically or diachronically;
- d) its purpose, whether it is a general purpose or learner's dictionary;
- e) its methods of compilation, what norms are pursued in the treatment of various lexical items, e.g. homonymy, synonymy, polysemy, idioms and the principles that are followed in the presentation of semantic, phonetic, syntactic and stylistic information in the dictionary.

Such a profile, if given, undoubtedly helps users to choose the type of dictionary which suits their needs best.

Equally important is a "user's guide", in spite of the fact

that it is often neglected by many users. If the user is aware of its importance it can offer great pedagogical assistance in visualising, as it were, the whole range of micro-structural information a lexical item may contain, in hinting at appropriate strategies for retrieving the desired information efficiently, accurately and confidently, and for comprehending the various types of metalanguage used to represent the information. Landau (1984: 116) remarks: "the guide answers the question, what is in it?, what does it mean?, and how do I find it?". The language of introductory matter in a bilingual dictionary is of great significance. It is generally maintained that if the dictionary is meant for the speaker of the source language, the language of the introduction and guidance should be in the source language, but if it is meant for the target language speaker, it ought to be in the target language.

8.5.1 Evaluation

The KTC is a hybrid dictionary combining features of both mono- and bilingual dictionaries. The language of the introductory matter is English, although it should have been in Urdu, as the dictionary is intended to serve the needs of Urdu-speaking learners of English. The preface is mainly an acknowledgement of the help acquired from various sources. There is, however, a brief reference to the design features of the dictionary:

"This dictionary tries to explain more than 32,000 current words of the English language along with 24,000 idiomatic phrases. The words have been selected on the principles laid down by Profs. Palmer, Fawcett, West and

Thorndike in the course of their interim report on Vocabulary Selection for the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language. Every shade of meaning has been explained in very simple words and numerous synonyms have been discriminated. Urdu equivalents have everywhere been given but care has always been taken to see that they should not smack of mere translation."

The "user's guide"

- 1) explains how to open the dictionary at the correct place;
- 2) describes spelling differences between American and British English;
- 3) justifies the eclectic approach adopted in the indication of pronunciation along with a list of symbols used; and
- 4) discusses some of the grammatical rules concerning nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs.

This is followed by a list of abbreviations used in the dictionary. The FEUD is also a hybrid type like its counterpart the KTC. The "preface" which is a mixture of introduction to the dictionary and "user's guide" describes the "outstanding" qualities of the dictionary:

"one of the peculiarities is the large amount of space given to the common words which are usually omitted in other dictionaries on the ground that they are plain and simple and that every one knows all about them and also care is taken to ensure that no words are left out. The words included cover a wide field of vocabulary, besides words of continental languages used in law, fiction, poetry and drama. Later, Greek and modern foreign language words commonly used in current English as well as new words which have found acceptance have also been included. Mythological terms in common use and words in general use in English for literary and conversational purposes also find their due place in this dictionary."

There is no separate section in the introductory matter for the learner to find out how to use the dictionary. The preface makes a passing remark:

"...words are arranged in alphabetical order, and derivatives and phrases follow the main headwords. Pronunciation is given immediately after the word in

parenthesis. Long vowels and diphthongs are marked with diacritical tags. Neutral vowels in unaccented syllables are shown in reverse".

It is quite patent that the introductory information provided in these bilingual dictionaries is far from satisfactory. All the four monolingual English learner's dictionaries provide much more useful information in this regard.

8.6 Comprehensiveness of coverage

The comprehensiveness of the coverage of lexical items and the reduction of multiple senses of selected entries depend basically on the function of the dictionary. If the bilingual dictionary is meant for the comprehension of the SL, an extensive vocabulary (with equal emphasis on polysemous words, set phrases, idioms and phrasal verbs) is to be covered. The main focus in the comprehension dictionary is thus on the number of lexical items in the SL and their translation equivalents in the target language. On the contrary, if the dictionary is intended to be a guide for production in the foreign language, comprehensive information on all the varied aspects of this ought to be the main thrust of the dictionary, with macrostructural information kept to a minimum. In this connection Scholfield (1982) suggests that:

"the number of L1 items treated need not be much more than about half the number of English items treated in an English L1 for corresponding learners."

8.6.1 Evaluation

Pursuing this general criterion, we tested the

comprehensiveness of the three bilingual dictionaries, by following three procedures:

1) compiling a list of words randomly chosen from the book -- "An Anthology of Living English Prose", prescribed for intensive study of English at an advanced level -- and presumed to be missing from the dictionaries;

2) comparing the two bilingual dictionaries of comprehension with two English learner's dictionaries, using the letter A for a list of words taken from the LDOCE;

3) measuring the qualitative and quantitative differences regarding microstructural information provided in the two dictionaries -- the FEUD (L1-L2) and the LDOCE.

The 49 words selected were looked up in the dictionaries under test and the following profile emerged: the LDOCE turned out to be the most comprehensive with 6 words not included, followed by the OALDCE with 9, the KTC with 11 and the FEUD with 16 words left out. Again, with regard to the letter A, the coverage of lexical items in English learner's dictionaries is better as compared with that of bilingual dictionaries. The OALDCE omitted three words, whereas the KTC did not include 36 words and the FEUD left out 30 words.

Table 8: Words chosen randomly from the text-book prescribed for the B.A. students in Pakistan

	LDOCE	OALDCE	FEUD	KTC
Tenaciousness	+	+	+	-
Rendezvous	+	+	+	+
Onerous	+	+	+	+
Jobbery	+	-	+	+
Panorama	+	+	+	+
Epicurean	+	+	+	+
Birch	+	+	+	+
Convolutions	+	+	-	+
Jaunt	+	+	+	+
Plow	+	+	+	+
Kaleidoscope	+	+	+	+
Dinosaurs	+	+	-	+
Mastodon	+	+	+	+
Myriad	+	+	+	+
Frieze	+	+	-	+
Chug	+	+	-	+
Stolid	+	+	+	+
Saecula Saeculorum	-	-	-	-
In Terrorem	-	-	-	-
Garish	+	+	+	+
Sag	+	+	+	+
Slobber	+	+	+	+
Hibernate	+	+	+	+
Finale	+	+	-	+
Alluvian	+	-	+	+

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Ibex	+	+	+	-
Rhubarb	+	+	+	+
Celery	+	+	+	+
Curvilinear	-	-	-	+
Tubercle	-	-	+	+
Spa	+	+	+	+
Platonic	+	+	+	+
Comatose	+	-	-	+
Scowl	+	+	+	+
Statuette	+	+	+	+
Bison	+	+	+	+
Moron	+	+	-	+
Spiel	+	+	+	-
Boniness	-	-	+	+
Dib	-	-	-	-
Billhook	+	+	-	-
Spinney	+	+	-	-
Coco-matting	+	+	-	-
Conch	+	+	+	+
Ebullience	+	+	-	-
Beret	+	+	-	+
Sou	+	+	+	+
Impecunious	+	+	+	+
Paddock	+	+	+	-

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Table 9:

Words relating to the letter "A"

	LDOCE	OALDE	FEUD	KTC
Abbot	+	+	-	+
Aberrant	+	+	-	-
Ablative	+	+	+	-
Ablaut	+	+	+	-
Abnegation	+	+	+	-
Abort	+	+	+	-
Abutment	+	+	+	-
Academician	+	+	+	-
Acidulated	+	+	+	-
Acolyte	+	+	+	-
Acrobatics	+	+	-	+
Acronym	+	+	-	+
Activist	+	+	-	-
Act Out	+	+	-	-
Act up to	+	+	-	-
Additive	+	+	-	+
Add up to	+	+	-	-
Ad hoc	+	+	-	-
Ad lib	+	+	+	+
Ad mass	+	+	+	+
Adumbrate	+	+	+	-
Aerodynamics	+	+	+	-
Aerosol	+	+	+	+
Aertex	+	+	-	-
Aesthetics	+	+	-	+
Aetiology	+	+	+	-

Affricate	+	-	-	-
A fortiori	+	+	-	-
After-birth	+	-	+	-
Afters	+	+	-	-
Agglutinative	+	+	+	-
Aggrieved	+	+	-	+
Aggro	+	+	-	-
Agoraphobia	+	+	+	-
Aide	+	+	-	-
Airborne	+	+	-	+
Airdrop	+	+	-	-
Air strip	+	+	-	+
Algorithm	+	-	-	-
Allergic	+	+	-	+
All over	+	+	-	-
Alpha particle	+	+	-	-
Alveolar	+	+	+	-
Amanuensis	+	+	+	-
Amnesia	+	+	+	-
Amoral	+	+	-	-
Antibiotic	+	+	-	+
Apartheid	+	+	-	-
Arthritis	+	+	-	-
Athletics	+	+	-	+

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8.7 Semantic information in the L2-L1 dictionary

The most fundamental role of bilingual dictionaries is to establish correspondences between the lexical items of SL and TL in terms of translation equivalence. Zgusta (1971: 295) postulates in this regard:

"The basic purpose of the bilingual dictionary is to co-ordinate with the lexical units of one language which are equivalents in their lexical meaning."

It is also a truism that the availability of absolute translation equivalents of lexical items in all dimensions across languages is improbable. This is basically due to the "anisomorphism" of languages, as perceived on linguistic, cultural and conceptual levels. The lexicographer, therefore, has to cope with this complexity by resorting to other means available for accomplishing his job in the best possible way. Several strategies are at the lexicographer's disposal when a gloss identifying the SL meaning by means of TL lexical items is either non-existent or only partially equivalent:

- a) partial equivalent qualified by a comment;
- b) descriptive equivalent;
- c) picture.

Although exact equivalents are difficult to find bilingual lexicography is required to be as precise as possible in terms of denotative exactness, connotative implications, semantic range, syntactic behaviour, collocational constraints and pragmatic limitations. The most problematic area, however, is the finding of equivalents required for culture-specific words in the source language (cf. Al-Kasimi 1977, Tomaszczyk 1983, 1984).

8.7.1 Sense discrimination

Another major problem that the bilingual lexicographer must confront is providing meaning discrimination for polysemous words, an issue which has been widely discussed in the literature (cf. Iannucci 1957, 58, 67; Williams 1960; Al-Kasimi 1977; Hietsch 1958,) but which has hardly arrived at any general consensus.

According to Al-Kasimi (1977) however:

"meaning discrimination should be provided in the source language if the dictionary is intended for the speakers of the source language, and in the target language if the dictionary is meant for the speakers of the target language. In other words, meaning discriminations should be presented in the native language of the users for whom the dictionary is prepared."

He further explains this in formulaic notations. In a dictionary for production =

$S* = (s)T; (S)T$

$S* = (st)T*, (st)T*$

in a dictionary for comprehension:

$S = (t)T*$

$S* = (ts)T*; (ts)T*$

In these formulae

S = the SL word

s = the SL meaning discrimination presented in the SL

T = the TL word

t = the TL meaning discrimination presented in the TL

* = polysemous

st = meaning discrimination common to the SL and TL words,

presented in the SL

ts = meaning discrimination common to the SL and TL words,
presented in the TL

Linguists (such as Al-Kasimi 1983; Steiner 1977; Bartholomew and Schoenhals 1983) have suggested various devices to provide meaning discrimination in a bilingual dictionary: punctuation, definition, synonyms, illustrative examples, part-of-speech labels, context words or phrases. The main component which must be supplied by an L2-L1 dictionary when one is looking up a new word encountered in reading or listening, is the meaning. Thus, for a comprehension dictionary extensive vocabulary coverage is the focal point and the main micro-structural information is meaning, all other information being peripheral.

8.7.2 Evaluation

The FEUD employs all the means available, with the sole exception of any pictorial illustrations, in its attempt to translate the meanings of the sample word "foot" into Urdu. The principal demerit of this dictionary, however, is its failure to disambiguate the various senses of the word in any consistent fashion. In fact, there does not appear to be any discrete sense discrimination; rather the meanings are clarified by providing additional translation equivalents separated by full stops. Thus none of the devices to mark meaning discrimination is employed except that the context word is given in brackets so as to explain a line division in poetry. The basic orientation of the dictionary is supposedly to help the user in comprehension; all

foot¹ (fʊt) n. feet /fɪt/ 1 [C] the movable part of the body at the end of the leg, below the ankle, on which a man or an animal stands — see picture at HUMAN² 2 [C] (pl. sometimes foot) (a measure of length equal to) 12 inches or about .305 metres: 3 feet make one yard. He's 6 feet tall. He's 3 foot 8 inches in height. The building is 40 feet/foot high — see WEIGHTS & MEASURES TABLE 3 3 [C] U (of) the bottom part (of): base: A creeping plant grew along the foot of the wall. at the foot of the page. The foot of the lamp is unsteady on the floor 4 [C] U (of) the lower end (of anything) where feet lie: the foot of the bed. She laid some flowers at the foot of her friend's grave 5 [U] manner of walking; step: One old woman walked with heavy foot up the stairs. FLEET² of foot 6 [C usu. sing.] the part of a stocking or sock that covers the foot 7 [C] a division of a line in poetry, in which there is usu. a strong beat and one or 2 weaker ones: In the line "The way/was long/the wind/was cold", the words between each pair of upright lines make up a foot 8 [P] old use, esp. BrE soldiers who march and fight on foot: INFANTRY: a REGIMENT of foot 9 a foot in both camps a position not completely favouring one side or the other, so that each thinks it has one's support: His political opinions aren't very decided or courageous; he keeps a foot in both camps 10 a foot in the door a beginning of influence, favour, etc. 11 be on one's feet a to be standing, walking, etc.: It's nice to sit down after being on your feet all day. b to be well again after illness: This medicine will soon have you on your feet again. c to be standing up, esp. in order to speak: No sooner had the question been put than he was on his feet to reply 12 fall on one's feet informal to come out of a difficult state of affairs without harm; have good luck 13 find one's feet a (esp. of a baby or young animal) to begin to be able to stand and walk. b to become used to new or strange surroundings; settle in: He's only been at the school 2 weeks, and he hasn't really found his feet yet 14 get a foot in informal to get a chance to be in: He's joined the Sports Club in the hope of getting a foot in one of the teams 15 get/have cold feet to be too nervous to do something, esp. losing courage just before something: They had cold feet at the last minute and refused to sell their house 16 get to one's feet to stand up 17 keep one's feet to be able to remain standing, not fall: He found it difficult to keep his feet on the slippery surface 18 my foot informal I don't believe it: "She says she's too busy to speak to you." "Busy, my foot! She just doesn't want to." 19 on foot a (by) walking: It takes longer to travel on foot than by car. b in a state of being used, made, prepared, etc.: A plan is on foot to invite the Minister of Health to visit our hospital. (Who set that business on foot? = started it?) — see also A FOOT (2) 20 put a foot wrong (informal) to say or do the wrong things: He's very good at dealing with all kinds of people; he never puts a foot wrong 21 put one's best foot forward a to walk as fast as possible: It's a long way to the village, but if you put your best foot forward you'll reach it before the evening. b to make one's best effort: You've been so lazy in the past few months; you'll have to put your best foot forward if you want to pass that examination now 22 put one's feet up informal to rest by lying down or sitting with one's feet supported on something: It's nice to put your feet up after a long day's work 23 put one's foot down a informal to speak and act firmly on a particular matter: The father didn't like his son staying out at night, so he put his foot down and forbade him to do it again. b BrE sl to drive very fast 24 put one's foot in it informal to say the wrong thing or make an awkward mistake 25 set foot in/on to enter; visit: She said she wouldn't set foot in the room until it had been properly cleaned. (No man has set foot on that rocky island; it's impossible to land there — see also HAND¹ (49) and foot, have one's foot in the GRAVE¹ (5), SWEEP¹ (14) someone off his feet, UNDERFOOT

foot (fū) n. (pl. feet) 1 part of leg below ankle پاؤں پر 2 base بنیاد پایے at foot of the hill دامن کوہ 3 lower end آخر، اتر 4 twelve-inch measure of length ٹٹ 5 unit of verse with one stressed and one or more unstressed syllables دگن 6 infantry پیادہ فوج یا ڈو سواروں کی فوج on foot, walking set (something) on foot, set (it) going set (someone) on (his) feet, make (himself) supporting اپنے پاؤں پر کھڑا کرنا put (one's) foot down, (a) protest احتجاج کرنا (b) be firm نپٹے نروقتف carry (person) off his feet, fill him with enthusiasm دنگل میں ڈونڈ لیا کرنا put (one's) foot in it, blunder غلطی کرنا، سبب بات کسٹ یا کرنا، have one foot in the grave, be very old برسوں کے برسے ہو کر tread under foot, tyrannize ظلم کرنا c. i. & t. 1 add a foot to (a stocking) پیر بننا 2 pay (the bill) دانا پیر کرنا 3 add up (column of figures) جوڑنا 4 walk پیادل چلنا foot it all the way پیادل چلنا

BILINGUAL (FEUD)

Foot (fū) n. Termination of leg پاؤں - بیر - جرن - جال - قدم - رفتار - ہلک یا سہری کا بابہ - پہاڑ کا دامن - سوزے کا وہ حصہ جو پیروں پر آتا ہے - شاعری (غرضی رکن) طول ناپنے کی باور ایچ کی ہنری - کسی چیز کا نتیجے کا حصہ - بیجا - بائیں - دیل بین - بنیاد - مکان کی کرسی - تلچھٹ - تیل کی کیٹ - کسی کے دل میں اٹھانی Carry one of his feet شوق پیدا کرنا - نہ اکتا! 1009 اظہار عجز کرنا - پاؤں پر کرنا - Fall on one's feet کسی کے نقش قدم Follow in one's footsteps پر چلنا - کڑی کے پیچھے اردل یا سانس کے کھڑے ہونے کا تھتہ - Footboard پاؤں کا سہارا - پاؤں رکھنے کی جگہ - Foothold اپنی کسر و بیوں کی وجہ سے شکست Have feet of clay تریب المرگ ہونا - Have one's foot in grave غلطی میں پھنس جانا - کسی کام میں ٹانگ اڑانا - Put one's foot in it چلنا - جانا - وقف - Foot (fū) v. i. & t. Dance, go کرنا - پیدل جانا - قدم اٹھانا - آہستہ جانا - حساب لگانا - سیزان جوڑنا - بل ادا کرنا - لات مارنا - ٹھکرانا - دعوت کا خرچ برداشت کرنا - To foot the bill

other information is incidental, and yet it is the semantic aspect which is sorely deficient. The KTC, on the other hand, is a hybrid dictionary aimed at helping Urdu-speakers with both comprehension and production. It therefore gives first of all the SL definition/description followed by the TL translation equivalent. The various senses of the word are made explicit by listing them under different numbers to capture the reader's attention instantly. Compared with these two bilingual dictionaries, the LDOCE is far more comprehensive in its coverage; it provides more senses and idiomatic uses of the sample word under study.

Below is a comparison of micro-structural information relating to the word "ask", as provided in the two dictionaries -- the LDOCE and the FUED. As the word is polysemous, the LDOCE has listed the different meanings separately in numerical order. The placing of a number before each definition reinforces in the user's mind the idea that it stands for another sense. The definitions seem quite clear and concise and are further substantiated by illustrative sentences helping the user to understand the context in which the entry word can occur. Further clarification of the word is provided in the "usage notes" where its synonymic behaviour of each sense division is given in a code which refers the user to the full explanation provided in the front matter of the dictionary. With regard to phonological information, the dictionary offers two alternative forms of pronunciation. The transcription system followed is that of the IPA.

The FUED, on the other hand, lists two more definitions than the LDOCE under the sample entry word "puchhna", but the various senses are simply differentiated by semi-colons instead of a numbering system which obviously makes the different translation equivalents less prominent and at the same time confusing to the user. As the lexicographer has not explained what the semi-colon stands for in the "user's guide", the learner may be led to believe that he is being offered a list of synonyms. No illustrative examples are provided to demonstrate the word in a live context.

The pronunciation system used is that of re-spelling, which is not a widely recognised method and can sometimes cause problems for the reader. The dictionary does not give any syntactic or pragmatic information to enable the user to make productive use of the word independently.

The Collins-Robert French Dictionary is a one-volume English-French, French-English dictionary claimed to be equally useful "for students, linguists and all translation needs". It is therefore not specifically designed for advanced learners of either French or English. The dictionary, however, has a fascinating method of presenting microstructural information, in some ways quite different from both the LDOCE and the FUED. The headword "demander" is first given its phonetic transcription according to IPA symbols. Different grammatical functions of the entry word are made explicit by numbers, each starting on a new line. This helps the user to recognise immediately any structural change that occurs in the entry word. There is no use of codes at all; grammatical information is conveyed in traditional parts of speech and all abbreviations are explained on the front page of the dictionary.

The most distinguishing feature of the dictionary is the presentation of sense discrimination by means of a "comprehensive system of indicating material" which is helpful for both encoding and decoding. The sample entry is divided into separate major semantic categories, with each category made distinct by a letter in alphabetical order. The sense of each category is described

سأل püchhnä (H) v. To ask; to inquire (after); to question; to interrogate; to invite; to care about; to value.

BILINGUAL (CRFD)

demander (d(ə)mɑːnde) (1) 1 vt (a) (solliciter) chose, conseil, réponse, entrevue to ask for, request (frm); volontaire to call for, ask for; (Admin, Jur) délai, emploi, divorce to apply for; indemnité, dommages to claim; réunion, enquête to call for, ask for; ~ qch a qn to ask sb for sth; ~ un service ou une faveur a qn to ask sb a favour; (Mil) ~ une permission to ask for ou request (frm) leave; ~ la permission de to ask ou request (frm) permission to; ~ a voir qn à parler a qn to ask to see sb/to speak to sb; ~ a qn de faire ou qu'il fasse qch to ask ou request (frm) sb to do sth; il a demandé a partir plus tôt he has asked to leave early; ~ la paix to sue for peace; ~ des nouvelles de qn, ~ après qn to inquire ou ask after sb; puis-je vous ~ (de me passer) du pain? may I trouble you for some bread?, would you mind passing me some bread?; vous n'avez qu'a ~ you only have to ask. (b) (appeler) médecin, prêtre, plombier to send for. Il va falloir ~ un médecin we'll have to send for ou call (out ou for) a doctor; demande un médecin send for a doctor; le blessé demande un prêtre the injured man is asking ou calling for a priest. (c) (au téléphone, au bureau etc) personne, numéro to ask for; (au téléphone) demandez-moi M X get me Mr X; on le demande au bureau/au téléphone he is wanted at the office/on the phone, someone is asking for him at the office/on the phone; le patron vous demande the boss wants to see you ou speak to you ou is asking to see you. (d) (desirer) to be asking for, want. Ils demandent 10 F de l'heure et une semaine de congé they are asking (for) 10 francs an hour and a week's holiday; il demande a partir plus tôt he wants to ou is asking to leave early ou earlier; il demande qu'on le laisse partir he wants us to ou is asking us to let him go; il ne demande qu'a apprendre/a se laisser convaincre all he wants is to learn/to be convinced, he's only too willing to learn/be convinced; le chat miaule, il demande son lait the cat's meowing - he's asking for his milk; je ne demande pas mieux! ou que ça! that's exactly ou just what I'd like!, I'll be ou I'm only too pleased!; il ne demandera pas mieux que de vous aider he'll be only too pleased to help you; je demande a voir! that I must see!; tout ce que l'on demande c'est qu'il fasse beau all (that) we ask is that we have good weather. (e) (s'enquerr de) heure, nom, chemin to ask. ~ qch a qn to ask sb sth; ~ quand/comment/pourquoi c'est arrivé to ask when/how/why it happened; va ~! go and ask!; Je ne t'ai rien demandé, je ne te demande rien I didn't ask you, I'm not asking you; (zaci) je vous le demande!, je vous demande un peu! "honestly!" what do you think of that! (f) (nécessiter) (travail, décision etc) to require, need. cela demande un effort it requires an effort; ces plantes demandent beaucoup d'eau/a être arrosées these plants need ou require a lot of water/watering; ce travail va (lui) ~ 6 heures this job will take (him) 6 hours ou will require 6 hours, he'll need 6 hours to do this job; cette proposition demande réflexion this proposal needs thinking over; cette proposition demande toute votre attention this proposal calls for ou requires your full attention. (g) (exiger) ~ qch de ou a qn to ask sth of sb; il demande de ses employés qu'ils travaillent bien he asks ou requires of his employees that they work well; ~ beaucoup a ou de la vie/de ses élèves to ask a lot out of life ou of life/of one's pupils; il ne faut pas trop lui en ~! you mustn't ask too much of him! (h) (Comm) ils (en) demandent 50 F they are asking ou want 50 francs (for it); ils m'en ont demandé 50 F they asked (me) for 50 francs (for it); on demande une vendeuse! 'shop assistant wanted'; ils demandent 3 vendeuses they are advertising for ou they want 3 shop assistants; on demande beaucoup de vendeuses en ce moment shop assistants are very much in demand ou are in great demand just now. (i) (loc) ~ aide et assistance to request aid; ~ audience to request an audience; ~ l'aumône ou la charité to ask ou beg for charity; ~ grâce to ask for mercy; ~ l'impossible to ask the impossible; ~ pardon a qn to apologize to sb; je vous demande pardon i apologize, I'm sorry; ~ la lune to ask for the moon; ~ la parole to ask to be allowed to speak; ~ qn en mariage, ~ la main de qn to ask for sb's hand (in marriage); sans ~ son reste without waiting for more. 2 se demander vpr (hésiter, douter) to wonder. on peut vraiment se ~ s'il a perdu la tête one may well wonder ou ask if he isn't out of his mind; il se demande ou aller/ce qu'il doit faire he is wondering where to go/what to do; il se demande: suis-je vraiment aussi bête? he asked himself ou wondered: am I really so stupid?; ils se demandent bien pourquoi il a démissionné they can't think why he resigned, they really wonder why he resigned; cela ne se demande pas! that's a stupid question!

ask /ɑːsk/ [æsk, ɪ] 1 [T], [I], [A], [M], [D] (1) (vt) vt, ask, ask sb sth, ask sb (a) (person) (for sth) to ask (for), request (information) from someone Ask him if asked who he was, where he goes, Ask him when he is, where he goes, You must ask if you want to know something. Ask him his name. (He asked her a question.) He asked a question of her. (She asked about his health.) 2 [T] (for), [I], [A], [M], [D] (for) to make a request for sth; She asked his advice; ask for advice. They asked to go for a walk. I asked that I (should) be allowed to see her. (She asked him to write her at 6 o'clock.) She asked for his advice. (She asked to be written at 6 o'clock.) She asked (for) permission to go. Don't ask (me) for money. Has anyone asked for me at the bank? 3 [T] (for, of) to demand (something, such as a price); expect: He is asking a lot of money (for his house). The job asks a great deal (of me). 4 [T], [I], [A], [M], [D] (for, to) to invite: I have asked some friends (for dinner). I have asked them to come (for dinner). (Just to see.) I asked her to see my house. I asked her in/into/for a drink. I asked her (to come) out (with me) (for the evening). I asked her (to come) over (to my house).

USAGE Ask is the usual verb for questions: He asked a question. (He asked (them) where they lived.) "Where do you live?" he asked. If you don't know, you must ask. (Inquire (=enquire) has the same meaning and could be used in the 3rd and 4th of these sentences, or in the 2nd without "them": He inquired where they lived. "Where do you live?" he inquired. One questions or (more formal) interrogates a person, which means asking him many questions: The police questioned/interrogated the prisoner. (This may mean that they also used force.)

BILINGUAL (CRFD)

ask [ɑːsk] 1 vt (a) (inquire) demander. to ~ sb sth demander qch a qn; to ~ sb about sth interroger or questionner or poser des questions a qn au sujet de qch, s'informer de qch auprès de qn; to ~ (sb) a question poser une question (a qn); I don't know, ~ your father je ne sais pas, demande (-le) a ton père; ~ him if he has seen her demande-lui s'il l'a vue; don't ~ me! allez savoir!; est-ce que je sais (moi)!; (in exasperation) I ~ you! je vous demande un peu!; (keep quiet) I'm not ~ing you! je ne te demande rien (à toi)!; je ne te demande pas l'heure qu'il est. (b) (request) demander, solliciter; (Comm) price demander. to ~ sb to do demander a qn de faire, prier qn de faire; to ~ that sth be done demander que qch soit fait; to ~ sb for sth demander qch a qn; to ~ sb a favour, to ~ a favour of sb demander une faveur a qn, solliciter une faveur de qn; he ~ed to go on the picnic il a demandé a se joindre or s'il pouvait se joindre au pique-nique; I don't ~ much from you je ne t'en demande pas beaucoup; that's ~ing a lot/too much! c'est beaucoup/trop (en) demander!; that's ~ing the impossible c'est demander l'impossible; (Comm) how much are they ~ing for? ils en demandent or veulent combien?; (Comm) he is ~ing £20,000 for the house il demande 20 000 livres or veut 20 000 livres pour la maison; (Comm) ~ing price prix m de départ, prix demandé au départ. (c) (invite) inviter. to ~ sb to go to the theatre inviter qn (à aller) au théâtre; to ~ sb to lunch inviter qn à déjeuner; I was ~ed into the drawing room on m'a prié d'entrer au salon; how about ~ing him? et si on l'invitait?; et si on lui demandait de venir?; to ~ sb in/out/up etc demander à qn or prier qn d'entrer/de sortir/de monter etc. 2 vt demander. to ~ about sth s'informer de qch, se renseigner sur qch; it's there for the ~ing il suffit de le demander (pour l'obtenir), on l'a comme on veut. ask after vt fus person demander des nouvelles de. to ask after sb's health s'informer de la santé de qn. ask along vt sep inviter; (to one's home) inviter (à la maison). ask back vt sep (a) (for a second visit) renvoyer. (b) (on a reciprocal visit) to ask sb back rendre son invitation à qn. ask for vt fus help, permission, money demander; person demander à voir. he asked for his pen back il a demandé qu'on lui rende son stylo; to ask for the moon or the sky demander la lune; they are asking for trouble* ils cherchent les ennuis or les embêtements*; she was asking for it! elle l'a bien cherché!; elle ne l'a pas volé!; ask in vt sep inviter à entrer. to ask sb in for a drink inviter qn a (entrer) prendre un verre. ask out vt sep inviter à sortir. he asked her out to dinner/to see a film il l'a invitée (à dîner) au restaurant/au cinéma.

by "indicators" which immediately highlight the group of meanings in that area. In addition, variations of meaning within each category are precisely pinpointed by means of various field or stylistic labels. The dictionary also follows its own typographical system to indicate stylistic information, e.g. asterisks to point out the degree of colloquialism and daggers to describe the use of a word on a usage time scale. All this is fully explained in the introduction via examples in both languages. Extensive use is also made of set phrases and example sentences in both languages. Almost the same system as is used for presenting micro-structural information is also followed for the sample word "ask" in the English-French half of the dictionary.

8.8 Macro-structure of the L1-L2 dictionary for SL speakers

An L2-L1 dictionary -- according to the new typology discussed in section 8.4 -- is supposed to be different from its counterpart L1-L2 dictionary in its whole organisation because of the divergent function it performs. The former is basically concerned with semantic aspects, and its main thrust is the glossing of an extensive vocabulary, whereas the latter is oriented towards providing all necessary information required for both speaking and writing -- here the focus is on a smaller SL vocabulary selected on pragmatic grounds (Tomaszczyk, 1981/1983; Folomkina 1986). Thus the choice is principally one of appropriate L1 lexical items which serve as a bridge for the presentation of their translation equivalents -- in other words, the dictionary is geared to the productive use of the language.

Scholfield (1982) suggests various ways to ensure the adequacy of the L1 items entered:

a) by taking into account the range of meanings the learner might need to express in English, then looking up the most approximate L1 translations for them by cross-checking from a sample of items in coursebooks designed for productive use;

b) by using a sample of words from a list of "basic" English vocabulary determined by frequency of occurrence;

c) by a sample of words chosen by a priori identification of "fundamental" notions and functions;

d) by judging lexical items on their ability to "circumlocute" other words;

e) by evaluating the common meanings expressible in the L1 by typical phrases.

8.9 Translation equivalents in the L1-L2 dictionary

The L1-L2 dictionaries whose aim is to provide English translation equivalents for writing or speaking purposes are not simply expected to focus on formal words, but they are very much required to acquaint the user with the whole range of vocabulary, e.g. idioms, phrasal verbs, set phrases and other colloquial expressions, all to be used in various situational contexts.

8.10 Phonetic information in the bilingual dictionary

The provision of phonological information in contemporary bilingual dictionaries is a common practice, based on the premise that it is integral to the description of language codified in most works of reference. Although the user has access to special dictionaries of pronunciation it is much more convenient for him to be able to refer to pronunciation details which are adjacent

to the words being looked up. The relatively new interest in the spoken forms of language has intensified the need for pronunciation information suitable for foreign learners who consult dictionaries in order to check the pronunciation of the words they wish to use in speech or indeed to learn the spoken form of unfamiliar words encountered in reading. An indication of pronunciation in bilingual dictionaries involving English is also needed, due to the inherent ambiguity of English orthography. As the learner at an advanced stage is supposed to acquire a near-native accent, the bilingual dictionary should present a phonetic description of the language as compared to a phonemic one, in order to capture the allophonic differences characteristic of spontaneous natural speech. The answer to the question about the amount of phonological information to be supplied in the bilingual dictionary is the same as discussed in Chapter 7 in relation to the learner's dictionary, namely, that not only should the entry word be transcribed but that illustrative examples should also be provided so as to demonstrate to the user all the features of connected speech. As to which part of the bilingual dictionary should present phonological information, theory and practice have differed. Al-Kasimi (1977), however, suggests that:

"if the bilingual dictionary is meant as an aid to the speakers of the source language, then it should furnish phonological information about the target language, and vice versa."

This proposition sounds plausible if we take into strict account the function of the dictionary and its potential users.

8.11 Micro-structural information in L1-L2 dictionaries for SL speakers

In a L1-L2 dictionary for SL speakers the most important information required is L2 lexical items to help the user in speaking and writing. The bilingual dictionary, therefore, should provide the following information in order to put the L2 translation equivalent in the right perspective.

8.11.1 Sense discrimination

This should be accomplished according to the formula proposed by Al-Kasimi (1977, 1983) and discussed in 8.6.1.1.

8.11.2 Ordering of senses

One of the most fundamental methodological issues in the design of bilingual dictionaries is the ordering of the various senses of polysemous words. The criteria that have been suggested by linguists for the arrangement of senses include historical precedence, frequency tabulation, and psychologically meaningful sequence etc. For a bilingual learner's dictionary aimed at advanced foreign learners of English, the last methodology would be most useful. Mdee's (1984) observation is quite apt in this regard:

"The core-periphery approach seems most appropriate to the learner's dictionary because it perceives all the senses of a complex word as a structural unit and presents first the central meaning from which the secondary meanings are derived. It builds up a semantic relationship between the senses, a factor which helps the learner to understand the secondary senses, as meaning transferred from the primary one."

8.11.3 Collocations

In order for a bilingual dictionary to be a successful tool for encoding purposes it urgently needs to demonstrate the subtle differences in the meaning of the different translation equivalents supplied; similarly, there is an equal need to specify their potential for combining with other lexical items, so that the user can avoid errors of a lexical nature.

