

主编 陆谷孙

英汉大词典

AN ENGLISH-CHINESE DICTIONARY

第2版
SECOND EDITION

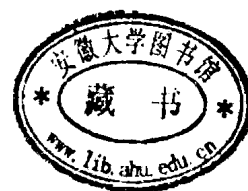
上海译文出版社

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修订说明

《英汉大词典》(第二版)是对1991年出版的《英汉大词典》的修订和增订,全书收词条约22万,增2万余条新词新义,设附录13种(撤销《世界主要城市间航空距离》、《世界主要城市与北京时差表》等7种,扩充或修订《常见日本人姓名拉丁字母拼写法》等,新增《英语网络缩略语》、《夏季奥运会项目》等6种)。

词典正文的修订首先针对“硬伤”,勘误纠错。所谓“硬伤”,既涉植字、拼写、排序、体例划一、词目分节等技术层面的问题,也有释义张冠李戴、阴阳倒错、义项“增生”(指各种英美参考词典以不同行文表示同一“所指”时,一版偶会“稀释”出两个“能指”义项)、换码失真(尤其在术语类词目中),英语例证出现文法或语用错误以及译文佶屈聱牙或失“信”滞“达”,语体或学科标签误置,词源说明脉络紊乱,商标名未予注明而引起注册方面质疑等较为严重的讹误失当。如polycentric误作ploycentric(见一版-centric条);iron law误作iron law of wages释义;Scientology径译“科学论派”而罔顾其已以“山达基”专名在澳洲注册的事实;fraternity释作“大学生联谊会”而不注明只限男生;等等。最初拟议修订时,本着“提供的信息是正确的,而并非所有正确的信息都得提供”的理念,重点在于纠正一版中实际出现的谬误,亦即sins of commission,然在具体操作时屡见一版前言中所称“应做或可做然而毕竟未做的”缺憾,注意力势必旁及其它“遗漏之外”,即sins of omission。于是,二版在微观结构的各个方面都有一些改进性的修订。如在注音方面,根据有声资料,absolutely双择注音的主次顺序宜颠倒,即改作/ˈæbsəˈljʊtli, ˈæbsəlˈjʊtli/;endurance的读音宜加注/ˈɪndʒʊərəns/等。在释义方面,依据当代频用义领先、字面义在前引申义在后的原则,适当参照认知语言学关于概念化(conceptualization)的理念,对诸如element等部分词条的义项排列作了重新整合;又如将gay一词的“男子同性恋”义项从一版的第七义提前到二版的第一义。配例方面,第一手的例证适当有所增加,如The player knows how to accept an occasional stray elbow in the face under the basket(球员知道,该如何在篮下承受偶尔打中脸部的肘击侵犯);一版例证涩滞译文或译文欠准确的也有所改进,如将“她不怀有可能影响到她愉悦情绪的疑虑”(见一版alloy条)改为“她没有疑虑,照样开开心心”;将“云雾常常遮掩了梦幻般的阿尔卑斯山脉”(见一版illusory条)改作“阿尔卑斯山脉多数时候云锁雾障,若隐若现”;将古色古香的“a vast desert all adust”的译文从“大片干旱的沙漠”(见一版adust条)改作“大片旱海”;“I didn't sleep good all night”(见good条)的译文除一版“我整夜没睡好”外,二版加“(或:我没睡个通宵的囫圇觉)”以顾及歧解。一版中用词过于浓重的沪方言痕迹,如“门槛很精”、“一只船”(改“只”为“条”)等也努力扫除;译文中常见多余的“该”(如“该人”)或“进行”(如“进行推销”)等字样则尽量删除。在词典的“内在划一性”(internal consistency)方面,一版时有同语复现现象,致使同一词组以不同“词格”(既在一处作例证又在另一处作习语复在第三处作单列复合词)出现,如在一版alley¹条内收习语a blind alley的同时复在B, b部收blind alley作复合词单列;在ground¹条内收a parade ground/fishing ground/burial ground等作例证的同时又将三者作为复合词分别单列于P, p/F, f/B, b部,修订时必须决定去存,尽量减少复现。在专名和术语方面,修订的重点在于信息更新。1991年以来世事丕变,国家解体重组,组织建制更新,在在皆是,一版收录的地名和组织名等专条于是必须相应改动(如一版Euro条的释义为“欧罗[拟议中的欧洲通用货币单位]”,二版自然必须改收euro形式,释义改作“欧元”),而原收的大量拼音中国地名则成多余而宜删除(Amoy、Mukden等旧时别称不在此列);原收部分人名在编写一版时尚健在,人世,时隔15年,是否已歿而须补注卒年,必须查实;随着汉语吸纳外来文化的速度加快,不但是专科术语,就连一般社会、文化语词的汉译名,如“冰壶运动”(curling)、“原教旨主义”(fundamentalism)以及“另类”、“动漫”、“愤青”、“真人秀”、“板凳深度”等等,均未见于一版,修订时遂有置换的必要;就连书证中的过时信息,如以现在时表示的有关早已停飞的Concorde(协和式客机)内容以及诸如“We have now advanced into the year of 1989”之类的例证似亦以删改为宜。修订工作还注意顺应当代“政治正确”的价值取向,删改含有种族、性别、年龄、相貌、体重歧视和有悖环保意识例证,如对“猎象”题材的例证(见一版bag¹条),对作弄残障人、有损女性尊严等的例证,无不作出修改。删削冗言也是修订的设计目标之一,人名条目中大量诸如“影响至巨”、“技法娴熟”、“思想精深”等貌言虽华,于实无补,删削尤多;其它如“1刻钟(或15分钟)”实属废话,free条义项“(风)顺的”下配例“a free wind”于词义无征,更宜尽行删去。

