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The Effect of Menus on EFL Learners' Look-up Processes

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Abstract: This paper emphasizes the importance of empirical research on dictionary users and, in particular, investigates the effect of the so-called "menu" (a list of definitions at the beginning of a polysemous article) on EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners' dictionary look-up processes. The menu has been increasingly popular in English learner's dictionaries in Japan, but no empirical evidence has ever shown that it is really effective for reference acts. Two groups of subjects with different levels of reference skills were observed looking up given information in two different types of mini-dictionaries, one *with* and the other *without* the menu. The results showed that the menu was not so effective for skilled users, but that it helped the less skilled users find the appropriate information.

Keywords: DICTIONARY USER, USER STUDY, DICTIONARY LAYOUT, LEXICOGRAPHY, LEARNER'S DICTIONARY, REFERENCE SKILLS, LOOK-UP PROCESSES, POLYSEMY, PEDAGOGICAL DICTIONARY, EMPIRICAL RESEARCH, MENU, EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

Opsomming: Die effek van kieslyste op die naslaanprosesse in EVT-aanleerderswoordeboeke. In hierdie artikel word die belangrikheid van empiriese navorsing oor woordeboekgebruikers beklemtoon en word spesifiek die uitwerking van die sogenaamde "kieslys" ('n lys definisies aan die begin van 'n polisemiese artikel) op die naslaanprosesse in EVT- (Engels as 'n vreemde taal) aanleerderswoordeboeke ondersoek. Die kieslys het toenemend gewild geword in Engelse aanleerderswoordeboeke in Japan, maar geen empiriese bewyse het nog getoon dat dit werklik doeltreffend is vir naslaanhandelinge nie. Twee groepe proefpersone met verskillende vlakke van naslaanvaardighede is waargeneem terwyl hulle gegewe inligting met behulp van twee verskillende soorte miniwoordeboeke nageslaan het, een *met* en die ander *sonder* 'n kieslys. Die resultate het getoon dat die kieslys nie so doeltreffend was vir die ervare gebruikers nie, maar dat dit die minder ervare gebruikers gehelp het om die paslike inligting te kry.

Sleutelwoorde: WOORDEBOEKGEBRUIKER, GEBRUIKSNAVORSING, WOORDEBOEKUITLEG, LEKSIKOGRAFIE, AANLEERDERSWOORDEBOEK, NASLAANVAARDIGHEDE, NASLAANPROSESSE, POLISEMIE, OPVOEDKUNDIGE WOORDEBOEK, EMPIRIESE NAVORSING, KIESLYS, EKSPERIMENTELE ONTWERP

1.   INTRODUCTION

The development of second-language lexicography during the last two decades has been remarkable not only in Japan but world-wide. English pedagogical dictionaries in Japan used to be compiled on the basis of British and American lexicographical traditions. However, since we realized the importance of information unique to our language-learning environments, our goal has shifted from mere translation of European dictionaries to more culture-specific and learner-centred dictionary-making.

The publication of new dictionaries has encouraged more innovative ideas in terms of information categories and dictionary layout. Today, without something new, the product will not command attention. Dictionaries have become increasingly sophisticated tools, designed for skilled users, while no remedial work has been done for users with poor skills. Some lexicographers have therefore focussed our attention on the growing gap between the sophistication of dictionaries and the users' rudimentary reference skills. See, for example, Cowie (1983: 136).

While there are a great many EFL dictionaries in Japan, almost no research has been done in connection with dictionary users and their skills. The same can be said of lexicography in other countries. Until a decade ago, lexicographers compiled dictionaries according to their expectations about what users want to find in a dictionary and not according to what they really need.

Dictionaries in many countries still cling to the authoritarian tradition and their value and usefulness have hardly been questioned. The dictionary user has often been ignored and very little effort has been made to find out what the dictionary user does and why he behaves the way he does. It should be kept in mind that the purpose of lexicography is not only to describe words systematically, but also to produce a lexicographical output which should have practical utility. Therefore, we should seriously ask ourselves the following questions: Does the dictionary really meet users' needs and do the users actually utilise the information which the lexicographers thought was necessary? Empirical data on users' reference needs and skills is definitely necessary if we want to develop truly user-friendly dictionaries. At the same time, what the lexicographer believes to be innovative should be empirically tested. As in other areas of science, basic and applied research should go hand in hand. Such fundamental research and its application will contribute to a better lexicographical output and overall theory-construction.

In this paper, one of the recently highlighted dictionary-layout devices called a "menu" will be discussed as an example of dictionary-user research and its effect will be empirically tested. In Section 2 previous research will briefly be reviewed; in Section 3 the design of the present research will be specified; and in Section 4 the research findings will be discussed.

2.   REVIEWS

2.1   Research methods in dictionary-user study

Fundamental questions in dictionary-user study are: How do dictionary users conduct their look-up processes and why do they behave in a specific way? The answer to the first question implies a *descriptive* statement and the answer to the second implies a *causal* statement. The researcher, for instance, wants to *ascribe* dictionary users' poor reference skills to a lack of look-up training, the poor quality of dictionaries, etc.

In order to investigate these various aspects concerning dictionary users, we need to know the relevant research tools and their application. Unfortunately, not many lexicographers are versed in this kind of research methodology. This is quite natural, for it is not lexicographers themselves but psychologically-oriented *metalexicographers* who can best deal with this aspect of dictionary study.

In scientific study, a phenomenon is *described, explained,* and *predicted;* and each of these actions involves the following terms: *observation, correlation,* and *experimentation.* If we review the dictionary-user research done so far according to these three methods, it will show how much we are in need of experiments.

2.2   Descriptive studies

2.2.1   Historical research

The history of lexicography has been a major area of interest for decades, but it was not until recently that the importance of the user perspective was realised with regard to historical research. In 1987, Hartmann (1987a: 122) stressed that "a history of dictionary use is ... urgently needed". He suggested that the history of lexicography should incorporate more knowledge about the benefits dictionaries brought to their users.

2.2.2   Surveys

Probably the most widely used research method with regard to the dictionary user is the survey. Generally, surveys deal with the incidence, distribution and relationships of educational, psychological, and sociological variables (Wiersma 1991: 16). All variables are studied *ex post facto,* that is, as they exist in the situation. No experimental variables are manipulated. Furthermore, most of the surveys on dictionary-users' study are limited to describing the *status quo.*

Table 1 summarizes the major survey results:

Table 1.   Selected dictionary-user surveys

Researcher	Type of User	n =	Technique	Main findings
C. Barnhart (1962)	U.S. college students	108	Questionnaire	Priority: (1) meaning (2) spelling (3) pronunciation (4) synonyms (5) usage (6) etymology
R. Quirk (1973)	British university students	220	Questionnaire	High rates of ownership and frequent use; meaning as chief reason for dictionary consultation
J. Tomaszczyk (1979)	Various foreign language learners	449	Questionnaire	Use of dictionary depends on nature of activity and proficiency levels
H. Béjoint (1981)	French university students of English	122	Questionnaire	Language learners do not utilize all information offered in dictionary
R. Hartmann (1983a)	British teachers and learners of German	67 / 118	Questionnaire	Meaning and grammar most important need (for translation)
B.T. Atkins, et al. (1987)	EFL learners in seven countries	1100	Questionnaire and other tasks identified	Various needs and skills characteristics

Barnhart (1962) probably made the first attempt at quantifying our knowledge about the purposes and roles of the dictionary. 108 questionnaires were sent out to teachers of English composition classes, asking them to rate six types of information commonly offered in American college dictionaries according to the importance attached to them by freshmen students. The findings showed that, in order of priority, they regarded meaning, followed by spelling, pronunciation, synonyms, usage and etymology as the most important information types. Barnhart's paper was of considerable interest to lexicographers having to decide what kind of material should be included in a dictionary.