8.11.4 Illustrative examples

Almost all of what has been stated in 5.3 about the significance and the multiple roles of illustrative sentences in monolingual English learner's dictionaries is equally valid with regard to L1-L2 dictionaries.

8.11.5 Grammatical information

Grammatical information for the learner is as vital as semantic information in L1-L2 dictionaries, but there have been serious problems in coming to terms with the model, scope and the modes of presenting grammatical information in dictionaries (cf. chapter 6). One aspect, however, which has sharply come to the fore in various empirical investigations is that students avoid referring to the "user's guide" for deciphering the coded information. What is ideally required is a system of presenting grammatical information which is easily and instantly decodable.

8.11.6 Pragmatic information

Pragmatic information should be presented by making

judicious use of restrictive labels across several variants: ideolectal, registral, stylistic, dialectal, temporal, national and interlingual etc. "Usage notes", an extension of restrictive labels, could also be employed where required to explain differences between synonyms, the culture-specificity of words, their denotative and connotative value, thereby supplementing the definitions in various ways.

8.11.7 Extra-linguistic information

In a learner's dictionary -- whether mono- or bi-lingual -- extralinguistic information is an additional help to the user; it is usually supplied in the form of:

- a) a preface to the dictionary;
- b) user's guide;
- c) pictures and tables within the contents of the dictionary and the back-matter, along with tables, charts, instructional materials, biographical and geographical information, and signs and symbols etc.

8.11.8 Evaluation

The FUED is an L1-L2 dictionary intended to provide the user with comprehensive information about L2 lexical items. Surprisingly, it has no introductory matter whatsoever to provide any clue to either user or reviewer as to its main features. As a matter of fact, the FUED is a carbon copy of "The Standard Urdu-English dictionary (SUED) compiled by Dr Abdul Haq published in India (n.d.). The publisher of the SUED states briefly in the preface, "this dictionary has been prepared to find English equivalents of Urdu words ... and in India these days, there is an urgent need for such a dictionary which could serve the Urdu-

speaking population as an authentic guide to learning Urdu words via English equivalents" (translated from Urdu). As is clear, this dictionary does not specify its potential users in any definitive way. Close analysis and evaluation, however, suggest that it is more suitable for the needs of the foreign learner of Urdu rather than those of the Urdu-speaking learner of English. Its macro-structure is extensive yet its micro-structure appears to be incidental -- the situation should have been vice versa if the dictionary is really addressed to Urdu-speaking learners of English. As no other L1-L2 dictionary is currently available on the market students will resort to it out of necessity, however deficient it is in terms of its information structure. L1 words are transcribed in L2 by the respelling method, followed by grammatical and etymological information about them, which is least required by the Urdu-speaking learner of English. The meaning and sense discrimination of words relate to L1 entry words, which is useful only to the foreign learner of Urdu. All useful information necessary for the productive use of language -- as discussed under 8.10 and its sub-sections -- is simply left out.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

In this empirical research project, the most comprehensive of its kind ever conducted in Asia, we addressed ourselves to various aspects of monolingual English learner's dictionaries, e.g. macro-structural, semantic, syntactic, pragmatic and phonetic, with the object of discovering their suitability for meeting the needs of Pakistani learners of English; we also made an assessment of their "reference skills" in retrieving the highly sophisticated information characteristic of such dictionaries.

An analysis of English-Urdu/Urdu-English dictionaries was also undertaken to measure the extent to which they cater for the needs of Urdu native speakers. All the four learners' dictionaries were evaluated in previous individual chapters with respect to the various kinds of information expected to be accessible to their users. This chapter presents in summarised form all the main conclusions which can be drawn from our survey, followed by some proposals for their practical application in lexicography and also by some suggestions for further research.

9.2 The Information structure of Learner's Dictionaries

As a result of evaluating the four learner's dictionaries in this investigation we verified that these dictionaries possess a highly sophisticated information structure, manifest across the whole spectrum of their design features. Lexicographical

innovations have definitely been made as a result of new attitudes to the teaching and learning of English as a second/foreign language; this has occurred under the impact of new advances in linguistics and of added emphasis on the needs of various categories of potential dictionary users. The currently available learner's dictionaries no longer represent just a collection of lexical items arrayed as rudimentary information on meaning, grammar and pronunciation; rather, they have been transformed into compendia of detailed information on all aspects of the language.

The notion of "language variety" finds expression in the employment of "usage labels" to describe the underlying variants. Basic part-of-speech information has been extended to cover the most elaborate treatment of details of a syntactic nature, represented via well thought-out codes -- a massive improvement on the position, compared to half a century ago.. The presentation of phonological information has taken a step forward to embrace not only segmental but also suprasegmental features: stress-marking is indicated not only in entry words but also in compounds, derivatives and idioms. The continued refinement of controlled defining vocabularies -- first employed fifty years ago with the object of achieving facility of definitional comprehension -- is proof of convictions that yet further lexicographical advances can be expected from this technique. The sense ordering of polysemous lexical items is carried out in accordance with a definite linguistic criterion, depending of course on the policy of the respective dictionary. "Usage notes"

are employed to put into perspective the finer differences in synonyms, culture-bound words, collocational restrictions, connotative meaning and the pragmatic differentiation of lexical items. In order to provide the user with maximum information the compilers of learner's dictionaries have devised specific metalanguages. Extensive use is made of collocations and example sentences in order to demonstrate words in live contexts and to encourage the user to emulate productive use of the language independently. The features of the learner's dictionaries thus analysed are undoubtedly suggestive of the fact that only an informed and skilled learner can make the best use of them for both encoding and decoding.

9.3 Reference skills of Pakistani learners

In the face of the increasingly complex information structure of learner's dictionaries the results of our survey tended to reveal that Pakistani learners do not seem to be aware of the range of dictionaries, their fundamental orientation, the type of information they contain and the most efficient ways of retrieving the information they contain. Thus, the major achievements of pedagogical lexicography do not appear to be fully capitalised on by the category of users for which they are basically designed. Although students rely heavily on dictionaries and their authority, most of them do not use the one which is considered the best for their needs. The reason for this was quite explicit: students have never been offered any consistent, formal dictionary education and are seldom made to

realise the importance of reference books, their range, availability, choice, and the best ways to make use of them in the process of learning a foreign language. Instruction in the use of dictionaries has rarely been integrated into language teaching on any level of education, a fact which was acknowledged by a sample of the teaching community in their interviews. As a result, few students bothered to read the "users' guide" in their dictionaries or made any regular efforts to familiarise themselves with the metalanguage used. The main cause of apathy on the part of teachers is their own educational training: the majority of them do not have a linguistic or professional educational background which could enable them to realise the significance of cultivating a degree of knowledge about reference books and skills among their students.

9.4 Dictionary using guides

The realisation that modern dictionaries are too sophisticated to be fully exploited by the user (especially the EFL learner) has led to the production of material aimed at providing systematic training in the form of workbooks, guidebooks and basic courses in lexicography by dictionary publishers and others: [Learning with LDOCE, (Whitcut 1979); Use Your Dictionary, (Underhill 1980); Chambers Universal Learner's Workbook, (Kirkpatrick 1981); An English Pronunciation Companion, (Gimson and Ramsaran 1982/85); How to Use Your Dictionary, (Lewis and Pugmire 1980) and Workbook on Lexicography, (Kipfer 1984)].

These works are undoubtedly a significant step forward in

efforts to ensure better use and comprehension of dictionaries, but their focus seems to be rather on the wealth of information contained in each dictionary and on the manner in which they are structured. In addition to this information learners need to know which specific skills to acquire when they encounter linguistic problems, both in decoding and encoding -- this point is elaborately discussed by Scholfield (1982). Furthermore, the above guidebooks are aimed at all learners: hence they leave out specific advice on how to make judicious use (or any use at all!) of the L1-L2 and L2-L1 dictionaries which are also highly popular among students. We therefore recommend that a "user's guide" should be separately compiled for each category of L1 speakers -- this should be done along the lines proposed in 3.8 for Pakistani learners and it needs, apart from other aspects, to pay due attention to demonstrating how bilingual dictionaries may be used appropriately. It is presumed that such a "guide" would have more impact than the general guides discussed before.

9.5 Instruction in reference skills

It has been discovered that in -- contradistinction to the improvements incorporated in learner's dictionaries -- instruction in "reference skills" for learners has not emerged in commensurate degree, either in our survey or in others (Bejoint 1981; Hartmann 1983c, Tomaszczyk 1979). In the light of this it is strongly urged that instruction in dictionary skills should be compulsorily integrated into all stages of the language learning process, from Matriculation to Advanced level. With the necessary instruction in this field learners would have better

knowledge of all the reference tools available, their contents, ways to use them independently, the choice of dictionaries suitable for their needs; they would then also know on which occasions to resort to the dictionary and which contexts need strategies other than dictionary consultation if various communicative problems are to be efficiently coped with. Although we do not yet know exactly, on the basis of any empirical evidence, about the way(s) in which EFL learners build up their vocabulary, any training in "reference skills" would certainly help them significantly in handling linguistic difficulties with ease and confidence. Moreover, researchers would be able to derive more authentic evaluations of dictionaries from users. With regard to the educational advantages of teaching these skills Whitcut (1986: 112) rightly remarks that if the user has the necessary skills then he "can be taught through the dictionary more grammar, more usage and collocations, more idioms and more cultural information."

9.6 Determining the macro-structure of the Learner's Dictionary

The practice followed in the current learner's dictionaries of determining their macro-structure is found to be largely based on the subjective policy of lexicographers rather than on any objective criteria for needs analysis. The proposition (cf. Martin 1985) that an advanced learner's dictionary should be comparable to an average educated native speaker's linguistic "competence" and "performance" seems quite attractive at first sight, even though -- in macro-structure terms -- a size of

30,000 items is being talked about rather than 50,000 if the size of both the LDOCE and the OALDCE is anything to go by. However, this must be worked out by taking into account the EFL learner's linguistic and sociolinguistic needs. An ideal dictionary, therefore, is one which does not include those words unlikely to be referred to by the learner and which simultaneously does not omit the type of words he may look for in it. The real drawback in this context is the non-specificity of the potential user; dictionaries tend to cater for heterogeneous groups of EFL learners without any regard to their linguistic and sociolinguistic needs, themselves characteristic of their native milieu.

Sociolinguistically this project should involve an empirical investigation of learner's linguistic activities in terms of "encoding" and "decoding", analysed further into major language activities, the type of information sought and the kinds of lexical items looked for in the dictionary. This would be fruitful only if such parameters were to be studied in relation to specific L1 speakers, as the language needs and problems of all EFL learners across various speech communities may not be uniform. Linguistically, an intensive evaluation of ELT coursebooks would provide tangible checklists for correlating the macro-structure of the dictionary. In our survey we found that the majority of students use dictionaries for decoding purposes, yet sociolinguistically there is a great demand for encoding activities as well -- for which the dictionary should cater. Furthermore, we discovered -- via our cross-check of randomly

chosen words (cf. table 8) from the textbook prescribed for Pakistani learners of English -- that the LDOCE did not list six of these words and the OALDCE missed out nine of them. Similar investigations into the textbooks of other categories of EFL learners would bring to light different data but similar results. It is also found (cf. table 10) that the OALDCE has included 74 and that the LDOCE has incorporated 75 words commonly known in Pakistani culture, which an Urdu-speaking learner of English would never bother to look up in the dictionary. Equally valuable in this context are frequency counts, though they are not a fully reliable measure of all lexical items. Moreover, almost all the current frequency lists for English are solely based on written corpus. Such frequency counts -- if available for such categories of words as idioms, phrasal verbs, phraseological expressions, collocations and also for the lexical registers of all fields of knowledge alluded to in the mass media and in everyday language -- would help the lexicographer ensure maximal objectivity.

Table 10: Words familiar to Urdu-speaking learners of English

<u>OALDCE</u>		<u>LDOCE</u>	
Allah	Mahatma	Afghan	Mecca
amir	Mecca	Allah	Mamsahib
anna	Memsahib	Arab	Mohammedan
Arab	Mohammedan	Arabic	Mohammedanism
Arabic	muezzin	Arabian	muezzin
Asian	mullah	ayah	mulláh
ayah	Muslim	baboo	Muslim
babu	nautch	bazaar	nautch
bazaar	pajamas	begum	pajamas
begum	peepul	bhang	Pakistani
bhang	pilau	Brahmin	pandit
Brahmin	pundit	bulbul	parsee
bulbul	punkah	bungalow	Pathan
bungalow	purdah	chutney	pilau
chutney	raj	curry	pipal
curry	rajah	dak bungalow	Punjab
dervish	Ramadan	dervish	punkah
dhoti	rani	dhoti	purdah
fakir	rupee	emir	raj
gharry	sadhu	fakir	rajah/raja
ghat	Sahib	gharry	Ramadan
ghee	salaam	ghat	rani
guru	sari	ghee	rupee
Hadji	Sikh	guru	sadhu
harem	Singhalese	Hajji	Sahib
hashish	sitar	harem	salaam
Hajira	sultan	hashish	sari
Hindi	Urdu	Hejera	sitar
Hindu	vizier	Hindu	sultan
Hindustani		Hinduism	vizier
imam		imam	
Indian		Indian	
Islam		Islam	
jihad		jihad	
jinn		jinn	
kebab		kebab	
khaki		khaki	
khan		khan	
Koran		Koran	
lakh		lakh	
lathi		Maharaja	
Maharaja		Maharani	
Maharanees		Mahatma	

9.7 Definitions

In the light of the fact that the most frequently sought information in dictionaries (4.4.2) is meaning and that the majority of students consider bilingual dictionaries more useful as compared with monolingual L2 dictionaries (5.2.1) -- merely on the presumption that meanings of lexical items are easier to follow -- the significance of definition in dictionaries assumes crucial importance. Similar is the attitude of other learners, as reported in previous investigations (cf. Baxter 1980; Hartmann 1983; Bensoussan 1981). The use of a "controlled vocabulary" for defining was adopted in an effort to achieve learner facility in comprehension, although this move has been greeted with mixed reactions. A "controlled vocabulary" has, no doubt, the merit of being simple and comprehensible, hence it is very much appreciated by the learner (cf. McFarquhar and Richards 1983) but sometimes it fails to bring out all the underlying senses into focus (cf. Jain 1981) and occasionally becomes lengthy too (cf. Crystal 1986). There have been suggestions therefore to increase the number of words in defining vocabularies so as to achieve more precision in the actual definitions. Another proposition which has already been implemented in other countries for other languages -- such as Arabic, Chinese and some varieties of Norwegian -- is beginning to receive serious attention by L2 dictionary publishers: this is the insertion of an L1 gloss after definitions in L2 learner's dictionaries like the LDOCE and the OALDCE. Atkins' (1985) observation is quite apt:

"there is in the English-speaking world a fairly rigid dichotomy between monolingual and bilingual learner's

dictionaries. Such is not the case in other areas: in Italy, for example, the hybrid dictionary (one with both bi and mono features) is a normal event. Here, perhaps, is the direction we ourselves should be moving in. If we were to combine the best features of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, we should produce a much more flexible teaching aid. Such a work would be possible now in book form -- and how much more possible when electronically accessed reference works are the norm."

A tradition of hybrid dictionaries already exists in Pakistan and the KTC is quite popular among the student community. A dictionary like the LDOCE, for instance, retaining all other features in English, with the addition of an Urdu gloss following each definition would be quite welcome to Urdu-speaking learners of English. In addition, it would tempt students -- who are otherwise reluctant to consult a monolingual L2 dictionary -- to use such a dictionary and thereby acquaint themselves with other features not extant in bilingual dictionaries.

9.8 Collocations

The provision of detailed collocational information in dictionaries has the merit of being useful for both the comprehension and productive needs of the EFL learner; that is why Pakistani learners prize it so highly in dictionaries (5.4.1). The results of our simple test on collocations have, firstly, confirmed the view that lexical errors are more difficult to handle at an advanced level and, secondly, have proved a need for the comprehensive inclusion of this vital information in dictionaries. In the broad range of lexical collocations, however, "restricted collocations" should have priority for inclusion in the dictionary in view of their

problematic and complex nature. This is, of course, possible if the macro-structure of the dictionary is exclusively based on the needs of a specific category of L1 speakers. Furthermore, it is important for dictionaries to provide information in the form and at the place in which the user is most likely to look for it (5.4.1). Yet further, it would be ideal if this information were to be provided in "example sentences" in order to save space -- and if this is a policy, then some sort of easily remembered or instantly available metalanguage is required, capable of sensitising users to its existence. Lastly, the desired dictionary should explain in its "user's guide" the significance of this vital linguistic phenomenon and the manner in which it is specified in the dictionary. The major problem for the lexicographer remains -- as stated previously -- making a judicious choice of collocational material which will protect students from making errors based on overgeneralisation or L1 interference.

9.9 Illustrative examples

Illustrative examples are found to be of tremendous value to Pakistani learners (5.3.1). It is also encouraging to find that almost all the currently available learner's dictionaries have already responded to a great extent to this demand. There remain, however, some vital issues to come to terms with in the framing of illustrative examples and the presentation of the varied information contained in them. An illustrative sentence could play multiple roles, depending on the type of lexical item involved and on its intricacy: it may explain the culture-

specificity of a word by providing a description; it may distinguish the different senses of a polysemous word, illustrate an idiosyncratic syntactic pattern, show collocational restrictions, indicate a stylistic level, highlight a connotational difference or describe a formulaic expression. An illustrative sentence may explain these points singly or in combination but the user of the dictionary must be made aware of them by means of some sort of metalanguage easily and instantly comprehensible. The sort of typographical conventions used in OALDCE and already discussed in 5.3.1. appear to be exceedingly helpful. We propose -- as a potential alternative -- a tentative scheme for metalanguage presentation, as follows:

1. gram. (for grammatical point)
2. colloc. (collocational information)
3. connot. (connotative reference)
4. formul. (formulaic expression)
5. phrase (special phrases)
6. S.S. (stress shift)

Each item of information must be underlined with a code, e.g. I. might stand for an idiosyncratic syntactic point, if conveyed in the illustrative sentence. In this way, the learner's attention is directed to the relatively problematic aspect of the lexical item. There is enough space at the bottom of each page in the dictionary where these superscripts, along with the type of information they represent in abbreviation, could be displayed horizontally in order to avoid frequent references to the introductory matter. The dictionary, however, in its introductory matter should provide full information on the abbreviated forms. It is also emphasised that illustrative

examples should be framed with an ethnographical orientation in mind in order to make the EFL learner aware of the typical "fixed speech acts" which commonly occur in the English language. It is highly important for the learner to build up his communicative competence and avoid any potential "pragmalinguistic" or "socio-pragmatic" failure in situations of real communication.

9.10 Usage labels

The assumption that information on usage is essential in learner's dictionaries is well reflected in the attitude of Pakistani learners (5.5.1). Without full and explicit register information in this area the EFL learner with his limited grasp of the target language might use, as well as perceive, a word in altogether inappropriate contexts. Occasionally definition fails to demonstrate the restrictedness of lexical items; a usage label has the merit of making up for this deficiency. In our evaluation of learner's dictionaries, we discovered that the aspects of usage singled out by the dictionaries are on the one hand not comprehensive, on the other inconsistent and seemingly not in conformity with all variants of language. In fact, codification of usage labelling should be compatible with the notions of linguistic varieties in order to avoid any impressionistic judgements. Hartmann's (1983) taxonomy of the four main context parameters:

- a) individual-functional;
- b) situational-structural;
- c) social-regional;
- d) temporal-national-interlingual, resulting in four groups of varieties:
 - aa) idiolects/speech acts;
 - bb) registers/styles;

- cc) sociolects/dialects;
- dd) etats de langue/standards/creoles

could be used as a guide to mark usage labelling. What is often patchy guidance on "usage" in the introduction to a dictionary should also be extended to describe each label used in it.

9.11 Encyclopaedic information

Encyclopaedic information supplied in the form of pictures, the encyclopaedic description of a word, or verbal illustrations aimed at bridging the gap left by the lexical definition's attempt to convey the full import of the word would certainly be of tremendous help to learners in the comprehension of unfamiliar objects, concepts and the meanings of lexical items specific to the culture of the target language. Also, the linguistic and extralinguistic information contained in the front matter and the appendices is considered to be of inestimable significance as it is readily available to the user (5.6.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1). All the four learner's dictionaries, depending on their macro-structure, seem to have provided sufficient encyclopaedic information in the appendices, but the treatment of lexical items requiring an encyclopaedic orientation appears to be desultory, particularly in the case of culture-specific words.

9.12 Micro-structural information

The presentation of entries and sub-entries in learner's dictionaries has serious ramifications for the basic function of these dictionaries and for the retrieval of information from them. The present tendency among Pakistani students is to use the

dictionary mostly for comprehension purposes which would, prima facie, require an alphabetical organisation of separate entries for compounds, phrasal verbs and idioms, as well as derivatives, if the meaning, spelling or pronunciation of these differs from that of the headword. Students with appropriate "reference skills" also resort, of course, to the dictionary for improving their active use of the language. The demand for guidance on production skills, on the other hand, calls for the clustering of sub-entries under their headword. It is undoubtedly fairly difficult for lexicographers to accommodate to two incompatible demands in the same dictionary. An ideal approach, however, would be to provide a comprehensive sub-entry scheme in addition to specifying idioms, compounds, phrasal verbs and inconsistent derivatives as separate entries. This is viable only if the macro-structure is determined by what might be called the real clustering needs of the learner. The current policy of entering idioms and compounds in learner's dictionaries under the "most idiomatic meaning" or the "most important word" in the phrase may not be very helpful for retrieval operations carried out by the foreign learner, due to the "opaqueness" or apparently equally important presence of each constituent in multi-word lexical units. Nonetheless, they could be specified alphabetically according to the first letter in the phrase for quick retrieval from the dictionary.

9.13 Grammatical information

Both the direct and indirect questions in our survey (6.3) indicated that dictionaries are not used adequately by students

for the retrieval of syntactic information. The grammatical information most often looked for in the dictionary probably relates to morphological and part-of-speech characteristics, which is relatively self-explanatory and does not require students to decipher an intricate network of codes. Thus the wealth of grammatical information -- presented mainly via codes -- of a structural nature goes unheeded, and students do not seem to use it for the productive purpose for which it is essentially intended. The main reason for this indifference is not so much due to a lack of need on their part, but rather to their inability to manipulate syntactic information as they pursue their EFL learning in a holistic fashion. The results, in one way, do sound discouraging but in no way provide any grounds for leaving out elaborate syntactic information from dictionaries. What is urgently needed under these circumstances is for the teaching of "reference skills" to be integrated with formal education progressively and at all levels. A reasonable degree of awareness must also be cultivated, whereby students can retrieve coded syntactic information from the dictionary efficiently and independently.

Although the currently available learner's dictionaries present substantial syntactic information, there is still scope for improvement. The areas which need further extensive attention are:

- the treatment of noun and adjective complementation;
- the indication of constraints on the passivisation of verbs;
- idioms and phrasal verbs.

Here it is a question of syntactic properties which are so helpful in the production of normal discourse above the sentence level (Cowie, 1987). The system of coding syntactic information, as used in the OALDCE and the LDOCE, and the one proposed by Lemmens and Wekker (1986) are ideal for solving the problems of space in the dictionary. Yet there are doubts about their pragmatic value. Students often find coding systems unattractive; they find the constant need to refer to a full explanation in the introduction too demanding. Thus the existence of codes discourages the growth of the very idea they are intended to foster. Students, however, may well be inclined to freely use a system of codes which conforms to the general demand of simplicity, directness and quick accessibility. Alternatively, ample use of illustrative examples should be made in lieu of the codes which students find difficult to follow.

9.14 Phonological information

In our brief discussion of English orthography we made reference to its grapho-phonemic inconsistency which creates such considerable problems for EFL learners attempting to acquire a command of the English phonological system (7.2). Secondly, we discovered from the evidence of various contrastive phonological studies of Urdu and English that there are a number of areas -- both in segmental and in suprasegmental phonology -- which are relatively harder for the Urdu-speaking learner of English to become skilled in where the danger is ever-present that he will carry across some of the accentual features of his L1 (7.4). Thirdly, the modern principles of FL learning stipulate progress

to near-native competence in listening and speaking as the student proceeds to an advanced stage of the language-learning process. It is undoubtedly a very difficult task to acquire such skills in one's native milieu without being exposed to natural L2 speech. These factors suggest quite clearly that the learner needs adequate formal guidance in this area.

Our findings -- both direct and indirect -- indicated that phonetic information given in dictionaries is not fully used by students. The main reason is again the lack of requisite "skills" in the transcription of phonetic symbols. Students without formal education in this area cannot be expected to distinguish the subtle differences, e.g. between long and short vowels, phonemic contrasts, allophonic variants and the placing of stress on words etc., on the basis of their own intuitions. It is therefore not surprising that students' use of this information in dictionaries is almost negligible (7.7.1, 7.7.3).

Given the linguistic and sociolinguistic situation prevailing in Pakistan, and the potential needs of students, it is desirable that a dictionary designed for advanced Pakistani students should adopt the British model (RP) of English for indicating pronunciation. The inclusion of variants would cause confusion, and it is quite rational to retain only one pronunciation model. The space thus saved may be utilised for providing other vital information (e.g. collocations, verbal illustrations, encyclopaedic information etc.). The choice of the IPA symbol system is based on the conviction that it is

decidedly better than any other system currently in use: it is precise, scientific and internationally used. Since the majority of teachers in Pakistan do not have linguistic training, the need is for a cassette exclusively designed for Pakistani learners and this must accompany the dictionary. It should explain and demonstrate the fundamentals of pronunciation by citing individual words as well as operating on the level of connected speech; it must also highlight areas of potential interference from the L1, placing a special focus on areas where the learner needs to form new speech habits. The "key to pronunciation" in the introductory matter should include a contrastive table of the phonemic systems of the learner's L1 and L2 (here Urdu and English), with problem areas properly indicated and explained in the cassette. Such an innovation could be expected to be of significant practical help to students struggling to acquire a mastery of the phonological system of their target language independently and with accuracy.

9.15 Bilingual dictionaries

English-Urdu bilingual lexicography, which enjoys a fairly long tradition in the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent, emerged in the 16th century, primarily to cater for the needs of foreign learners of Urdu. Those bilingual dictionaries that address themselves exclusively to native speakers did not appear until as late as the 20th century. Although quite a few bilingual dictionaries of this strand have been published in Pakistan, they do not seem to have drawn on modern insights from linguistics in all related areas such as contrastive studies, error analysis,

empirical investigations into the language needs and cultural difficulties, modern theories of L2 learning and particularly research on lexical acquisition of the foreign language. This is quite evident in the traditional design features of almost all the dictionaries published so far. The situation may be accounted for in two ways: firstly, the formal study of proper "linguistics" on a par with literary studies was never able to gain take root in Pakistani educational institutions to any extent which could have generated interest in the lexicological and lexicographical expertise required to compile dictionaries in accordance with modern acknowledged postulates. Secondly, the major activities of the national and provincial language academies have been greater in the field of translation rather than in lexicography. The only bilingual dictionaries published under the Board for the Development of Urdu are the following:

1. The Standard Urdu-English Dictionary (1937/81),
Comp. A. Haq, Karachi: Anjuman i Tarraqi i Urdu
2. The Popular English-Urdu Dictionary (1976),
Comp. A. Haq, Karachi: Anjuman i Tarraqi i Urdu.

No.2 is a shorter version of the Standard Urdu-English Dictionary.

3. The English-Urdu Pocket Dictionary (1971/1980),
Comp. A. Haq, Karachi: Anjuman i Tarraqi i Urdu.

This is the same as the popular English-Urdu dictionary but is smaller in size.

4. The Students' Standard English-Urdu Dictionary (1960/82),
Comp. A. Haq, Karachi: Anjuman i Tarraqi i Urdu.

Most lexicographical work, however, has been undertaken by individuals or by a few commercial publishers, with the result

that the bilingual dictionaries published so far are far from satisfactory.

We have also discovered that -- in spite of the insistence of some teachers and linguists that learners should be weaned away from the use of bilingual dictionaries (8.3) -- the majority of students in our survey considered bilingual dictionaries more helpful in explaining the meaning of words. Moreover, quite a good number of students made frequent use of L1-L2 dictionaries for productive purposes. A similar trend in the use of bilingual dictionaries has appeared in other surveys and case studies. The situation therefore calls for a re-evaluation of our outlook on bilingual dictionaries and again demands a need for formal instruction by teachers so that learners can make maximally judicious use of dictionaries.

Monolingual English learner's dictionaries are relatively more reliable in that they reflect the concepts of modern linguistics but they are still unhelpful when one is looking for an appropriate word to express one's ideas. It is precisely in this area that L1-L2 dictionaries can contribute positively to the learning process if learners have the skills to use them intelligently. The situation has been very aptly described by Scholfield (1982):

"when writing (or speaking) one may be either in the position of having an idea of the word to use but wanting to make sure one is using it correctly (i.e. its exact meaning, collocations, grammatical behaviour, style, spelling or pronunciation may be in doubt) or one may have no idea of any likely English vocabulary item to use at all, and so need the item itself, plus, potentially, all the properties just mentioned as well. Now in the former situation recent production-oriented

monolingual dictionaries ... fulfil the same function far more competently than most L1-English BD's. But in the latter situation a monolingual dictionary cannot help because one has no word to look up ... so an L1-English BD is indispensable, even though the full relevant production information is unlikely to be there ... clearly, therefore, the ideal policy for the teacher to instil for L1-English BD use is that likely words for what the learner wants to say or write should be sought in such a dictionary but that the English words found this way should then be looked up in a good production-oriented monolingual English learner's dictionary to get the best idea of how to use them. Thus the L1-English BD is in effect used as an index to the monolingual dictionary."

In view of the prevalent attitude of students towards bilingual dictionaries, it is advisable that, on the one hand, teachers should teach students how to use them without making any mistakes, and on the other, that special attention should be paid to the compiling of bilingual dictionaries for both L1-L2 and L2-L1, drawing on the modern principles of lexicography.

9.16 Evaluation of dictionaries

The contrastive analysis (Table 11) of the various design features of the four dictionaries -- based essentially on their linguistic excellence -- suggests that the LDOCE has a decisive edge over the others because of various innovations and the modern linguistic principles incorporated in it. Yet it does not merit the claim that the LDOCE is ideal for all categories of learner and all types of problems. Hartmann (1981: 298) rightly observed:

"This is a step in the right direction, but the user is still offered the product as an end of lexicographical effort rather than as a means to satisfy his particular lexical needs."

Table 11 COMPARATIVE ASSESSMENT OF THE FOUR LEARNER'S DICTIONARIES

	LDOCE	OALDCE	CULD	CELD
1. Introductory information	19 sections	17 sections	17 sections	12 sections
2. Appendices	10 sections	10 sections	9 sections	14 sections
3. Criteria for macro-structural information	no definite criteria	no definite criteria	no definite criteria	no definite criteria
4. Comprehensiveness of coverage	55,000	50,000	unspecified	30,000
5. Defining technique	C.V.	no C.V.	no C.V.	no C.V.
6. Number of verbal illustrations	69,000	90,000	54,000	35,000
7. Number of illustrative pictures	92	318	-	205
8. Usage notes	+	-	-	+
9. Usage labels	+	+	+	+
10. Collocations	+	+	+	+
11. Syntactic codes	+	+	-	-
12. Phonetic transcriptions	IPA +	IPA +	IPA +	IPA +
13. Pronunciation variants	American	American	American	American
14. Word division	+	+	-	-
15. Stress-marking	+	+	+	+
16. Stress-shift	+	-	-	-
17. Dictionary using guide	+	+	-	-
18. Accompanying cassette	+	+	-	-
19. Readability	Large typography	Large typography	Small typography	Small typography
20. Date of publication	1978	1980	1980	1974
21. Micro-structural organisation	separate entries for compounds & phrasal verbs but idioms under main entry	compounds, phrasal verbs and idioms specified as run on under main entry	compounds, phrasal verbs and idioms specified as run on under main entry	compounds, phrasal verbs and idioms specified as run on under main entry

A dictionary has to be judged on how well it satisfies the needs of a particular category of users. It is, however, discouraging that the students in our survey indicated no decisive preference for any dictionary (Q.52), and that in their evaluation of various dictionaries only 20.29% (Q.53) considered the OALDCE "excellent" and 28.14% viewed it as "good" -- other dictionaries such as the COD and the KTC are negligible in student estimation. The reason why the LDOCE did not attract students' attention is probably due to its non-availability on the local market, although a different edition of it has been seen in limited circulation. Lack of publicity among the teacher and student community could be another reason for its limited penetration into study circles. At present, the OALDCE seems to be the most popular learner's dictionary, due, of course, to its longstanding presence and reputation on the market. Neither the CULD nor the CELD seem to have captured much ground; the KTC, a type of hybrid dictionary, is the most popular compilation among the student community for combining the best features of both mono-and bilingual lexicography.

9.17 L1 Specific learner's dictionaries

The notion that monolingual English learner's dictionaries should be compiled to take cognizance of the linguistic and cultural milieu relevant to learners' home countries was implicit in the very prototype of this kind of dictionary -- the Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary (1942). This dictionary concept, refined by further deliberation, is only now being more openly espoused in the literature but is already emerging as a

crucial dictionary type, drawing much backing from the substantial evidence coming out from empirical surveys into the needs of various groups of learners from various national backgrounds.

Tracing the history and the original rationale of the OALDCE, Naganuma (1978) states:

"there was no dictionary designed for the use of Japanese students of English available in Japan. Dr. Palmer and Mr. Naoe Naganuma of the Kaitakusha Company made plans to publish a dictionary entitled Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary (ISED) especially for Japanese students of English."

Another Japanese, Ogasawara (1984: 256), dissatisfied with the treatment of culture-bound lexical items in learner's dictionaries, proposed:

"the specific language/culture-bound versions of the foreign language learner's dictionaries could best be prepared through close collaboration between native-speaker lexicographers and qualified competent non-native foreign language teachers and scholars who have extensive knowledge of the linguistic/cultural trouble spots of the learners and who are familiar with the contrasts between the two languages and cultures."

Commenting on the usefulness of the learner's dictionary addressing itself to all learners, Ginzburg et al. (1979:228) observed:

"Hornby's dictionary, with all its merits and advantages, has an essential demerit -- it does not take into account the user's linguistic background, so it cannot foresee and prevent the possible language problems of this or that national group of English learners."

Martin (1985:173) takes a similar view on this issue:

"ALD's often are limited as to their comprehensive

usefulness because of their non-specificity with regard to the linguistic background of their users."

Quirk (1978) in the preface to the LDOCE recognised frankly the problems of meeting the needs of diverse groups of users in one dictionary:

"Editing a dictionary today -- above all, a dictionary of the world language, English -- is a highly skilled and highly professional task. Central to it is the sensitive anticipation of the user's needs -- and then, of course, devising the best ways of satisfying them. When the users are envisaged as predominantly (yet not exclusively) those for whom English is a foreign language, the task becomes still more demanding, since the range of the users' proficiency, age, national background, and other variables must inevitably set up formidable problems."