增订工作的重点在于英语新词、新义、新用法,而对“新”字的判断仍沿袭一版确定奉行的标准,即非有来源不同、出现间隔3年以上的5例为佐证不可。在语料库词典学相当行时之际,上述标准似属不够严格;换言之,为收纳新词、新义、新用法设置的“门槛”似属过低,而致其稳定性尚未经时间充分检验的“鱼目”易随珠混入。然而如把英语为非母

语的中国读者的实际需要亦即适用性置于收词的稳定性或科学性之上考虑,少数“鱼目”占去篇幅有限,无伤大雅,但在5到10年之内却大有助于词典的查得率,故而增订时,一例一酌,适当放宽尺度是合宜的。如二版增收的domestically disabled(不善做家务的)、dot-bomb(破产的网络公司,系仿dot-com[网络公司]而成)、ubersexual(阳刚男子,系仿metrosexual[都市玉男]而成,两者都是源于时尚广告的用词,生命周期一般当在三五年左右)、intelligent design(智创论——一种类乎宗教“创世论”、反对进化论的理论,虽则目下在美流行,然而以长远观点判断其理据可疑,生命力当属有限)等,均属此列。当然,增订内容多数可在英美主流辞书中得以验证,应当说具有相当的稳定性,如Bluetooth(蓝牙技术[商标名])、tipping point([小事件不断积累而达到难以忍受的]引爆点,爆发点)、WMD(大规模杀伤性武器)、meatspace(《口》现实空间——与“网络空间”[cyberspace]相对)、attention deficit disorder(注意力缺乏症[多见于儿童,表现为多动等])、metadrama(《戏》元戏剧[指戏剧作品中论及戏剧及演出等的元素])、implicature(《语》[语用学用语]隐含;隐含义)、lookism和siz(e)ism分作“相貌歧视”和“体型歧视”解、collateral damage(附带损失[指战时平民的伤亡或设施的破坏])、ground zero在美国“9·11”事件后衍生出“纽约世贸中心废墟”之义、worm衍生的“蠕虫病毒”之义以及“road map”衍生的“(一步接一步详尽的)进程计划”之义;“grow an economy”中的“to grow”的及物动词新用法以及“google”、“blog”等由名词化出动词;friendly从形容词和名词演变为构词成分;等等。增订时还特别针对一版过于侧重美语的偏颇,酌增英联邦“大英语圈”用词,充分利用英国出版各种主流词典提供的关于澳新、印度、南非等不同品类英语中的人名、地名、动植物群落、宗教礼仪、典章制度等信息,以求词典覆盖面的总体平衡。对英语中伊斯兰文明用词的适当倾斜,如增收Five Pillars of Islam(伊斯兰教的五大支柱),严格说来乃是一种补订而非增订,意在确认伊斯兰在人类诸大文明中原有的地位及重要性。新增附录大多因需而设,制作前做过一点调查研究,如随着电子邮件、网上闲谈、博客、手机短信日增,《英语网络缩略语》自然应运而生;《常用英文人名及其含义》则旨在帮助非与国际接轨不可的国人在用英语起名时避免盲目。

虽然二版增收了相当数量的科技新词,我们仍痛感人文精神之不可或缺,即使在英汉词典领域内也是如此。为此,主编特以英语词典鼻祖约翰逊博士的《英语词典》作样本,为二版撰写了一篇代序,论及电脑时代辞书编纂中传统与创新的关系、词典编者应有的素质、青年一代英语修养的提高、人文阅读的重要性等。受我国旧时以及港台地区的某些成例启发,代序用英语写成,也算是为后人检阅我们这一代学人的英语写作水平,提供一个实例。