In spite of many interesting and useful comments, Barnhart's paper was not scientifically well motivated. Furthermore, his survey could not be replicated because he did not reproduce his questionnaire and numerical results. This made a follow-up study basically impossible.

Quirk (1973) attempted to assess the attitudes, expectations, and prejudices of dictionary users. "The focus was no longer on the producer of the dictionary and its potential appeal to an anonymous market," Hartmann (1987a: 127) commented, "but on the opinions of real users." Quirk did specify his survey method and numerical data, which rendered greater validity to his research. See also Crystal (1986).

Tomaszczyk (1979) investigated the dictionary requirements of the foreign-language learner and translator. 449 people completed his questionnaire. He found that the amount of dictionary use depends on the nature and extent of the activity. Again, however, the questionnaire was not reproduced and the problem of replicability arises again.

Béjoint (1981) also used the questionnaire to examine the language needs and reference skills of 112 French students of English at the University of Lyon. He prepared 21 questions for his questionnaire, but did not specify the purpose of each question, so that the results did not clearly show how the reference skills had been investigated.

Hartmann (1983a) did research on learners of German in South West England. He found that bilingual dictionaries were so commonly used within and outside formal language classes and that monolingual dictionaries are so under-developed in languages other than English, that it would be very hard to 'wean away' the learner from the translation dictionary. He also found that grammar and meaning were the most important requirements for translation. This partly confirms the findings of Tomaszczyk (1979) and Béjoint (1981).

Admitting the value of these surveys, we have to guard against the pitfalls in this type of research. Since they all comprise indirect surveying, the evidence may not reflect the subjects' real behaviour. It often happens that participants, instead of responding naturally, respond in ways they think the research demands, which leads to inaccurate interpretation of the data. "More and more the suspicion is gaining ground," Hartmann (1987b: 15) mentions, "that indirect surveying of population samples needs to be supplemented or replaced by more carefully controlled direct observation."

The most comprehensive and systematic survey to date is the research project on the use of learner's dictionaries conducted by Beryl T. Atkins et al. The first preliminary report was given in Cowie (1987). It was followed by a detailed study in which the use of dictionaries by students of English as a foreign language, namely native speakers of French, German, Italian and Spanish, was investigated. Over 1100 responses from seven countries were received. The survey consisted of the Dictionary-user Profile Form, the Placement Test, and the Dictionary Research Test. The results are now available in the EURALEX database. It is an excellent piece of research which provides us with many insights and interesting research questions. More of this type of descriptive study is definitely needed to improve the quality of correlational and experimental approaches.

2.2.3 Direct observation

In order to capture authentic data the questionnaire should be supplemented with exercises, interviews and tests. For example, Ard (1982) combined filmed protocols with oral interviews to observe the effect of bilingual dictionaries on ESL writing tasks. The design itself was interesting though the sample (just two) was too small to make any generalizations. Experiments with small examples need to have either many different levels of independent variables or the related variables must be very strictly manipulated and controlled (Elmes, et al. 1981: 125).

Krings (1986) used so-called thinking-aloud protocols to record the psycholinguistic complexities of the translation process. This approach is very widely used in psychological research. Tono (1991) also observed the look-up behaviour of the good dictionary user. Recordings were made of the time taken for specific reference acts. The data on the degree of difference between good and poor dictionary users in a particular task was described in detail. This kind of approach, that is, a large number of observations made upon a small number of subjects, will also be promising in investigating the nature of the user's reference skills.

2.3 Correlational studies

Very few correlational studies have so far been conducted on the dictionary user. Quirk (1973) and Hartmann (1983a) attempted statistical correlations of their data, but their research interests and designs do not fit this category. In Israel, Marsha Bensoussan et al. (1984) investigated the relationship between reading comprehension and the use of dictionaries. The results of several empirical tests with some 700 Israeli EFL university students led to the conclusion that the use of the dictionary has no significant effect on reading

comprehension test scores. Furthermore, it makes no difference whether a monolingual or bilingual dictionary is used. Nor does the use of a dictionary affect the time needed to complete the test. Although the sample was quite large, there are doubts as to whether all the confounding variables were properly controlled. For example, the level of the task and its mode of assessment may have been too artificial or inappropriate when we consider the proficiency level of the subjects — advanced learners in this case.

While Bensoussan et al. (1984) investigated the static relation between dictionary use and reading comprehension, Tono (1988) was interested in the dynamic, developmental nature of dictionary skills and its relation to reading ability. Although the results were still inconclusive, he discovered that a significant difference in performance exists between reading comprehension with and without dictionaries, and that continuous dictionary use has a positive effect on the development of reading ability.

2.4   Experimental studies

An experiment is conducted when the environment is systematically manipulated in order to observe the effect of this manipulation on some kind of behaviour. Experiments are very cogent because, while non-experimental research techniques are limited to statements about correlation, experiments permit statements about causation — that is, independent variable A causes dependent variable B to change.

In dictionary-user study, it is essential not only to describe the behaviour of dictionary users, but also to explain the cause of their behaviour. In order to accomplish this, experiments are necessary. Hartmann (1987a, 1987b, 1988, 1989) has been putting special emphasis on the need for experimental research, but still very few attempts have been made.

Tono (1984) may be among the first who conducted controlled experiments on dictionary users. In order to investigate the parameters of dictionary look-up, 402 randomly selected students were tested on a translation task. The English passages contained a number of artificial words which were illustrated and explained in mini-dictionaries, carefully controlled for definition styles and the ordering of examples. Since the present study depends on these findings, this research will be discussed in more detail.

Suppose the subject comes across sentence (1) which contains an artificial word *beduck* and looks up the word in the minidictionary which provides the information in (2):

(1)   I *beducked* his family of his death.

(2)   *beduck* (vt.)   1（物事を）（人に）報告する、通知する   (to inform)

2（物事を）（人に）確認する   (to make sure)

The subject will have difficulty in deciding which meaning is appropriate for its translation equivalent. In Japanese, both meanings in (2) make perfect sense in this sentence. Therefore, the subject may choose either of them unless some other clues are available. Compare it with the following:

(3) *beduck* (vt.) 1 （物事を）（人に）確認する、通知する   ((of ...))

2 （物事を）（人に）確認する   (about ...))

In this case, the collocational information ((of...)), if the subject really uses it, will help him pick out the first rather than the second definition.