As a result, firstly, of our investigation into the language needs of advanced Pakistani learners and, secondly, our evaluation of currently available learner's dictionaries we singled out the main features considered relevant to a dictionary especially designed for this group of learners, although some of the findings may have general applicability, irrespective of any ll specificity. There follows a tentative profile of such a dictionary which -- if compiled according to these criteria -- could be expected to be more useful than currently available dictionaries.

1. Macrostructure

- a) to be determined strictly on the basis of Pakistani learners' language needs, both encoding and decoding, stimulated and guided by in-depth analyses of their textbooks and other pedagogic material prescribed in EFL learning;
- b) the inclusion of lexical items to be determined on pragmatic grounds from the latest frequency lists of idioms, collocations, phrasal expressions, phrasal verbs and words commonly used in the mass media to describe all relevant branches of knowledge.

2. Introductory matter

- a) a general introduction to the salient features of the dictionary;
- b) a "user's guide" in the introductory matter, with complete information on:

- explanatory charts
- spellings
- order of entries
- grammar used in the dictionary
- cross references
- punctuations
- inflections
- illustrative examples
- collocations
- idioms
- compounds
- usage notes
- metalanguage used in the dictionary
- stylistic appropriateness
- pronunciation key

3. Grammatical information

- a) parts of speech
- b) unpredictable inflections
- c) easy-to-remember syntactic codes
- d) verb, noun and adjective complementation

4. Semantic information

- a) controlled vocabulary
- b) definitions alongside a gloss in learner's L1
- c) all major senses of words to be specified
- d) sense-controlled vocabulary
- b) definitions alongside a gloss in learner's L1
- c) all major senses of words to be specified
- d) sense discrimination based on logical ordering
- e) comprehensive collocational information with all feasible combinations (esp. verb + adverb; adverb + adjective; adjective + noun; verb + noun and noun + noun)
- f) usage notes to be employed wherever necessary to put into perspective the finer differences of meaning between synonyms, connotations and culture-specific items
- g) extralinguistic information in the form of encyclopaedic descriptions of culture-specific words and pictorial illustrations
- h) pragmatic information conforming to modern notions
- i) extensive use of illustrative examples

5. Phonological information

- a) RP model of English only
- b) IPA symbols for transcription
- c) syllabic division
- d) stress marking
- e) entry words as well as illustrative sentences transcribed
- f) accompanying cassette explaining the phonological system of the learner's L1 and L2 with a focus on trouble spots

6. Organisation of entries

- a) separate entries for idioms, compounds, phrasal verbs and derivatives which are unpredictable
- b) idioms and compounds to be specified by their first letter

7. Back matter

- a) list of irregular verbs
- b) common abbreviations
- c) affixes
- d) numerical expressions
- e) table of nationalities
- f) table of monetary units
- g) common foreign words and phrases used in English with their "correct" pronunciation
- h) world map
- i) important dates of historical significance
- j) names of places of historical interest in Britain
- k) English irregular proper names with pronunciation

8. Dictionary using guide

A separate dictionary using guide for Pakistani learners would undoubtedly be more helpful than most such general guides are if it could be designed along the lines already discussed above.

Those aspects which students (Q.54) singled out for special improvement in dictionaries may prove to be useful feedback for lexicographers:

- | | |
|----------------------|--------|
| a) grammatical codes | 83.71% |
| b) examples of usage | 83.49% |
| c) phonetic symbols | 83.50% |

d)	pictorial illustrations	78.43%
e)	definitions	77.43%
f)	stylistic appropriateness	76.71%
g)	printing	66.57%
h)	number of entries	63.71%
i)	price	58.29%
j)	cross-references	44.14%
k)	binding	43.29%

9.18 Suggestions for future research

Lexicography is a broad subject heavily dependent on other fields for feedback and insights, e.g. lexicology, descriptive linguistics, contrastive analysis, error analysis and empirical investigations into the needs and problems of dictionary users. The results of our investigations seem to underline a trend which calls for the publication of learner's dictionaries addressed to specific categories of users, which -- if pursued in other contexts as well -- will usher in a new era in pedagogical lexicography. In consequence the need to undertake in-depth research into these allied areas has become all the more vital.

In lexicology the most useful area to be looked at is that of the diversified syntagmatic relations of words within the lexical system. This would include lexicological work on noun and adjective complementation, and collocations in the English language. Although there has been a considerable interest in collocational studies [e.g. Reum's Dictionary of English Style (1931); Kenkyusha's New Dictionary of English Collocations (1958); Friedrich's Dictionary of English Words in Context (1979); Dzierzanowska and Kozłowska's Dictionary of Selected English Collocations (1982) and -- quite recently -- Benson and Ilson's BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English (1986)], some of

these works are outdated and others are limited to written corpora only. A collocational dictionary compiled on the basis of both written and spoken corpora -- as well as specifying all major combinations -- would be an ideal source for the learner's dictionary to draw on.

Contrastive lexical analysis of the learner's L1 and L2 would provide lexicographers with a checklist to take special care of trouble spots in the dictionary. A new method of presenting lexical items, founded on a taxonomy of concepts, would also be of tremendous help in contrasting and bringing into perspective overt relations between lexical items of the two languages. Also, contrastive analysis of formulaic expressions of the two languages could be helpful in improving the type of "illustrative examples" needed in the dictionary. Studies in error analysis, of course, would confirm all the potential problem areas. Another area worth investigating is the drawing up of frequency lists of such lexical items as idioms, collocations, phrasal expressions and words common in the mass media discussions of different branches of knowledge.

In the present investigation we made an attempt to understand the "language needs" and "reference skills" of Pakistani advanced learners, taken in a limited sense. It would, however, be interesting to study the attitudes of students after they have received some formal education in the fundamentals of lexicography and dictionary use; such a back-up study would certainly be highly informative.

ASPECTS OF LEARNER'S DICTIONARIES,
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO
ADVANCED LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN PAKISTAN

Finally, it would be significant for the prospects of learner's dictionaries designed for specific categories of L1 users if similar investigations are carried out to assess what patterns of attitude are prevalent in other countries.

Please tick one or more boxes in the following questions as appropriate.

Case numbers

Card in case numbers

PERSONAL DATA

1. What is your educational level?

a. lecturer/professor

b. degree student

c. intermediate student

2. Have you been learning English at:

a. primary school

b. secondary school

3. Do you use a monolingual English dictionary?

Yes

No

4. How many monolingual English dictionaries are you familiar with? Please indicate in figures.

5. Which monolingual English dictionary/dictionaries do you use, e.g.

a) Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

1980

b) Collins English Learner's Dictionary

1982

ASPECTS OF LEARNER'S DICTIONARIES,
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO
ADVANCED LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN PAKISTAN

This questionnaire is designed to assess the practical use of monolingual English dictionaries and the needs of learners of English as a foreign language. Those filling in the answers are asked to be factual; this is not a test of their ability to use English dictionaries, but rather a way of finding out how these help non-English speaking students in a learning context at an advanced level. A list of some important English/American dictionaries is given in the appendix for ready reference.

Note: Please tick one or more boxes in the following questions as appropriate.

Case numbers

Card in case numbers

REFERENCE SKILLS

1. What is your education level?
 - a lecturer/professor
 - a degree student
 - an intermediate student

2. Have you been learning English since:
 - primary school
 - secondary school

3. Do you own a monolingual English dictionary?
 - yes
 - no

4. How many more monolingual English dictionaries are you familiar with? Please indicate in figures.

5. Which monolingual English dictionary/dictionaries do you use? e.g.

a) Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary	1980
b) Collins English Learner's Dictionary	1982

c)	Chambers Universal Learner's Dictionary	1980
d)	Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English	1981
e)	The Concise Oxford Dictionary	1980
f)	The Oxford Illustrated Dictionary	1975
g)	Oxford American Dictionary	1981
h)	Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary	1981
i)	Collins English Dictionary	1979
j)	Websters Third New International Dictionary	1976
k)	Websters New Collegiate Dictionary	1979
l)	American Heritage Dictionary	1980
m)	Other(s)

6. At what stage of your education did you buy/start using the dictionary/dictionaries?

at school

at college

7. Who inspired you to use a particular English dictionary?

teacher

parents

friends

fellow students

8. Did your school/college recommend any dictionary/dictionaries?
If so, which?

..... school

..... college

9. Did your teacher/lecturer give you any guidance on the use of the dictionary? eg

How to transcribe phonetic symbols

yes

no

how to place stress on words	yes	no
how to find grammatical information	yes	no
how to find different meanings of a word	yes	no
how to find stylistic information	yes	no
other	yes	no

10. Have you ever had any dictionary based exercises from your school/college to do at home? eg, on grammatical information, or word meaning.

yes

no

11. Where are you most likely to go if you want the most authentic answer to a word problem? (Answer only one)

teacher

dictionary

12. Are you familiar with the preface and other introductory material? If so, in what circumstances do you use it? Please indicate by a tick on the scale from 'regularly' to 'never'.

regularly at least once a day	frequently once a week	periodi- cally once a term	occasion- ally, once a year	never not at all
1	2	3	4	5

a. to know the arrange-ment of en-tries, eg where to look up 'inclusion' etc.

b. to under-stand gramm-atical labels, eg 'n.u.' for 'noun un-countable'

c. to transcribe phonetic symbols, eg () as in 'blue' etc.

d. to understand abbreviations, eg 'Amer' for 'American'

e. other

13. Do you make an effort to memorise the various symbols, labellings and abbreviations used in the dictionary?

regularly at least once a day	frequently once a week	periodi- cally once a term	occasion- ally, once a year	never not at all
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1

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14. Where do you consult the dictionary most often?

at home

at college

in a library

LANGUAGE NEEDS

15. Do you remember what your needs were when you bought/used your dictionary first?

- a. to know the meaning of a word
- b. grammatical information
- c. spelling
- d. pronunciation
- e. examples of words used in sentences

- f. idioms and phrases
- g. other

16. Which of the factors did you consider before you selected the dictionary/ies you purchased? eg

- a. easy to read pronunciation key
- b. grammatical information
- c. idioms and phrases
- d. examples of words used in sentences
- e. current colloquialisms
- f. other

17. If you did not buy the dictionary or obtain it from other sources (ie a member of your family) give the reason why, eg

- because you rely on explanatory help books
- you receive extra private coaching
- classroom teaching is comprehensive
- your family members help you with word problems ...

18. Do you sometimes use more than one dictionary at the same time?

yes

no

19. Do you ever use any specialised dictionary/dictionaries for restricted purposes? If so, in what contexts? eg

- a dictionary of synonyms (like 'see/look/watch') ...
- technical terminology (like 'myopia' for 'short-sightedness')
- slang (like 'a stiff' for 'a corpse')
- idioms (like 'Achilles heel' for 'weak point')
- encyclopaedic (like 'Americana', 'Britannica') ...

pronunciation (like Daniel Jones')

other

20. Do you ever feel the need to use specialised dictionaries?

yes

no

21. Do you sometimes read your dictionary in your leisure time?

regularly at least once a day	frequently once a week	periodi- cally once a term	occasion- ally, once a year	never not at all
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22. How often do you use a monolingual English dictionary?

regularly at least once a day	frequently once a week	periodi- cally once a term	occasion- ally, once a year	never not at all
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1

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23. How often do you use a bilingual (English/Urdu) dictionary?

regularly at least once a day	frequently once a week	periodi- cally once a term	occasion- ally, once a year	never not at all
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1

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5

24. If you use both monolingual and bilingual (English/Urdu) dictionaries, which of the two do you find better for your purposes?

monolingual

bilingual

25. Do you sometimes need to use a bilingual (Urdu/English) dictionary?

yes

no

26. If you think bilingual dictionaries are more helpful, indicate in what circumstances, eg

- a. in explaining the meaning of words
- b. grammatical information
- c. stylistic appropriateness
- d. synonyms (similar words)
- e. idioms and phrases
- f. other

27. For what kinds of activity do you use monolingual dictionaries? eg

regularly
at least
once a day

frequently
once a week

periodi-
cally
once a
term

occasion-
ally, once
a year

never
not at
all

1

2

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5

a. trans-
lation from
English to
Urdu

b. trans-
lation
from Urdu
to English

c. reading

d. writing

e. listening

f. speaking

g. other

28. What kinds of information do you look for in your dictionary? eg

regularly
at least
once a day

frequently
once a week

periodi-
cally
once a
term

occasion-
ally, once
a year

never
not at
all

1

2

3

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5

a. meaning
of a word

b. its
origin

c. spelling

d. pronun-
ciation

e. gramm-
atical
features,
eg noun,
gender,
verb

f. synonyms

g. examples
of words
used in
sentences

h. termin-
ology

i. other

29. What sort of words do you often look up? eg

regularly
at least
once a day

frequently
once a week

periodi-
cally
once a
term

occasion-
ally, once
a year

never
not at
all

1

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5

a. encyclo-
paedic words
like 'Olympic'

b. culture-
specific
words like
'disco'

c. content-
words like
'believe',
'happy'

d. function-
words like
'yet', 'much',
'quite'

e. idiomatic
expressions
like 'pull
a long face'

f. slang like
'looney bin'
for 'mental
home'

g. technical
words like
'transistor'

h. literary
terms like
'poetic
justice'

i. other

30. How often do you consult the appendices?

regularly at least once a day	frequently once a week	periodi- cally once a term	occasion- ally, once a year	never not at all
1	2	3	4	5

a. for geo-
graphical
names

b. numerical
expressions

c. musical
notation

d. weights
& measures

e. common
abbreviations

f. common
suffixes &
prefixes

g. family
names

h. irregular
grammar

i. other

ON MEANING

31. Do you find examples of usage, eg words used in sentences,
helpful?

regularly at least once a day	frequently once a week	periodi- cally once a term	occasion- ally, once a year	never not at all
1	2	3	4	5

32. Do you think enough examples are given in your dictionary?

yes

no

33. How do you find the definitions of headwords in your dictionary?

adequate

too long

too short

34. Do you expect the dictionary to include the following information?

- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| a. illustrations and pictures | yes | no |
| b. meanings of words used in sentences | yes | no |
| c. synonyms for each headword | yes | no |
| d. antonyms (opposite words) for each headword | yes | no |
| e. proper names like 'Lake District' | yes | no |
| f. slang words | yes | no |
| g. encyclopaedic information eg on geography or biography | yes | no |
| h. literary terms | yes | no |
| i. American English like 'elevator' for 'lift' | yes | no |
| j. Stylistic labelling like 'formal', 'informal', 'taboo', 'archaic', 'obsolete', 'colloquial' | yes | no |
| k. information on subject area, eg it is a term in medicine or mining | yes | no |
| l. swear words like 'bloody' | yes | no |

- | | | | |
|----|--|-----|----|
| m. | foreign words like "raison
d'etre" | yes | no |
| n. | American spelling like 'color'
for 'colour' | yes | no |
| o. | Common words like 'eat',
'drink' | yes | no |
| p. | a verb with its full range
of prepositions | yes | no |
| q. | other | yes | no |

35. When you look up a word in the dictionary, do you read the whole information about it? eg it is a noun, adjective, or how it is used in different contexts.

yes

no

36. Does your dictionary make the sense clear when you compare synonyms like 'weep' and 'cry'?

yes

no

ON GRAMMAR

37. Do you consult the dictionary for grammatical information,
eg whether a word is a noun,
adjective, adverb etc?

yes no

Do you find it there?

yes no

Do you want more information?

yes no

38. Under which headword would you look up the following idioms in the dictionary? eg 'get rid of', 'taken aback'

A. get rid of get

rid

B. taken aback taken

aback

39. Sometimes two or more words are used in habitual association with one another (collocation), eg 'green' comes with 'grass', 'dark' with 'night' etc. Do you think that the dictionary should give each word with its whole possible range of collocations?

yes

no

40. When looking up a compound word eg 'ice-cream', there is a possibility of its classification under 'ice', 'cream' or an individual entry 'ice-cream'. In the following examples underline the words you would first look up.

A. magnetic tape magnetic
 tape

β. false alarm false
 alarm

γ. boil down to boil
 down

ON PRONUNCIATION

41. Are you happy with the system of pronunciation symbols used in your dictionary?

yes

no

42. Have you compared the system of phonetic transcription in different dictionaries? If so, what differences do you notice?

yes

no

.....
.....

43. Do you expect the dictionary to include American pronunciation?

yes

no

44. Do you think that stress marking on words is helpful?

yes

no

45. Do you want the dictionary to show words with their syllabic division? eg 'un-kind-ly'

yes

no

46. Do you think that all dictionaries should use the same phonetic symbols?

yes

no

ON EVALUATION OF DICTIONARIES

47. What size of dictionary do you prefer?

Comprehensive (eg more than one volume)

Desk (eg one volume)

Pocket (eg small size)

48. How often do you feel dissatisfied because you could not find what you were looking for? eg

regularly at least once a day	frequently once a week	periodi- cally once a term	occasion- ally, once a year	never not at all
1	2	3	4	5

a. grammat-
ical inform-
ation

b. meaning
of a word

c. words
used in
sentences

d. stylistic
information

e. pronun-
ciation

f. other

49. Do you find any of the information in your dictionary unnecessary? If so, what? eg

- a. encyclopaedic information
- b. American English
- c. slang words
- d. foreign phrases
- e. simple content words
- f. function words
- g. other

50. Do you remember which particular word(s) which were not included in your dictionary?

.....
.....

51. Have you ever compared American and British dictionaries? If so, what differences did you notice on the treatment of the following. Please indicate title of dictionary/dictionaries. eg

- a. grammatical information
- b. pronunciation
- c. codes and labels
- d. stylistic information
- e. definition of headwords
- f. spelling
- g. examples of words in sentences
- h. idioms and phrases
- i. other

52. If you use several dictionaries, is there one that you prefer? Why?

yes

no

.....

53. How would you evaluate the dictionary/dictionaries you use?

excellent good average poor

a. dictionary/
compiler/publisher

b. dictionary/
compiler/publisher

c. dictionary/
compiler/publisher

54. What other ways can you think of in which monolingual English dictionaries could be made more helpful for learners of English as a foreign language?

- a. improve definitions
- b. increase number of words
- c. increase examples of usage
- d. cross-reference between entries
- e. symbols of pronunciation
- f. grammatical codes
- g. pictorial illustration
- h. stylistic appropriateness
- i. printing
- j. price
- k. binding
- l. other

	<u>Compiler</u>	<u>Publisher</u>	<u>Last Published</u>
The Concise Oxford Dictionary	H W Fowler & F G Fowler	Oxford University Press	1980
The Oxford Illustrated Dictionary	Jessie Coulson	Oxford University Press	1975
Oxford American Dictionary	Eugene Ehrlich	Oxford University Press	1981
Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary	A M MacDonald	Chambers	1981
Collins English Dictionary	Patrick Hanks	Collins	1979
Longman Modern English Dictionary	Owen Watson	Longman	1980
Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary	Henry Bosley Woolf	Messiam	1979
The Little Oxford Dictionary	George Ostler	Oxford University Press	1981
The Oxford Paperback Dictionary	Joyce Hawkins	Oxford University Press	1979
Collins Pocket English Dictionary	Marian Makins & Margaret Martin	Collins	1981
Chambers Universal Learner's Dictionary	E M Fitzpatrick	Chambers	1980
Oxford Advance Learner's	A S Hornby	Oxford University Press	1980
Harper's Easy English Dictionary	P H Collin	George G Harrap	1980
Oxford Students Dictionary of Current English	A S Hornby	Oxford University Press	1978
The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary	William Little, H W Fowler & Jessie Coulson	Oxford University Press	1980
Standard Desk Dictionary	Editor in Chief Sidney S Landon	Funk & Wagnells	1980

	<u>Compiler</u>	<u>Publisher</u>	<u>Last Published</u>
Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English	Editor in Chief Paul Proctor	Longman	1981
Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language	Editor in Chief Philip Babcock Gove	Messiam	1976
American Heritage Dictionary of English Language	William Morris	Houghton Mifflin	1980
Collins English Learner's Dictionary	John Cameron David J Carver Michael J Wallace	Collins	1980

APPENDIX 2: CONSOLIDATED RESULTS FROM ACTUAL FIGURES

01	(LEVEL OF EMPATHY)	--	[1] 29;	[2] 662;	[3] 1;	[9] 9;
02	(ENGLISH LEARNIT SINCE)	--	[1] 282;	[2] 410;	[9] 8;	
03	(HONKING. ENG. DICT. GAPPED)	--	[1] 647;	[2] 37;	[9] 16;	
04	(HONKING. ENG. DICT. KHOW)	--	[1] 125;	[2] 141;	[3] 89;	[4] 55;
05A	(OXFORD ADVANCED L.D.)	--	[1] 330;	[9] 362;		
05B	(COLLINS ENGLISH L.D.)	--	[1] 89;	[9] 611;		
05C	(CHAMBERS UNIVERSAL L.D.)	--	[1] 57;	[9] 643;		
05D	(LONGMANS D. OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH)	--	[1] 62;	[9] 638;		
05E	(COLLIER OXFORD D.)	--	[1] 255;	[9] 445;		
05F	(OXFORD ILLUSTRATED D.)	--	[1] 74;	[9] 676;		
05G	(OXFORD AMERICAN D.)	--	[1] 50;	[9] 650;		
05H	(CHAMBERS 20TH-CENTURY D.)	--	[1] 78;	[9] 622;		
05I	(COLLINS ENGLISH D.)	--	[1] 55;	[9] 645;		
05J	(HARBERS AND NEW INTERNATIONAL D.)	--	[1] 16;	[9] 684;		
05K	(WEBSTERS NEW COLLEGIATE D.)	--	[1] 21;	[9] 679;		
05L	(AMERICAN HERITAGE D.)	--	[1] 12;	[9] 688;		
05M	(OTHERS)	--	[1] 21;	[9] 679;		
06	(START OF DICTIONARY USE)	--	[1] 333;	[2] 330;	[9] 37;	
07A	(STIMULUS FROM TEACHER)	--	[1] 474;	[9] 226;		
07B	(STIMULUS FROM PARENTS)	--	[1] 316;	[9] 304;		
07C	(STIMULUS FROM FRIENDS)	--	[1] 50;	[9] 650;		
07D	(STIMULUS FROM FELLOW STUDENTS)	--	[1] 44;	[9] 656;		
08A	(D'S. RECOMMEND BY SCHOOL)	--	[1] 105;	[9] 595;		
08B	(D'S. RECOMMEND BY COLLEGE)	--	[1] 197;	[9] 503;		
09A	(GUIDANCE ON PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION)	--	[1] 125;	[2] 436;	[9] 139;	
09B	(GUIDANCE ON STRESS PLACEMENT)	--	[1] 184;	[2] 381;	[9] 133;	
09C	(GUIDANCE ON FINDING GRAM. INFO.)	--	[1] 311;	[2] 286;	[9] 103;	
09D	(GUIDANCE ON FINDING DIFFERENT MEANINGS)	--	[1] 442;	[2] 220;	[9] 38;	
09E	(GUIDANCE ON FINDING STYLISTIC INFO.)	--	[1] 86;	[2] 431;	[9] 183;	
09F	(OTHER GUIDANCE)	--	[1] 26;	[2] 137;	[9] 537;	
010	(D. EXERCISES SET BY (SCHOOL) (COLLEGE))	--	[1] 216;	[2] 448;	[9] 36;	
011	(MOST AUTHENTIC ANSWERS SOUGHT FROM)	--	[1] 126;	[2] 523;	[9] 51;	
012A	(CLUES ON ARRANGEMENT OF ENTRIES)	--	[1] 52;	[2] 109;	[3] 74;	[4] 192;
012B	(CLUES ON GRAMMATICAL LABELS)	--	[1] 20;	[2] 98;	[3] 113;	[4] 295;
012C	(CLUES ON PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION)	--	[1] 24;	[2] 74;	[3] 90;	[4] 225;
					[5] 216;	[9] 81;

012D	(CLUES ON ABBREVIATIONS)	--	[1] 35; [2] 111; [3] 117; [4] 336; [5] 75; [9] 26;
012E	(OTHER CLUES)	--	[1] 9; [2] 20; [3] 22; [4] 22; [5] 76; [9] 551;
013	(MEMORISATION OF SYMBOLS ETC.)	--	[1] 29; [2] 116; [3] 128; [4] 296; [5] 118; [9] 13;
014	(PLACE OF MOST FREQUENT D. CONSULTATION)	--	[1] 641; [2] 3; [3] 6; [9] 50;
015A	(ST NEEDS: WORD MEANING)	--	[1] 696; [9] 4;
015B	(ST NEEDS: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	--	[1] 299; [9] 401;
015C	(ST NEEDS: SPELLING)	--	[1] 595; [9] 105;
015D	(ST NEEDS: PRONUNCIATION)	--	[1] 304; [9] 396;
015E	(ST NEEDS: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	--	[1] 281; [9] 419;
015F	(ST NEEDS: IDIOMS & PHRASES)	--	[1] 170; [9] 530;
015G	(ST NEEDS: OTHER)	--	[1] 28; [9] 672;
016A	(PURCHASE: PRONUNCIATION KEY)	--	[1] 521; [9] 179;
016B	(PURCHASE: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	--	[1] 527; [9] 173;
016C	(PURCHASE: IDIOMS & PHRASES)	--	[1] 449; [9] 251;
016D	(PURCHASE: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	--	[1] 578; [9] 122;
016E	(PURCHASE: CURRENT COLLOQUIALISMS)	--	[1] 268; [9] 432;
016F	(PURCHASE: OTHER CONSIDERATIONS)	--	[1] 56; [9] 644;
017	(NO PERSONAL D.)	--	[1] 21; [2] 10; [3] 18; [4] 23; [9] 628;
018	(MORE THAN 1 D. USED SIMULTANEOUSLY)	--	[1] 463; [2] 222; [9] 15;
019A	(SPECIALISED D'S.: SYNONYMS)	--	[1] 131; [9] 569;
019B	(SPECIALISED D'S.: TECHNICAL TERMS)	--	[1] 79; [2] 1; [9] 620;
019C	(SPECIALISED D'S.: SLANG)	--	[1] 39; [9] 661;
019D	(SPECIALISED D'S.: IDIOMS)	--	[1] 157; [9] 543;
019E	(SPECIALISED D'S.: ENCYCLOPAEDIC INFO.)	--	[1] 134; [9] 566;
019F	(SPECIALISED D'S.: PRONUNCIATION)	--	[1] 69; [9] 631;
019G	(SPECIALISED D'S.: OTHER USES)	--	[1] 17; [9] 683;
020	(USE OF SPECIALISED D'S.)	--	[1] 484; [2] 176; [9] 40;
021	(LEISURE READING OF D.)	--	[1] 49; [2] 160; [3] 152; [4] 204; [5] 133; [9] 2;
022	(USE OF MONOLING. ENGLISH D.)	--	[1] 117; [2] 359; [3] 190; [4] 27; [5] 4; [9] 3;
023	(USE OF BILING. (ENG. TO URDU) D.)	--	[1] 136; [2] 145; [3] 157; [4] 132; [5] 118; [9] 12;
024	(PREFERENCE BETWEEN (MONO) (BILING. D'S.)	--	[1] 452; [2] 233; [9] 15;
025	(USE OF BILING. (URDU TO ENG.) D.)	--	[1] 533; [2] 151; [9] 16;
026A	(BIL.D'S. BETTER: WORD MEANING)	--	[1] 489; [9] 211;
026B	(BIL.D'S. BETTER: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	--	[1] 59; [9] 641;
026C	(BIL.D'S. BETTER: STYLISTIC INFO.)	--	[1] 23; [9] 677;

Q26D	(BIL. D'S. BETTER: SYNONYMS)	--	[1]	87;	[9]	613;
Q26E	(BIL. D'S. BETTER: IDIOMS & PHRASES)	--	[1]	116;	[9]	584;
Q26F	(BIL. D'S. BETTER: OTHER REASONS)	--	[1]	18;	[9]	682;
Q27A	(MON. D. USE: E-U TRANSLATION)	--	[1]	91;	[2]	149;
Q27B	(MON. D. USE: U-E TRANSLATION)	--	[1]	60;	[2]	125;
Q27C	(MON. D. USE: READING)	--	[1]	149;	[2]	373;
Q27D	(MON. D. USE: WRITING)	--	[1]	66;	[2]	200;
Q27E	(MON. D. USE: LISTENING)	--	[1]	38;	[2]	61;
Q27F	(MON. D. USE: SPEAKING)	--	[1]	62;	[2]	93;
Q27G	(MON. D. USE: OTHER USES)	--	[1]	8;	[2]	19;
Q28A	(INFO. SOUGHT: WORD MEANINGS)	--	[1]	249;	[2]	274;
Q28B	(INFO. SOUGHT: WORD ORIGINS)	--	[1]	19;	[2]	40;
Q28C	(INFO. SOUGHT: SPELLINGS)	--	[1]	168;	[2]	237;
Q28D	(INFO. SOUGHT: PRONUNCIATION)	--	[1]	103;	[2]	141;
Q28E	(INFO. SOUGHT: GRAMMATICAL FEATURES)	--	[1]	40;	[2]	63;
Q28F	(INFO. SOUGHT: SYNONYMS)	--	[1]	21;	[2]	43;
Q28G	(INFO. SOUGHT: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	--	[1]	64;	[2]	185;
Q28H	(INFO. SOUGHT: TERMINOLOGY)	--	[1]	17;	[2]	46;
Q28I	(INFO. SOUGHT: OTHER DETAILS)	--	[1]	8;	[2]	17;
Q29A	(WORDS SOUGHT: ENCYCLOPAEDIC)	--	[1]	26;	[2]	62;
Q29B	(WORDS SOUGHT: CULTURE-SPECIFIC)	--	[1]	25;	[2]	38;
Q29C	(WORDS SOUGHT: "CONTENT WORDS")	--	[1]	151;	[2]	328;
Q29D	(WORDS SOUGHT: "FUNCTION WORDS")	--	[1]	37;	[2]	113;
Q29E	(WORDS SOUGHT: IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS)	--	[1]	33;	[2]	95;
Q29F	(WORDS SOUGHT: SLANG)	--	[1]	11;	[2]	37;
Q29G	(WORDS SOUGHT: TECHNICAL TERMS)	--	[1]	31;	[2]	59;
Q29H	(WORDS SOUGHT: LITERARY TERMS)	--	[1]	55;	[2]	93;
Q29I	(WORDS SOUGHT: OTHER TYPES OF WORD)	--	[1]	14;	[2]	16;
Q30A	(APPENDIX USE: GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES)	--	[1]	20;	[2]	49;
Q30B	(APPENDIX USE: NUMERICAL EXPRESSIONS)	--	[1]	16;	[2]	45;
Q30C	(APPENDIX USE: MUSICAL NOTATION)	--	[1]	5;	[2]	21;
Q30D	(APPENDIX USE: WEIGHTS & MEASURES)	--	[1]	16;	[2]	39;
Q30E	(APPENDIX USE: ABBREVIATIONS)	--	[1]	51;	[2]	124;
Q30F	(APPENDIX USE: PREFIXES & SUFFIXES)	--	[1]	15;	[2]	49;
Q30G	(APPENDIX USE: PERSONAL NAMES)	--	[1]	14;	[2]	37;

030H	(APPENDIX USE: IRREGULAR GRAMMAR)	--	[1]	17;	[2]	58;	[3]	153;	[4]	251;	[5]	143;	[9]	78;
030I	(APPENDIX USE: OTHER TYPES OF INFO.)	--	[1]	6;	[2]	16;	[3]	14;	[4]	36;	[5]	88;	[9]	540;
031	(USAGE EXAMPLES FOUND HELPFUL)	--	[1]	72;	[2]	229;	[3]	310;	[4]	70;	[5]	15;	[9]	4;
032	(ENOUGH EXAMPLES GIVEN)	--	[1]	372;	[2]	310;	[9]	18;						
033	(ADEQUATE DEFINITIONS GIVEN)	--	[1]	380;	[2]	43;	[3]	258;	[9]	19;				
034A	(INFO. EXPECTED: ILLUSTRATIONS ETC.)	--	[1]	573;	[2]	93;	[9]	34;						
034B	(INFO. EXPECTED: SENTENCE MEANINGS)	--	[1]	654;	[2]	31;	[9]	15;						
034C	(INFO. EXPECTED: HEADWORD SYNONYMS)	--	[1]	333;	[2]	244;	[9]	123;						
034D	(INFO. EXPECTED: HEADWORD ANTONYMS)	--	[1]	289;	[2]	276;	[9]	135;						
034E	(INFO. EXPECTED: PROPER NAMES)	--	[1]	398;	[2]	197;	[9]	105;						
034F	(INFO. EXPECTED: SLANG WORDS)	--	[1]	302;	[2]	282;	[9]	116;						
034G	(INFO. EXPECTED: ENCYCLOPAEDIC)	--	[1]	408;	[2]	200;	[9]	92;						
034H	(INFO. EXPECTED: LITERARY TERMS)	--	[1]	581;	[2]	74;	[9]	45;						
034I	(INFO. EXPECTED: AMERICAN ENGLISH USAGE)	--	[1]	542;	[2]	117;	[9]	41;						
034J	(INFO. EXPECTED: STYLISTIC LABELLING)	--	[1]	608;	[2]	74;	[9]	18;						
034K	(INFO. EXPECTED: SUBJECT AREA)	--	[1]	563;	[2]	90;	[9]	47;						
034L	(INFO. EXPECTED: SMEAR WORDS)	--	[1]	438;	[2]	176;	[9]	86;						
034M	(INFO. EXPECTED: FOREIGN WORDS)	--	[1]	283;	[2]	312;	[9]	105;						
034N	(INFO. EXPECTED: AMERICAN SPELLINGS)	--	[1]	529;	[2]	139;	[9]	32;						
034O	(INFO. EXPECTED: BASIC WORDS)	--	[1]	456;	[2]	188;	[9]	56;						
034P	(INFO. EXPECTED: VERBS, INC. PREPOSITIONS)	--	[1]	630;	[2]	48;	[9]	22;						
034Q	(INFO. EXPECTED: OTHER ITEMS)	--	[1]	109;	[2]	57;	[9]	534;						
035	(ENTIRE D. ENTRY READ)	--	[1]	516;	[2]	172;	[9]	12;						
036	(SYNONYM DIFFERENTIATION CLEAR)	--	[1]	433;	[2]	251;	[9]	16;						
037A	(GRAM. INFO. SOUGHT: NOUN, ADJ., ADV.)	--	[1]	608;	[2]	85;	[9]	7;						
037B	(GRAM. INFO. SOUGHT: DATA FOUND)	--	[1]	508;	[2]	161;	[9]	31;						
037C	(GRAM. INFO. SOUGHT: MORE INFO. NEEDED)	--	[1]	535;	[2]	142;	[9]	23;						
038A	(WHICH HEADWORD (IN A.) CONSULTED)	--	[1]	262;	[2]	429;	[9]	9;						
038B	(WHICH HEADWORD (IN B.) CONSULTED)	--	[1]	254;	[2]	429;	[9]	17;						
039	(WORD PLUS COLLOCATES REQUIRED)	--	[1]	592;	[2]	106;	[9]	2;						
040A	(WHICH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND (A.) CONSULTED)	--	[1]	559;	[2]	134;	[9]	7;						
040B	(WHICH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND (B.) CONSULTED)	--	[1]	225;	[2]	461;	[9]	14;						
040C	(WHICH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND (C.) CONSULTED)	--	[1]	657;	[2]	31;	[9]	12;						
041	(SATISFIED WITH PRONUNCIATION SYMBOLS)	--	[1]	352;	[2]	356;	[9]	12;						
042	(PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION SYSTEMS COMPARED)	--	[1]	1;	[9]	699;								