《英汉大词典》(第二版)的修订和增订工作中存在的最大缺憾当属编者对读者的需求尚未作更全面深入的调查,停留在被动吸纳公开评论文章和用户来函所提的批评意见和建议(如加拿大的魏元良先生、台湾地区的傅一勤先生等),而没有主动选定一个标本读者群,在相当时段内,就词典定位、产品价格、编排格式、查检便捷度(二次或多次查检是否过多)、查得率和出错率、与同类词典的优劣比较等征求意见,也未对他/她们的查检需求、查检经验、辞书意识、心理词库、认知惯性等作跟踪测试。因此,从基本面貌看,一版和二版并不给人“肝胆楚越”之感。希望后续各版的编者着力弥补这一缺憾;更希望使用本书的读者中涌现志愿者多多,于指谬之余,就上述问题与编者互通声气,累土不辍,丘山崇成。

《英汉大词典》(第一版)问世以来,经实际使用已发现出错率(包括非亲历编写的外人不易察觉的技术性失误)已超出原定的每5页允有1处的容忍指标;而经读者指谬,错误缺憾败露更多,一番败露,一次憬悟,编者愧怍弥增。此外,凭着一部作品揽来多个奖项,反证学殖浅薄,不任荣惧,衷心不安;兼之昔日齐心戮力的同仁或老或歿,大半星散,存者附得虚名,殊深内讼。就是在这种愧怍、自责、痛惜的情感交织之下,我们不自量力,战战兢兢,签下了编制《英汉大词典》第二版的合同。“果哉!末之难矣。”诚哉斯言!

谁知与计划经济时代的产物第一版迥然不同,第二版的编写和修订工作必须顺应市场经济的操作规律,非巧于应变者不可为。果然,事情或作或辍,拖泥带水,做得极不顺手;而从事词典工作的人又或多或少患有一种可称之为“赏由物召”的病态,就是设计时目标有限有度,真正着手做起来必枝节横生,务求巨细靡遗,于是工期又成旷日持久。

好在这次参加第二版工作的,多是少壮,其中几位除《英汉大词典》外,各有其他海内外重要学术承担,且注意力早从纸质媒介转向电脑。参与二版工作的译文出版社词典编辑们大多也是少年菁英,校对时心细如发,多向编者建言,还新编附录若干。《英汉大词典》的后续工作,不管是纸面的还是在线的,非此新人团队不能依靠。如此人事两旺,前人可免恒悬!

“What Is Out of Sight Is Lost Forever?”

In Lieu of a Preface

Lu Gusun

I begin by quoting Samuel Johnson's remark when he commented on the widespread rural illiteracy in Scotland in his time (Vincent, 1989:48), suggesting those who know nothing of written language were doomed to live only in the present tense. With a twist — I have changed Dr Johnson's full stop to a question mark — the remark is hereby quoted with a view to showing that although a tradition, that of Samuel Johnson's included, is often “out of sight”, it percolates down and is not “lost forever”. Time being a continuum, willingly or unwillingly, consciously or unconsciously, all vagaries of fashion notwithstanding, we live to some extent in the shadow of what is “out of sight”. In the field of lexicography we therefore write, using a *double entendre*, in the past as well as the present and future tenses.

However, if one cares to look ahead across the lexicographic landscape, what catches the eye, I am afraid, is the future tense writ large. Living in the computer age, when we consult a dictionary most of us “click, look and listen”.^① True, the trend unmistakably and irreversibly makes for dictionaries whose information is transmitted through such electronic media as computers, CD-ROMs, the Internet, or plug-in memory chips. A good many of them enable a speedier look-up of a wealth of data and are much user-friendlier with a multimedia combination of texts, graphics, images, video clips, audio clips, and animation, allowing greater user autonomy in virtual space or even soliciting user participation in or interaction with the dictionary text by cutting, copying and pasting, indexing, bookmarking, hyperlinking, up- or downloading, deleting, adding or fleshing out entries with a click of the mouse or a turn of the trackball in real time. No wonder when the Second Edition of *The Oxford English Dictionary* was published in 1989 in both p- (ink-and-paper) and e- (CD-ROM) forms, the sales ratio of p- to e- was approximately 1:10 (Mai, 1994:123). Taking one step further from there, the *OED Online* which was made available in March 2000, boasting some twenty search options, not only incorporated its sizeable *Additions* in three volumes, but also ruled out the problem of CD-ROM wear and tear, creating in addition more look-up options by numerous pop-up windows for the purpose of customization. Therefore, it is hardly an overstatement to say that from now on practitioners of lexicographical art and craft will primarily “write in the future tense” and it is predicted with assurance that the dictionary market for tomorrow will teem with works like the *OED Online*. But the “future tense” lexicography, as it were, looks both backward as well as forward — no mistake about it. The December 2003 *OED Online Update*, for instance, pinned quite a number of words down etymologically by antedating, say, “nit-picking” from 1970 to 1961, and “noisy” from 1693 to 1609.