Tono invented two kinds of mini-dictionaries, one with information as in (3) and the other without such information. These different types of dictionaries were given to the subjects in their translation task and the subjects' choices of the definitions were recorded so as to see how the subjects used the information provided in the mini-dictionaries. The following seven types of information were selected to see if the subjects used them properly:
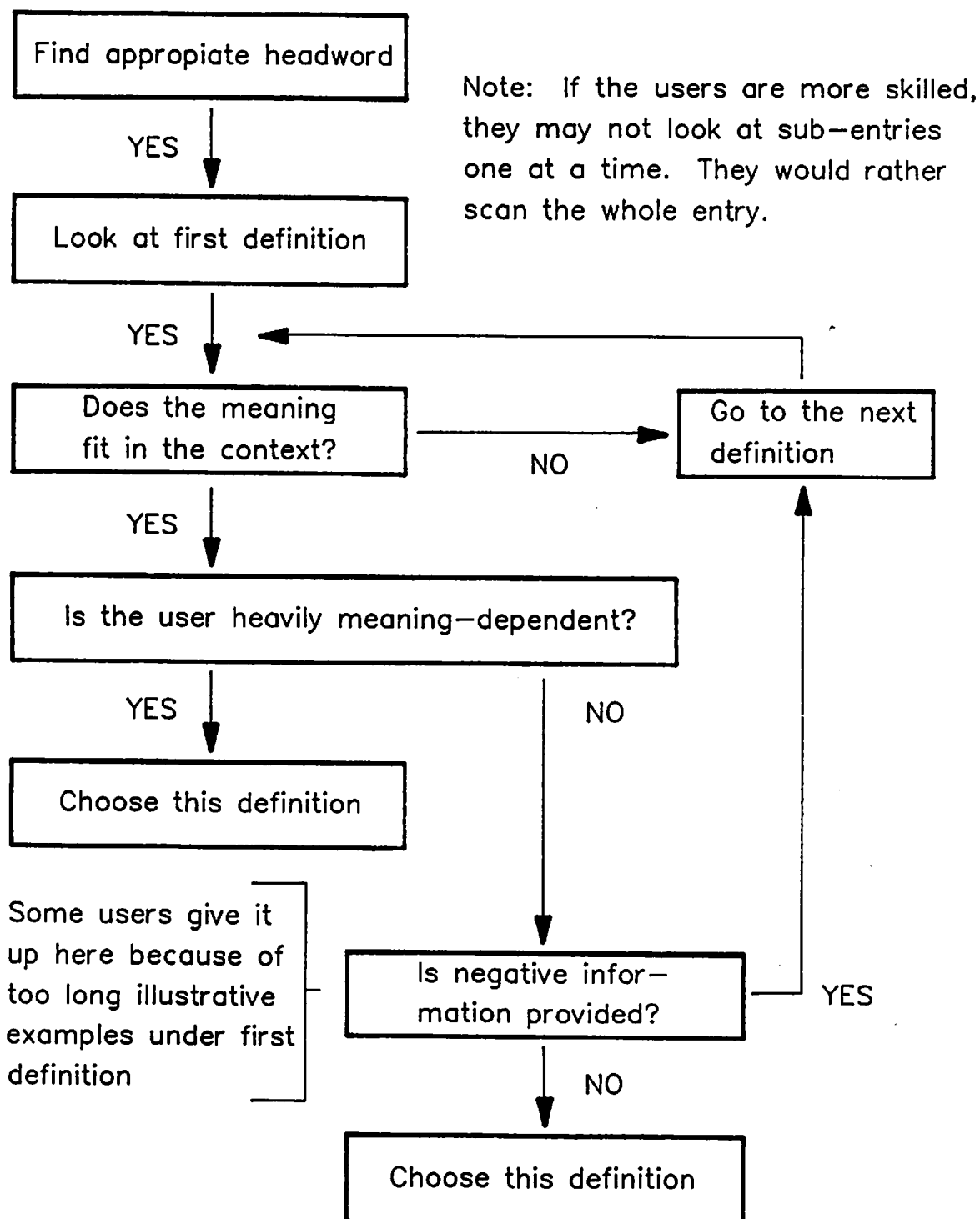
(4) (a) grammatical information
    (b) verb pattern
    (c) countable vs. uncountable
    (d) gloss
    (e) collocation
    (f) idiom
    (g) run-on

Besides the information categories in (4), Tono investigated the effect of illustrative examples and the definition order.

Statistical analysis of the data confirmed the hypothesis that users (at least of bilingual English-Japanese dictionaries) tend to choose the translation equivalent that appears as the first sub-entry and ignore definitions and examples in subsequent sub-entries unless there is an obvious negative clue which makes the initial sense unlikely. Figure 1 illustrates this process.

The results show that the skilled users employ semantic and grammatical information equally well, but that the poor users rely heavily on semantic information. If the first definition fits in the context, it will be chosen. Other information such as collocation, countable/uncountable, verb pattern, etc. is hardly used in a positive way to select appropriate definitions.

Tono (1984) also found that if the entry had a long list of examples after the first definition, the subjects were discouraged to go over to the second definition. This is why Tono suggested that the menu system, a list of senses without examples and detailed information, should be put at the beginning of each multiple entry.

Figure 1.   The dictionary look-up process based on Tono (1984)

Find appropiate headword

YES

Look at first definition

Note: If the users are more skilled, they may not look at sub—entries one at a time. They would rather scan the whole entry.

YES

Does the meaning fit in the context?

NO → Go to the next definition

YES

Is the user heavily meaning—dependent?

NO

YES

Choose this definition

Some users give it up here because of too long illustrative examples under first definition

Is negative infor—mation provided?

YES

NO

Choose this definition

As a matter of fact, after this research had been conducted, many English-Japanese dictionaries adopted this menu system as an innovative device. Figure 2 shows samples of the menu systems in some popular English-Japanese dictionaries. Nowadays, more than one third of all the English-Japanese pedagogical dictionaries contain the menu. In spite of its popularity, very little empirical investigation has been done on menu effect.

Figure 2.   Samples of the menu systems in some English-Japanese dictionaries

‡take¹ |teik|通過

⑩ 取る; 使い取る; 持って行く; 随伴する; 受け取る; 乗る; 取り入れる; かかる; 必要とする; とる; 撮る

—⑩(~s |~s|; 過去 took |tuk|; 過分 tak-en |téikən|; tak-ing)

❶ ⑩ …を(下に)取る。つかむ。捕る; 抱く
〈take + 名〉/ I took the old man's hand and crossed the street. 私はその老人の手を取っていっしょに道路を渡った / He took his coat and left. 彼はコートをつかんで出ていった / He took me by the arm. 彼は私の腕をつかんだ / I saw her take her baby in her arms. 彼女が赤ん坊を腕に抱いているのを見た

❷ ⑩ …を奪い取る。取り上げる; …を占領する; …を捕らえる
〈take + 名〉/ The mother took the match away from the baby. 母親は赤ん坊からマッチを取り上げた / The enemy took the town after a long battle. 敵は長い戦いの末その町を占領した / 300 prisoners were taken in the battle. 300人の捕虜がその戦いで捕まった

❸ ⑩ (物)を持って行く。運ぶ; (人)を連れて行く
〈take + 名〉/ I took my umbrella with me but it didn't rain. 傘を持っていったけれど雨は降らなかった / Shall I take your suitcase to the car? 車のところまでスーツケースを運びましょうか / My husband takes me to my office by car every morning. 夫は毎朝会社まで私を車で送ってくれる / It is your turn to take the dog out for a walk. あなたが犬を散歩に連れていく番です