043	(AMERICAN PRONUNCIATION TO BE INCLUDED)	--	[1]	307;	[2]	377;	[9]	16;
044	(STRESS MARKING HELPFUL)	--	[1]	569;	[2]	119;	[9]	12;
045	(SYLLABIC DIVISION TO BE SHOWN)	--	[1]	566;	[2]	130;	[9]	4;
046	(UNIFORM PHONETIC SYMBOLS NEEDED)	--	[1]	617;	[2]	80;	[9]	3;
047	(SIZE OF D. PREFERRED)	--	[1]	49;	[2]	535;	[3]	93;
								[9] 23;
048A	(DISSATISFACTION: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	--	[1]	26;	[2]	59;	[3]	171;
								[4] 312;
048B	(DISSATISFACTION: WORD MEANINGS)	--	[1]	53;	[2]	93;	[3]	210;
								[4] 238;
048C	(DISSATISFACTION: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	--	[1]	34;	[2]	112;	[3]	231;
								[4] 193;
048D	(DISSATISFACTION: STYLISTIC INFO.)	--	[1]	13;	[2]	62;	[3]	214;
								[4] 188;
048E	(DISSATISFACTION: PRONUNCIATION)	--	[1]	43;	[2]	61;	[3]	143;
								[4] 197;
048F	(DISSATISFACTION: OTHER CAUSES)	--	[1]	7;	[2]	11;	[3]	19;
								[4] 25;
049A	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: ENCYCLOPAEDIC)	--	[1]	169;	[9]	531;		
049B	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: AMERICAN ENGLISH)	--	[1]	141;	[9]	559;		
049C	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: SLANG WORDS)	--	[1]	264;	[9]	436;		
049D	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: FOREIGN PHRASES)	--	[1]	313;	[9]	387;		
049E	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: SIMPLE "CONTENT MDS.")	--	[1]	132;	[9]	568;		
049F	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: "FUNCTION WORDS")	--	[1]	98;	[9]	602;		
049G	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: OTHER ITEMS)	--	[1]	40;	[9]	660;		
051A	(AE & BE D'S: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	--	[1]	33;	[9]	667;		
051B	(AE & BE D'S: PRONUNCIATION)	--	[1]	112;	[9]	588;		
051C	(AE & BE D'S: CODES & LABELS)	--	[1]	31;	[9]	669;		
051D	(AE & BE D'S: STYLISTIC INFO.)	--	[1]	28;	[9]	672;		
051E	(AE & BE D'S: HEADWORD DEFINITION)	--	[1]	21;	[9]	679;		
051F	(AE & BE D'S: SPELLING)	--	[1]	143;	[9]	557;		
051G	(AE & BE D'S: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	--	[1]	34;	[9]	666;		
051H	(AE & BE D'S: IDIOMS & PHRASES)	--	[1]	39;	[9]	661;		
051I	(AE & BE D'S: OTHER DIFFERENCES)	--	[1]	9;	[9]	691;		
052	(PREFERENCE FOR 1 D. ABOVE OTHERS)	--	[1]	21;	[9]	679;		
053A	(D. TITLE & PUBLISHER (1))	--	[1]	142;	[2]	197;	[3]	29;
								[4] 2;
053B	(D. TITLE & PUBLISHER (2))	--	[1]	33;	[2]	59;	[3]	11;
								[4] 2;
053C	(D. TITLE & PUBLISHER (3))	--	[1]	16;	[2]	21;	[3]	11;
								[4] 1;
054A	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: DEFINITIONS)	--	[1]	542;	[9]	158;		
054B	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: NO. OF ENTRIES)	--	[1]	446;	[9]	254;		
054C	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: MORE USAGE EXAMPLES)	--	[1]	583;	[9]	117;		
054D	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: ENTRY CROSS-REFERENCES)	--	[1]	309;	[9]	391;		

054E	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRONUNCIATION SYMBOLS)	--	[1] 581; [9] 119;
054F	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: GRAMMAR CODES)	--	[1] 586; [9] 114;
054G	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: PICTORIAL MATTER)	--	[1] 549; [5] 1; [9] 150;
054H	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: STYLISTIC APPEAL)	--	[1] 537; [3] 1; [9] 162;
054I	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRINT QUALITY)	--	[1] 466; [9] 234;
054J	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRICE)	--	[1] 408; [2] 1; [9] 291;
054K	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: QUALITY OF BINDING)	--	[1] 303; [9] 397;
054L	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: OTHER FEATURES)	--	[1] 60; [9] 640;

0120	(CLUES ON ABBREVIATIONS)	-	[1]	5.00%	[2]	15.86%	[3]	16.71%	[4]	48.00%	[5]	10.71%	[9]	3.71%
012E	(OTHER CLUES)	-	[1]	1.29%	[2]	2.86%	[3]	3.14%	[4]	3.14%	[5]	10.86%	[9]	78.71%
013	(MEMORISATION OF SYMBOLS ETC.)	-	[1]	4.14%	[2]	16.57%	[3]	18.29%	[4]	42.29%	[5]	16.86%	[9]	1.86%
014	(PLACE OF MOST FREQUENT D. CONSULTATION)	-	[1]	91.57%	[2]	0.43%	[3]	0.86%	[9]	7.14%				
015A	(ST NEEDS: WORD HEARING)	-	[1]	99.43%	[9]	0.57%								
015B	(ST NEEDS: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	-	[1]	42.71%	[9]	57.29%								
015C	(ST NEEDS: SPELLING)	-	[1]	85.00%	[9]	15.00%								
015D	(ST NEEDS: PRONUNCIATION)	-	[1]	43.43%	[9]	56.57%								
015E	(ST NEEDS: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	-	[1]	40.14%	[9]	59.86%								
015F	(ST NEEDS: IDIOMS & PHRASES)	-	[1]	24.29%	[9]	75.71%								
015G	(ST NEEDS: OTHER)	-	[1]	4.00%	[9]	96.00%								
016A	(PURCHASE: PRONUNCIATION KEY)	-	[1]	74.43%	[9]	25.57%								
016B	(PURCHASE: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	-	[1]	75.29%	[9]	24.71%								
016C	(PURCHASE: IDIOMS & PHRASES)	-	[1]	64.14%	[9]	35.86%								
016D	(PURCHASE: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	-	[1]	82.57%	[9]	17.43%								
016E	(PURCHASE: CURRENT COLLOQUIALISMS)	-	[1]	38.29%	[9]	61.71%								
016F	(PURCHASE: OTHER CONSIDERATIONS)	-	[1]	8.00%	[9]	92.00%								
017	(NO PERSONAL D.)	-	[1]	3.00%	[2]	1.43%	[3]	2.57%	[4]	3.29%	[9]	89.71%		
018	(MORE THAN 1 D. USED SIMULTANEOUSLY)	-	[1]	66.14%	[2]	31.71%	[9]	2.14%						
019A	(SPECIALISED D'S.: SYMMETRIES)	-	[1]	18.71%	[9]	81.29%								
019B	(SPECIALISED D'S.: TECHNICAL TERMS)	-	[1]	11.29%	[2]	0.14%	[9]	88.57%						
019C	(SPECIALISED D'S.: SLANG)	-	[1]	5.57%	[9]	94.43%								
019D	(SPECIALISED D'S.: IDIOMS)	-	[1]	22.43%	[9]	77.57%								
019E	(SPECIALISED D'S.: ENCYCLOPAEDIC INFO.)	-	[1]	19.14%	[9]	80.86%								
019F	(SPECIALISED D'S.: PRONUNCIATION)	-	[1]	9.86%	[9]	90.14%								
019G	(SPECIALISED D'S.: OTHER USES)	-	[1]	2.43%	[9]	97.57%								
020	(USE OF SPECIALISED D'S.)	-	[1]	69.14%	[2]	25.14%	[9]	5.71%						
021	(LEISURE READING OF D.)	-	[1]	7.00%	[2]	22.86%	[3]	21.71%	[4]	29.14%	[5]	19.00%	[9]	0.29%
022	(USE OF HONORING, ENGLISH D.)	-	[1]	16.71%	[2]	51.29%	[3]	27.14%	[4]	3.86%	[5]	0.57%	[9]	0.43%
023	(USE OF BILLING, (ENG. TO URDU) D.)	-	[1]	19.43%	[2]	20.71%	[3]	22.43%	[4]	18.86%	[5]	16.86%	[9]	1.71%
024	(PREFERENCE BETWEEN (HIND) (HIL)LING, D'S.)	-	[1]	64.57%	[2]	33.29%	[9]	2.14%						
025	(USE OF BILLING, (URDU TO ENG.) D.)	-	[1]	76.14%	[2]	21.57%	[9]	2.29%						
026A	(HIL D'S. BETTER: WORD HEARING)	-	[1]	69.86%	[9]	30.14%								
026B	(HIL D'S. BETTER: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	-	[1]	8.43%	[9]	91.57%								
026C	(HIL D'S. BETTER: STYLISTIC INFO.)	-	[1]	3.29%	[9]	96.71%								

0260	(BILL D'S. BETTER: SYNONYMS)	-	[1]	12.432	[9]	87.572	[3]	13.862	[4]	12.712	[5]	14.292	[9]	24.862
026E	(BILL D'S. BETTER: IDIOMS & PHRASES)	-	[1]	16.572	[9]	83.432	[3]	12.002	[4]	11.002	[5]	17.142	[9]	33.432
026F	(BILL D'S. BETTER: OTHER REASONS)	-	[1]	2.572	[9]	97.432	[3]	13.712	[4]	3.572	[5]	5.572	[9]	2.572
027A	(NON. D. USE: E-U TRANSITION)	-	[1]	13.002	[2]	21.292	[3]	12.002	[4]	11.002	[5]	17.142	[9]	33.432
027B	(NON. D. USE: U-E TRANSITION)	-	[1]	8.572	[2]	17.862	[3]	13.712	[4]	3.572	[5]	5.572	[9]	2.572
027C	(NON. D. USE: READING)	-	[1]	21.292	[2]	33.292	[3]	13.712	[4]	3.572	[5]	6.002	[9]	6.712
027D	(NON. D. USE: WRITING)	-	[1]	9.432	[2]	28.572	[3]	42.862	[4]	6.432	[5]	6.002	[9]	6.712
027E	(NON. D. USE: LISTENING)	-	[1]	5.432	[2]	8.712	[3]	8.432	[4]	19.002	[5]	21.142	[9]	37.292
027F	(NON. D. USE: SPEAKING)	-	[1]	8.862	[2]	13.292	[3]	26.862	[4]	25.432	[5]	11.002	[9]	14.572
027G	(NON. D. USE: OTHER USES)	-	[1]	1.142	[2]	2.712	[3]	2.432	[4]	3.002	[5]	10.572	[9]	80.142
028A	(INFO. SOUGHT: WORD MEANINGS)	-	[1]	35.572	[2]	39.142	[3]	23.142	[4]	1.292	[5]	0.142	[9]	0.712
028B	(INFO. SOUGHT: WORD ORIGINS)	-	[1]	2.712	[2]	5.712	[3]	8.292	[4]	11.002	[5]	38.432	[9]	33.862
028C	(INFO. SOUGHT: SPELLINGS)	-	[1]	24.002	[2]	33.862	[3]	26.142	[4]	12.862	[5]	0.572	[9]	2.572
028D	(INFO. SOUGHT: PRONUNCIATION)	-	[1]	14.712	[2]	20.142	[3]	16.142	[4]	32.712	[5]	8.432	[9]	7.862
028E	(INFO. SOUGHT: GRAMMATICAL FEATURES)	-	[1]	5.712	[2]	9.002	[3]	50.142	[4]	10.712	[5]	33.712	[9]	37.292
028F	(INFO. SOUGHT: SYNONYMS)	-	[1]	3.002	[2]	6.142	[3]	9.142	[4]	10.712	[5]	6.002	[9]	3.292
028G	(INFO. SOUGHT: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	-	[1]	9.142	[2]	26.432	[3]	45.292	[4]	9.862	[5]	6.002	[9]	3.292
028H	(INFO. SOUGHT: TERMINOLOGY)	-	[1]	2.432	[2]	6.572	[3]	8.142	[4]	38.712	[5]	19.292	[9]	24.862
028I	(INFO. SOUGHT: OTHER DETAILS)	-	[1]	1.142	[2]	2.432	[3]	2.432	[4]	3.142	[5]	11.142	[9]	79.712
029A	(WORDS SOUGHT: ENCYCLOPEDIA)	-	[1]	3.712	[2]	8.862	[3]	25.142	[4]	43.432	[5]	13.572	[9]	5.292
029B	(WORDS SOUGHT: CULTURE-SPECIFIC)	-	[1]	3.572	[2]	5.432	[3]	26.432	[4]	44.572	[5]	13.862	[9]	6.142
029C	(WORDS SOUGHT: "CONTENT WORDS")	-	[1]	21.572	[2]	46.862	[3]	19.712	[4]	9.292	[5]	2.142	[9]	0.432
029D	(WORDS SOUGHT: "FUNCTION WORDS")	-	[1]	5.292	[2]	16.142	[3]	28.432	[4]	43.572	[5]	7.572	[9]	4.572
029E	(WORDS SOUGHT: IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS)	-	[1]	4.712	[2]	13.572	[3]	26.862	[4]	43.572	[5]	9.002	[9]	3.712
029F	(WORDS SOUGHT: SLANG)	-	[1]	1.572	[2]	5.292	[3]	11.002	[4]	21.862	[5]	8.712	[9]	4.002
029G	(WORDS SOUGHT: TECHNICAL TERMS)	-	[1]	4.432	[2]	8.432	[3]	12.292	[4]	41.862	[5]	19.712	[9]	13.292
029H	(WORDS SOUGHT: LITERARY TERMS)	-	[1]	7.862	[2]	13.292	[3]	21.292	[4]	44.862	[5]	8.712	[9]	4.002
029I	(WORDS SOUGHT: OTHER TYPES OF WORD)	-	[1]	2.002	[2]	2.292	[3]	2.002	[4]	3.862	[5]	7.292	[9]	82.572
030A	(APPENDIX USE: GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES)	-	[1]	2.862	[2]	7.002	[3]	14.002	[4]	28.432	[5]	26.142	[9]	21.572
030B	(APPENDIX USE: NUMERICAL EXPRESSIONS)	-	[1]	2.292	[2]	6.432	[3]	7.862	[4]	22.862	[5]	33.862	[9]	26.712
030C	(APPENDIX USE: MUSICAL NOTATION)	-	[1]	0.712	[2]	3.002	[3]	5.432	[4]	7.862	[5]	51.712	[9]	31.292
030D	(APPENDIX USE: WEIGHTS & MEASURES)	-	[1]	2.292	[2]	5.572	[3]	11.432	[4]	30.002	[5]	26.142	[9]	24.572
030E	(APPENDIX USE: ABBREVIATIONS)	-	[1]	7.292	[2]	17.712	[3]	22.002	[4]	30.142	[5]	13.002	[9]	9.862
030F	(APPENDIX USE: PREFIXES & SUFFIXES)	-	[1]	2.142	[2]	7.002	[3]	19.142	[4]	30.432	[5]	23.712	[9]	17.572
030G	(APPENDIX USE: PERSONAL NAMES)	-	[1]	2.002	[2]	5.292	[3]	12.862	[4]	29.862	[5]	29.712	[9]	20.292

030H	(APPENDIX USE: IRREGULAR GRAMMAR)	-	[1]	2.43x	[2]	8.29x	[3]	21.86x	[4]	35.86x	[5]	20.43x	[9]	11.14x
030I	(APPENDIX USE: OTHER TYPES OF INFO.)	-	[1]	0.86x	[2]	2.29x	[3]	2.00x	[4]	5.14x	[5]	12.57x	[9]	77.14x
031	(USAGE EXAMPLES FOUND HELPFUL)	-	[1]	10.29x	[2]	32.71x	[3]	44.29x	[4]	10.00x	[5]	2.14x	[9]	0.57x
032	(ENOUGH EXAMPLES GIVEN)	-	[1]	53.14x	[2]	44.29x	[9]	2.57x						
033	(ADEQUATE DEFINITIONS GIVEN)	-	[1]	54.29x	[2]	6.14x	[3]	36.86x	[9]	2.71x				
034A	(INFO. EXPECTED: ILLUSTRATIONS ETC.)	-	[1]	81.86x	[2]	13.29x	[9]	4.86x						
034B	(INFO. EXPECTED: SENTENCE MEANINGS)	-	[1]	93.43x	[2]	4.43x	[9]	2.14x						
034C	(INFO. EXPECTED: HEADWORD SYNONYMS)	-	[1]	47.57x	[2]	34.86x	[9]	17.57x						
034D	(INFO. EXPECTED: HEADWORD ANTONYMS)	-	[1]	41.29x	[2]	39.43x	[9]	19.29x						
034E	(INFO. EXPECTED: PROPER NAMES)	-	[1]	56.86x	[2]	28.14x	[9]	15.00x						
034F	(INFO. EXPECTED: SLANG WORDS)	-	[1]	43.14x	[2]	40.29x	[9]	16.57x						
034G	(INFO. EXPECTED: ENCYCLOPAEDIC)	-	[1]	58.29x	[2]	28.57x	[9]	13.14x						
034H	(INFO. EXPECTED: LITERARY TERMS)	-	[1]	83.00x	[2]	10.57x	[9]	6.43x						
034I	(INFO. EXPECTED: AMERICAN ENGLISH USAGE)	-	[1]	77.43x	[2]	16.71x	[9]	5.86x						
034J	(INFO. EXPECTED: STYLISTIC LABELLING)	-	[1]	86.86x	[2]	10.57x	[9]	2.57x						
034K	(INFO. EXPECTED: SUBJECT AREA)	-	[1]	80.43x	[2]	12.86x	[9]	6.71x						
034L	(INFO. EXPECTED: SWEAR WORDS)	-	[1]	62.57x	[2]	25.14x	[9]	12.29x						
034M	(INFO. EXPECTED: FOREIGN WORDS)	-	[1]	40.43x	[2]	44.57x	[9]	15.00x						
034N	(INFO. EXPECTED: AMERICAN SPELLINGS)	-	[1]	75.57x	[2]	19.86x	[9]	4.57x						
034O	(INFO. EXPECTED: BASIC WORDS)	-	[1]	65.14x	[2]	26.86x	[9]	8.00x						
034P	(INFO. EXPECTED: VERBS, INC. PREPOSITIONS)	-	[1]	90.00x	[2]	6.86x	[9]	3.14x						
034Q	(INFO. EXPECTED: OTHER ITEMS)	-	[1]	15.57x	[2]	8.14x	[9]	76.29x						
035	(ENTIRE D. ENTRY READ)	-	[1]	73.71x	[2]	24.57x	[9]	1.71x						
036	(SYNONYM DIFFERENTIATION CLEAR)	-	[1]	61.86x	[2]	35.86x	[9]	2.29x						
037A	(GRAM. INFO. SOUGHT: HOUR, ADJ., ADV.)	-	[1]	86.86x	[2]	12.14x	[9]	1.00x						
037B	(GRAM. INFO. SOUGHT: DATA FOUND)	-	[1]	72.57x	[2]	23.00x	[9]	4.43x						
037C	(GRAM. INFO. SOUGHT: MORE INFO. NEEDED)	-	[1]	76.43x	[2]	20.29x	[9]	3.29x						
038A	(MATCH HEADWORD (IN A.) CONSULTED)	-	[1]	37.43x	[2]	61.29x	[9]	1.29x						
038B	(MATCH HEADWORD (IN B.) CONSULTED)	-	[1]	36.29x	[2]	61.29x	[9]	2.43x						
039	(WORD PLUS COLLOCATES REQUIRED)	-	[1]	84.57x	[2]	15.14x	[9]	0.29x						
040A	(MATCH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND (A.) CONSULTED)	-	[1]	79.86x	[2]	19.14x	[9]	1.00x						
040B	(MATCH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND (B.) CONSULTED)	-	[1]	32.14x	[2]	65.86x	[9]	2.00x						
040C	(MATCH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND (C.) CONSULTED)	-	[1]	93.86x	[2]	4.43x	[9]	1.71x						
041	(SMI-TTESTED WITH PRODUCCATION SYMBOLS)	-	[1]	50.29x	[2]	48.00x	[9]	1.71x						
042	(PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION SYSTEMS COMPARED)	-	[1]	0.14x	[9]	99.86x								

043	(AMERICAN PRONUNCIATION TO BE INCLUDED)	-	[1]	43.86%	[2]	53.86%	[9]	2.29%	-	-	-	-	-	
044	(STRESS MARKING HELPFUL)	-	[1]	81.29%	[2]	17.00%	[9]	1.71%	-	-	-	-	-	
045	(SYLLABIC DIVISION TO BE SHOWN)	-	[1]	80.86%	[2]	18.57%	[9]	0.57%	-	-	-	-	-	
046	(UNIFORM PHONETIC SYMBOLS NEEDED)	-	[1]	88.14%	[2]	11.43%	[9]	0.43%	-	-	-	-	-	
047	(SIZE OF D. PREFERRED)	-	[1]	7.00%	[2]	76.43%	[3]	13.29%	[9]	3.29%	-	-	-	
048A	(DISSATISFACTION: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	-	[1]	3.71%	[2]	8.43%	[3]	24.43%	[4]	44.57%	[5]	14.14%	[9]	4.71%
048B	(DISSATISFACTION: WORD MEANINGS)	-	[1]	7.57%	[2]	13.29%	[3]	30.00%	[4]	34.00%	[5]	13.14%	[9]	2.00%
048C	(DISSATISFACTION: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	-	[1]	4.86%	[2]	16.00%	[3]	33.00%	[4]	27.57%	[5]	9.57%	[9]	9.00%
048D	(DISSATISFACTION: STYLISTIC INFO.)	-	[1]	1.86%	[2]	8.96%	[3]	30.57%	[4]	26.86%	[5]	16.00%	[9]	15.86%
048E	(DISSATISFACTION: PRONUNCIATION)	-	[1]	6.14%	[2]	8.71%	[3]	20.43%	[4]	28.14%	[5]	13.43%	[9]	23.14%
048F	(DISSATISFACTION: OTHER CAUSES)	-	[1]	1.00%	[2]	1.57%	[3]	2.71%	[4]	3.57%	[5]	10.00%	[9]	81.14%
049A	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: ENCYCLOPAEDIC)	-	[1]	24.14%	[9]	75.86%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
049B	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: AMERICAN ENGLISH)	-	[1]	20.14%	[9]	79.86%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
049C	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: SLANG WORDS)	-	[1]	37.71%	[9]	62.29%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
049D	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: FOREIGN PHRASES)	-	[1]	44.71%	[9]	55.29%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
049E	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: SIMPLE "CONTENT MDS.")	-	[1]	18.86%	[9]	81.14%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
049F	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: "FUNCTION WORDS")	-	[1]	14.00%	[9]	86.00%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
049G	(UNNECESSARY INFO.: OTHER ITEMS)	-	[1]	5.71%	[9]	94.29%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
051A	(AE & BE D'S: GRAMMATICAL INFO.)	-	[1]	4.71%	[9]	95.29%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
051B	(AE & BE D'S: PRONUNCIATION)	-	[1]	16.00%	[9]	84.00%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
051C	(AE & BE D'S: CODES & LABELS)	-	[1]	4.43%	[9]	95.57%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
051D	(AE & BE D'S: STYLISTIC INFO.)	-	[1]	4.00%	[9]	96.00%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
051E	(AE & BE D'S: HEADWORD DEFINITION)	-	[1]	3.00%	[9]	97.00%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
051F	(AE & BE D'S: SPELLING)	-	[1]	20.43%	[9]	79.57%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
051G	(AE & BE D'S: SENTENCE EXAMPLES)	-	[1]	4.86%	[9]	95.14%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
051H	(AE & BE D'S: IDIOMS & PHRASES)	-	[1]	5.57%	[9]	94.43%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
051I	(AE & BE D'S: OTHER DIFFERENCES)	-	[1]	1.29%	[9]	98.71%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
052	(PREFERENCE FOR 1 D. ABOVE OTHERS)	-	[1]	3.00%	[9]	97.00%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
053A	(D. TITLE & PUBLISHER (1))	-	[1]	20.29%	[2]	28.14%	[3]	4.14%	[4]	0.29%	[9]	47.14%	-	
053B	(D. TITLE & PUBLISHER (2))	-	[1]	4.71%	[2]	8.43%	[3]	1.57%	[4]	0.29%	[9]	85.00%	-	
053C	(D. TITLE & PUBLISHER (3))	-	[1]	2.29%	[2]	3.00%	[3]	1.57%	[4]	0.14%	[9]	93.00%	-	
054A	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: DEFINITIONS)	-	[1]	77.43%	[9]	22.57%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
054B	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: NO. OF ENTRIES)	-	[1]	63.71%	[9]	36.29%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
054C	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: MORE USAGE EXAMPLES)	-	[1]	83.29%	[9]	16.71%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
054D	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: ENTRY CROSS-REFERENCES)	-	[1]	44.14%	[9]	55.86%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

054E	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: PUNCTUATION SYMBOLS)	-	[1]	83.00%	[9]	17.00%		
054F	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: GRAMMAR CODES)	-	[1]	83.71%	[9]	16.29%		
054G	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: PICTORIAL MATTER)	-	[1]	78.43%	[5]	0.14%	[9]	21.43%
054H	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: STYLISTIC APPEAL)	-	[1]	76.71%	[3]	0.14%	[9]	23.14%
054I	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRINT QUALITY)	-	[1]	66.57%	[9]	33.43%		
054J	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRICE)	-	[1]	58.29%	[2]	0.14%	[9]	41.57%
054K	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: QUALITY OF BINDING)	-	[1]	43.29%	[9]	56.71%		
054L	(D. IMPROVEMENTS: OTHER FEATURES)	-	[1]	8.57%	[9]	91.43%		

APPENDIX 4: INDEX OF QUALITATIVE VARIATION IN DESCENDING ORDER

[1]	Q42	-:-	99.43%
[2]	Q15A	-:-	97.73%
[3]	Q51I	-:-	94.92%
[4]	Q5L	-:-	93.26%
[5]	Q5J	-:-	91.07%
[6]	Q19G	-:-	90.52%
[7]	Q26F	-:-	89.98%
[8]	Q5K	-:-	88.36%
[9]	Q51E	-:-	88.36%
[10]	Q5M	-:-	88.36%
[11]	Q52	-:-	88.36%
[12]	Q26C	-:-	87.29%
[13]	Q1	-:-	86.15%
[14]	Q15G	-:-	84.64%
[15]	Q51D	-:-	84.64%
[16]	Q53C	-:-	83.32%
[17]	Q51C	-:-	83.07%
[18]	Q40C	-:-	82.48%
[19]	Q51A	-:-	82.03%
[20]	Q51G	-:-	81.52%
[21]	Q34B	-:-	81.30%
[22]	Q14	-:-	79.16%
[23]	Q19C	-:-	78.96%
[24]	Q51H	-:-	78.96%
[25]	Q3	-:-	78.64%
[26]	Q49G	-:-	78.45%
[27]	Q7D	-:-	76.44%
[28]	Q17	-:-	75.96%
[29]	Q7C	-:-	73.47%
[30]	Q5G	-:-	73.47%
[31]	Q34P	-:-	72.35%
[32]	Q5I	-:-	71.04%
[33]	Q16F	-:-	70.56%
[34]	Q5C	-:-	70.08%
[35]	Q19B	-:-	69.58%
[36]	Q26B	-:-	69.13%
[37]	Q54L	-:-	68.65%
[38]	Q46	-:-	68.50%
[39]	Q5D	-:-	67.71%
[40]	Q53B	-:-	66.51%
[41]	Q37A	-:-	65.39%
[42]	Q34J	-:-	64.94%
[43]	Q19F	-:-	64.46%
[44]	Q29I	-:-	62.79%
[45]	Q5F	-:-	62.18%
[46]	Q39	-:-	60.73%
[47]	Q48F	-:-	60.49%
[48]	Q5H	-:-	60.40%
[49]	Q27G	-:-	58.70%
[50]	Q28I	-:-	58.02%

[51]	Q26D	-::-	56.46%
[52]	Q12E	-::-	56.12%
[53]	Q34H	-::-	55.63%
[54]	Q5B	-::-	55.61%
[55]	Q30I	-::-	53.75%
[56]	Q34A	-::-	53.51%
[57]	Q44	-::-	53.49%
[58]	Q45	-::-	53.25%
[59]	Q49F	-::-	51.84%
[60]	Q40A	-::-	51.17%
[61]	Q34K	-::-	50.19%
[62]	Q54G	-::-	49.15%
[63]	Q15C	-::-	49.00%
[64]	Q8A	-::-	49.00%
[65]	Q47	-::-	47.70%
[66]	Q54H	-::-	46.31%
[67]	Q51B	-::-	46.24%
[68]	Q54F	-::-	45.47%
[69]	Q26E	-::-	44.70%
[70]	Q34I	-::-	44.63%
[71]	Q54C	-::-	44.32%
[72]	Q9F	-::-	44.23%
[73]	Q25	-::-	44.02%
[74]	Q37C	-::-	43.95%
[75]	Q54E	-::-	43.56%
[76]	Q16D	-::-	42.44%
[77]	Q34Q	-::-	41.92%
[78]	Q34N	-::-	41.89%
[79]	Q35	-::-	40.61%
[80]	Q11	-::-	39.39%
[81]	Q19A	-::-	39.15%
[82]	Q49E	-::-	38.80%
[83]	Q19E	-::-	38.09%
[84]	Q37B	-::-	37.23%
[85]	Q49B	-::-	35.66%
[86]	Q51F	-::-	34.98%
[87]	Q20	-::-	31.68%
[88]	Q18	-::-	30.78%
[89]	Q40B	-::-	30.61%
[90]	Q19D	-::-	30.41%
[91]	Q54A	-::-	30.09%
[92]	Q24	-::-	29.23%
[93]	Q38A	-::-	27.38%
[94]	Q54J	-::-	26.88%
[95]	Q36	-::-	26.76%
[96]	Q49A	-::-	26.74%
[97]	Q15F	-::-	26.45%
[98]	Q38B	-::-	26.18%
[99]	Q10	-::-	26.12%
[100]	Q2	-::-	25.82%

[101]	Q16B	-:-	25.57%
[102]	Q340	-:-	25.43%
[103]	Q9D	-:-	25.06%
[104]	Q30C	-:-	25.05%
[105]	Q33	-:-	24.67%
[106]	Q22	-:-	23.94%
[107]	Q16A	-:-	23.87%
[108]	Q41	-:-	22.53%
[109]	Q43	-:-	22.44%
[110]	Q27C	-:-	22.37%
[111]	Q32	-:-	21.88%
[112]	Q34L	-:-	20.47%
[113]	Q28A	-:-	20.02%
[114]	Q9E	-:-	19.38%
[115]	Q8B	-:-	19.11%
[116]	Q31	-:-	18.91%
[117]	Q9A	-:-	18.89%
[118]	Q53A	-:-	18.04%
[119]	Q6	-:-	17.70%
[120]	Q29C	-:-	17.69%
[121]	Q28E	-:-	17.56%
[122]	Q12D	-:-	15.86%
[123]	Q34G	-:-	15.79%
[124]	Q26A	-:-	15.77%
[125]	Q28G	-:-	15.72%
[126]	Q29B	-:-	15.48%
[127]	Q29E	-:-	14.77%
[128]	Q48A	-:-	14.69%
[129]	Q27D	-:-	14.37%
[130]	Q28B	-:-	14.23%
[131]	Q29A	-:-	13.87%
[132]	Q34E	-:-	13.75%
[133]	Q29H	-:-	13.55%
[134]	Q4	-:-	13.54%
[135]	Q28F	-:-	13.26%
[136]	Q7A	-:-	12.55%
[137]	Q13	-:-	12.42%
[138]	Q28H	-:-	11.25%
[139]	Q54I	-:-	10.98%
[140]	Q28C	-:-	10.94%
[141]	Q12B	-:-	10.88%
[142]	Q29G	-:-	10.71%
[143]	Q29F	-:-	10.58%
[144]	Q9B	-:-	10.44%
[145]	Q29D	-:-	10.43%
[146]	Q30B	-:-	9.89%
[147]	Q48B	-:-	9.60%
[148]	Q30G	-:-	8.60%
[149]	Q30H	-:-	8.55%
[150]	Q27E	-:-	8.50%

[151]	Q12C	--:--	8.48%
[152]	Q30D	--:--	8.25%
[153]	Q16C	--:--	8.00%
[154]	Q9C	--:--	7.90%
[155]	Q34M	--:--	7.69%
[156]	Q48C	--:--	7.62%
[157]	Q54B	--:--	7.52%
[158]	Q5E	--:--	7.37%
[159]	Q21	--:--	7.04%
[160]	Q48D	--:--	6.94%
[161]	Q34C	--:--	6.80%
[162]	Q30F	--:--	6.60%
[163]	Q30A	--:--	6.52%
[164]	Q34F	--:--	6.38%
[165]	Q49C	--:--	6.04%
[166]	Q16E	--:--	5.49%
[167]	Q28D	--:--	5.03%
[168]	Q27B	--:--	4.82%
[169]	Q12A	--:--	4.69%
[170]	Q48E	--:--	4.47%
[171]	Q34D	--:--	4.47%
[172]	Q30E	--:--	4.31%
[173]	Q15E	--:--	3.89%
[174]	Q27F	--:--	3.47%
[175]	Q23	--:--	3.43%
[176]	Q15B	--:--	2.12%
[177]	Q54K	--:--	1.80%
[178]	Q15D	--:--	1.73%
[179]	Q27A	--:--	1.57%
[180]	Q54D	--:--	1.37%
[181]	Q49D	--:--	1.12%
[182]	Q7B	--:--	0.94%
[183]	Q5A	--:--	0.12%