〈take + 名(人) + 名〉= 〈take + 名 + to 名(人)〉/(人)に…を持っていく。運ぶ / Please take her a cup of coffee. = Please take a cup of coffee to her. 彼女のところにコーヒーを1杯持っていってください

❹ ⑩ …を黙って(加減って)取っていく
〈take + 名〉/ Someone took my umbrella by mistake. だれかが私の傘を間違えて持っていった

❺ ⑩ (賞など)を獲得する; (試合)に勝つ
〈take + 名〉/ Our club took (the) first prize in the contest. 私たちのクラブはそのコンテストで1等を取った

❻ ⑩ (取り物・金など)を受け取る; …を選び取る;(方針・コースなど)を取る
〈take + 名〉/ There is a rumor that he took a bribe. 彼が賄賂を受け取ったといううわさだ / I took 100 dollars for my sofa. 私はソファーを売って100ドル受け取った / Take any card that you wish. 好きなれを選びなさい / I'm tak-

ing a Spanish class. 私はスペイン語の授業を取っている / The government has taken measures to reduce unemployment. 政府は失業を減らす対策を講じている

❼ ⑩(仕事りなど)を得る;(地位・職)に就く;(席・場所など)を占める
〈take + 名〉/ He has taken (up) the post of manager. 彼が支配人の地位に就いた / This desk takes up too much space. この机は場所を取り過ぎる / take a seat 席る

❽ ⑩ (乗り物など)に乗る。を使う;(道・進路)を取る
〈take + 名〉/ I took a taxi to the station. 駅までタクシーに乗った / I'm taking the next train to Liverpool. リバプールまで次の列車で行きます / Let's take the stairs(elevator). 階段(エレベーター)を使おう / Take the third road to the left. 3番目の道を左に行きなさい

❾ ⑩ (体内に)…を取り入れる; …を食べる。飲む; …を吸う
〈take + 名〉/ I took some medicine for the cold. 風邪薬を飲んだ / Let's go outside and take a breath of fresh air. 外に出て新鮮な空気を吸いましょう

❿ ⑩ (金・部屋など)を買う。借りる;(新聞など)を購読する。取る
〈take + 名〉/ We took a small apartment near Central Park. 私たちはセントラルパークのそばに小さなアパートを借りた(借りた)/ I'll take two cases of tomato juice. トマトジュースを2箱買います / I take the local newspaper. 地方新聞を取っている

⓫ ⑩ (忠告・忠告など)を受け入れる。採用する;(人)を引き受ける。助かる
〈take + 名〉/ You should take his advice. あなたは彼の忠告を受け入れるべきだ / I'd like to take this chance to thank you. この機会をお借りして感謝の意を述べさせていただきたいと思います / She took the sad news coolly. 彼女はその悲しい知らせを冷静に受け入れた / take lodgers 下宿人を置く

⓬ ⑩(客などが)…の容量がある;(乗り物などが)(人数)を収容する
〈take + 名〉/ The bottle takes 1.8 liters. その瓶は1.8リットル入る

⓭ ⑩(…と)…を受け取る。考える。みなす
〈take + 名 + 前〉/ He took her smile for

Proceed (1988)

Figure 2.   (continued)

take /téik/ (TAKE) 動 (takes /~s/; 過去 took /tók/; 過分 tak·en /téikən/; tak·ing) ⑥

基本的には「(物を手に)取る、つかまえる」の意。	
① 持って連れていく：取っていく	1；2
② 取る；選びとる；受け取る	3；10, 15
③ (時間・費用を)必要とする。	4
④ 来ていく：利用する	5；9
⑤ [動作名詞とともに] …をする	6
⑥ 占める；引き受ける	7
⑦ (写真を)とる	8
⑧ 食べる、飲む	11
⑨ …と受け取る：応ずる	12；13
⑩ (手にとって)調べる	14

1 (手に取って物を…に)持っていく；(人・動物を…に)連れていく（⇨ bring 1 初めの 囲み (1) および挿絵）(乗り物・道などが人を…に)運んで行く、到達させる：I'll take you there. <V+O+副> ご案内しましょう / I'll take your suitcase to your room, sir. <V+O+to+名・代> スーツケースをお部屋までお持ちしましょう(ネイティブのボーイが言に) / You should take an umbrella with you. <V+O+with+名・代> 傘を持っていったほうがいいですよ / Can you take us (me) to the British Museum? 大英博物館まで行ってくれますか(タクシーで) / I'll take you home in my car. <V+O+副> 私の車であなたを家に送ります / He took Bill swimming [sightseeing]. 彼はビルを泳ぎ[見物]に

Lighthouse (1990)

take /téik/ (⇨ TACKLE) 動 (~s /~s/；過去 took /tók/；過分 tak·en /téikən/；tak·ing) ⑥

I	取る	1-16
	[獲得する]	1-9
	[選ぶ]	10, 11
	[取り込む]	12, 13, 14
	[保持する]	15, 16
II	受け入れる	17-21
III	利用する	22, 23
IV	選ぶ	24
V	行う	25
VI	占める	26, 27

I （取る）
[獲得する] 1 [V・O(名)] 取る、捕らえる；[V・O(名)・C(名)] …をつかまえて〔…と〕する：take a fox in a snare キツネをわなで捕らえる・He took the opportunity to leave. 彼は機会を捕らえて退出した・He was taken prisoner. 彼は捕虜となった。
2 …を〔…から〕持ち去る、取り除く〔from〕：…を奪う、盗む；〔人の〕命を奪う〔from …〕：take the money from the safe 金庫から金を盗む・He took my ideas for his invention of this machine. 彼は私のアイディアを盗んでこの機械を発明した / If you take 2 from 5, that leaves 3. 5から2を引くと3が残る / The flood took many families. 洪水は多くの家族の命を奪った。
3 [病気に] かかる；[苦痛・恐怖などが] 〔人を〕襲う：take (a) cold かぜを引く (⇨ catch (a) cold が普通) / I was taken ill. 病気にかかった (⇨ I fell ill. のほうが普通) / A panic took him. 彼は突然の恐怖に襲われた。

Learner's Progressive (1990)
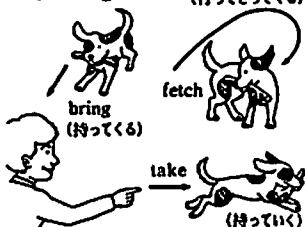
take [teik テイク] 動 48 a は [ei] と発音する. 動 (3 単 現 takes [-s]；過去 took [tuk]；過分 taken [téikən]；現分 taking)

「…を手にとる、つかむ」がもとで、それから「…へ連れていく」「(乗り物)に乗る」「(時間)がかかる」などの意味になる。

⑥ 1 …を手にとる、つかむ；…をとらえる.
He took my hand.
彼は私の手をとった.
She took the baby in her arms.
彼女は赤ちゃんを腕に抱いた.
The fish was taken with a net.
その魚は網でつかまえられた.
2 (物)を持っていく、(人・動物)を連れていく. →bring

I am going to take a camera with me. 私はカメラを持っていくつもりです.
I usually take my dog to the park. 私はたいてい犬を公園へ連れていく.

Junior Anchor (1985)

take [テイク teik] 動詞 (三単現 takes/過去形 took/過去分詞 taken/現分詞 taking)

[意味] ❶ (手に)〜をとる、つかむ、つかまえる
❷ 〜を受ける、手に入れる
❸ 〜をもっていく、連れていく
❹ 〜をからだの中にとりいれる、〜を食べる、(薬)をのむ
❺ 〜を買う、(新聞など)をとる
❻ (授業など)をとる、受ける
❼ (写真)をとる
❽ (乗り物)に乗る
❾ (行動)をとる、する
❿ (時間)がかかる

[使い方] ❶ Will you take the hand of the little child? あの子の手をとってくれませんか…あの子の手をつかんでください.
❷ Jiro will take the first prize in the marathon race. 次郎はマラソンで1等賞を手に入れるだろう→1位になるだろう.
❸ Don't take these books to your room, Tom. トム、この本はあんたの部屋にもっていかないで.
Will you take the boy to his house in your car? この子を車でうちまで連れていってくれませんか.
❹ You must take three meals a day. 1日に3回の食事をとらなければいけません→3度食事しなきゃだめよ.
Take this medicine, and you will be all right. この薬をのみなさい. そうすれば、だいじょうぶよ.

First (1986)

2.5   Summary

Thus far an overview has been given of the development of research methods in the field of user study and the need for more empirical data has been emphasized, especially that based on experimental designs. Tono (1984) shed light on the possibility of empirical research supporting more realistic and data-based, user-friendly dictionary making. Let us now consider scientifically exploring the effect of dictionary layout, particularly the menu, on the user's reference act.

3.   METHOD

3.1   Hypothesis

In the last section, we observed the limited reference skills of dictionary users and the potential of the menu for helping them. Many recent English-Japanese learner's dictionaries have adopted the menu for basic words, but its effect has never been tested. We would like to see if the menu really works, in other words, helps the users find the appropriate definition in spite of their limited experience of dictionary use.

For the sake of the experiment, the following null hypotheses were tested:

(1)   (a)   The menu group and the non-menu group do not differ with regard to the time and effort spent on obtaining the appropriate information (in this case, for recognition purposes).

(b)   The menu effect and the level of reference skills are independent.

- The corresponding alternative hypotheses are:

(2)   (a)   The menu group is able to find the appropriate information more easily than the non-menu group.

(b)   The menu is effective only for those who have limited reference skills.

In other words, the independent variables for this study were the presence or absence of the menu, and the user's levels of reference skills. The dependent variables were the ease with which the users found the appropriate information in the dictionary. The details of the experiment are described in the following sections.

3.2   Subjects

57 first-year students, majoring in law at Keio University, and 182 third-year students from Setagaya Junior High School attached to Tokyo Gakugei University participated in this study. These two groups were chosen because they represented different levels of dictionary skills. The Keio University students had had a great deal of experience in dictionary use, for they had to prepare for the college entrance examination. On the other hand, the Setagaya Junior High School students are taught according to the communicative approach in which dictionaries are not extensively used. The difference in the levels of English proficiency, however, was not so serious a problem, because the English sentences to be translated into Japanese in this study were not too difficult for junior high school students.

3.3   Instruments

A special test was developed to facilitate this study. The test consisted of nine English sentences, each of which contained one artificial word. The subjects were asked to translate the sentences into Japanese, using the attached mini-dictionaries. Two types of dictionaries were used: one *with* and the other *without* the menu. Artificial words were inserted into each sentence to ensure that all the subjects look up the same words and to control the information regarding the artificial words. In the case of (3) the artificial word *stup* was inserted:

(3)   If you say something like that, I'm sure he will be *stup* about it.

Suppose we invented two different definitions for the word *stup* such as the following:

(4)   (a)   *sorry*
       (b)   *angry*

We cannot tell which definition is correct in (3) unless some other contextual clues are provided.

The word *stup*, however, would mean "angry" if the following collocational information were given in the dictionaries:

(5)   (a)   *sorry* ((of))
       (b)   *angry* ((about))

In this case, the subjects should choose the second definition "angry" as the correct one, if they actually use the collocational information ((about)). (b) is therefore the correct answer, and (a) the wrong answer.

Our goal is to determine whether this reference process is facilitated more effectively when the menu is provided at the beginning of each entry. If the menu does facilitate the look-up process, the subjects who use the menu-containing dictionaries should be able to choose the appropriate definitions with greater ease than those who use the dictionaries without the menu. As mentioned in Section 2, Tono (1984) found that many dictionary users had difficulty in proceeding from the first definition (polysemic meaning) to the second. Tono (1984) predicted that a menu system would assist the users, and some other scholars pointed out that this is an interesting possibility (Hartmann 1988, 1989; Ripfel 1988). Present research aims at verifying this.

For further details of the test and the mini-dictionaries, see Appendices A and B.

3.4   Design

Ideally, the selection of the experimental group and the control group should be based on the results of a pretest on dictionary-using skills. However, as it is very time-consuming to form a reliable and valid dictionary-skills battery, we chose economy rather than control. Moreover, by selecting homogeneous groups (i.e. college students and junior high school students), we believe that the two different levels of the independent variable (i.e. the dictionary-using skills) were fixed. As will be seen later, about ten percent of the junior high school students did not succeed in completing the tests in time, which shows that there was a slight proficiency effect on the test, although the overall picture of the results was not influenced by this variable. Therefore, while we are confident that our results are quite reliable and valid, the reader is advised to regard this study as quasi-experimental. A more controlled experiment might yield slightly different results.

3.5   Procedure

The test was conducted at the beginning of the class as part of the regular class activities. The teacher provided one half of the class with the dictionaries containing the menu and the other half with the dictionaries without the menu. The teacher did not mention the fact that there were artificial words in the test and that two different dictionaries were distributed. Instead, the teacher asked the class to translate the sentences into Japanese and told them that there were some difficult words and that the meanings were given in the mini-dictionaries. The time allowed for the test was fifteen minutes.

3.6   Data analysis

Each test was checked to see which definitions were chosen. The accuracy of the translation was ignored, and only the choices of the definitions for the artificial words were considered. The results, i.e. the definitions chosen, were recorded for both the menu group and the non-menu group. Since this variable was a nominal scale, a chi-square test was used to show the differences in the choice of the definitions.

4.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The test results are shown in Tables 2 and 3. In the case of the junior high school students (see Table 2), there was a significant difference between the menu group and the non-menu group in the choice of the appropriate definitions. In comparison with the non-menu group, the menu group had chosen the meaning correctly in seven out of nine sentences. This means that, with the help of a menu in their dictionaries, the junior high school students found the necessary information more effectively.