APPENDIX 5: INDEX OF QUALITATIVE VARIATION IN THE ORDER OF QUESTIONS

< 1>	Q1	:--	86.15%
< 2>	Q2	:--	25.82%
< 3>	Q3	:--	78.64%
< 4>	Q4	:--	13.54%
< 5>	Q5A	:--	0.12%
< 6>	Q5B	:--	55.61%
< 7>	Q5C	:--	70.08%
< 8>	Q5D	:--	67.71%
< 9>	Q5E	:--	7.37%
< 10>	Q5F	:--	62.18%
< 11>	Q5G	:--	73.47%
< 12>	Q5H	:--	60.40%
< 13>	Q5I	:--	71.04%
< 14>	Q5J	:--	91.07%
< 15>	Q5K	:--	88.36%
< 16>	Q5L	:--	93.26%
< 17>	Q5M	:--	88.36%
< 18>	Q6	:--	17.70%
< 19>	Q7A	:--	12.55%
< 20>	Q7B	:--	0.94%
< 21>	Q7C	:--	73.47%
< 22>	Q7D	:--	76.44%
< 23>	Q8A	:--	49.00%
< 24>	Q8B	:--	19.11%
< 25>	Q9A	:--	18.89%
< 26>	Q9B	:--	10.44%
< 27>	Q9C	:--	7.90%
< 28>	Q9D	:--	25.06%
< 29>	Q9E	:--	19.38%
< 30>	Q9F	:--	44.23%
< 31>	Q10	:--	26.12%
< 32>	Q11	:--	39.39%
< 33>	Q12A	:--	4.69%
< 34>	Q12B	:--	10.88%
< 35>	Q12C	:--	8.48%
< 36>	Q12D	:--	15.86%
< 37>	Q12E	:--	56.12%
< 38>	Q13	:--	12.42%
< 39>	Q14	:--	79.16%
< 40>	Q15A	:--	97.73%
< 41>	Q15B	:--	2.12%
< 42>	Q15C	:--	49.00%
< 43>	Q15D	:--	1.73%
< 44>	Q15E	:--	3.89%
< 45>	Q15F	:--	26.45%
< 46>	Q15G	:--	84.64%
< 47>	Q16A	:--	23.87%
< 48>	Q16B	:--	25.57%
< 49>	Q16C	:--	8.00%
< 50>	Q16D	:--	42.44%

< 51>	Q16E :--	5.49%
< 52>	Q16F :--	70.56%
< 53>	Q17 :--	75.96%
< 54>	Q18 :--	30.78%
< 55>	Q19A :--	39.15%
< 56>	Q19B :--	69.58%
< 57>	Q19C :--	78.96%
< 58>	Q19D :--	30.41%
< 59>	Q19E :--	38.09%
< 60>	Q19F :--	64.46%
< 61>	Q19G :--	90.52%
< 62>	Q20 :--	31.68%
< 63>	Q21 :--	7.04%
< 64>	Q22 :--	23.94%
< 65>	Q23 :--	3.43%
< 66>	Q24 :--	29.23%
< 67>	Q25 :--	44.02%
< 68>	Q26A :--	15.77%
< 69>	Q26B :--	69.13%
< 70>	Q26C :--	87.29%
< 71>	Q26D :--	56.46%
< 72>	Q26E :--	44.70%
< 73>	Q26F :--	89.98%
< 74>	Q27A :--	1.57%
< 75>	Q27B :--	4.82%
< 76>	Q27C :--	22.37%
< 77>	Q27D :--	14.37%
< 78>	Q27E :--	8.50%
< 79>	Q27F :--	3.47%
< 80>	Q27G :--	58.70%
< 81>	Q28A :--	20.02%
< 82>	Q28B :--	14.23%
< 83>	Q28C :--	10.94%
< 84>	Q28D :--	5.03%
< 85>	Q28E :--	17.56%
< 86>	Q28F :--	13.26%
< 87>	Q28G :--	15.72%
< 88>	Q28H :--	11.25%
< 89>	Q28I :--	58.02%
< 90>	Q29A :--	13.87%
< 91>	Q29B :--	15.48%
< 92>	Q29C :--	17.69%
< 93>	Q29D :--	10.43%
< 94>	Q29E :--	14.77%
< 95>	Q29F :--	10.58%
< 96>	Q29G :--	10.71%
< 97>	Q29H :--	13.55%
< 98>	Q29I :--	62.79%
< 99>	Q30A :--	6.52%
< 100>	Q30B :--	9.89%

<101>	Q30C :--	25.05%
<102>	Q30D :--	8.25%
<103>	Q30E :--	4.31%
<104>	Q30F :--	6.60%
<105>	Q30G :--	8.60%
<106>	Q30H :--	8.55%
<107>	Q30I :--	53.75%
<108>	Q31 :--	18.91%
<109>	Q32 :--	21.88%
<110>	Q33 :--	24.67%
<111>	Q34A :--	53.51%
<112>	Q34B :--	81.30%
<113>	Q34C :--	6.80%
<114>	Q34D :--	4.47%
<115>	Q34E :--	13.75%
<116>	Q34F :--	6.38%
<117>	Q34G :--	15.79%
<118>	Q34H :--	55.63%
<119>	Q34I :--	44.63%
<120>	Q34J :--	64.94%
<121>	Q34K :--	50.19%
<122>	Q34L :--	20.47%
<123>	Q34M :--	7.69%
<124>	Q34N :--	41.89%
<125>	Q34O :--	25.43%
<126>	Q34P :--	72.35%
<127>	Q34Q :--	41.92%
<128>	Q35 :--	40.61%
<129>	Q36 :--	26.76%
<130>	Q37A :--	65.39%
<131>	Q37B :--	37.23%
<132>	Q37C :--	43.95%
<133>	Q38A :--	27.38%
<134>	Q38B :--	26.18%
<135>	Q39 :--	60.73%
<136>	Q40A :--	51.17%
<137>	Q40B :--	30.61%
<138>	Q40C :--	82.48%
<139>	Q41 :--	22.53%
<140>	Q42 :--	99.43%
<141>	Q43 :--	22.44%
<142>	Q44 :--	53.49%
<143>	Q45 :--	53.25%
<144>	Q46 :--	68.50%
<145>	Q47 :--	47.70%
<146>	Q48A :--	14.69%
<147>	Q48B :--	9.60%
<148>	Q48C :--	7.62%
<149>	Q48D :--	6.94%
<150>	Q48E :--	4.47%

<151>	Q48F :--	60.49%
<152>	Q49A :--	26.74%
<153>	Q49B :--	35.66%
<154>	Q49C :--	6.04%
<155>	Q49D :--	1.12%
<156>	Q49E :--	38.80%
<157>	Q49F :--	51.84%
<158>	Q49G :--	78.45%
<159>	Q51A :--	82.03%
<160>	Q51B :--	46.24%
<161>	Q51C :--	83.07%
<162>	Q51D :--	84.64%
<163>	Q51E :--	88.36%
<164>	Q51F :--	34.98%
<165>	Q51G :--	81.52%
<166>	Q51H :--	78.96%
<167>	Q51I :--	94.92%
<168>	Q52 :--	88.36%
<169>	Q53A :--	18.04%
<170>	Q53B :--	66.51%
<171>	Q53C :--	83.32%
<172>	Q54A :--	30.09%
<173>	Q54B :--	7.52%
<174>	Q54C :--	44.32%
<175>	Q54D :--	1.37%
<176>	Q54E :--	43.56%
<177>	Q54F :--	45.47%
<178>	Q54G :--	49.15%
<179>	Q54H :--	46.31%
<180>	Q54I :--	10.98%
<181>	Q54J :--	26.88%
<182>	Q54K :--	1.80%
<183>	Q54L :--	68.65%

APPENDIX 6: POPULATION EXTRAPOLATIONS FOR THE SURVEY RESULTS

1. a) 1972 Census 64,892,000
- b) 1975 Population Estimate 70,260,000
- c) 1983 Population Estimate 94,140,000
2. 45 graduates per thousand head of population
3. English known and used by 2% of population
4. 45% of population is under 15 years of age
5. Schooling in 1972-73

	teachers	taught
primary schools (5-10 yrs)	111,408	4,413,220
secondary schools (11-14 yrs)	79,024	1,316,428
vocational schools	1,580	23,450
teacher training	1,389	36,508
higher education	12,017	246,811
<hr/>		
total	205,418	6,036,417

6. Pro-rata (factor: 1.45) adjustment for 1983 schooling
 (to '000)

	teachers	taught
Primary schools (5-10 yrs)	161,000	6,402,000
secondary schools (11-14 yrs)	114,000	1,910,000
vocational schools	2,000	34,000
teacher training	2,000	53,000
higher education	17,000	360,000
<hr/>		
total	296,000	8,759,000

7. 2% of 1983 population is app. 2,000,000
8. Assumed figure for "population" estimates: 300,000

The corresponding population proportions — rounded to the nearest hundred — have been calculated from the survey results. In this exercise a total population size of 300,000 was assumed and 95% confidence limits were applied.

Q1: < not applicable >

Q2:

700 responses - 282 "1's" and 410 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.40286, in an interval from 0.36652 to 0.43919;
"Population" interval runs from 109,900 to 131,700 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.58571, in an interval from 0.54922 to 0.62221;
"Population" interval runs from 164,700 to 186,600 people.

Q3:

681 responses - 644 "1's" and 37 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.94567, in an interval from 0.92864 to 0.96269;
"Population" interval runs from 278,500 to 288,800 people.

Q4:

125 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.17857 in an interval from 0.15020 to 0.20694;
"Population" interval runs from 45,000 to 62,000 people.

141 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.20143 in an interval from 0.17172 to 0.23114;
"Population" interval runs from 51,500 to 69,300 people.

89 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.12714 in an interval from 0.10246 to 0.15182;
"Population" interval runs from 30,700 to 45,500 people.

55 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.07857 in an interval from 0.05864 to 0.09850;
"Population" interval runs from 17,500 to 29,500 people.

17 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.02429 in an interval from 0.01288 to 0.03569;
"Population" interval runs from 3,800 to 10,700 people.

11 "6's", hence:
Proportion of "6's": 0.01571 in an interval from 0.00650 to 0.02493;
"Population" interval runs from 1,900 to 7,400 people.

3 "7's", hence:
Proportion of "7's": 0.00429 in an interval from 0.00000 to 0.00913;
"Population" interval runs from zero to 2,700 people.

- 1 "8's", hence:
 Proportion of "8's": 0.00143 in an interval from 0.00000 to 0.00423;
 "Population" interval runs from zero to 1,200 people.
- Q5A:
 697 responses - 337 "1's" and 360 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.48350, in an interval from 0.44640 to 0.52060;
 "Population" interval runs from 133,900 to 156,100 people.
- Q5B:
 700 responses - 89 "1's" and 611 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.12714, in an interval from 0.10246 to 0.15182;
 "Population" interval runs from 30,700 to 45,500 people.
- Q5C:
 700 responses - 57 "1's" and 643 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.08143, in an interval from 0.06117 to 0.10169;
 "Population" interval runs from 18,300 to 30,500 people.
- Q5D:
 700 responses - 62 "1's" and 638 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.08857, in an interval from 0.06752 to 0.10962;
 "Population" interval runs from 20,200 to 32,800 people.
- Q5E:
 700 responses - 255 "1's" and 445 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.36429, in an interval from 0.32864 to 0.39994;
 "Population" interval runs from 98,500 to 119,900 people.
- Q5F:
 700 responses - 74 "1's" and 626 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.10571, in an interval from 0.08294 to 0.12849;
 "Population" interval runs from 24,800 to 38,500 people.
- Q5G:
 700 responses - 50 "1's" and 650 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.07143, in an interval from 0.05235 to 0.09051;
 "Population" interval runs from 15,700 to 27,100 people.
- Q5H:
 700 responses - 78 "1's" and 622 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.11143, in an interval from 0.08812 to 0.13474;
 "Population" interval runs from 26,400 to 40,400 people.

Q5I: 700 responses - 55 "1's" and 645 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.07857, in an interval from 0.05864 to 0.09850;
"Population" interval runs from 17,500 to 29,500 people.

Q5J: 700 responses - 16 "1's" and 684 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.02286, in an interval from 0.01179 to 0.03393;
"Population" interval runs from 3,500 to 10,100 people.

Q5K: 700 responses - 21 "1's" and 679 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.03000, in an interval from 0.01736 to 0.04264;
"Population" interval runs from 5,200 to 12,700 people.

Q5L: 700 responses - 12 "1's" and 688 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.01714, in an interval from 0.00753 to 0.02676;
"Population" interval runs from 2,200 to 8,000 people.

Q6: 663 responses - 330 "1's" and 333 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.49774, in an interval from 0.45968 to 0.53580;
"Population" interval runs from 137,900 to 160,700 people.

Q7A: 700 responses - 474 "1's" and 226 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.67714, in an interval from 0.64250 to 0.71178;
"Population" interval runs from 192,700 to 213,500 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.32286, in an interval from 0.28822 to 0.35750.
"Population" interval runs from 86,400 to 107,200 people.

Q7B: 700 responses - 316 "1's" and 384 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.45143, in an interval from 0.41456 to 0.48829;
"Population" interval runs from 124,300 to 146,400 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.54857, in an interval from 0.51171 to 0.58544.
"Population" interval runs from 153,500 to 175,600 people.

Q7C: 700 responses - 50 "1's" and 650 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.07143, in an interval from 0.05235 to 0.09051;
"Population" interval runs from 15,700 to 27,100 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.92857, in an interval from 0.90949 to 0.94765.
"Population" interval runs from 272,800 to 284,200 people.

Q7D: 700 responses - 44 "1's" and 656 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.06286, in an interval from 0.04488 to 0.08084;
"Population" interval runs from 13,400 to 24,200 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.93714, in an interval from 0.91916 to 0.95512.
"Population" interval runs from 275,700 to 286,500 people.

Q8A: 700 responses - 105 "1's" and 595 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.15000, in an interval from 0.12355 to 0.17645;
"Population" interval runs from 37,000 to 52,900 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.85000, in an interval from 0.82355 to 0.87645.
"Population" interval runs from 247,000 to 262,900 people.

Q8B: 700 responses - 197 "1's" and 503 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.28143, in an interval from 0.24811 to 0.31474;
"Population" interval runs from 74,400 to 94,400 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.71857, in an interval from 0.68526 to 0.75189.
"Population" interval runs from 205,500 to 225,500 people.

Q9A: 561 responses - 125 "1's" and 436 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.22282, in an interval from 0.18838 to 0.25725;
"Population" interval runs from 56,500 to 77,100 people.

Q9B: 567 responses - 186 "1's" and 381 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.32804, in an interval from 0.28940 to 0.36669;
"Population" interval runs from 86,800 to 110,000 people.

Q9C: 597 responses - 311 "1's" and 286 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.52094, in an interval from 0.48086 to 0.56101;
"Population" interval runs from 144,200 to 168,300 people.

Q9D: 662 responses - 442 "1's" and 220 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.66767, in an interval from 0.63179 to 0.70356;
"Population" interval runs from 189,500 to 211,000 people.

Q9E: 517 responses - 86 "1's" and 431 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.16634, in an interval from 0.13424 to 0.19844;
"Population" interval runs from 40,200 to 59,500 people.

Q10:

664 responses - 216 "1's" and 448 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.32530, in an interval from 0.28967 to 0.36094;
"Population" interval runs from 86,900 to 108,200 people.

Q11:

649 responses - 126 "1's" and 523 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.19414, in an interval from 0.16371 to 0.22458;
"Population" interval runs from 49,100 to 67,300 people.

Q12A:

52 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.07429 in an interval from 0.05486 to 0.09371;
"Population" interval runs from 16,400 to 28,100 people.

109 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.15571 in an interval from 0.12885 to 0.18257;
"Population" interval runs from 38,600 to 54,700 people.

74 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.10571 in an interval from 0.08294 to 0.12849;
"Population" interval runs from 24,800 to 38,500 people.

192 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.27429 in an interval from 0.24123 to 0.30734;
"Population" interval runs from 72,300 to 92,200 people.

194 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.27714 in an interval from 0.24399 to 0.31030;
"Population" interval runs from 73,100 to 93,000 people.

Q12B:

20 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.02857 in an interval from 0.01623 to 0.04091;
"Population" interval runs from 4,800 to 12,200 people.

98 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.14000 in an interval from 0.11429 to 0.16571;
"Population" interval runs from 34,200 to 49,700 people.

113 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.16143 in an interval from 0.13417 to 0.18868;
"Population" interval runs from 40,200 to 56,600 people.

295 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.42143 in an interval from 0.38485 to 0.45801;
"Population" interval runs from 115,400 to 137,400 people.

111 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.15857 in an interval from 0.13151 to 0.18563;
"Population" interval runs from 39,400 to 55,600 people.

Q12C:

24 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.03429 in an interval from 0.02081 to 0.04777;
"Population" interval runs from 6,200 to 14,300 people.

74 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.10571 in an interval from 0.08294 to 0.12849;
"Population" interval runs from 24,800 to 38,500 people.

80 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.11429 in an interval from 0.09072 to 0.13786;
"Population" interval runs from 27,200 to 41,300 people.

225 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.32143 in an interval from 0.28683 to 0.35603;
"Population" interval runs from 86,000 to 106,800 people.

216 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.30857 in an interval from 0.27435 to 0.34279;
"Population" interval runs from 82,300 to 102,800 people.

Q12D:

35 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.05000 in an interval from 0.03385 to 0.06615;
"Population" interval runs from 10,100 to 19,800 people.

111 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.15857 in an interval from 0.13151 to 0.18563;
"Population" interval runs from 39,400 to 55,600 people.

117 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.16714 in an interval from 0.13950 to 0.19478;
"Population" interval runs from 41,800 to 58,400 people.

336 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.48000 in an interval from 0.44299 to 0.51701;
"Population" interval runs from 132,800 to 155,100 people.

75 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.10714 in an interval from 0.08423 to 0.13006;
"Population" interval runs from 25,200 to 39,000 people.

Q12E:

9 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.01286 in an interval from 0.00451 to 0.02120;
"Population" interval runs from 1,300 to 6,300 people.

20 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.02857 in an interval from 0.01623 to 0.04091;
"Population" interval runs from 4,800 to 12,200 people.

(Q12E:)

22 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.03143 in an interval from 0.01850 to 0.04435;
"Population" interval runs from 5,500 to 13,300 people.

22 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.03143 in an interval from 0.01850 to 0.04435;
"Population" interval runs from 5,500 to 13,300 people.

76 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.10857 in an interval from 0.08552 to 0.13162;
"Population" interval runs from 25,600 to 39,400 people.

Q13:

29 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.04143 in an interval from 0.02667 to 0.05619;
"Population" interval runs from 7,900 to 16,800 people.

116 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.16571 in an interval from 0.13817 to 0.19326;
"Population" interval runs from 41,400 to 57,900 people.

128 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.18286 in an interval from 0.15422 to 0.21149;
"Population" interval runs from 46,200 to 63,400 people.

296 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.42286 in an interval from 0.38626 to 0.45945;
"Population" interval runs from 115,800 to 137,800 people.

118 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.16857 in an interval from 0.14084 to 0.19631;
"Population" interval runs from 42,200 to 58,800 people.

Q14:

641 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.91571 in an interval from 0.89513 to 0.93630;
"Population" interval runs from 268,000 to 280,000 people.

3 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.00429 in an interval from 0.00000 to 0.00913;
"Population" interval runs from zero to 2,700 people.

6 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.00857 in an interval from 0.00174 to 0.01540;
"Population" interval runs from 500 to 4,600 people.

Q15A:

700 responses - 696 "1's" and 4 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.99429, in an interval from 0.98870 to 0.99987;
"Population" interval runs from 296,600 to 299,900 people.

Proportion of "2's": 0.00571, in an interval from 0.00013 to 0.01130.
"Population" interval runs from zero to 3,300 people.

Q15B:

700 responses - 299 "1's" and 401 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.42714, in an interval from 0.39050 to 0.46379;
"Population" interval runs from 117,100 to 139,100 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.57286, in an interval from 0.53621 to 0.60950.
"Population" interval runs from 160,800 to 182,800 people.

Q15C:

700 responses - 595 "1's" and 105 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.85000, in an interval from 0.82355 to 0.87645;
"Population" interval runs from 247,000 to 262,900 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.15000, in an interval from 0.12355 to 0.17645.
"Population" interval runs from 37,000 to 52,900 people.

Q15D:

700 responses - 304 "1's" and 396 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.43429, in an interval from 0.39757 to 0.47100;
"Population" interval runs from 119,200 to 141,300 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.56571, in an interval from 0.52900 to 0.60243.
"Population" interval runs from 158,600 to 180,700 people.

Q15E:

700 responses - 281 "1's" and 419 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.40143, in an interval from 0.36512 to 0.43774;
"Population" interval runs from 109,500 to 131,300 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.59857, in an interval from 0.56226 to 0.63489.
"Population" interval runs from 168,600 to 190,400 people.

Q15F:

700 responses - 170 "1's" and 530 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.24286, in an interval from 0.21109 to 0.27462;
"Population" interval runs from 63,300 to 82,300 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.75714, in an interval from 0.72538 to 0.78891.
"Population" interval runs from 217,600 to 236,600 people.

Q16A:

700 responses - 521 "1's" and 179 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.74429, in an interval from 0.71197 to 0.77660;
"Population" interval runs from 213,500 to 232,900 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.25571, in an interval from 0.22340 to 0.28803.
"Population" interval runs from 67,000 to 86,400 people.

Q16B:

700 responses - 527 "1's" and 173 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.75286, in an interval from 0.72090 to 0.78481;
"Population" interval runs from 216,200 to 235,400 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.24714, in an interval from 0.21519 to 0.27910.
"Population" interval runs from 64,500 to 83,700 people.

Q16C:

700 responses - 449 "1's" and 251 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.64143, in an interval from 0.60590 to 0.67696;
"Population" interval runs from 181,700 to 203,000 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.35857, in an interval from 0.32304 to 0.39410.
"Population" interval runs from 96,900 to 118,200 people.

Q16D:

700 responses - 578 "1's" and 122 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.82571, in an interval from 0.79761 to 0.85382;
"Population" interval runs from 239,200 to 256,100 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.17429, in an interval from 0.14618 to 0.20239.
"Population" interval runs from 43,800 to 60,700 people.

Q16E:

700 responses - 268 "1's" and 432 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.38286, in an interval from 0.34685 to 0.41887;
"Population" interval runs from 104,000 to 125,600 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.61714, in an interval from 0.58113 to 0.65315.
"Population" interval runs from 174,300 to 195,900 people.

Q17:

21 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.03000 in an interval from 0.01736 to 0.04264;
"Population" interval runs from 5,200 to 12,700 people.

10 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.01429 in an interval from 0.00549 to 0.02308;
"Population" interval runs from 1,600 to 6,900 people.

18 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.02571 in an interval from 0.01399 to 0.03744;
"Population" interval runs from 4,100 to 11,200 people.

23 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.03286 in an interval from 0.01965 to 0.04606;
"Population" interval runs from 5,800 to 13,800 people.

Q18:

685 responses - 463 "1's" and 222 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.67591, in an interval from 0.64086 to 0.71096;
"Population" interval runs from 192,200 to 213,200 people.

Q19A:

700 responses - 131 "1's" and 569 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.18714, in an interval from 0.15825 to 0.21604;
"Population" interval runs from 47,400 to 64,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.81286, in an interval from 0.78396 to 0.84175.
"Population" interval runs from 235,100 to 252,500 people.

Q19B: 699 responses - 79 "1's" and 620 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.11302, in an interval from 0.08955 to 0.13649;
"Population" interval runs from 26,800 to 40,900 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.88698, in an interval from 0.86351 to 0.91045.
"Population" interval runs from 259,000 to 273,100 people.

Q19C: 700 responses - 39 "1's" and 661 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.05571, in an interval from 0.03872 to 0.07271;
"Population" interval runs from 11,600 to 21,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.94429, in an interval from 0.92729 to 0.96128.
"Population" interval runs from 278,100 to 288,300 people.

Q19D: 700 responses - 157 "1's" and 543 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.22429, in an interval from 0.19339 to 0.25519;
"Population" interval runs from 58,000 to 76,500 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.77571, in an interval from 0.74481 to 0.80661.
"Population" interval runs from 223,400 to 241,900 people.

Q19E: 700 responses - 134 "1's" and 566 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.19143, in an interval from 0.16228 to 0.22057;
"Population" interval runs from 48,600 to 66,100 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.80857, in an interval from 0.77943 to 0.83772.
"Population" interval runs from 233,800 to 251,300 people.

Q19F: 700 responses - 69 "1's" and 631 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.09857, in an interval from 0.07649 to 0.12065;
"Population" interval runs from 22,900 to 36,100 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.90143, in an interval from 0.87935 to 0.92351.
"Population" interval runs from 263,800 to 277,000 people.

Q20: 660 responses - 484 "1's" and 176 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.73333, in an interval from 0.69960 to 0.76707;
"Population" interval runs from 209,800 to 230,100 people.

Q21: 49 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.07000 in an interval from 0.05110 to 0.08890;
"Population" interval runs from 15,300 to 26,600 people.

160 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.22857 in an interval from 0.19746 to 0.25968;
"Population" interval runs from 59,200 to 77,900 people.

(Q21:)

152 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.21714 in an interval from 0.18660 to 0.24769;
"Population" interval runs from 55,900 to 74,300 people.

204 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.29143 in an interval from 0.25776 to 0.32509;
"Population" interval runs from 77,300 to 97,500 people.

133 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.19000 in an interval from 0.16094 to 0.21906;
"Population" interval runs from 48,200 to 65,700 people.

Q22:

117 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.16714 in an interval from 0.13950 to 0.19478;
"Population" interval runs from 41,800 to 58,400 people.

359 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.51286 in an interval from 0.47583 to 0.54989;
"Population" interval runs from 142,700 to 164,900 people.

190 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.27143 in an interval from 0.23849 to 0.30437;
"Population" interval runs from 71,500 to 91,300 people.

27 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.03857 in an interval from 0.02431 to 0.05284;
"Population" interval runs from 7,200 to 15,800 people.

4 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.00571 in an interval from 0.00013 to 0.01130;
"Population" interval runs from zero to 3,300 people.

Q23:

136 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.19429 in an interval from 0.16498 to 0.22360;
"Population" interval runs from 49,400 to 67,000 people.

145 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.20714 in an interval from 0.17712 to 0.23716;
"Population" interval runs from 53,100 to 71,100 people.

157 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.22429 in an interval from 0.19339 to 0.25519;
"Population" interval runs from 58,000 to 76,500 people.

132 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.18857 in an interval from 0.15959 to 0.21755;
"Population" interval runs from 47,800 to 65,200 people.

118 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.16857 in an interval from 0.14084 to 0.19631;
"Population" interval runs from 42,200 to 58,800 people.

Q24: 685 responses - 452 "1's" and 233 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.65985, in an interval from 0.62438 to 0.69533;
"Population" interval runs from 187,300 to 208,500 people.

Q25: 684 responses - 533 "1's" and 151 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.77924, in an interval from 0.74816 to 0.81032;
"Population" interval runs from 224,400 to 243,000 people.

Q26A: 700 responses - 489 "1's" and 211 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.69857, in an interval from 0.66458 to 0.73257;
"Population" interval runs from 199,300 to 219,700 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.30143, in an interval from 0.26743 to 0.33542.
"Population" interval runs from 80,200 to 100,600 people.

Q26B: 700 responses - 59 "1's" and 641 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.08429, in an interval from 0.06370 to 0.10487;
"Population" interval runs from 19,100 to 31,400 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.91571, in an interval from 0.89513 to 0.93630.
"Population" interval runs from 268,500 to 280,800 people.

Q26C: 700 responses - 23 "1's" and 677 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.03286, in an interval from 0.01965 to 0.04606;
"Population" interval runs from 5,800 to 13,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.96714, in an interval from 0.95394 to 0.98035.
"Population" interval runs from 286,100 to 294,100 people.

Q26D: 700 responses - 87 "1's" and 613 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.12429, in an interval from 0.09985 to 0.14873;
"Population" interval runs from 29,900 to 44,600 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.87571, in an interval from 0.85127 to 0.90015.
"Population" interval runs from 255,300 to 270,000 people.

Q26E: 700 responses - 116 "1's" and 584 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.16571, in an interval from 0.13817 to 0.19326;
"Population" interval runs from 41,400 to 57,900 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.83429, in an interval from 0.80674 to 0.86183.
"Population" interval runs from 242,000 to 258,500 people.

Q27A:

91 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.13000 in an interval from 0.10509 to 0.15491;
"Population" interval runs from 31,500 to 46,400 people.

149 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.21286 in an interval from 0.18253 to 0.24318;
"Population" interval runs from 54,700 to 72,900 people.

97 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.13857 in an interval from 0.11298 to 0.16417;
"Population" interval runs from 33,800 to 49,200 people.

89 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.12714 in an interval from 0.10246 to 0.15182;
"Population" interval runs from 30,700 to 45,500 people.

100 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.14286 in an interval from 0.11693 to 0.16878;
"Population" interval runs from 35,000 to 50,600 people.

Q27B:

60 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.08571 in an interval from 0.06498 to 0.10645;
"Population" interval runs from 19,400 to 31,900 people.

125 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.17857 in an interval from 0.15020 to 0.20694;
"Population" interval runs from 45,000 to 62,000 people.

84 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.12000 in an interval from 0.09593 to 0.14407;
"Population" interval runs from 28,700 to 43,200 people.

77 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.11000 in an interval from 0.08682 to 0.13318;
"Population" interval runs from 26,000 to 39,900 people.

120 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.17143 in an interval from 0.14351 to 0.19935;
"Population" interval runs from 43,000 to 59,800 people.

Q27C:

149 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.21286 in an interval from 0.18253 to 0.24318;
"Population" interval runs from 54,700 to 72,900 people.

373 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.53286 in an interval from 0.49590 to 0.56982;
"Population" interval runs from 148,700 to 170,900 people.

(Q27C:)

96 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.13714 in an interval from 0.11166 to 0.16263;
"Population" interval runs from 33,400 to 48,700 people.

25 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.03571 in an interval from 0.02197 to 0.04946;
"Population" interval runs from 6,500 to 14,800 people.

39 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.05571 in an interval from 0.03872 to 0.07271;
"Population" interval runs from 11,600 to 21,800 people.

Q27D:

66 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.09429 in an interval from 0.07264 to 0.11593;
"Population" interval runs from 21,700 to 34,700 people.

200 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.28571 in an interval from 0.25225 to 0.31918;
"Population" interval runs from 75,600 to 95,700 people.

300 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.42857 in an interval from 0.39191 to 0.46523;
"Population" interval runs from 117,500 to 139,500 people.

45 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.06429 in an interval from 0.04612 to 0.08245;
"Population" interval runs from 13,800 to 24,700 people.

42 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.06000 in an interval from 0.04241 to 0.07759;
"Population" interval runs from 12,700 to 23,200 people.

Q27E:

38 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.05429 in an interval from 0.03750 to 0.07107;
"Population" interval runs from 11,200 to 21,300 people.

61 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.08714 in an interval from 0.06625 to 0.10804;
"Population" interval runs from 19,800 to 32,400 people.

59 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.08429 in an interval from 0.06370 to 0.10487;
"Population" interval runs from 19,100 to 31,400 people.

133 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.19000 in an interval from 0.16094 to 0.21906;
"Population" interval runs from 48,200 to 65,700 people.

148 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.21143 in an interval from 0.18118 to 0.24168;
"Population" interval runs from 54,300 to 72,500 people.

Q27F:

62 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.08857 in an interval from 0.06752 to 0.10962;
"Population" interval runs from 20,200 to 32,800 people.

93 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.13286 in an interval from 0.10771 to 0.15800;
"Population" interval runs from 32,300 to 47,400 people.

188 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.26857 in an interval from 0.23574 to 0.30141;
"Population" interval runs from 70,700 to 90,400 people.

178 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.25429 in an interval from 0.22203 to 0.28654;
"Population" interval runs from 66,600 to 85,900 people.

77 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.11000 in an interval from 0.08682 to 0.13318;
"Population" interval runs from 26,000 to 39,900 people.

Q27G:

8 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.01143 in an interval from 0.00355 to 0.01930;
"Population" interval runs from 1,000 to 5,700 people.

19 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.02714 in an interval from 0.01510 to 0.03918;
"Population" interval runs from 4,500 to 11,700 people.

17 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.02429 in an interval from 0.01288 to 0.03569;
"Population" interval runs from 3,800 to 10,700 people.

21 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.03000 in an interval from 0.01736 to 0.04264;
"Population" interval runs from 5,200 to 12,700 people.

74 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.10571 in an interval from 0.08294 to 0.12849;
"Population" interval runs from 24,800 to 38,500 people.

Q28A:

249 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.35571 in an interval from 0.32025 to 0.39118;
"Population" interval runs from 96,000 to 117,300 people.

274 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.39143 in an interval from 0.35527 to 0.42759;
"Population" interval runs from 106,500 to 128,200 people.

(Q28A:)

162 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.23143 in an interval from 0.20019 to 0.26267;
"Population" interval runs from 60,000 to 78,800 people.

9 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.01286 in an interval from 0.00451 to 0.02120;
"Population" interval runs from 1,300 to 6,300 people.

1 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.00143 in an interval from 0.00000 to 0.00423;
"Population" interval runs from zero to 1,200 people.

Q28B:

19 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.02714 in an interval from 0.01510 to 0.03918;
"Population" interval runs from 4,500 to 11,700 people.

40 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.05714 in an interval from 0.03995 to 0.07434;
"Population" interval runs from 11,900 to 22,300 people.

58 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.08286 in an interval from 0.06244 to 0.10328;
"Population" interval runs from 18,700 to 30,900 people.

77 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.11000 in an interval from 0.08682 to 0.13318;
"Population" interval runs from 26,000 to 39,900 people.

269 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.38429 in an interval from 0.34825 to 0.42032;
"Population" interval runs from 104,400 to 126,000 people.

Q28C:

168 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.24000 in an interval from 0.20836 to 0.27164;
"Population" interval runs from 62,500 to 81,400 people.

237 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.33857 in an interval from 0.30351 to 0.37363;
"Population" interval runs from 91,000 to 112,000 people.

183 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.26143 in an interval from 0.22888 to 0.29398;
"Population" interval runs from 68,600 to 88,100 people.

90 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.12857 in an interval from 0.10377 to 0.15337;
"Population" interval runs from 31,100 to 46,000 people.

4 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.00571 in an interval from 0.00013 to 0.01130;
"Population" interval runs from zero to 3,300 people.

Q28D:

103 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.14714 in an interval from 0.12090 to 0.17339;
"Population" interval runs from 36,200 to 52,000 people.

141 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.20143 in an interval from 0.17172 to 0.23114;
"Population" interval runs from 51,500 to 69,300 people.

113 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.16143 in an interval from 0.13417 to 0.18868;
"Population" interval runs from 40,200 to 56,600 people.

229 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.32714 in an interval from 0.29239 to 0.36190;
"Population" interval runs from 87,700 to 108,500 people.

59 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.08429 in an interval from 0.06370 to 0.10487;
"Population" interval runs from 19,100 to 31,400 people.

Q28E:

40 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.05714 in an interval from 0.03995 to 0.07434;
"Population" interval runs from 11,900 to 22,300 people.

63 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.09000 in an interval from 0.06880 to 0.11120;
"Population" interval runs from 20,600 to 33,300 people.

351 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.50143 in an interval from 0.46439 to 0.53847;
"Population" interval runs from 139,300 to 161,500 people.

136 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.19429 in an interval from 0.16498 to 0.22360;
"Population" interval runs from 49,400 to 67,000 people.

60 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.08571 in an interval from 0.06498 to 0.10645;
"Population" interval runs from 19,400 to 31,900 people.

Q28F:

21 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.03000 in an interval from 0.01736 to 0.04264;
"Population" interval runs from 5,200 to 12,700 people.

43 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.06143 in an interval from 0.04364 to 0.07922;
"Population" interval runs from 13,000 to 23,700 people.