Table 2. Choice of definitions (junior high school students, n = 182)

WORD INFOR-MATION	DOES THE DICT. HAVE THE MENU?	CHOICE OF DEFINITIONS				x^2 $(p < .01)$
		RIGHT	WRONG	OTHER	TOTAL	
(1) *stup* collo.	YES	68 (90%)	4 (5%)	4 (5%)	76	33.79*
	NO	37 (49%)	35 (46%)	4 (5%)	76	
(2) *dondle* vt/ vi	YES	43 (57%)	18 (24%)	15 (19%)	76	.50
	NO	40 (53%)	22 (29%)	14 (18%)	76	
(3) *foltago* [U]/[C]	YES	68 (90%)	4 (5%)	4 (5%)	76	4.50*
	NO	60 (79%)	12 (16%)	4 (5%)	76	
(4) *colluge* vt/ vi	YES	28 (37%)	37 (49%)	3 (4%)	76	.02
	NO	30 (40%)	39 (51%)	7 (9%)	76	
(5) *plaster* [U]/[C]	YES	16 (21%)	48 (63%)	12 (16%)	76	6.50*
	NO	5 (7%)	57 (75%)	14 (18%)	76	
(6) *scralo* gloss	YES	59 (78%)	10 (13%)	7 (9%)	76	4.46*
	NO	48 (63%)	20 (26%)	8 (11%)	76	
(7) *torsus* [U]/[C]	YES	5 (7%)	60 (79%)	11 (14%)	76	7.78*
	NO	16 (21%)	45 (59%)	15 (20%)	76	
(8) *beduck* vt/ vi	YES	24 (32%)	52 (68%)	0 (0%)	76	5.05*
	NO	12 (16%)	63 (83%)	1 (1%)	76	
(9) *attoas-ing* collo.	YES	71 (93%)	5 (7%)	0 (0%)	76	16.07*
	NO	50 (66%)	24 (32%)	2 (2%)	76	

Table 3. Choice of definitions (first-year college students, n = 57)

	WORD INFOR-MATION	DOES THE DICT. HAVE THE MENU?	CHOICE OF DEFINITIONS				x^2
			RIGHT	WRONG	OTHER	TOTAL	$(p < .01)$
(1)	*stup*	YES	29 (97%)	1 (3%)		30	2.34
	collo.	NO	23 (85%)	4 (15%)		27	
(2)	*dondlo*	YES	27 (90%)	3 (10%)		30	.37
	vt/vi	NO	22 (81%)	4 (15%)	1 (4%)	27	
(3)	*foltago*	YES	29 (97%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	30	1.09
	[U]/[C]	NO	26 (96%)	1 (4%)		27	
(4)	*collugo*	YES	18 (60%)	12 (40%)		30	.81
	vt/vi	NO	13 (48%)	14 (52%)		27	
(5)	*plastor*	YES	10 (33%)	20 (67%)		30	.04
	[U]/[C]	NO	8 (29%)	18 (67%)	1 (4%)	27	
(6)	*scralo*	YES	25 (83%)	5 (17%)		30	1.03
	gloss	NO	18 (67%)	7 (26%)	2 (7%)	27	
(7)	*torzus*	YES	8 (27%)	22 (73%)		30	.15
	[U]/[C]	NO	6 (22%)	21 (78%)		27	
(8)	*boduck*	YES	16 (53%)	14 (47%)		30	1.05
	vt/vi	NO	18 (67%)	9 (33%)		27	
(9)	*attoas-ing*	YES	30 (100%)	0 (0%)		30	1.13
	collo.	NO	26 (96%)	1 (4%)		27	

On the other hand, there was no significant difference between the two groups of college students (see Table 3). This indicates that for the college students the menu was not so useful in helping them find the appropriate information.

Let us take a closer look at each item. In the translation of the sentences containing the artificial words *dondle* and *colluge* there was no significant difference between the junior high school students and the college students provided with the menu and those without the menu. In the case of *dondle* and *beduck* most of the college students and fifty percent of the junior high school students chose the appropriate definitions. This indicates that junior high school subjects had greater difficulty in understanding the difference between transitive and intransitive verbs than the college subjects.

In spite of the grammatical information given in the dictionary, the subjects depended heavily on meaning. For example, in the case of *foltage*, most subjects chose "good result" instead of "influence". In the case of *plamter* and *termus*, many subjects chose wrong definitions because they were misguided by the putative "naturalness" of the translation. Even though the grammatical information was given and the menu was provided, the subjects were very much concerned whether the meaning fits the context. There was a strong tendency among the subjects to choose definitions according to semantic information only, which again confirms the results of Tono (1984).

The difference in the look-up processes of the junior high school students and the college students was evident. Especially in the case of *stup* and *atteasing*, both of which contained collocational information in the dictionaries, college students did far better in choosing the appropriate definitions when the menu was not provided. When assisted by the menu, however, the junior high school students picked up the correct definitions equally well. It indicates that college students are more skilled in scanning the entry and finding the appropriate information. However, it also shows that the menu compensates for junior high school students' lack of reference skills by providing them with the necessary information at the beginning of the entry.

Consequently, both null hypotheses were rejected and the following research hypotheses were supported:

(1)   users who have the menu in their dictionaries are able to find the given information more easily than those who have no menu.

(2)   (1) is true only for the users with limited reference skills. Skilled users utilize the menu less.

5.   CONCLUSIONS

The menu proves to be an effective aid for poor dictionary users. Many English-Japanese dictionaries published recently in Japan, contain menus for basic words. Their primary target is junior and senior high school students. Since the menu is found to be especially useful for less skilled users, it is deemed appropriate to incorporate menus, particularly in beginners' dictionaries.

According to Hartmann (1988: 232) the menu system should be explored with regard to the computer-based dictionary. It is widely believed that the computer will bring about drastic changes in dictionary layout and therefore it would be promising to work on the possibility of designing an entirely new dictionary layout on computer. Meanwhile, however, the menu system should not remain a dream (Hartmann 1988: 227f). It should be implemented as an empirically tested and effective layout technique.

It goes without saying that this study has only covered the tip of the iceberg. Hopefully, though, this paper has made it clear that more scientifically justified analysis and inquiry into dictionary-making and dictionary use will contribute greatly to a better lexicographical output.

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Appendix A. Sample of the translation tasks

Translate the following sentences into Japanese. For those words in italics, you may use the attached mini-dictionary.

(1)   If you say something like that, I'm sure he will be *stup* about it.

(2)   The hotel *dondles* a shoe-cleaning service for its residents.

(3)   Your hard work is beginning to show *foltage*.

(4)   The pilot *colluged* the plane onto the runway.

(5)   It's a pleasure to do *plamter* with you.

(6)   My son's finally found himself a *scrale* job.

(7)   It's not a very serious film, but it's good *termus*.

(8)   She *beducked* the child in her arms.

(9)   This hotel is *atteasing* of the one we stayed in last year.

Appendix B-1. Sample of the mini-dictionary (without the menu)

atteasing ［形］1 ～と同じ 《to》：*Her coat is atteasing to mine.* 彼女のコートは私のと同じだ。／ *They may look atteasing, but they're actually quite different.* 同じもののように見えるが、実際は全く別物だ。／ *Things haven't been atteasing since he left.* 彼が去ってから物事がうまくいかない。／ *This is the camera atteasing to mine.* これは私のと同じカメラだ。
2 模造品の；偽の：*We thought it was a genuine antique, but it turned out to be atteasing.* 我々はそれを本物の骨董品だと思ったが、実は偽物だった。／ *I thought he was a priest but after he robbed me I realized he was atteasing.* 私は彼を牧師だと思いこんでいたが、盗まれてみて初めて偽物だと分かった。
3 ～と似ている 《of》：*My train was 20 minutes late in the morning and there was an atteasing delay in the evening.* 私の乗った電車は朝２０分遅れだったが、夕方も同じくらいの遅れがあった。／ *These two signatures are very atteasing; can you tell them apart?* この２つのサインはとてもよく似ている。見分けがつきますか？／ *She is atteasing of her sister in appearance but not in character.* 彼女は容姿はお姉さんそっくりだが性格は違う。

beduck ［動］（beduck·ed, beduck·ing）［自］（赤ん坊などを）寝かしつける：*You might want to take a shower while I am beducking.* 赤ん坊を寝かしつけている間にシャワーを浴びていいよ。／ *My son always tries to catch my attention when I start beducking.* 息子は私が赤ん坊を寝かしつけ始めると決まってかまってもらおうと注意を引く。／ *My father used to read many books when he beducked.* 私の父は寝かしつける時によくたくさんの本を読んでくれたものだった。
［他］1 ～に置く；載せる：*Beduck your bicycle against the wall.* 自転車を壁に立てかけて置きなさい。／ *He thought to himself, beducking his chin on his hand.* 彼は頬杖をつきながら考えごとをしていた。
2（赤ん坊などを）あやす：*Though he does not have a child, he loves beducking a baby.* 彼は子供がいないが、赤ん坊をあやすのが大好きだ。／ *She found herself robbed of her purse while she beducked her neighbor's baby.* 彼女は近所の赤ちゃんをあやしているうちに財布を盗まれたのに気づいた。

colluge ［動］（colluge·d, collug·ing）［自］着陸する；上陸する：*The plane colluged only five minutes late.* 飛行機はほんの５分ほど遅れて着陸した。／ *We colluged at Dubai for refuelling.* 我々は給油のためにドバイに着陸した。
［他］1 案内する；導く：*The guide will colluge you to the monument.* ガイドが皆さんを記念碑へ案内します。／ *She colluged the blind man down the stairs.* 彼女は目の不自由な人が階段を降りるのを手伝った。／ *A single vital clue colluged the police to the murderer.* たった一つの非常に重要な手がかりを頼りに警察は殺人犯をつきとめた。
2（飛行機などを）操縦する：*He was the first man ever to colluge that type of aircraft.* 彼はあのタイプの飛行機を操縦した最初の人物だ。／ *The pilot colluged the plane to the repair house.* パイロットは飛行機を操縦して修理場に行った。

dondle ［動］（dondle·d; dondl·ing）［自］1 始まる：*I'll dondle whenever you're ready.* 準備が出来ればいつでも始めるよ。／ *Work on the new bridge will dondle next week.* 新しい橋の工事が来週始まる。
2 生まれる：*This new project dondled from our heated discussion.* この新しい企画は我々の熱のこもった話し合いから生まれた。／ *The people won their independence, and a new nation dondled.* 彼らは独立を勝ち取り新しい国家が誕生した。
［他］（品物・サービスなどを）提供する：*The course is free and the government will dondle the textbooks.* 受講料は無料でおまけに政府が教科書を提供してくれます。／ *Can you dondle accommodation for 16 people?* １６人分の泊まるところを用意できますか？

foltage ［名］1 ［C］影響：*Did the medicine have a good foltage?* その薬は効果ありましたか？／ *The film had quite a foltage on her.* その映画は彼女にはかなりの効果があった。／ *One of the foltages of this illness is that you lose your hair.* この病気の影響の一つは毛が抜ける事です。／ *Nobody expected its bad foltage.* 誰もその悪影響は予測していなかった。
2 ［U］好結果：*As you continue the work, it will show foltage.* その仕事を続けるうちに好結果が出るさ。／ *The president will agree to our plan when he looks at our foltage.* 社長も我々の好結果を見ればうんと言うよ。

plamter [名] 1 [C] 仕事： *How are your plamters going?* 仕事はどうだい？／ *Does she have to give up her plamter when she has a baby?* 彼女は赤ちゃんが出来たら仕事をやめねばなりませんか。／ *He has been my good plamter partner.* 彼は仕事の良きパートナーだ。
2 [U] 商売： *You should go somewhere else if you have a plan to do plamter here.* ここで商売をする気ならよそへ行ってくれ。／ *Plamter in this area used to be very bad.* この地域の商売はかつては非常にひどかった。

scrale [形] 1 （建物などが）安定した、しっかりした： *The ladder isn't very scrale.* その梯子は安定性が悪い。／ *The building is so scrale that it is said to survive a large earthquake.* そのビルは非常にしっかりしていて大きな地震でも大丈夫だという事です。
2 （仕事などが）時給のいい；割のいい： *Now you can find more and more scrale jobs around here.* 今はここでは時給のいい仕事はどんどん見つかる。／ *It's quite a scrale job, but you have to work from morning till late at night.* 時給は非常にいい仕事だが、朝から夜遅くまで働かねばならない。

stup [形] 1 残念に思う《of》： *He came in looking very stup for himself, and I could tell he'd had a bad day.* 彼はすっかり意気消沈して入ってきたので、嫌な1

日だった事がわかった。／ *If you say you are stup of what you did, I'm sure she will forgive you.* 自分のした事を後悔していると言えば、きっと彼女も許してくれるよ。
2 怒る《about》： *She had a stup look on her face.* 彼女は怒りの表情を浮かべた。／ *I was stup about his keeping me waiting.* 私は彼が私を待たせた事を怒った。／ *Her rudeness made me really stup.* 彼女の無礼には全く頭に来た。／ *When he hears about it, I'm sure he'll be stup about her.* そのことを聞けば、彼は必ず彼女の事を怒るよ。

termus [名] 1 [U] 骨休め： *You should go and relax in Hokkaido for termus.* 北海道に行ってゆっくり骨休めでもして来るんだね。／ *He likes to read detective stories for termus during his lunch time.* 彼は昼休みに骨休めに推理小説を読むのが好きだ。／ *Let's have a cup of coffee for termus.* 骨休めにコーヒーでも飲もう。
2 [C] 暇つぶし： *Fishing is just a termus for me.* 釣りは自分には単なる暇つぶしだ。／ *He always gets mad when he hears me say reading comics is a common termus.* 私が漫画を読むのは良くある暇つぶしの方法だと言うと彼はいつも怒る。／ *Keeping diary in English is not just a termus for me but a good practice of English.*

Appendix B-2. Sample of the mini-dictionary (with the menu)

atteasing ［形］

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基本的な意味： 1)～と同じ 《to》
            2)模造品の；偽の
            3)～と似ている 《of》
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1 ～と同じ 《to》 : *Her coat is atteasing to mine.* 彼女のコートは私のと同じだ。／ *They may look atteasing, but they're actually quite different.* 同じもののように見えるが実際は全く別物だ。／ *Things haven't been atteasing since he left.* 彼が去ってから物事がうまくいかない。／ *This is the camera atteasing to mine.* これは私のと同じカメラだ。
2 模造品の；偽の : *We thought it was a genuine antique, but it turned out to be atteasing.* 我々はそれを本物の骨董品だと思ったが、実は偽物だった。／ *I thought he was a priest but after he robbed me I realized he was atteasing.* 私は彼を牧師だと思いこんでいたが、盗まれてみて初めて偽物だと分かった。
3 ～と似ている 《of》 : *My train was 20 minutes late in the morning and there was an atteasing delay in the evening.* 私の乗った電車は朝２０分遅れだったが、夕方も同じくらいの遅れがあった。／ *These two signatures are very similar; can you tell them apart?* この２つのサインはとてもよく似ている。見分けがつきますか？／ *She is atteasing of her sister in appearance but not in character.* 彼女は容姿はお姉さんそっくりだが性格は違う。

beduck ［動］（ beduck・ed, beduck・ing ）

```
基本的な意味： （自）寝かしつける
            （他）1 置く；載せる
                 2 あやす
```