(Q28F:)

64 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.09143 in an interval from 0.07008 to 0.11278;
"Population" interval runs from 21,000 to 33,800 people.

75 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.10714 in an interval from 0.08423 to 0.13006;
"Population" interval runs from 25,200 to 39,000 people.

236 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.33714 in an interval from 0.30212 to 0.37216;
"Population" interval runs from 90,600 to 111,600 people.

Q28G:

64 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.09143 in an interval from 0.07008 to 0.11278;
"Population" interval runs from 21,000 to 33,800 people.

185 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.26429 in an interval from 0.23162 to 0.29695;
"Population" interval runs from 69,400 to 89,000 people.

317 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.45286 in an interval from 0.41598 to 0.48973;
"Population" interval runs from 124,700 to 146,900 people.

69 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.09857 in an interval from 0.07649 to 0.12065;
"Population" interval runs from 22,900 to 36,100 people.

42 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.06000 in an interval from 0.04241 to 0.07759;
"Population" interval runs from 12,700 to 23,200 people.

Q28H:

17 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.02429 in an interval from 0.01288 to 0.03569;
"Population" interval runs from 3,800 to 10,700 people.

46 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.06571 in an interval from 0.04736 to 0.08407;
"Population" interval runs from 14,200 to 25,200 people.

57 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.08143 in an interval from 0.06117 to 0.10169;
"Population" interval runs from 18,300 to 30,500 people.

271 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.38714 in an interval from 0.35106 to 0.42323;
"Population" interval runs from 105,300 to 126,900 people.

135 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.19286 in an interval from 0.16363 to 0.22209;
"Population" interval runs from 49,000 to 66,600 people.

Q28I:

8 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.01143 in an interval from 0.00355 to 0.01930;
"Population" interval runs from 1,000 to 5,700 people.

17 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.02429 in an interval from 0.01288 to 0.03569;
"Population" interval runs from 3,800 to 10,700 people.

17 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.02429 in an interval from 0.01288 to 0.03569;
"Population" interval runs from 3,800 to 10,700 people.

22 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.03143 in an interval from 0.01850 to 0.04435;
"Population" interval runs from 5,500 to 13,300 people.

78 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.11143 in an interval from 0.08812 to 0.13474;
"Population" interval runs from 26,400 to 40,400 people.

Q29A:

26 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.03714 in an interval from 0.02313 to 0.05115;
"Population" interval runs from 6,900 to 15,300 people.

62 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.08857 in an interval from 0.06752 to 0.10962;
"Population" interval runs from 20,200 to 32,800 people.

176 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.25143 in an interval from 0.21929 to 0.28357;
"Population" interval runs from 65,700 to 85,000 people.

304 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.43429 in an interval from 0.39757 to 0.47100;
"Population" interval runs from 119,200 to 141,300 people.

95 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.13571 in an interval from 0.11034 to 0.16109;
"Population" interval runs from 33,100 to 48,300 people.

Q29B:

25 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.03571 in an interval from 0.02197 to 0.04946;
"Population" interval runs from 6,500 to 14,800 people.

38 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.05429 in an interval from 0.03750 to 0.07107;
"Population" interval runs from 11,200 to 21,300 people.

(Q29B:)

185 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.26429 in an interval from 0.23162 to 0.29695;
"Population" interval runs from 69,400 to 89,000 people.

312 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.44571 in an interval from 0.40889 to 0.48254;
"Population" interval runs from 122,600 to 144,700 people.

97 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.13857 in an interval from 0.11298 to 0.16417;
"Population" interval runs from 33,800 to 49,200 people.

Q29C:

151 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.21571 in an interval from 0.18524 to 0.24619;
"Population" interval runs from 55,500 to 73,800 people.

328 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.46857 in an interval from 0.43160 to 0.50554;
"Population" interval runs from 129,400 to 151,600 people.

138 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.19714 in an interval from 0.16767 to 0.22662;
"Population" interval runs from 50,300 to 67,900 people.

65 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.09286 in an interval from 0.07136 to 0.11436;
"Population" interval runs from 21,400 to 34,300 people.

15 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.02143 in an interval from 0.01070 to 0.03216;
"Population" interval runs from 3,200 to 9,600 people.

Q29D:

37 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.05286 in an interval from 0.03628 to 0.06943;
"Population" interval runs from 10,800 to 20,800 people.

113 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.16143 in an interval from 0.13417 to 0.18868;
"Population" interval runs from 40,200 to 56,600 people.

199 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.28429 in an interval from 0.25087 to 0.31770;
"Population" interval runs from 75,200 to 95,300 people.

256 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.36571 in an interval from 0.33003 to 0.40139;
"Population" interval runs from 99,000 to 120,400 people.

63 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.09000 in an interval from 0.06880 to 0.11120;
"Population" interval runs from 20,600 to 33,300 people.

Q29E:

33 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.04714 in an interval from 0.03144 to 0.06284;
"Population" interval runs from 9,400 to 18,800 people.

95 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.13571 in an interval from 0.11034 to 0.16109;
"Population" interval runs from 33,100 to 48,300 people.

188 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.26857 in an interval from 0.23574 to 0.30141;
"Population" interval runs from 70,700 to 90,400 people.

305 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.43571 in an interval from 0.39898 to 0.47245;
"Population" interval runs from 119,600 to 141,700 people.

53 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.07571 in an interval from 0.05612 to 0.09531;
"Population" interval runs from 16,800 to 28,500 people.

Q29F:

11 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.01571 in an interval from 0.00650 to 0.02493;
"Population" interval runs from 1,900 to 7,400 people.

37 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.05286 in an interval from 0.03628 to 0.06943;
"Population" interval runs from 10,800 to 20,800 people.

77 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.11000 in an interval from 0.08682 to 0.13318;
"Population" interval runs from 26,000 to 39,900 people.

153 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.21857 in an interval from 0.18796 to 0.24919;
"Population" interval runs from 56,300 to 74,700 people.

261 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.37286 in an interval from 0.33703 to 0.40868;
"Population" interval runs from 101,100 to 122,600 people.

Q29G:

31 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.04429 in an interval from 0.02905 to 0.05953;
"Population" interval runs from 8,700 to 17,800 people.

59 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.08429 in an interval from 0.06370 to 0.10487;
"Population" interval runs from 19,100 to 31,400 people.

86 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.12286 in an interval from 0.09854 to 0.14718;
"Population" interval runs from 29,500 to 44,100 people.

(Q29G:)

293 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.41857 in an interval from 0.38203 to 0.45512;
"Population" interval runs from 114,600 to 136,500 people.

138 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.19714 in an interval from 0.16767 to 0.22662;
"Population" interval runs from 50,300 to 67,900 people.

Q29H:

55 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.07857 in an interval from 0.05864 to 0.09850;
"Population" interval runs from 17,500 to 29,500 people.

93 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.13286 in an interval from 0.10771 to 0.15800;
"Population" interval runs from 32,300 to 47,400 people.

149 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.21286 in an interval from 0.18253 to 0.24318;
"Population" interval runs from 54,700 to 72,900 people.

314 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.44857 in an interval from 0.41173 to 0.48542;
"Population" interval runs from 123,500 to 145,600 people.

61 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.08714 in an interval from 0.06625 to 0.10804;
"Population" interval runs from 19,800 to 32,400 people.

Q29I:

14 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.02000 in an interval from 0.00963 to 0.03037;
"Population" interval runs from 2,800 to 9,100 people.

16 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.02286 in an interval from 0.01179 to 0.03393;
"Population" interval runs from 3,500 to 10,100 people.

14 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.02000 in an interval from 0.00963 to 0.03037;
"Population" interval runs from 2,800 to 9,100 people.

27 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.03857 in an interval from 0.02431 to 0.05284;
"Population" interval runs from 7,200 to 15,800 people.

51 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.07286 in an interval from 0.05360 to 0.09211;
"Population" interval runs from 16,000 to 27,600 people.

Q30A:

20 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.02857 in an interval from 0.01623 to 0.04091;
"Population" interval runs from 4,800 to 12,200 people.

49 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.07000 in an interval from 0.05110 to 0.08890;
"Population" interval runs from 15,300 to 26,600 people.

98 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.14000 in an interval from 0.11429 to 0.16571;
"Population" interval runs from 34,200 to 49,700 people.

199 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.28429 in an interval from 0.25087 to 0.31770;
"Population" interval runs from 75,200 to 95,300 people.

183 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.26143 in an interval from 0.22888 to 0.29398;
"Population" interval runs from 68,600 to 88,100 people.

Q30B:

16 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.02286 in an interval from 0.01179 to 0.03393;
"Population" interval runs from 3,500 to 10,100 people.

45 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.06429 in an interval from 0.04612 to 0.08245;
"Population" interval runs from 13,800 to 24,700 people.

55 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.07857 in an interval from 0.05864 to 0.09850;
"Population" interval runs from 17,500 to 29,500 people.

160 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.22857 in an interval from 0.19746 to 0.25968;
"Population" interval runs from 59,200 to 77,900 people.

237 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.33857 in an interval from 0.30351 to 0.37363;
"Population" interval runs from 91,000 to 112,000 people.

Q30C:

5 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.00714 in an interval from 0.00090 to 0.01338;
"Population" interval runs from 200 to 4,000 people.

21 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.03000 in an interval from 0.01736 to 0.04264;
"Population" interval runs from 5,200 to 12,700 people.

38 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.05429 in an interval from 0.03750 to 0.07107;
"Population" interval runs from 11,200 to 21,300 people.

(Q30C:)

55 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.07857 in an interval from 0.05864 to 0.09850;
"Population" interval runs from 17,500 to 29,500 people.

362 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.51714 in an interval from 0.48012 to 0.55416;
"Population" interval runs from 144,000 to 166,200 people.

Q30D:

16 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.02286 in an interval from 0.01179 to 0.03393;
"Population" interval runs from 3,500 to 10,100 people.

39 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.05571 in an interval from 0.03872 to 0.07271;
"Population" interval runs from 11,600 to 21,800 people.

80 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.11429 in an interval from 0.09072 to 0.13786;
"Population" interval runs from 27,200 to 41,300 people.

210 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.30000 in an interval from 0.26605 to 0.33395;
"Population" interval runs from 79,800 to 100,100 people.

183 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.26143 in an interval from 0.22888 to 0.29398;
"Population" interval runs from 68,600 to 88,100 people.

Q30E:

51 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.07286 in an interval from 0.05360 to 0.09211;
"Population" interval runs from 16,000 to 27,600 people.

124 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.17714 in an interval from 0.14886 to 0.20543;
"Population" interval runs from 44,600 to 61,600 people.

154 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.22000 in an interval from 0.18931 to 0.25069;
"Population" interval runs from 56,700 to 75,200 people.

211 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.30143 in an interval from 0.26743 to 0.33542;
"Population" interval runs from 80,200 to 100,600 people.

91 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.13000 in an interval from 0.10509 to 0.15491;
"Population" interval runs from 31,500 to 46,400 people.

Q30F:

15 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.02143 in an interval from 0.01070 to 0.03216;
"Population" interval runs from 3,200 to 9,600 people.

49 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.07000 in an interval from 0.05110 to 0.08890;
"Population" interval runs from 15,300 to 26,600 people.

134 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.19143 in an interval from 0.16228 to 0.22057;
"Population" interval runs from 48,600 to 66,100 people.

213 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.30429 in an interval from 0.27020 to 0.33837;
"Population" interval runs from 81,000 to 101,500 people.

166 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.23714 in an interval from 0.20563 to 0.26865;
"Population" interval runs from 61,600 to 80,500 people.

Q30G:

14 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.02000 in an interval from 0.00963 to 0.03037;
"Population" interval runs from 2,800 to 9,100 people.

37 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.05286 in an interval from 0.03628 to 0.06943;
"Population" interval runs from 10,800 to 20,800 people.

90 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.12857 in an interval from 0.10377 to 0.15337;
"Population" interval runs from 31,100 to 46,000 people.

209 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.29857 in an interval from 0.26467 to 0.33247;
"Population" interval runs from 79,400 to 99,700 people.

208 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.29714 in an interval from 0.26329 to 0.33100;
"Population" interval runs from 78,900 to 99,200 people.

Q30H:

17 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.02429 in an interval from 0.01288 to 0.03569;
"Population" interval runs from 3,800 to 10,700 people.

58 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.08286 in an interval from 0.06244 to 0.10328;
"Population" interval runs from 18,700 to 30,900 people.

153 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.21857 in an interval from 0.18796 to 0.24919;
"Population" interval runs from 56,300 to 74,700 people.

(Q30H:)

251 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.35857 in an interval from 0.32304 to 0.39410;
"Population" interval runs from 96,900 to 118,200 people.

143 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.20429 in an interval from 0.17442 to 0.23415;
"Population" interval runs from 52,300 to 70,200 people.

Q30I:

6 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.00857 in an interval from 0.00174 to 0.01540;
"Population" interval runs from 500 to 4,600 people.

16 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.02286 in an interval from 0.01179 to 0.03393;
"Population" interval runs from 3,500 to 10,100 people.

14 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.02000 in an interval from 0.00963 to 0.03037;
"Population" interval runs from 2,800 to 9,100 people.

36 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.05143 in an interval from 0.03507 to 0.06779;
"Population" interval runs from 10,500 to 20,300 people.

88 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.12571 in an interval from 0.10115 to 0.15027;
"Population" interval runs from 30,300 to 45,000 people.

Q31:

72 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.10286 in an interval from 0.08035 to 0.12536;
"Population" interval runs from 24,100 to 37,600 people.

229 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.32714 in an interval from 0.29239 to 0.36190;
"Population" interval runs from 87,700 to 108,500 people.

310 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.44286 in an interval from 0.40606 to 0.47965;
"Population" interval runs from 121,800 to 143,800 people.

70 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.10000 in an interval from 0.07778 to 0.12222;
"Population" interval runs from 23,300 to 36,600 people.

15 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.02143 in an interval from 0.01070 to 0.03216;
"Population" interval runs from 3,200 to 9,600 people.

Q32:

682 responses - 372 "1's" and 310 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.54545, in an interval from 0.50808 to 0.58283;
"Population" interval runs from 152,400 to 174,800 people.

Q33:

380 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.54286 in an interval from 0.50595 to 0.57976;
"Population" interval runs from 151,700 to 173,900 people.

43 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.06143 in an interval from 0.04364 to 0.07922;
"Population" interval runs from 13,000 to 23,700 people.

258 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.36857 in an interval from 0.33283 to 0.40431;
"Population" interval runs from 99,800 to 121,200 people.

Q34A:

666 responses - 573 "1's" and 93 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.86036, in an interval from 0.83404 to 0.88669;
"Population" interval runs from 250,200 to 266,000 people.

Q34B:

685 responses - 654 "1's" and 31 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.95474, in an interval from 0.93918 to 0.97031;
"Population" interval runs from 281,700 to 291,000 people.

Q34C:

577 responses - 333 "1's" and 244 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.57712, in an interval from 0.53681 to 0.61743;
"Population" interval runs from 161,000 to 185,200 people.

Q34D:

565 responses - 289 "1's" and 276 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.51150, in an interval from 0.47029 to 0.55272;
"Population" interval runs from 141,000 to 165,800 people.

Q34E:

595 responses - 398 "1's" and 197 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.66891, in an interval from 0.63109 to 0.70672;
"Population" interval runs from 189,300 to 212,000 people.

Q34F:

584 responses - 302 "1's" and 282 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.51712, in an interval from 0.47659 to 0.55765;
"Population" interval runs from 142,900 to 167,200 people.

- Q34G: 608 responses - 408 "1's" and 200 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.67105, in an interval from 0.63371 to 0.70840;
 "Population" interval runs from 190,100 to 212,500 people.
- Q34H: 655 responses - 581 "1's" and 74 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.88702, in an interval from 0.86278 to 0.91127;
 "Population" interval runs from 258,800 to 273,300 people.
- Q34I: 659 responses - 542 "1's" and 117 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.82246, in an interval from 0.79328 to 0.85163;
 "Population" interval runs from 237,900 to 255,400 people.
- Q34J: 682 responses - 608 "1's" and 74 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.89150, in an interval from 0.86815 to 0.91484;
 "Population" interval runs from 260,400 to 274,400 people.
- Q34K: 653 responses - 563 "1's" and 90 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.86217, in an interval from 0.83573 to 0.88861;
 "Population" interval runs from 250,700 to 266,500 people.
- Q34L: 614 responses - 438 "1's" and 176 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.71336, in an interval from 0.67759 to 0.74912;
 "Population" interval runs from 203,200 to 224,700 people.
- Q34M: 595 responses - 283 "1's" and 312 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.47563, in an interval from 0.43550 to 0.51576;
 "Population" interval runs from 130,600 to 154,700 people.
- Q34N: 668 responses - 529 "1's" and 139 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.79192, in an interval from 0.76113 to 0.82270;
 "Population" interval runs from 228,300 to 246,800 people.
- Q34O: 644 responses - 456 "1's" and 188 "2's", hence:
 Proportion of "1's": 0.70807, in an interval from 0.67296 to 0.74319;
 "Population" interval runs from 201,800 to 222,900 people.

- Q34P: 678 responses - 630 "1's" and 48 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.92920, in an interval from 0.90990 to 0.94851;
"Population" interval runs from 272,900 to 284,500 people.
- Q34Q: 166 responses - 109 "1's" and 57 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.65663, in an interval from 0.58439 to 0.72886;
"Population" interval runs from 175,300 to 218,600 people.
- Q35: 688 responses - 516 "1's" and 172 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.75000, in an interval from 0.71764 to 0.78236;
"Population" interval runs from 215,200 to 234,700 people.
- Q36: 684 responses - 433 "1's" and 251 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.63304, in an interval from 0.59692 to 0.66916;
"Population" interval runs from 179,000 to 200,700 people.
- Q37A: 693 responses - 608 "1's" and 85 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.87734, in an interval from 0.85292 to 0.90177;
"Population" interval runs from 255,800 to 270,500 people.
- Q37B: 669 responses - 508 "1's" and 161 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.75934, in an interval from 0.72695 to 0.79174;
"Population" interval runs from 218,000 to 237,500 people.
- Q37C: 677 responses - 535 "1's" and 142 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.79025, in an interval from 0.75958 to 0.82092;
"Population" interval runs from 227,800 to 246,200 people.
- Q38A: 691 responses - 429 "1's" and 262 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.62084, in an interval from 0.58466 to 0.65702;
"Population" interval runs from 175,300 to 197,100 people.
- Q38B: 683 responses - 429 "1's" and 254 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.62811, in an interval from 0.59186 to 0.66436;
"Population" interval runs from 177,500 to 199,300 people.

Q39: 698 responses - 592 "1's" and 106 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.84814, in an interval from 0.82151 to 0.87476;
"Population" interval runs from 246,400 to 262,400 people.

Q40A: 693 responses - 559 "1's" and 134 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.80664, in an interval from 0.77723 to 0.83604;
"Population" interval runs from 233,100 to 250,800 people.

Q40B: 686 responses - 225 "1's" and 461 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.32799, in an interval from 0.29286 to 0.36312;
"Population" interval runs from 87,800 to 108,900 people.

Q40C: 688 responses - 657 "1's" and 31 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.95494, in an interval from 0.93944 to 0.97044;
"Population" interval runs from 281,800 to 291,100 people.

Q41: 688 responses - 352 "1's" and 336 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.51163, in an interval from 0.47428 to 0.54898;
"Population" interval runs from 142,200 to 164,600 people.

Q42: 699 responses - 1 "1's" and 698 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.00143, in an interval from 0.00000 to 0.00423;
"Population" interval runs from zero to 1,200 people.

Q43: 685 responses - 308 "1's" and 377 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.44964, in an interval from 0.41238 to 0.48689;
"Population" interval runs from 123,700 to 146,000 people.

Q44: 689 responses - 570 "1's" and 119 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.82729, in an interval from 0.79906 to 0.85551;
"Population" interval runs from 239,700 to 256,600 people.

Q45: 697 responses - 567 "1's" and 130 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.81349, in an interval from 0.78457 to 0.84240;
"Population" interval runs from 235,300 to 252,700 people.

Q46:

698 responses - 618 "1's" and 80 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.88539, in an interval from 0.86175 to 0.90902;
"Population" interval runs from 258,500 to 272,700 people.

Q47:

49 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.07000 in an interval from 0.05110 to 0.08890;
"Population" interval runs from 15,300 to 26,600 people.

535 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.76429 in an interval from 0.73284 to 0.79573;
"Population" interval runs from 219,800 to 238,700 people.

93 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.13286 in an interval from 0.10771 to 0.15800;
"Population" interval runs from 32,300 to 47,400 people.

Q48A:

26 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.03714 in an interval from 0.02313 to 0.05115;
"Population" interval runs from 6,900 to 15,300 people.

59 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.08429 in an interval from 0.06370 to 0.10487;
"Population" interval runs from 19,100 to 31,400 people.

171 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.24429 in an interval from 0.21246 to 0.27612;
"Population" interval runs from 63,700 to 82,800 people.

312 "4's", hence:
Proportion of "4's": 0.44571 in an interval from 0.40889 to 0.48254;
"Population" interval runs from 122,600 to 144,700 people.

99 "5's", hence:
Proportion of "5's": 0.14143 in an interval from 0.11561 to 0.16724;
"Population" interval runs from 34,600 to 50,100 people.

Q48B:

53 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.07571 in an interval from 0.05612 to 0.09531;
"Population" interval runs from 16,800 to 28,500 people.

93 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "2's": 0.13286 in an interval from 0.10771 to 0.15800;
"Population" interval runs from 32,300 to 47,400 people.

210 "3's", hence:
Proportion of "3's": 0.30000 in an interval from 0.26605 to 0.33395;
"Population" interval runs from 79,800 to 100,100 people.

(Q48B:)

238 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.34000 in an interval from 0.30491 to 0.37509;
"Population" interval runs from 91,400 to 112,500 people.

92 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.13143 in an interval from 0.10640 to 0.15646;
"Population" interval runs from 31,900 to 46,900 people.

Q48C:

34 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.04857 in an interval from 0.03265 to 0.06450;
"Population" interval runs from 9,700 to 19,300 people.

112 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.16000 in an interval from 0.13284 to 0.18716;
"Population" interval runs from 39,800 to 56,100 people.

231 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.33000 in an interval from 0.29517 to 0.36483;
"Population" interval runs from 88,500 to 109,400 people.

193 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.27571 in an interval from 0.24261 to 0.30882;
"Population" interval runs from 72,700 to 92,600 people.

67 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.09571 in an interval from 0.07392 to 0.11751;
"Population" interval runs from 22,100 to 35,200 people.

Q48D:

13 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.01857 in an interval from 0.00857 to 0.02857;
"Population" interval runs from 2,500 to 8,500 people.

62 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.08857 in an interval from 0.06752 to 0.10962;
"Population" interval runs from 20,200 to 32,800 people.

214 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.30571 in an interval from 0.27158 to 0.33984;
"Population" interval runs from 81,400 to 101,900 people.

188 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.26857 in an interval from 0.23574 to 0.30141;
"Population" interval runs from 70,700 to 90,400 people.

112 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.16000 in an interval from 0.13284 to 0.18716;
"Population" interval runs from 39,800 to 56,100 people.

Q48E:

43 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.06143 in an interval from 0.04364 to 0.07922;
"Population" interval runs from 13,000 to 23,700 people.

61 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.08714 in an interval from 0.06625 to 0.10804;
"Population" interval runs from 19,800 to 32,400 people.

143 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.20429 in an interval from 0.17442 to 0.23415;
"Population" interval runs from 52,300 to 70,200 people.

197 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.28143 in an interval from 0.24811 to 0.31474;
"Population" interval runs from 74,400 to 94,400 people.

94 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.13429 in an interval from 0.10903 to 0.15954;
"Population" interval runs from 32,700 to 47,800 people.

Q48F:

7 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.01000 in an interval from 0.00263 to 0.01737;
"Population" interval runs from 700 to 5,200 people.

11 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.01571 in an interval from 0.00650 to 0.02493;
"Population" interval runs from 1,900 to 7,400 people.

19 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.02714 in an interval from 0.01510 to 0.03918;
"Population" interval runs from 4,500 to 11,700 people.

25 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.03571 in an interval from 0.02197 to 0.04946;
"Population" interval runs from 6,500 to 14,800 people.

70 "5's", hence:

Proportion of "5's": 0.10000 in an interval from 0.07778 to 0.12222;
"Population" interval runs from 23,300 to 36,600 people.

Q49A:

700 responses - 169 "1's" and 531 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.24143, in an interval from 0.20973 to 0.27313;
"Population" interval runs from 62,900 to 81,900 people.

Q49B:

700 responses - 141 "1's" and 559 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.20143, in an interval from 0.17172 to 0.23114;
"Population" interval runs from 51,500 to 69,300 people.

Q49C: 700 responses - 264 "1's" and 436 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.37714, in an interval from 0.34124 to 0.41305;
"Population" interval runs from 102,300 to 123,900 people.

Q49D: 700 responses - 313 "1's" and 387 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.44714, in an interval from 0.41031 to 0.48398;
"Population" interval runs from 123,000 to 145,100 people.

Q49E: 700 responses - 132 "1's" and 568 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.18857, in an interval from 0.15959 to 0.21755;
"Population" interval runs from 47,800 to 65,200 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.81143, in an interval from 0.78245 to 0.84041.
"Population" interval runs from 234,700 to 252,100 people.

Q49F: 700 responses - 98 "1's" and 602 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.14000, in an interval from 0.11429 to 0.16571;
"Population" interval runs from 34,200 to 49,700 people.

Q50: < not applicable >

Q51A: 700 responses - 33 "1's" and 667 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.04714, in an interval from 0.03144 to 0.06284;
"Population" interval runs from 9,400 to 18,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.95286, in an interval from 0.93716 to 0.96856.
"Population" interval runs from 281,100 to 290,500 people.

Q51B: 700 responses - 113 "1's" and 587 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.16143, in an interval from 0.13417 to 0.18868;
"Population" interval runs from 40,200 to 56,600 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.83857, in an interval from 0.81132 to 0.86583.
"Population" interval runs from 243,300 to 259,700 people.

Q51C: 700 responses - 31 "1's" and 669 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.04429, in an interval from 0.02905 to 0.05953;
"Population" interval runs from 8,700 to 17,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.95571, in an interval from 0.94047 to 0.97095.
"Population" interval runs from 282,100 to 291,200 people.

Q51D: 700 responses - 27 "1's" and 673 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.03857, in an interval from 0.02431 to 0.05284;
"Population" interval runs from 7,200 to 15,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.96143, in an interval from 0.94716 to 0.97569.
"Population" interval runs from 284,100 to 292,700 people.

Q51E: 700 responses - 20 "1's" and 680 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.02857, in an interval from 0.01623 to 0.04091;
"Population" interval runs from 4,800 to 12,200 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.97143, in an interval from 0.95909 to 0.98377.
"Population" interval runs from 287,700 to 295,100 people.

Q51F: 700 responses - 143 "1's" and 557 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.20429, in an interval from 0.17442 to 0.23415;
"Population" interval runs from 52,300 to 70,200 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.79571, in an interval from 0.76585 to 0.82558.
"Population" interval runs from 229,700 to 247,600 people.

Q51G: 700 responses - 33 "1's" and 667 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.04714, in an interval from 0.03144 to 0.06284;
"Population" interval runs from 9,400 to 18,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.95286, in an interval from 0.93716 to 0.96856.
"Population" interval runs from 281,100 to 290,500 people.

Q51H: 700 responses - 39 "1's" and 661 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.05571, in an interval from 0.03872 to 0.07271;
"Population" interval runs from 11,600 to 21,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.94429, in an interval from 0.92729 to 0.96128.
"Population" interval runs from 278,100 to 288,300 people.

Q52: 700 responses - 21 "1's" and 679 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.03000, in an interval from 0.01736 to 0.04264;
"Population" interval runs from 5,200 to 12,700 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.97000, in an interval from 0.95736 to 0.98264.
"Population" interval runs from 287,200 to 294,700 people.

Q53A: 142 "1's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.20286 in an interval from 0.17307 to 0.23265;
"Population" interval runs from 51,900 to 69,700 people.

(Q53A:)

197 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.28143 in an interval from 0.24811 to 0.31474;
"Population" interval runs from 74,400 to 94,400 people.

29 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.04143 in an interval from 0.02667 to 0.05619;
"Population" interval runs from 7,900 to 16,800 people.

2 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.00286 in an interval from 0.00000 to 0.00681;
"Population" interval runs from zero to 2,000 people.

Q53B:

33 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.04714 in an interval from 0.03144 to 0.06284;
"Population" interval runs from 9,400 to 18,800 people.

59 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.08429 in an interval from 0.06370 to 0.10487;
"Population" interval runs from 19,100 to 31,400 people.

11 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.01571 in an interval from 0.00650 to 0.02493;
"Population" interval runs from 1,900 to 7,400 people.

2 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.00286 in an interval from 0.00000 to 0.00681;
"Population" interval runs from zero to 2,000 people.

Q53C:

16 "1's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.02286 in an interval from 0.01179 to 0.03393;
"Population" interval runs from 3,500 to 10,100 people.

21 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "2's": 0.03000 in an interval from 0.01736 to 0.04264;
"Population" interval runs from 5,200 to 12,700 people.

11 "3's", hence:

Proportion of "3's": 0.01571 in an interval from 0.00650 to 0.02493;
"Population" interval runs from 1,900 to 7,400 people.

1 "4's", hence:

Proportion of "4's": 0.00143 in an interval from 0.00000 to 0.00423;
"Population" interval runs from zero to 1,200 people.

Q54A:

700 responses - 542 "1's" and 158 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.77429, in an interval from 0.74332 to 0.80526;
"Population" interval runs from 222,900 to 241,500 people.

Proportion of "2's": 0.22571, in an interval from 0.19474 to 0.25668.
"Population" interval runs from 58,400 to 77,000 people.

Q54B:

700 responses - 446 "1's" and 254 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.63714, in an interval from 0.60152 to 0.67276;
"Population" interval runs from 180,400 to 201,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.36286, in an interval from 0.32724 to 0.39848.
"Population" interval runs from 98,100 to 119,500 people.

Q54C:

700 responses - 584 "1's" and 116 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.83429, in an interval from 0.80674 to 0.86183;
"Population" interval runs from 242,000 to 258,500 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.16571, in an interval from 0.13817 to 0.19326.
"Population" interval runs from 41,400 to 57,900 people.

Q54D:

700 responses - 309 "1's" and 391 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.44143, in an interval from 0.40464 to 0.47821;
"Population" interval runs from 121,300 to 143,400 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.55857, in an interval from 0.52179 to 0.59536.
"Population" interval runs from 156,500 to 178,600 people.

Q54E:

700 responses - 581 "1's" and 119 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.83000, in an interval from 0.80217 to 0.85783;
"Population" interval runs from 240,600 to 257,300 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.17000, in an interval from 0.14217 to 0.19783.
"Population" interval runs from 42,600 to 59,300 people.

Q54F:

700 responses - 586 "1's" and 114 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.83714, in an interval from 0.80979 to 0.86450;
"Population" interval runs from 242,900 to 259,300 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.16286, in an interval from 0.13550 to 0.19021.
"Population" interval runs from 40,600 to 57,000 people.

Q54G:

700 responses - 550 "1's" and 150 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.78571, in an interval from 0.75532 to 0.81611;
"Population" interval runs from 226,500 to 244,800 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.21429, in an interval from 0.18389 to 0.24468.
"Population" interval runs from 55,100 to 73,400 people.

Q54H:

700 responses - 538 "1's" and 162 "2's", hence:
Proportion of "1's": 0.76857, in an interval from 0.73733 to 0.79981;
"Population" interval runs from 221,100 to 239,900 people.
Proportion of "2's": 0.23143, in an interval from 0.20019 to 0.26267.
"Population" interval runs from 60,000 to 78,800 people.

Q54I:

700 responses - 465 "1's" and 235 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.66429, in an interval from 0.62930 to 0.69927;

"Population" interval runs from 188,700 to 209,700 people.

Proportion of "2's": 0.33571, in an interval from 0.30073 to 0.37070.

"Population" interval runs from 90,200 to 111,200 people.

Q54J:

700 responses - 408 "1's" and 292 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.58286, in an interval from 0.54633 to 0.61939;

"Population" interval runs from 163,800 to 185,800 people.

Proportion of "2's": 0.41714, in an interval from 0.38061 to 0.45367.

"Population" interval runs from 114,100 to 136,100 people.

Q54K:

700 responses - 303 "1's" and 397 "2's", hence:

Proportion of "1's": 0.43286, in an interval from 0.39615 to 0.46956;

"Population" interval runs from 118,800 to 140,800 people.

Proportion of "2's": 0.56714, in an interval from 0.53044 to 0.60385.

"Population" interval runs from 159,100 to 181,100 people.

APPENDIX 7: TABLE OF FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTIONS

Q1 LEVEL OF EDUCATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
LECTURER OR PROFESSOR	1	28	4.0	4.0	4.0
DEGREE STUDENT	2	562	79.5	79.6	78.6
INTERMEDIATE STUDENT	3	1	0.1	0.1	78.7
	9	9	1.3	1.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q2 ENGLISH LEARNT SINCE

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
PRIMARY SCHOOL	1	282	40.3	40.3	40.3
SECONDARY SCHOOL	2	410	58.6	58.6	79.9
	9	8	1.1	1.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q3 MONOLING. ENG. DICT. OWNED

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	647	92.4	92.4	92.4
NO	2	37	5.3	5.3	97.7
	9	16	2.3	2.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q4 MONOLING. ENG. DICTS. KNOWN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	125	17.9	17.9	17.9
	2	141	20.1	20.2	38.2
	3	39	5.6	5.6	50.9
	4	55	7.9	7.9	58.8
	5	17	2.4	2.4	61.0
	6	11	1.6	1.6	62.8
	7	3	0.4	0.4	63.0
	8	1	0.1	0.1	63.4
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	255	36.4	36.6	100.0
OUT OF RANGE		0	0.4	MISSING	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5A OXFORD ADVANCED L.D.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	203	29.0	29.0	29.0
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	497	70.9	70.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5B COLLINS ENGLISH L.D.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	99	14.1	14.1	14.1
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	601	85.9	85.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5C CHAMBERS UNIVERSAL L.D.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	37	5.3	5.3	5.3
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	663	94.7	94.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5D LONGMANS D. OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	62	8.9	8.9	8.9
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	638	91.1	91.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5E CONCISE OXFORD D.		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	255	36.4	36.4	36.4
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	445	63.6	63.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5F OXFORD ILLUSTRATED D.		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	74	10.6	10.6	10.6
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	626	89.4	89.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5G OXFORD AMERICAN D.		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	50	7.1	7.1	7.1
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	650	92.9	92.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5H CHAMBERS 20TH-CENTURY D.		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	78	11.1	11.1	11.1
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	622	88.9	88.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5I COLLINS ENGLISH D.		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	55	7.9	7.9	7.9
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	645	92.1	92.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5J WEBSTERS 3RD NEW INTERNATIONAL D.		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	16	2.3	2.3	2.3
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	684	97.7	97.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5K WEBSTERS NEW COLLEGIATE D.		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	21	3.0	3.0	3.0
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	679	97.0	97.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5L AMERICAN HERITAGE D.		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	12	1.7	1.7	1.7
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	688	98.3	98.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q5M OTHERS		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	21	3.0	3.0	3.0
NO, OR UNKNOWN	9	679	97.0	97.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q6 START OF DICTIONARY USE		ABSOLUTE	RELATIVE	ADJUSTED	CUMULATIVE
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	FREQUENCY	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
AT SCHOOL	1	333	47.6	47.6	47.6
AT COLLEGE	2	330	47.1	47.1	94.7
	9	37	5.3	5.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q7A STIMULUS FROM TEACHER

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
TEACHER	1	474	67.7	67.7	67.7
UNKNOWN	9	226	32.3	32.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q7B STIMULUS FROM PARENTS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
PARENTS	1	316	45.1	45.1	45.1
UNKNOWN	9	384	54.9	54.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q7C STIMULUS FROM FRIENDS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
FRIENDS	1	50	7.1	7.1	7.1
UNKNOWN	9	650	92.9	92.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q7D STIMULUS FROM FELLOW STUDENTS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
FELLOW STUDENTS	1	44	6.3	6.3	6.3
UNKNOWN	9	656	93.7	93.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q8A D'S. RECOMMENDED BY SCHOOL

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
SCHOOL	1	105	15.0	15.0	15.0
	9	595	85.0	85.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q8B D'S. RECOMMENDED BY COLLEGE

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
COLLEGE	1	197	28.1	28.1	28.1
	9	503	71.9	71.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q9A GUIDANCE ON PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	125	17.9	17.9	17.9
NO	2	436	62.3	62.3	80.1
	9	139	19.9	19.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q9B GUIDANCE ON STRESS PLACEMENT

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	186	26.6	26.6	26.6
NO	2	381	54.4	54.4	81.0
	9	133	19.0	19.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q9C GUIDANCE ON FINDING GRAM. INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	311	44.4	44.4	44.4
NO	2	286	40.9	40.9	85.3
	9	103	14.7	14.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q9D GUIDANCE ON FINDING DIFFERENT MEANINGS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	442	63.1	63.1	63.1
NO	2	220	31.4	31.4	94.6
	9	38	5.4	5.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q9E GUIDANCE ON FINDING STYLISTIC INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	86	12.3	12.3	12.3
NO	2	431	61.6	61.6	73.9
	9	183	26.1	26.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q9F OTHER GUIDANCE

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	26	3.7	3.7	3.7
NO	2	137	19.6	19.6	23.3
	9	537	76.7	76.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q10 D. EXERCISES SET BY <SCHOOL><COLLEGE>

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	216	30.9	30.9	30.9
NO	2	448	64.0	64.0	94.9
	9	36	5.1	5.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q11 MOST AUTHENTIC ANSWERS SOUGHT FROM

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
TEACHER	1	125	18.0	18.0	18.0
DICTIONARY	2	523	74.7	74.7	92.7
	9	51	7.3	7.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q12A CLUES ON ARRANGEMENT OF ENTRIES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	52	7.4	7.4	7.4
FREQUENTLY	2	109	15.6	15.6	23.0
PERIODICALLY	3	74	10.6	10.6	33.6
OCCASIONALLY	4	192	27.4	27.4	61.0
NEVER	5	194	27.7	27.7	88.7
	9	79	11.3	11.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q12B CLUES ON GRAMMATICAL LABELS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	20	2.9	2.9	2.9
FREQUENTLY	2	98	14.0	14.0	16.9
PERIODICALLY	3	113	16.1	16.1	33.0
OCCASIONALLY	4	295	42.1	42.1	75.1
NEVER	5	111	15.9	15.9	91.0
	9	63	9.0	9.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q12C CLUES ON PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	24	3.4	3.4	3.4
FREQUENTLY	2	74	10.6	10.6	14.0
PERIODICALLY	3	80	11.4	11.4	25.4
OCCASIONALLY	4	225	32.1	32.1	57.6
NEVER	5	216	30.9	30.9	88.4
	9	81	11.6	11.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q120 CLUES ON ABBREVIATIONS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	35	5.0	5.0	5.0
FREQUENTLY	2	111	15.9	15.9	20.9
PERIODICALLY	3	117	16.7	16.7	37.6
OCCASIONALLY	4	336	48.0	48.0	85.6
NEVER	5	75	10.7	10.7	96.3
	9	26	3.7	3.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q12E OTHER CLUES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	9	1.3	1.3	1.3
FREQUENTLY	2	20	2.9	2.9	4.1
PERIODICALLY	3	22	3.1	3.1	7.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	22	3.1	3.1	10.4
NEVER	5	76	10.9	10.9	21.3
	9	551	78.7	78.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q13 MEMORISATION OF SYMBOLS ETC.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	29	4.1	4.1	4.1
FREQUENTLY	2	116	16.6	16.6	20.7
PERIODICALLY	3	128	18.3	18.3	39.0
OCCASIONALLY	4	296	42.3	42.3	81.3
NEVER	5	118	16.9	16.9	98.1
	9	13	1.9	1.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q14 PLACE OF MOST FREQUENT D. CONSULTATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
AT HOME	1	641	91.6	91.6	91.6
AT COLLEGE	2	3	0.4	0.4	92.0
IN A LIBRARY	3	5	0.7	0.7	92.7
	9	50	7.1	7.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q15A 1ST NEEDS: WORD MEANING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	696	99.4	99.4	99.4
	9	4	0.6	0.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q15B 1ST NEEDS: GRAMMATICAL INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	299	42.7	42.7	42.7
	9	401	57.3	57.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q15C 1ST NEEDS: SPELLING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	595	85.0	85.0	85.0
	9	105	15.0	15.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q15D 1ST NEEDS: PRONUNCIATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	304	43.4	43.4	43.4
	9	396	56.6	56.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q15E 1ST NEEDS: SENTENCE EXAMPLES					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	281	40.1	40.1	40.1
	9	419	59.9	59.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q15F 1ST NEEDS: IDIOMS & PHRASES					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	170	24.3	24.3	24.3
	9	530	75.7	75.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q15G 1ST NEEDS: OTHER					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	28	4.0	4.0	4.0
	9	672	96.0	96.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q16A PURCHASE: PRONUNCIATION KEY					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	521	74.4	74.4	74.4
	9	179	25.6	25.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q16B PURCHASE: GRAMMATICAL INFO.					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	527	75.3	75.3	75.3
	9	173	24.7	24.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q16C PURCHASE: IDIOMS & PHRASES					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	449	64.1	64.1	64.1
	9	251	35.9	35.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q16D PURCHASE: SENTENCE EXAMPLES					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	578	82.6	82.6	82.6
	9	122	17.4	17.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q16E PURCHASE: CURRENT COLLOQUIALISMS					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	268	38.3	38.3	38.3
	9	432	61.7	61.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q16F PURCHASE: OTHER CONSIDERATIONS					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	56	8.0	8.0	8.0
	9	644	92.0	92.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q17 NO PERSONAL D.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
OTHER EXPLANATORY BO	1	21	3.0	3.0	3.0
PRIVATE COACHING	2	10	1.4	1.4	4.4
CLASSROOM TEACHING A	3	18	2.6	2.6	7.0
FAMILY HELP	4	23	3.3	3.3	10.3
	9	628	89.7	89.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q18 MORE THAN 1 D. USED SIMULTANEOUSLY

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	463	66.1	66.1	66.1
NO	2	222	31.7	31.7	97.9
	9	15	2.1	2.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q19A SPECIALISED D'S.: SYNONYMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	131	18.7	18.7	18.7
	9	569	81.3	81.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q19B SPECIALISED D'S.: TECHNICAL TERMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	79	11.3	11.3	11.3
NO	2	1	0.1	0.1	11.4
	9	620	88.6	88.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q19C SPECIALISED D'S.: SLANG

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	39	5.6	5.6	5.6
	9	661	94.4	94.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q19D SPECIALISED D'S.: IDIOMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	157	22.4	22.4	22.4
	9	543	77.6	77.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q19E SPECIALISED D'S.: ENCYCLOPAEDIC INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	134	19.1	19.1	19.1
	9	566	80.9	80.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q19F SPECIALISED D'S.: PRONUNCIATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	69	9.9	9.9	9.9
	9	631	90.1	90.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q19G SPECIALISED D'S.: OTHER USES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	17	2.4	2.4	2.4
	9	683	97.6	97.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q20 USE OF SPECIALISED D'S.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	484	69.1	69.1	69.1
NO	2	176	25.1	25.1	94.3
	9	40	5.7	5.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q21 LEISURE READING OF D.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	49	7.0	7.0	7.0
FREQUENTLY	2	160	22.9	22.9	29.9
PERIODICALLY	3	152	21.7	21.7	51.6
OCCASIONALLY	4	204	29.1	29.1	80.7
NEVER	5	133	19.0	19.0	99.7
	9	2	0.3	0.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q22 USE OF MONOLING. ENGLISH D.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	117	16.7	16.7	16.7
FREQUENTLY	2	359	51.3	51.3	68.0
PERIODICALLY	3	190	27.1	27.1	95.1
OCCASIONALLY	4	27	3.9	3.9	99.0
NEVER	5	4	0.6	0.6	99.6
	9	3	0.4	0.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q23 USE OF BILING. <ENG. TO URDU> D.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	136	19.4	19.4	19.4
FREQUENTLY	2	145	20.7	20.7	40.1
PERIODICALLY	3	157	22.4	22.4	62.6
OCCASIONALLY	4	132	18.9	18.9	81.4
NEVER	5	118	16.9	16.9	98.3
	9	12	1.7	1.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q24 PREFERENCE BETWEEN <MONO><BI>LING. D'S.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
MONOLINGUAL	1	452	64.6	64.6	64.6
BILINGUAL	2	233	33.3	33.3	97.9
	9	15	2.1	2.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q25 USE OF BILING. <URDU TO ENG.> D.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	533	76.1	76.1	76.1
NO	2	151	21.6	21.6	97.7
	9	16	2.3	2.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q26A BIL.D'S. BETTER: WORD MEANING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	489	69.9	69.9	69.9
	9	211	30.1	30.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q26B BIL.D'S. BETTER: GRAMMATICAL INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	59	8.4	8.4	8.4
	9	641	91.6	91.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q26C BIL.D'S. BETTER: STYLISTIC INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	23	3.3	3.3	3.3
	9	677	96.7	96.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q26D BIL.D'S. BETTER: SYNONYMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	87	12.4	12.4	12.4
	9	613	87.6	87.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q26E BIL.D'S. BETTER: IDIOMS & PHRASES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	116	16.6	16.6	16.6
	9	584	83.4	83.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q26F BIL.D'S. BETTER: OTHER REASONS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	18	2.6	2.6	2.6
	9	682	97.4	97.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q27A MON.D. USE: E-U TRANSLATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	91	13.0	13.0	13.0
FREQUENTLY	2	149	21.3	21.3	34.3
PERIODICALLY	3	97	13.9	13.9	48.1
OCCASIONALLY	4	89	12.7	12.7	60.9
NEVER	5	100	14.3	14.3	75.1
	9	174	24.9	24.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q27B MON.D. USE: U-E TRANSLATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	60	8.6	8.6	8.6
FREQUENTLY	2	125	17.9	17.9	26.4
PERIODICALLY	3	84	12.0	12.0	38.4
OCCASIONALLY	4	77	11.0	11.0	49.4
NEVER	5	120	17.1	17.1	66.6
	9	234	33.4	33.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q27C MON.D. USE: READING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	149	21.3	21.3	21.3
FREQUENTLY	2	373	53.3	53.3	74.6
PERIODICALLY	3	96	13.7	13.7	88.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	25	3.6	3.6	91.9
NEVER	5	39	5.6	5.6	97.4
	9	18	2.6	2.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q27D MON.D. USE: WRITING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	66	9.4	9.4	9.4
FREQUENTLY	2	200	28.6	28.6	38.0
PERIODICALLY	3	300	42.9	42.9	80.9
OCCASIONALLY	4	45	6.4	6.4	87.3
NEVER	5	42	6.0	6.0	93.3
	9	47	6.7	6.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q27E MON.D. USE: LISTENING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	38	5.4	5.4	5.4
FREQUENTLY	2	61	8.7	8.7	14.1
PERIODICALLY	3	59	8.4	8.4	22.6
OCCASIONALLY	4	133	19.0	19.0	41.6
NEVER	5	148	21.1	21.1	62.7
	9	261	37.3	37.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q27F MON D. USE: SPEAKING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	62	8.9	8.9	8.9
FREQUENTLY	2	93	13.3	13.3	22.1
PERIODICALLY	3	188	26.9	26.9	49.0
OCCASIONALLY	4	178	25.4	25.4	74.4
NEVER	5	77	11.0	11.0	85.4
	9	102	14.6	14.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q27G MON.D. USE: OTHER USES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	8	1.1	1.1	1.1
FREQUENTLY	2	19	2.7	2.7	3.9
PERIODICALLY	3	17	2.4	2.4	6.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	21	3.0	3.0	9.3
NEVER	5	74	10.6	10.6	19.9
	9	561	80.1	80.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q28A INFO. SOUGHT: WORD MEANINGS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	249	35.6	35.6	35.6
FREQUENTLY	2	274	39.1	39.1	74.7
PERIODICALLY	3	162	23.1	23.1	97.9
OCCASIONALLY	4	9	1.3	1.3	99.1
NEVER	5	1	0.1	0.1	99.3
	9	5	0.7	0.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q28B INFO. SOUGHT: WORD ORIGINS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	19	2.7	2.7	2.7
FREQUENTLY	2	40	5.7	5.7	8.4
PERIODICALLY	3	58	8.3	8.3	16.7
OCCASIONALLY	4	77	11.0	11.0	27.7
NEVER	5	269	38.4	38.4	66.1
	9	237	33.9	33.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q28C INFO. SOUGHT: SPELLINGS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	168	24.0	24.0	24.0
FREQUENTLY	2	237	33.9	33.9	57.9
PERIODICALLY	3	193	26.1	26.1	84.0
OCCASIONALLY	4	90	12.9	12.9	96.9
NEVER	5	4	0.6	0.6	97.4
	9	18	2.6	2.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q28D INFO. SOUGHT: PRONUNCIATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	103	14.7	14.7	14.7
FREQUENTLY	2	141	20.1	20.1	34.9
PERIODICALLY	3	113	16.1	16.1	51.0
OCCASIONALLY	4	229	32.7	32.7	83.7
NEVER	5	59	8.4	8.4	92.1
	9	55	7.9	7.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q28E INFO. SOUGHT: GRAMMATICAL FEATURES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	40	5.7	5.7	5.7
FREQUENTLY	2	63	9.0	9.0	14.7
PERIODICALLY	3	351	50.1	50.1	64.9
OCCASIONALLY	4	136	19.4	19.4	84.3
NEVER	5	60	8.6	8.6	92.9
	9	50	7.1	7.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q28F INFO. SOUGHT: SYNONYMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	21	3.0	3.0	3.0
FREQUENTLY	2	43	6.1	6.1	9.1
PERIODICALLY	3	64	9.1	9.1	18.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	75	10.7	10.7	29.0
NEVER	5	236	33.7	33.7	62.7
	9	261	37.3	37.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q28G INFO. SOUGHT: SENTENCE EXAMPLES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	64	9.1	9.1	9.1
FREQUENTLY	2	185	26.4	26.4	35.6
PERIODICALLY	3	317	45.3	45.3	80.9
OCCASIONALLY	4	69	9.9	9.9	90.7
NEVER	5	42	6.0	6.0	96.7
	9	23	3.3	3.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q28H INFO. SOUGHT: TERMINOLOGY

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	17	2.4	2.4	2.4
FREQUENTLY	2	46	6.6	6.6	9.0
PERIODICALLY	3	57	8.1	8.1	17.1
OCCASIONALLY	4	271	38.7	38.7	55.9
NEVER	5	135	19.3	19.3	75.1
	9	174	24.9	24.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q28I INFO. SOUGHT: OTHER DETAILS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	8	1.1	1.1	1.1
FREQUENTLY	2	17	2.4	2.4	3.6
PERIODICALLY	3	17	2.4	2.4	6.0
OCCASIONALLY	4	22	3.1	3.1	9.1
NEVER	5	78	11.1	11.1	20.3
	9	558	79.7	79.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q29A WORDS SOUGHT: ENCYCLOPAEDIC

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	26	3.7	3.7	3.7
FREQUENTLY	2	62	8.9	8.9	12.6
PERIODICALLY	3	176	25.1	25.1	37.7
OCCASIONALLY	4	304	43.4	43.4	81.1
NEVER	5	95	13.6	13.6	94.7
	9	37	5.3	5.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q29B WORDS SOUGHT: CULTURE-SPECIFIC

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	25	3.6	3.6	3.6
FREQUENTLY	2	38	5.4	5.4	9.0
PERIODICALLY	3	185	26.4	26.4	35.4
OCCASIONALLY	4	312	44.6	44.6	80.0
NEVER	5	97	13.9	13.9	93.9
	9	43	6.1	6.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q29C WORDS SOUGHT: "CONTENT WORDS"

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	151	21.6	21.6	21.6
FREQUENTLY	2	328	46.9	46.9	68.4
PERIODICALLY	3	138	19.7	19.7	88.1
OCCASIONALLY	4	65	9.3	9.3	97.4
NEVER	5	15	2.1	2.1	99.6
	9	3	0.4	0.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q29D WORDS SOUGHT: "FUNCTION WORDS"

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	37	5.3	5.3	5.3
FREQUENTLY	2	113	16.1	16.1	21.4
PERIODICALLY	3	199	28.4	28.4	49.9
OCCASIONALLY	4	256	36.6	36.6	86.4
NEVER	5	63	9.0	9.0	95.4
	9	32	4.6	4.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q29E WORDS SOUGHT: IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	33	4.7	4.7	4.7
FREQUENTLY	2	95	13.6	13.6	18.3
PERIODICALLY	3	188	26.9	26.9	45.1
OCCASIONALLY	4	305	43.6	43.6	88.7
NEVER	5	53	7.6	7.6	96.3
	9	26	3.7	3.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q29F WORDS SOUGHT: SLANG

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	11	1.6	1.6	1.6
FREQUENTLY	2	37	5.3	5.3	6.9
PERIODICALLY	3	77	11.0	11.0	17.9
OCCASIONALLY	4	153	21.9	21.9	39.7
NEVER	5	261	37.3	37.3	77.0
	9	161	23.0	23.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q29G WORDS SOUGHT: TECHNICAL TERMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	31	4.4	4.4	4.4
FREQUENTLY	2	59	8.4	8.4	12.9
PERIODICALLY	3	86	12.3	12.3	25.1
OCCASIONALLY	4	293	41.9	41.9	67.0
NEVER	5	138	19.7	19.7	86.7
	9	93	13.3	13.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q29H WORDS SOUGHT: LITERARY TERMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	55	7.9	7.9	7.9
FREQUENTLY	2	93	13.3	13.3	21.1
PERIODICALLY	3	149	21.3	21.3	42.4
OCCASIONALLY	4	314	44.9	44.9	87.3
NEVER	5	61	8.7	8.7	96.0
	9	28	4.0	4.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q29I WORDS SOUGHT: OTHER TYPES OF WORD

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	14	2.0	2.0	2.0
FREQUENTLY	2	16	2.3	2.3	4.3
PERIODICALLY	3	14	2.0	2.0	6.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	27	3.9	3.9	10.1
NEVER	5	51	7.3	7.3	17.4
	9	578	82.6	82.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q30A APPENDIX USE: GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	20	2.9	2.9	2.9
FREQUENTLY	2	49	7.0	7.0	9.9
PERIODICALLY	3	98	14.0	14.0	23.9
OCCASIONALLY	4	199	28.4	28.4	52.3
NEVER	5	183	26.1	26.1	78.4
	9	151	21.6	21.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q30B APPENDIX USE: NUMERICAL EXPRESSIONS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	16	2.3	2.3	2.3
FREQUENTLY	2	45	6.4	6.4	8.7
PERIODICALLY	3	55	7.9	7.9	16.6
OCCASIONALLY	4	160	22.9	22.9	39.4
NEVER	5	237	33.9	33.9	73.3
	9	187	26.7	26.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q30C APPENDIX USE: MUSICAL NOTATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	5	0.7	0.7	0.7
FREQUENTLY	2	21	3.0	3.0	3.7
PERIODICALLY	3	38	5.4	5.4	9.1
OCCASIONALLY	4	55	7.9	7.9	17.0
NEVER	5	362	51.7	51.7	68.7
	9	219	31.3	31.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q30D APPENDIX USE: WEIGHTS & MEASURES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	16	2.3	2.3	2.3
FREQUENTLY	2	39	5.6	5.6	7.9
PERIODICALLY	3	80	11.4	11.4	19.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	210	30.0	30.0	49.3
NEVER	5	183	26.1	26.1	75.4
	9	172	24.6	24.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q30E APPENDIX USE: ABBREVIATIONS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	51	7.3	7.3	7.3
FREQUENTLY	2	124	17.7	17.7	25.0
PERIODICALLY	3	154	22.0	22.0	47.0
OCCASIONALLY	4	211	30.1	30.1	77.1
NEVER	5	91	13.0	13.0	90.1
	9	69	9.9	9.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q30F APPENDIX USE: PREFIXES & SUFFIXES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	15	2.1	2.1	2.1
FREQUENTLY	2	49	7.0	7.0	9.1
PERIODICALLY	3	134	19.1	19.1	28.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	213	30.4	30.4	58.7
NEVER	5	166	23.7	23.7	82.4
	9	123	17.6	17.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q30G APPENDIX USE: PERSONAL NAMES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	14	2.0	2.0	2.0
FREQUENTLY	2	37	5.3	5.3	7.3
PERIODICALLY	3	90	12.9	12.9	20.1
OCCASIONALLY	4	209	29.9	29.9	50.0
NEVER	5	208	29.7	29.7	79.7
	9	142	20.3	20.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q30H APPENDIX USE: IRREGULAR GRAMMAR

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	17	2.4	2.4	2.4
FREQUENTLY	2	58	8.3	8.3	10.7
PERIODICALLY	3	153	21.9	21.9	32.6
OCCASIONALLY	4	251	35.9	35.9	68.4
NEVER	5	143	20.4	20.4	88.9
	9	78	11.1	11.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q30I APPENDIX USE: OTHER TYPES OF INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	6	0.9	0.9	0.9
FREQUENTLY	2	16	2.3	2.3	3.1
PERIODICALLY	3	14	2.0	2.0	5.1
OCCASIONALLY	4	36	5.1	5.1	10.3
NEVER	5	88	12.6	12.6	22.9
	9	540	77.1	77.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q31 USAGE EXAMPLES FOUND HELPFUL

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	72	10.3	10.3	10.3
FREQUENTLY	2	229	32.7	32.7	43.0
PERIODICALLY	3	310	44.3	44.3	87.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	70	10.0	10.0	97.3
NEVER	5	15	2.1	2.1	99.4
	9	4	0.6	0.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q32 ENOUGH EXAMPLES GIVEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	372	53.1	53.1	53.1
NO	2	310	44.3	44.3	97.4
	9	18	2.6	2.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q33 ADEQUATE DEFINITIONS GIVEN

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
ADEQUATE	1	380	54.3	54.3	54.3
TOO LONG	2	43	6.1	6.1	60.4
TOO SHORT	3	258	36.9	36.9	97.3
	9	19	2.7	2.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34A INFO. EXPECTED: ILLUSTRATIONS ETC.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	573	81.9	81.9	81.9
NO	2	93	13.3	13.3	95.1
	9	34	4.9	4.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34B INFO. EXPECTED: SENTENCE MEANINGS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	654	93.4	93.4	93.4
NO	2	31	4.4	4.4	97.9
	9	15	2.1	2.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34C INFO. EXPECTED: HEADWORD SYNONYMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	333	47.6	47.6	47.6
NO	2	244	34.9	34.9	82.4
	9	123	17.6	17.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34D INFO. EXPECTED: HEADWORD ANTONYMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	289	41.3	41.3	41.3
NO	2	276	39.4	39.4	80.7
	9	135	19.3	19.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34E INFO. EXPECTED: PROPER NAMES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	398	56.9	56.9	56.9
NO	2	197	28.1	28.1	85.0
	9	105	15.0	15.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34F INFO. EXPECTED: SLANG WORDS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	302	43.1	43.1	43.1
NO	2	282	40.3	40.3	83.4
	9	116	16.6	16.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34G INFO. EXPECTED: ENCYCLOPAEDIC

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	408	58.3	58.3	58.3
NO	2	200	28.6	28.6	86.9
	9	92	13.1	13.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34H INFO. EXPECTED: LITERARY TERMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	581	83.0	83.0	83.0
NO	2	74	10.6	10.6	93.6
	9	45	6.4	6.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34I INFO. EXPECTED: AMERICAN ENGLISH USAGE

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	542	77.4	77.4	77.4
NO	2	117	16.7	16.7	94.1
	9	41	5.9	5.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34J INFO. EXPECTED: STYLISTIC LABELLING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	608	86.9	86.9	86.9
NO	2	74	10.6	10.6	97.4
	9	18	2.6	2.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34K INFO. EXPECTED: SUBJECT AREA

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	563	80.4	80.4	80.4
NO	2	90	12.9	12.9	93.3
	9	47	6.7	6.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34L INFO. EXPECTED: SWEAR WORDS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	438	62.6	62.6	62.6
NO	2	176	25.1	25.1	87.7
	9	86	12.3	12.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34M INFO. EXPECTED: FOREIGN WORDS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	283	40.4	40.4	40.4
NO	2	312	44.6	44.6	85.0
	9	105	15.0	15.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34N INFO. EXPECTED: AMERICAN SPELLINGS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	529	75.6	75.6	75.6
NO	2	139	19.9	19.9	95.4
	9	32	4.6	4.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34O INFO. EXPECTED: BASIC WORDS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	456	65.1	65.1	65.1
NO	2	188	26.9	26.9	92.0
	9	56	8.0	8.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34P INFO. EXPECTED: VERBS, INC. PREPOSITIONS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	630	90.0	90.0	90.0
NO	2	48	6.9	6.9	96.9
	9	22	3.1	3.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q34Q INFO. EXPECTED: OTHER ITEMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	109	15.6	15.6	15.6
NO	2	57	8.1	8.1	23.7
	9	534	76.3	76.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q35 ENTIRE D. ENTRY READ

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	516	73.7	73.7	73.7
NO	2	172	24.6	24.6	98.3
	9	12	1.7	1.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q36 SYNONYM DIFFERENTIATION CLEAR

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	433	61.9	61.9	61.9
NO	2	251	35.9	35.9	97.7
	9	16	2.3	2.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q37A GRAM. INFO. SOUGHT: NOUN, ADJ., ADV.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	608	86.9	86.9	86.9
NO	2	85	12.1	12.1	99.0
	9	7	1.0	1.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q37B GRAM. INFO. SOUGHT: DATA FOUND

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	508	72.6	72.6	72.6
NO	2	161	23.0	23.0	95.6
	9	31	4.4	4.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q37C GRAM. INFO. SOUGHT: MORE INFO. NEEDED

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	535	76.4	76.4	76.4
NO	2	142	20.3	20.3	96.7
	9	23	3.3	3.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q38A WHICH HEADWORD <IN A.> CONSULTED

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
"GET"	1	262	37.4	37.4	37.4
"RID"	2	429	61.3	61.3	98.7
	9	9	1.3	1.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q38B WHICH HEADWORD <IN B.> CONSULTED

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
"TAKEN"	1	254	36.3	36.3	36.3
"ABACK"	2	429	61.3	61.3	97.6
	9	17	2.4	2.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q39 WORD PLUS COLLOCATES REQUIRED

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	592	84.6	84.6	84.6
NO	2	106	15.1	15.1	99.7
	9	2	0.3	0.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q40A WHICH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND <A.> CONSULTED

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
"MAGNETIC"	1	559	79.9	79.9	79.9
"TAPE"	2	134	19.1	19.1	99.0
	9	7	1.0	1.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q40B WHICH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND <B.> CONSULTED

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
"FALSE"	1	225	32.1	32.1	32.1
"ALARM"	2	461	65.9	65.9	98.0
	9	14	2.0	2.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q40C WHICH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND <C.> CONSULTED

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
"BOIL"	1	657	93.9	93.9	93.9
"DOWN"	2	31	4.4	4.4	98.3
	9	12	1.7	1.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q41 SATISFIED WITH PRONUNCIATION SYMBOLS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	352	50.3	50.3	50.3
NO	2	336	48.0	48.0	98.3
	9	12	1.7	1.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q42 PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION SYSTEMS COMPARED

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	1	0.1	0.1	0.1
	9	698	99.7	99.9	100.0
OUT OF RANGE		1	0.1	MISSING	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q43 AMERICAN PRONUNCIATION TO BE INCLUDED					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	307	43.9	43.9	43.9
NO	2	377	53.9	53.9	97.7
	9	16	2.3	2.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q44 STRESS MARKING HELPFUL					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	569	81.3	81.3	81.3
NO	2	119	17.0	17.0	98.3
	9	12	1.7	1.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q45 SYLLABIC DIVISION TO BE SHOWN					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	566	80.9	80.9	80.9
NO	2	130	18.6	18.6	99.4
	9	4	0.6	0.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q46 UNIFORM PHONETIC SYMBOLS NEEDED					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	617	88.1	88.1	88.1
NO	2	80	11.4	11.4	99.6
	9	3	0.4	0.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q47 SIZE OF D. PREFERRED					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
COMPREHENSIVE	1	49	7.0	7.0	7.0
DESK	2	535	76.4	76.4	83.4
POCKET	3	23	3.3	3.3	96.7
	9	23	3.3	3.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q48A DISSATISFACTION: GRAMMATICAL INFO.					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	26	3.7	3.7	3.7
FREQUENTLY	2	59	8.4	8.4	12.1
PERIODICALLY	3	171	24.4	24.4	36.6
OCCASIONALLY	4	312	44.6	44.6	81.1
NEVER	5	99	14.1	14.1	95.3
	9	33	4.7	4.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q48B DISSATISFACTION: WORD MEANINGS					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	53	7.6	7.6	7.6
FREQUENTLY	2	93	13.3	13.3	20.9
PERIODICALLY	3	210	30.0	30.0	50.9
OCCASIONALLY	4	238	34.0	34.0	84.9
NEVER	5	92	13.1	13.1	98.0
	9	14	2.0	2.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q48C DISSATISFACTION: SENTENCE EXAMPLES					
CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	34	4.9	4.9	4.9
FREQUENTLY	2	112	16.0	16.0	20.9
PERIODICALLY	3	231	33.0	33.0	53.9
OCCASIONALLY	4	193	27.6	27.6	81.4
NEVER	5	57	8.1	8.1	91.0
	9	63	9.0	9.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q48D DISSATISFACTION: STYLISTIC INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	13	1.9	1.9	1.9
FREQUENTLY	2	62	8.9	8.9	10.7
PERIODICALLY	3	214	30.6	30.6	41.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	188	26.9	26.9	68.1
NEVER	5	112	16.0	16.0	84.1
	9	111	15.9	15.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q48E DISSATISFACTION: PRONUNCIATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	43	6.1	6.1	6.1
FREQUENTLY	2	61	8.7	8.7	14.9
PERIODICALLY	3	143	20.4	20.4	35.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	197	28.1	28.1	63.4
NEVER	5	94	13.4	13.4	76.9
	9	162	23.1	23.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q48F DISSATISFACTION: OTHER CAUSES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
REGULARLY	1	7	1.0	1.0	1.0
FREQUENTLY	2	11	1.6	1.6	2.6
PERIODICALLY	3	19	2.7	2.7	5.3
OCCASIONALLY	4	25	3.6	3.6	8.9
NEVER	5	70	10.0	10.0	18.9
	9	568	81.1	81.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q49A UNNECESSARY INFO.: ENCYCLOPAEDIC

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	169	24.1	24.1	24.1
	9	531	75.9	75.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q49B UNNECESSARY INFO.: AMERICAN ENGLISH

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	141	20.1	20.1	20.1
	9	559	79.9	79.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q49C UNNECESSARY INFO.: SLANG WORDS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	264	37.7	37.7	37.7
	9	436	62.3	62.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q49D UNNECESSARY INFO.: FOREIGN PHRASES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	313	44.7	44.7	44.7
	9	387	55.3	55.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q49E UNNECESSARY INFO.: SIMPLE "CONTENT WDS."

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	132	18.9	18.9	18.9
	9	568	81.1	81.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q49F UNNECESSARY INFO.: "FUNCTION WORDS"

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	98	14.0	14.0	14.0
	9	602	86.0	86.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q49G UNNECESSARY INFO.: OTHER ITEMS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	40	5.7	5.7	5.7
	9	660	94.3	94.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q50
(THE INFORMATION SOUGHT FOR THIS QUESTION WAS TEXTUAL, AND INVOLVED QUOTING PARTICULAR LEXICAL ITEMS. NO QUANTIFICATION OF THE RESPONSES WAS THEREFORE POSSIBLE.)

Q51A AE & BE D'S: GRAMMATICAL INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	33	4.7	4.7	4.7
	9	667	95.3	95.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q51B AE & BE D'S: PRONUNCIATION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	112	16.0	16.0	16.0
	9	588	84.0	84.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q51C AE & BE D'S: CODES & LABELS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	31	4.4	4.4	4.4
	9	669	95.6	95.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q51D AE & BE D'S: STYLISTIC INFO.