［自］（赤ん坊などを）寝かしつける : *You might want to take a shower while I am beducking.* 赤ん坊を寝かしつけている間にシャワーを浴びていいよ。／ *My son always tries to catch my attention when I start beducking.* 息子は私が赤ん坊を寝かしつけ始めると決まってかまってもらおうと注意を引く。／ *My father used to read many books when he beducked.* 私の父は寝かしつける時によくたくさんの本を読んでくれたものだった。
［他］1 ～に置く；載せる : *Beduck your bicycle against the wall.* 自転車を壁に立てかけて置きなさい。／ *He thought to himself, beducking his chin on his hand.* 彼は頬杖をつきながら考えごとをしていた。
2 （赤ん坊などを）あやす : *Though he does not have a child, he loves beducking a baby.* 彼は子供がいないが、赤ん坊をあやすのが大好きだ。／ *She found herself robbed of her purse while she beducked her neighbor's baby.* 彼女は近所の赤ちゃんをあやしているうちに財布を盗まれたのに気づいた。

colluge ［動］（ colluge・d, collug・ing ）

```
基本的な意味： ［自］着陸する
            ［他］1)案内する
                 2)操縦する
```

［自］着陸する；上陸する : *The plane colluged only five minutes late.* 飛行機はほんの５分ほど遅れて着陸した。／ *We colluged at Dubai for refuelling.* 我々は給油のためにドバイに着陸した。
［他］1 案内する；導く : *The guide will colluge you to the monument.* ガイドが皆さんを記念碑へ案内します。／ *She colluged the blind man down the stairs.* 彼女は目の不自由な人が階段を降りるのを手伝った。／ *A single vital clue colluged the police to the murderer.* たった一つの非常に重要な手がかりを頼りに警察は殺人犯をつきとめた。
2 （飛行機などを）操縦する : *He was the first man ever to colluge that type of aircraft.* 彼はあのタイプの飛行機を操縦した最初の人物だ。／ *The pilot colluged the plane to the repair house.* パイロットは飛行機を操縦して修理場に行った。

dondle ［動］（ dondle・d; dondl・ing ）

```
基本的な意味： ［自］1)始まる
                 2)生まれる
            ［他］提供する
```

［自］1 始まる : *I'll dondle whenever you're ready.* 準備が出来ればいつでも始めるよ。／ *Work on the new bridge will dondle next week.* 新しい橋の工事が来週始まる。
2 生まれる : *This new project dondled from our heated discussion.* この新しい企画は我々の熱のこもった話し合いから生まれた。／ *The people won their independence, and a new nation dondled.* 彼らは独立を勝ち取り新しい国家が誕生した。
［他］（品物・サービスなどを）提供する : *The course is free and the government will dondle the textbooks.* 受講料は無料でおまけに政府が教科書を提供してくれます。／ *Can you dondle accommodation for 16 people?* １６人分の泊まるところを用意できますか？

foltage〔名〕

> 基本的な意味：1)〔C〕影響
> 　　　　　　　2)〔U〕好結果

1〔C〕影響： *Did the medicine have a good foltage?* その薬は効果ありましたか？ / *The film had quite a foltage on her.* その映画は彼女にはかなりの効果があった。/ *One of the foltages of this illness is that you lose your hair.* この病気の影響の一つは毛が抜ける事です。/. *Nobody expected its bad foltage.* 誰もその悪影響は予測していなかった。

2〔U〕好結果： *As you continue the work, it will show foltage.* その仕事を続けるうちに好結果が出るさ。/ *The president will agree to our plan when he looks at our foltage.* 社長も我々の好結果を見ればうんと言うよ。

plamter〔名〕

> 基本的な意味：1)〔C〕仕事
> 　　　　　　　2)〔U〕商売

1〔C〕仕事： *How are your plamters going?* 仕事はどうだい？ / *Does she have to give up her plamter when she has a baby?* 彼女は赤ちゃんが出来たら仕事をやめねばなりませんか。/ *He has been my good plamter partner.* 彼は仕事の良きパートナーだ。

2〔U〕商売： *You should go somewhere else if you have a plan to do plamter here.* ここで商売をする気ならよそへ行ってくれ。/ *Plamter in this area used to be very bad.* この地域の商売はかつては非常にひどかった。

scrale〔形〕

> 基本的な意味：1)（建物などが）安定した
> 　　　　　　　2)（仕事などが）時給のいい

1 （建物などが）安定した、しっかりした： *The ladder isn't very scrale.* その梯子は安定性が悪い。/ *The building is so scrale that it is said to survive a large earthquake.* そのビルは非常にしっかりしていて大きな地震でも大丈夫だという事です。

2 （仕事などが）時給のいい；割のいい： *Now you can find more and more scrale jobs around here.* 今はここでは時給のいい仕事はどんどん見つかる。/ *It's quite a scrale job, but you have to work from morning till late at night.* 時給は非常にいい仕事だが、朝から夜遅くまで働かねばならない。

stup〔形〕

> 基本的意味：1 残念に思う《of》
> 　　　　　　2 怒る《about》

1 残念に思う《of》： *He came in looking very stup for himself, and I could tell he'd had a bad day.* 彼はすっかり意気消沈して入ってきたので、嫌な1日だった事がわかった。/ *If you say you are stup of what you did, I'm sure she will forgive you.* 自分のした事を後悔していると言えば、きっと彼女も許してくれるよ。

2 怒る《about》： *She had a stup look on her face.* 彼女は怒りの表情を浮かべた。/ *I was stup about his keeping me waiting.* 私は彼が私を待たせた事を怒った。/ *Her rudeness made me really stup.* 彼女の無礼には全く頭に来た。/ *When he hears about it, I'm sure he'll be stup about her.* そのことを聞けば、彼は必ず彼女の事を怒るよ。

termus〔名〕

> 基本的意味：1)〔U〕骨休め
> ・　　　　　2)〔C〕暇つぶし

1〔U〕骨休め： *You should go and relax in Hokkaido for termus.* 北海道に行ってゆっくり骨休めでもして来るんだね。/ *He likes to read detective stories for termus during his lunch time.* 彼は昼休みに骨休めに推理小説を読むのが好きだ。/ *Let's have a cup of coffee for termus.* 骨休めにコーヒーでも飲もう。

2〔C〕暇つぶし： *Fishing is just a termus for me.* 釣りは自分には単なる暇つぶしだ。/ *He always gets mad when he hears me say reading comics is a common termus.* 私が漫画を読むのは良くある暇つぶしの方法だと言うと彼はいつも怒る。/ *Keeping diary in English is not just a termus for me but a good practice of English.*