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	28	4.0	4.0	4.0
	9	672	96.0	96.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q51E AE & BE D'S: HEADWORD DEFINITION

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	21	3.0	3.0	3.0
	9	679	97.0	97.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q51F AE & BE D'S: SPELLING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	143	20.4	20.4	20.4
	9	557	79.6	79.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q51G AE & BE D'S: SENTENCE EXAMPLES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	34	4.9	4.9	4.9
	9	666	95.1	95.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q51H AE & BE D'S: IDIOMS & PHRASES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	39	5.6	5.6	5.6
	9	661	94.4	94.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q51I AE & BE D'S: OTHER DIFFERENCES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	9	1.3	1.3	1.3
	9	691	98.7	98.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q52 PREFERENCE FOR 1 D. ABOVE OTHERS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	21	3.0	3.0	3.0
	9	679	97.0	97.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q53A D. TITLE & PUBLISHER <1>

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
EXCELLENT	1	142	20.3	20.3	20.3
GOOD	2	197	28.1	28.1	48.4
AVERAGE	3	29	4.1	4.1	52.6
POOR	4	2	0.3	0.3	52.9
	9	330	47.1	47.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q53B D. TITLE & PUBLISHER <2>

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
EXCELLENT	1	33	4.7	4.7	4.7
GOOD	2	59	8.4	8.4	13.1
AVERAGE	3	11	1.6	1.6	14.7
POOR	4	2	0.3	0.3	15.0
	9	595	85.0	85.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q53C D. TITLE & PUBLISHER <3>

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
EXCELLENT	1	16	2.3	2.3	2.3
GOOD	2	21	3.0	3.0	5.3
AVERAGE	3	11	1.6	1.6	6.9
POOR	4	1	0.1	0.1	7.0
	9	651	93.0	93.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54A D. IMPROVEMENTS: DEFINITIONS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	542	77.4	77.4	77.4
	9	158	22.6	22.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54B D. IMPROVEMENTS: NO. OF ENTRIES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	446	63.7	63.7	63.7
	9	254	36.3	36.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54C D. IMPROVEMENTS: MORE USAGE EXAMPLES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	583	83.3	83.3	83.3
	9	117	16.7	16.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54D D. IMPROVEMENTS: ENTRY CROSS-REFERENCES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	309	44.1	44.1	44.1
	9	391	55.9	55.9	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54E D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRONUNCIATION SYMBOLS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	581	83.0	83.0	83.0
	9	119	17.0	17.0	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54F D. IMPROVEMENTS: GRAMMAR CODES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	586	83.7	83.7	83.7
	9	114	16.3	16.3	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54G D. IMPROVEMENTS: PICTORIAL MATTER

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	549	78.4	78.4	78.4
	5	1	0.1	0.1	78.6
	9	150	21.4	21.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54H D. IMPROVEMENTS: STYLISTIC APTNESS

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	537	76.7	76.7	76.7
	3	1	0.1	0.1	76.9
	9	162	23.1	23.1	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54I D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRINT QUALITY

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	466	66.6	66.6	66.6
	9	234	33.4	33.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54J D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRICE

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	408	58.3	58.3	58.3
	2	1	0.1	0.1	58.4
	9	291	41.6	41.6	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54K D. IMPROVEMENTS: QUALITY OF BINDING

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	303	43.3	43.3	43.3
	9	397	56.7	56.7	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	

Q54L D. IMPROVEMENTS: OTHER FEATURES

CATEGORY LABEL	CODE	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	ADJUSTED FREQUENCY (PERCENT)	CUMULATIVE ADJ FREQ (PERCENT)
YES	1	60	8.6	8.6	8.6
	9	640	91.4	91.4	100.0
TOTAL		700	100.0	100.0	


```

Q5A  OXFORD ADVANCED L.O.
CODE
I
1 ***** ( 338)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 362)
I NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5B  COLLINS ENGLISH L.O.
CODE
I
1 ***** ( 39)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 611)
I NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5C  CHAMBERS UNIVERSAL L.O.
CODE
I
1 **** ( 57)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 643)
I NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5D  LONGMANS D. OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH
CODE
I
1 **** ( 62)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 638)
I NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5E  CONCISE OXFORD D.
CODE
I
1 ***** ( 255)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 445)
I NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5F  OXFORD ILLUSTRATED D.
CODE
I
1 ***** ( 74)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 626)
I NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5G  OXFORD AMERICAN D.
CODE
I
1 **** ( 50)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 650)
I NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

```

```

Q5H  CHAMBERS 20TH-CENTURY D.
CODE
I
1  **** ( 78)
I  YES
I
9  ***** ( 622)
I  NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5I  COLLINS ENGLISH D.
CODE
I
1  **** ( 55)
I  YES
I
9  ***** ( 645)
I  NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5J  WEBSTERS 3RD NEW INTERNATIONAL D.
CODE
I
1  ** ( 16)
I  YES
I
9  ***** ( 684)
I  NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5K  WEBSTERS NEW COLLEGIATE D.
CODE
I
1  ** ( 21)
I  YES
I
9  ***** ( 679)
I  NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5L  AMERICAN HERITAGE D.
CODE
I
1  ** ( 12)
I  YES
I
9  ***** ( 688)
I  NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

Q5M  OTHERS
CODE
I
1  ** ( 21)
I  YES
I
9  ***** ( 679)
I  NO, OR UNKNOWN
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 9)

96  START OF DICTIONARY USE
CODE
I
1  ***** ( 333)
I  AT SCHOOL
I
2  ***** ( 330)
I  AT COLLEGE
I
9  **** ( 37)
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 1)

```

```

Q7A STIMULUS FROM TEACHER
CODE
  1 ***** ( 474)
  I TEACHER
  I
  9 ***** ( 226)
  I UNKNOWN
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

Q78 STIMULUS FROM PARENTS
CODE
  1 ***** ( 316)
  I PARENTS
  I
  9 ***** ( 384)
  I UNKNOWN
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q7C STIMULUS FROM FRIENDS
CODE
  1 **** ( 50)
  I FRIENDS
  I
  9 ***** ( 650)
  I UNKNOWN
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q70 STIMULUS FROM FELLOW STUDENTS
CODE
  1 *** ( 44)
  I FELLOW STUDENTS
  I
  9 ***** ( 656)
  I UNKNOWN
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q8A D'S. RECOMMENDED BY SCHOOL
CODE
  1 ***** ( 105)
  I SCHOOL
  I
  9 ***** ( 595)
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q88 D'S. RECOMMENDED BY COLLEGE
CODE
  1 ***** ( 197)
  I COLLEGE
  I
  9 ***** ( 503)
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q9A GUIDANCE ON PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION
CODE
  1 ***** ( 125)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 436)
  I NO
  I
  9 ***** ( 139)
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

```

```

998  GUIDANCE ON STRESS PLACEMENT
CODE
1 ***** ( 186)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 381)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 133)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

```

```

99C  GUIDANCE ON FINDING GRAM. INFO.
CODE
1 ***** ( 311)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 286)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 103)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

99D  GUIDANCE ON FINDING DIFFERENT MEANINGS
CODE
1 ***** ( 442)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 220)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 38)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

99E  GUIDANCE ON FINDING STYLISTIC INFO.
CODE
1 ***** ( 85)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 431)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 183)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

```

```

99F  OTHER GUIDANCE
CODE
1 ** ( 26)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 137)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 537)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 3)

```

```

Q10  0. EXERCISES SET BY <SCHOOL><COLLEGE>
CODE
1 ***** ( 216)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 448)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 36)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  2)

```

```

Q11  MOST AUTHENTIC ANSWERS SOUGHT FROM
CODE
1 ***** ( 126)
I TEACHER
I
2 ***** ( 523)
I DICTIONARY
I
9 **** ( 51)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800     1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  2)

```

```

Q12A CLUES ON ARRANGEMENT OF ENTRIES
CODE
1 ***** ( 52)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 109)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 74)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 192)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 194)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 79)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      40      80      120      160      200
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  5)

```

```

Q12B CLUES ON GRAMMATICAL LABELS
CODE
1 *** ( 20)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 78)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 113)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 295)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 111)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 63)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  4)

```

Q12C CLUES ON PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

```

CODE
I
1 *** ( 24)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 74)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 80)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 225)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 215)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 81)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

```

Q12D CLUES ON ABBREVIATIONS

```

CODE
I
1 ***** ( 35)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 111)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 117)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 336)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 75)
I NEVER
I
9 **** ( 26)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

```

Q12E OTHER CLUES

```

CODE
I
1 * ( 9)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ** ( 29)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ** ( 22)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ** ( 22)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 75)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 551)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

Q13 MEMORISATION OF SYMBOLS ETC.

```

CODE
1 **** ( 29)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 116)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 128)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 296)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 118)
I NEVER
I
9 ** ( 13)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)
  
```

Q14 PLACE OF MOST FREQUENT O. CONSULTATION

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 641)
I AT HOME
I
2 * ( 3)
I AT COLLEGE
I
3 * ( 6)
I IN A LIBRARY
I
9 **** ( 50)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800     1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)
  
```

Q15A 1ST NEEDS: WORD MEANING

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 696)
I YES
I
9 * ( 4)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800     1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)
  
```

Q15B 1ST NEEDS: GRAMMATICAL INFO.

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 299)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 401)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)
  
```

Q15C 1ST NEEDS: SPELLING

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 696)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 105)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800     1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)
  
```

```

Q15D  1ST NEEDS: PRONUNCIATION
CODE
  1 ***** ( 304)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 396)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  9)

Q15E  1ST NEEDS: SENTENCE EXAMPLES
CODE
  1 ***** ( 281)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 419)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  9)

Q15F  1ST NEEDS: IDIOMS & PHRASES
CODE
  1 ***** ( 170)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 530)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  9)

Q15G  1ST NEEDS: OTHER
CODE
  1 ** ( 28)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 672)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  9)

Q16A  PURCHASE: PRONUNCIATION KEY
CODE
  1 ***** ( 521)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 179)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  1)

Q16B  PURCHASE: GRAMMATICAL INFO.
CODE
  1 ***** ( 527)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 173)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  1)

Q16C  PURCHASE: IDIOMS & PHRASES
CODE
  1 ***** ( 449)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 251)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES  700  MISSING CASES  0  (MODE  1)

```



```

Q16D PURCHASE: SENTENCE EXAMPLES
CODE
1 ***** ( 578)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 122)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

Q16E PURCHASE: CURRENT COLLOQUIALISMS
CODE
1 ***** ( 268)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 432)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

```

Q16F PURCHASE: OTHER CONSIDERATIONS
CODE
1 **** ( 56)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 644)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

```

Q17 NO PERSONAL O.
CODE
1 ** ( 21)
I OTHER EXPLANATORY 80
I
2 ** ( 10)
I PRIVATE COACHING
I
3 ** ( 18)
I CLASSROOM TEACHING A
I
4 ** ( 23)
I FAMILY HELP
I
5 ***** ( 628)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

```

Q18 MORE THAN 1 O. USED SIMULTANEOUSLY
CODE
1 ***** ( 463)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 222)
I NO
I
3 *** ( 15)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

Q19A SPECIALISED O'S.: SYNONYMS
CODE
1 ***** ( 131)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 569)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

```

Q198 SPECIALISED O'S.: TECHNICAL TERMS
CODE
  1 ***** ( 79)
  I YES
  I
  2 * ( 1)
  I NO
  I
  9 ***** ( 620)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q19C SPECIALISED O'S.: SLANG
CODE
  1 *** ( 39)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 661)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q19D SPECIALISED O'S.: IDIOMS
CODE
  1 ***** ( 157)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 543)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q19E SPECIALISED O'S.: ENCYCLOPAEDIC INFO.
CODE
  1 ***** ( 134)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 566)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q19F SPECIALISED O'S.: PRONUNCIATION
CODE
  1 **** ( 69)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 631)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

Q19G SPECIALISED O'S.: OTHER USES
CODE
  1 ** ( 17)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 683)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

```

920 USE OF SPECIALISED D'S.
CODE
1 ***** ( 484)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 176)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 40)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

921 LEISURE READING OF D.
CODE
1 ***** ( 49)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 160)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 152)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 204)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 133)
I NEVER
I
9 * ( 2)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

```

```

922 USE OF MONOLING. ENGLISH D.
CODE
1 ***** ( 117)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 359)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 190)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 27)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 * ( 4)
I NEVER
I
9 * ( 3)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

```

```

923 USE OF BILING. (ENGL. TO URDU) D.
CODE
1 ***** ( 136)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 145)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 157)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 132)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 118)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 12)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 40 80 120 160 200
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 3)

```

Q24 PREFERENCE BETWEEN <MONO><BI>LING. D'S.

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 452)
  I MONOLINGUAL
  I
2 ***** ( 233)
  I BILINGUAL
  I
? *** ( 15)
  I
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100     200     300     400     500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700   MISSING CASES 0   (MODE 1)

```

Q25 USE OF BILING. <URDU TO ENG.> D.

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 533)
  I YES
  I
2 ***** ( 151)
  I NO
  I
? ** ( 16)
  I
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200     400     600     800     1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700   MISSING CASES 0   (MODE 1)

```

Q26A BIL.D'S. BETTER: WORD MEANING

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 489)
  I YES
  I
? ***** ( 211)
  I
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100     200     300     400     500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700   MISSING CASES 0   (MODE 1)

```

Q26B BIL.D'S. BETTER: GRAMMATICAL INFO.

```

CODE
1 **** ( 59)
  I YES
  I
? ***** ( 641)
  I
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200     400     600     800     1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700   MISSING CASES 0   (MODE 9)

```

Q26C BIL.D'S. BETTER: STYLISTIC INFO.

```

CODE
1 ** ( 23)
  I YES
  I
? ***** ( 677)
  I
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200     400     600     800     1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700   MISSING CASES 0   (MODE 9)

```

Q26D BIL.D'S. BETTER: SYNONYMS

```

CODE
1 **** ( 87)
  I YES
  I
? ***** ( 613)
  I
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200     400     600     800     1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700   MISSING CASES 0   (MODE 9)

```

Q26E BIL.D'S. BETTER: IDIOMS & PHRASES

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 116)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 584)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)
  
```

Q26F BIL.D'S. BETTER: OTHER REASONS

```

CODE
1 ** ( 18)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 682)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)
  
```

Q27A NON.D. USE: E-U TRANSLATION

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 91)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 149)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 97)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 89)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 100)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 174)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      40      80      120      160      200
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)
  
```

Q27B NON.D. USE: U-E TRANSLATION

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 60)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 125)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 84)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 77)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 120)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 234)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)
  
```

Q27C MON.O. USE: READING

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 149)
  I REGULARLY
  I
2 ***** ( 373)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
3 ***** ( 96)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
4 ***** ( 25)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
5 ***** ( 39)
  I NEVER
  I
9 ***** ( 18)
  I
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 2)
  
```

Q27D MON.O. USE: WRITING

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 66)
  I REGULARLY
  I
2 ***** ( 200)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
3 ***** ( 300)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
4 ***** ( 45)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
5 ***** ( 42)
  I NEVER
  I
9 ***** ( 47)
  I
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 3)
  
```

Q27E MON.O. USE: LISTENING

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 38)
  I REGULARLY
  I
2 ***** ( 61)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
3 ***** ( 59)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
4 ***** ( 133)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
5 ***** ( 148)
  I NEVER
  I
9 ***** ( 261)
  I
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

Q27F MON O. USE: SPEAKING

```

CODE
I
1 ***** ( 62)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 93)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 188)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 178)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 77)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 102)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0          40          80          120          160          200
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 3)

```

Q27G MON.O. USE: OTHER USES

```

CODE
I
1 * ( 8)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ** ( 19)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ** ( 17)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ** ( 21)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 74)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 561)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0          200          400          600          800          1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

Q28A INFO. SOUGHT: WORD MEANINGS

```

CODE
I
1 ***** ( 249)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 274)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 162)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ** ( 9)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 * ( 1)
I NEVER
I
9 ** ( 5)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0          100          200          300          400          500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

```

```

Q288 INFO. SOUGHT: WORD ORIGINS
CODE
I
1 *** ( 19)
I REGULARLY
I
2 **** ( 40)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 58)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 77)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 269)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 237)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 5)

```

```

Q28C INFO. SOUGHT: SPELLINGS
CODE
I
1 ***** ( 168)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 237)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 183)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 90)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 * ( 4)
I NEVER
I
9 *** ( 18)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

```

```

Q290 INFO. SOUGHT: PRONUNCIATION
CODE
I
1 ***** ( 103)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 141)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 113)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 229)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 59)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 55)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

```


Q28E INFO. SOUGHT: GRAMMATICAL FEATURES

```

CODE
 1 ***** ( 40)
  I REGULARLY
  I
 2 ***** ( 63)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
 3 ***** ( 351)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
 4 ***** ( 136)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
 5 ***** ( 60)
  I NEVER
  I
 9 ***** ( 50)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
 0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 3)

```

Q28F INFO. SOUGHT: SYNONYMS

```

CODE
 1 *** ( 21)
  I REGULARLY
  I
 2 ***** ( 43)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
 3 ***** ( 64)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
 4 ***** ( 75)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
 5 ***** ( 236)
  I NEVER
  I
 9 ***** ( 261)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
 0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

Q28G INFO. SOUGHT: SENTENCE EXAMPLES

```

CODE
 1 ***** ( 64)
  I REGULARLY
  I
 2 ***** ( 185)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
 3 ***** ( 317)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
 4 ***** ( 59)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
 5 ***** ( 42)
  I NEVER
  I
 9 *** ( 23)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
 0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 3)

```

928H INFO. SOUGHT: TERMINOLOGY

```

CODE
I
1 *** ( 17)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 46)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 57)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 271)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 135)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 174)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

```

928I INFO. SOUGHT: OTHER DETAILS

```

CODE
I
1 * ( 9)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ** ( 17)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ** ( 17)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ** ( 22)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 78)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 558)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800     1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

929A WORDS SOUGHT: ENCYCLOPAEDIC

```

CODE
I
1 **** ( 25)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 82)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 176)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 304)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 95)
I NEVER
I
9 **** ( 37)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

```

Q298 WORDS SOUGHT: CULTURE-SPECIFIC

```

CODE
1 **** ( 25)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 38)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 185)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 312)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 97)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 43)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

Q29C WORDS SOUGHT: "CONTENT WORDS"

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 151)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 328)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 138)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 65)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 *** ( 15)
I NEVER
I
9 * ( 3)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

Q29D WORDS SOUGHT: "FUNCTION WORDS"

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 37)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 113)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 199)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 256)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 63)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 32)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

Q29E WORDS SOUGHT: IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

```

CODE
1 **** ( 33)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 95)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 188)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 305)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 53)
I NEVER
I
9 **** ( 26)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

Q29F WORDS SOUGHT: SLANG

```

CODE
1 ** ( 11)
I REGULARLY
I
2 **** ( 57)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 77)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 153)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 261)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 161)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 5)

Q29G WORDS SOUGHT: TECHNICAL TERMS

```

CODE
1 **** ( 51)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 59)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 86)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 293)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 138)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 35)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

Q29H WORDS SOUGHT: LITERARY TERMS

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 55)
  I REGULARLY
  I
2 ***** ( 93)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
3 ***** ( 149)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
4 ***** ( 314)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
5 ***** ( 61)
  I NEVER
  I
9 **** ( 28)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100    200    300    400    500
  FREQUENCY
  
```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

Q29I WORDS SOUGHT: OTHER TYPES OF WORD

```

CODE
1 ** ( 14)
  I REGULARLY
  I
2 ** ( 16)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
3 ** ( 14)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
4 ** ( 27)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
5 **** ( 51)
  I NEVER
  I
9 ***** ( 578)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200    400    600    800    1000
  FREQUENCY
  
```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 7)

Q30A APPENDIX USE: GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 20)
  I REGULARLY
  I
2 ***** ( 49)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
3 ***** ( 98)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
4 ***** ( 199)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
5 ***** ( 183)
  I NEVER
  I
9 ***** ( 151)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      40    80    120    160    200
  FREQUENCY
  
```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

Q308 APPENDIX USE: NUMERICAL EXPRESSIONS

CODE

```

I
1 *** ( 16)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 45)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 55)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 160)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 237)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 187)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 5)

Q30C APPENDIX USE: MUSICAL NOTATION

CODE

```

I
1 ** ( 5)
I REGULARLY
I
2 *** ( 21)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 38)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 55)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 362)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 219)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 5)

Q300 APPENDIX USE: WEIGHTS & MEASURES

CODE

```

I
1 *** ( 16)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 39)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 80)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 210)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 183)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 172)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

Q30E APPENDIX USE: ABBREVIATIONS

```

CODE
I
1 ***** ( 51)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 124)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 154)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 211)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 91)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 69)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
VALID CASES 700      MISSING CASES 0      (MODE 4)

```

Q30F APPENDIX USE: PREFIXES & SUFFIXES

```

CODE
I
1 *** ( 15)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 49)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 134)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 213)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 166)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 123)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
VALID CASES 700      MISSING CASES 0      (MODE 4)

```

Q30G APPENDIX USE: PERSONAL NAMES

```

CODE
I
1 ** ( 14)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 37)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 90)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 209)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 208)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 142)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
VALID CASES 700      MISSING CASES 0      (MODE 4)

```

Q30H APPENDIX USE: IRREGULAR GRAMMAR

```

CODE
 1 *** ( 17)
  I REGULARLY
  I
 2 ***** ( 58)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
 3 ***** ( 153)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
 4 ***** ( 251)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
 5 ***** ( 143)
  I NEVER
  I
 9 ***** ( 78)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

```

Q30I APPENDIX USE: OTHER TYPES OF INFO.

```

CODE
 1 * ( 6)
  I REGULARLY
  I
 2 ** ( 16)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
 3 ** ( 14)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
 4 *** ( 36)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
 5 ***** ( 88)
  I NEVER
  I
 9 ***** ( 540)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      500      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

Q31 USAGE EXAMPLES FOUND HELPFUL

```

CODE
 1 ***** ( 72)
  I REGULARLY
  I
 2 ***** ( 229)
  I FREQUENTLY
  I
 3 ***** ( 310)
  I PERIODICALLY
  I
 4 ***** ( 70)
  I OCCASIONALLY
  I
 5 *** ( 15)
  I NEVER
  I
 9 * ( 4)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 3)

```

Q32 ENOUGH EXAMPLES GIVEN

```

CODE
 1 ***** ( 372)
  I YES
  I
 2 ***** ( 310)
  I NO
  I
 9 *** ( 18)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```



```

Q33  ADEQUATE DEFINITIONS GIVEN
CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 380)
  I ADEQUATE
  I
  2 ***** ( 43)
  I TOO LONG
  I
  3 ***** ( 258)
  I TOO SHORT
  I
  9 *** ( 19)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 1)

```

```

Q34A INFO. EXPECTED: ILLUSTRATIONS ETC.
CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 573)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 93)
  I NO
  I
  9 *** ( 34)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800     1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 1)

```

```

Q34B INFO. EXPECTED: SENTENCE MEANINGS
CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 654)
  I YES
  I
  2 *** ( 31)
  I NO
  I
  9 ** ( 15)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800     1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 1)

```

```

Q34C INFO. EXPECTED: HEADWORD SYNONYMS
CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 333)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 244)
  I NO
  I
  9 ***** ( 123)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 1)

```

```

Q34D INFO. EXPECTED: HEADWORD ANTONYMS
CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 289)
  I YES
  I
  2 ***** ( 276)
  I NO
  I
  9 ***** ( 135)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700  MISSING CASES 0  (MODE 1)

```

```

Q34E INFO: EXPECTED: PROPER NAMES
CODE
1 ***** ( 398)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 197)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 105)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

Q34F INFO: EXPECTED: SLANG WORDS
CODE
1 ***** ( 302)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 282)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 116)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

Q34G INFO: EXPECTED: ENCYCLOPAEDIC
CODE
1 ***** ( 408)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 200)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 92)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

Q34H INFO: EXPECTED: LITERARY TERMS
CODE
1 ***** ( 581)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 74)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 45)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

Q34I INFO: EXPECTED: AMERICAN ENGLISH USAGE
CODE
1 ***** ( 542)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 117)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 41)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

Q34J INFO. EXPECTED: STYLISTIC LABELLING

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 608)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 74)
I NO
I
9 ** ( 18)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

Q34K INFO. EXPECTED: SUBJECT AREA

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 563)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 90)
I NO
I
9 *** ( 47)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

Q34L INFO. EXPECTED: SWEAR WORDS

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 438)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 176)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 86)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

Q34M INFO. EXPECTED: FOREIGN WORDS

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 283)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 312)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 105)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

Q34N INFO. EXPECTED: AMERICAN SPELLINGS

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 529)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 319)
I NO
I
9 *** ( 52)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

Q340 INFO. EXPECTED: BASIC WORDS

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 456)
  I YES
  I
2 ***** ( 188)
  I NO
  I
9 ***** ( 56)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)
  
```

Q34P INFO. EXPECTED: VERBS, INC. PREPOSITIONS

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 630)
  I YES
  I
2 *** ( 48)
  I NO
  I
9 ** ( 22)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      500      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)
  
```

Q34Q INFO. EXPECTED: OTHER ITEMS

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 109)
  I YES
  I
2 **** ( 57)
  I NO
  I
9 ***** ( 534)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      500      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)
  
```

Q35 ENTIRE D. ENTRY READ

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 516)
  I YES
  I
2 ***** ( 172)
  I NO
  I
9 ** ( 12)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)
  
```

Q36 SYNONYM DIFFERENTIATION CLEAR

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 433)
  I YES
  I
2 ***** ( 251)
  I NO
  I
9 *** ( 16)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)
  
```



```

939 WORD PLUS COLLOCATES REQUIRED
CODE
1 ***** ( 592)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 106)
I NO
I
9 * ( 2)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

940A WHICH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND <A.> CONSULTED
CODE
1 ***** ( 559)
I "MAGNETIC"
I
2 ***** ( 134)
I "TAPE"
I
9 * ( 7)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

940B WHICH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND <B.> CONSULTED
CODE
1 ***** ( 225)
I "FALSE"
I
2 ***** ( 461)
I "ALARM"
I
9 ** ( 14)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

```

```

940C WHICH ELEMENT IN COMPOUND <C.> CONSULTED
CODE
1 ***** ( 657)
I "BOIL"
I
2 *** ( 31)
I "DOWN"
I
9 ** ( 12)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

941 SATISFIED WITH PRONUNCIATION SYMBOLS
CODE
1 ***** ( 352)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 336)
I NO
I
9 ** ( 12)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

```

942 PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION SYSTEMS COMPARED
CODE
1 * ( 1)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 698)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 699 MISSING CASES 1 (MODE 9)

```

```

Q43 AMERICAN PRONUNCIATION TO BE INCLUDED
CODE
1 ***** ( 307)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 377)
I NO
I
9 *** ( 16)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 100 200 300 400 500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

Q44 STRESS MARKING HELPFUL
CODE
1 ***** ( 569)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 119)
I NO
I
9 ** ( 12)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

Q45 SYLLABIC DIVISION TO BE SHOWN
CODE
1 ***** ( 566)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 130)
I NO
I
9 * ( 4)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

Q46 UNIFORM PHONETIC SYMBOLS NEEDED
CODE
1 ***** ( 617)
I YES
I
2 ***** ( 80)
I NO
I
9 * ( 5)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

Q47 SIZE OF D. PREFERRED
CODE
1 *** ( 49)
I COMPREHENSIVE
I
2 ***** ( 535)
I DESK
I
3 ***** ( 95)
I POCKET
I
9 ** ( 23)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0 200 400 600 800 1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 2)

```

Q48A DISSATISFACTION: GRAMMATICAL INFO.

```

CODE
1 **** ( 26)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 59)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 171)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 312)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 99)
I NEVER
I
9 **** ( 33)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

Q48B DISSATISFACTION: WORD MEANINGS

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 53)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 93)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 210)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 238)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 92)
I NEVER
I
9 ** ( 14)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

Q48C DISSATISFACTION: SENTENCE EXAMPLES

```

CODE
1 **** ( 34)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 112)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 231)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 193)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 67)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 63)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY

```

VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 3)

Q48D DISSATISFACTION: STYLISTIC INFO.

```

CODE
1 ** ( 13)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 62)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 214)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 188)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 112)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 111)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100      200      300      400      500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 3)

```

Q48E DISSATISFACTION: PRONUNCIATION

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 43)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ***** ( 61)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ***** ( 143)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ***** ( 197)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 94)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 162)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      40      80      120      160      200
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 4)

```

Q48F DISSATISFACTION: OTHER CAUSES

```

CODE
1 * ( 7)
I REGULARLY
I
2 ** ( 11)
I FREQUENTLY
I
3 ** ( 19)
I PERIODICALLY
I
4 ** ( 25)
I OCCASIONALLY
I
5 ***** ( 70)
I NEVER
I
9 ***** ( 568)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

Q47A UNNECESSARY INFO.: ENCYCLOPAEDIC

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 169)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 531)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200      400      600      800      1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

Q498 UNNECESSARY INFO.: AMERICAN ENGLISH

```

CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 141)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 559)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200    400    600    800    1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

Q49C UNNECESSARY INFO.: SLANG WORDS

```

CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 264)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 436)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100    200    300    400    500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

Q49D UNNECESSARY INFO.: FOREIGN PHRASES

```

CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 313)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 387)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      100    200    300    400    500
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

Q49E UNNECESSARY INFO.: SIMPLE "CONTENT WDS."

```

CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 132)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 568)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200    400    600    800    1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

Q49F UNNECESSARY INFO.: "FUNCTION WORDS"

```

CODE
  I
  1 ***** ( 98)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 602)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200    400    600    800    1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

Q49G UNNECESSARY INFO.: OTHER ITEMS

```

CODE
  I
  1 *** ( 40)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 660)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200    400    600    800    1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

Q51A AE & BE D'S: GRAMMATICAL INFO.

```

CODE
  I
  1 *** ( 33)
  I YES
  I
  9 ***** ( 667)
  I
  I
  I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
  0      200    400    600    800    1000
  FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

9518 AE & BE D'S: PRONUNCIATION

```

CODE
I
1 ***** ( 112)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 588)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

951C AE & BE D'S: CODES & LABELS

```

CODE
I
1 *** ( 31)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 669)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

951D AE & BE D'S: STYLISTIC INFO.

```

CODE
I
1 ** ( 28)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 672)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

951E AE & BE D'S: HEADWORD DEFINITION

```

CODE
I
1 ** ( 21)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 679)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

951F AE & BE D'S: SPELLING

```

CODE
I
1 ***** ( 143)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 557)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

951G AE & BE D'S: SENTENCE EXAMPLES

```

CODE
I
1 *** ( 34)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 666)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

951H AE & BE D'S: IDIOMS & PHRASES

```

CODE
I
1 *** ( 39)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 661)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
  
```

9511 AE & BE D'S: OTHER DIFFERENCES

```

CODE
1 * ( 9)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 691)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
    
```

952 PREFERENCE FOR I D. ABOVE OTHERS

```

CODE
1 ** ( 21)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 679)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
    
```

953A 0. TITLE & PUBLISHER <1>

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 142)
I EXCELLENT
I
2 ***** ( 197)
I GOOD
I
3 **** ( 29)
I AVERAGE
I
4 * ( 2)
I POOR
I
9 ***** ( 330)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
    
```

953B 0. TITLE & PUBLISHER <2>

```

CODE
1 *** ( 33)
I EXCELLENT
I
2 **** ( 59)
I GOOD
I
3 ** ( 11)
I AVERAGE
I
4 * ( 2)
I POOR
I
9 ***** ( 595)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
    
```

953C 0. TITLE & PUBLISHER <3>

```

CODE
1 ** ( 16)
I EXCELLENT
I
2 ** ( 21)
I GOOD
I
3 ** ( 11)
I AVERAGE
I
4 * ( 1)
I POOR
I
9 ***** ( 651)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700    MISSING CASES 0    (MODE 9)
    
```


Q54H D. IMPROVEMENTS: STYLISTIC APTHNESS

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 537)
I YES
I
3 * ( 1)
I
I
9 ***** ( 162)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    500    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

Q54I D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRINT QUALITY

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 466)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 234)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

Q54J D. IMPROVEMENTS: PRICE

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 408)
I YES
I
2 * ( 1)
I NO
I
9 ***** ( 291)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 1)

```

Q54K D. IMPROVEMENTS: QUALITY OF BINDING

```

CODE
1 ***** ( 503)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 397)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      100    200    300    400    500
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

Q54L D. IMPROVEMENTS: OTHER FEATURES

```

CODE
1 **** ( 50)
I YES
I
9 ***** ( 640)
I
I
I.....I.....I.....I.....I.....I
0      200    400    600    800    1000
FREQUENCY
VALID CASES 700 MISSING CASES 0 (MODE 9)

```

APPENDIX 9: A SPECIMEN OF STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS WITH ENGLISH TEACHERS

WITH A SUMMARY OF RESULTS

1. It is a general consideration that the monolingual English dictionary plays an important role in the context of English language teaching. Do you recommend any dictionary to your students? (If so, which?)

- 13 - the CALDCE
- 10 - non-learners' dictionaries
- 2 - no specific dictionary

2. In recent times quite a few dictionaries have appeared with Learner's in their titles (e.g. CALDCE, LDOCE, COLLINS, CHAMBERS) suggesting that they are exclusively designed for advanced learners of English as a foreign/second language. Did you happen to come across any of them?

- 10 - familiar with all four learners' dictionaries
- 15 - not familiar with all of them
(Most commonly known dictionary - the CALDCE)

3. Do you give any guidance to students on the use of the dictionary?

- 15 - yes
- 3 - no
- 2 - did not do so through lack of time

4. Which type of dictionary ----- monolingual/bilingual do you think is more useful to students and how?

- 14 - monolingual
- 4 - bilingual
- 7 - both

5. Do you sometimes recommend the students to use specialised dictionaries? (e.g. thesaurus, encyclopaedia or a pronouncing dictionary)

- 19 - occasionally
- 6 - not at all

6. What sort of information would you like your students to look up in the dictionary most often? (e.g. word meaning, spelling, pronunciation, example of usage, grammatical information, language variety etc.)

- 2 - for encoding
- 3 - for decoding
- 15 - for both

7. Which of the linguistic activities (e.g. reading, writing, listening, speaking and translating) do you think are relatively more problematic to students?

- 15 - encoding activities; 5 - decoding; 2 - both

8. Learners' dictionaries contain some information in their appendices (e.g. irregular verb forms, weights and measures, table of military ranks, nationality and money table, family name, etc.)

- a) Do you think they are useful to students?
- b) Is there any other information that you would like to find in the appendices to help students?

a) 22 - yes

3 - no

b) (1) list of difficult phrases

(2) literary terms

(3) mythological references

(4) pronunciation of foreign phrases

(5) short history of the English dictionary

(6) world map

(7) capitals of the countries

(8) important dates

9. Examples of usage are plentifully supplied in the Advanced Learners' dictionaries. In your view, are they useful in explaining how a word is used in different contexts?

25 - yes

10. Definitions of headwords in the dictionary are the most important aspect of it. Are you satisfied with the way they are given in the Advanced Learners' dictionaries?

24 - yes

1 - no

11. Sometimes a headword stands for more than one sense and the arrangement of such sense division could be ordered differently (e.g. on historical, frequency or logical order). Taking into consideration the syllabus materials of your students, how would you like the senses to be arranged in the Learner's dictionary?

11 - frequency order

3 - logical order

12 - uncertain

12. Do you think that the Advanced Learner's dictionary should include grammatical information? (e.g. on verb patterns, collocation, prepositions etc.)

25 - yes (but in a simplified manner)

13. Do you think that students need to consult the dictionary for correct pronunciation of words?

25 - yes (but students find difficulty in transcribing symbols)

14. Are you happy with the system of pronunciation symbols used in the Learners' dictionaries?

10 - yes

15 - no

15. What is your general evaluation of the Advanced Learners' dictionaries that you have come across so far?

25 - very good

16. Would you like to make any suggestions for their improvement on different aspects?

10 - no suggestion

5 - simple definitions

more illustrative sentences

APPENDIX 10: A SPECIMEN OF A TEST ON COLLOCATIONS

Fill in the blanks with words that you think would co-occur (collocate) most habitually with the words in the following sections:

1. verb + adverb, e.g.

love	dearly	passionately
suffer
argue
grow
know
resist
settle

2. adverb + adjective, e.g.

severely	badly	injured
.....	married
.....	drunk
.....	upset
.....	painted
.....	made
.....	good

3. adjective + noun, e.g.

terrible	awkward	situation
.....	injury
.....	cold
.....	remark
.....	change
.....	crime
.....	variety

4. verb + noun, e.g.

draw	pay	attention
.....	offence
.....	poverty
.....	authority
.....	enthusiasm
.....	hope
.....	trouble

5. noun + noun, e.g.

tea	service	spoon
coffee
wine
provision
law
fire

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