Machines are made by man. So are computers with their programs. However state-of-the-art the computer ware is, be it hard or soft or firm or whichever, in the final analysis it is always the wizardly liveware (people working the computer) or the “wet ware” (jocularly the human brain) drawing unceasingly on an accrual of human wisdom that ultimately counts. Put another way, he who writes in the future tense cannot do away with the present and the past tenses, and whatever is “out of sight” is NOT “lost forever”. Johnson, for instance, is very much alive not in that as a cultural relic his *Dictionary* sells at 10,000 to 30,000 USD (Hitchings, 2005:229n) apiece today, but in that as recently as in February 2000 seventeen U. S. Congressmen brought a federal lawsuit against the then President Bill Clinton, who, according to them, had no constitutional right to bomb the former Yugoslavia without Congressional authorization. An issue at stake was the exact meaning of “to declare” and that of “war”. A decision was thereupon

① See back cover of *The Random House Compact Unabridged Dictionary* (Special Second Edition, 1996).

reached to appeal to nonpareil dictionary authority and this authority was none other than Samuel Johnson of course! (O'Hagan, 2006:12-13) More interestingly, perhaps out of a propensity to revive inkhorn archaisms, I find that the owl in the hit novel *Harry Potter* is named Pigwidgeon (meaning a teeny thing), one of a panoply of quaint entry words Johnson's *Dictionary* abounds in.

Most dictionaries of today — and of tomorrow presumably for that matter — provide grammatical and pragmatic information such as parts of speech, irregular inflexions, usage or register labels which are all taken for granted. But has any one ever paused to think who initiated the paradigm in the first place? In the 150-odd years of English lexicographical chrysalis prior to Johnson there had been some twenty-ish works ranging from Robert Cawdrey's *Table Alphabeticall* to Henry Cockeram's glossary of "hard words" (who was the first to call his work a dictionary) and to Nathan Bailey's *An Universal Etymological English Dictionary* of 1721. It is interesting to note that the above-mentioned *Table* contained no entry words in the W, X and Y sections while the last left behind the perpetual laughing stock of defining "cat" as "a creature well known" and "black" as "a colour" and of circular definition or of *ignotum per ignotius* ("definiens" befogging "definiendum" in technical parlance or, plainly, explaining the difficult with the more difficult) aplenty so that "to wash" was "to cleanse by washing" and "to get" was "to obtain". The learned world had to wait for Samuel Johnson to introduce grammar and pragmatics in his *Dictionary* of 1775, to which we are indebted even today after the lapse of some 250 years, although we may offer to disagree with him upon his legendary truculent diatribes about Whig politics and about oats being a Scottish human staple but an English horse fodder. The liberally used but sometimes misplaced "cant" label of his has spawned a multitude of usage or register labels we apply and will continue to apply in dictionary-making. *Plus ça change* indeed!

The Johnsonian lesson, as I see it, lies first and foremost in the lexicographer's fervour in reading. Johnson had meant to plunder the wordlists from predecessors such as Nathan Bailey and Robert Ainsworth^①. But the more he read with a view to ransacking quotable nuggets, the more was he carried away by reading over 500 authors spanning more than 200 years, so much so that his own wordlist — especially in the latter letters — eventually was generated in a large part by illustrations he had gleaned from reading. For a total of 42,773 entries he supplied approximately 110,000 quotations — only half of all he had collected, thus winning himself a fame of "a robust genius, born to tackle with whole libraries" (Boswell, 1831:78). Johnson, having made a point of regulating an "undefiled" [*sic*] English language rather than indulge it, read eminent authors of a past age such as Shakespeare and Milton, setting an example of what I call "literary realism" (using REAL English from highly literary matter) to be taken over by Sir James Murray's *OED*^②, who even went so far as to identify lexicography in terms of "a department of literature" (Hitchings, 2005:81). And it was his wide-ranging interest and unquenchable curiosity that induced Johnson to read vastly and variously about not only, say, Aristotle, Isaac Watts and John Locke, but also about exotic flora and fauna and about the then novelties such as coffee houses, spa towns, cricket, ginseng and tea. Living contemporaries usually didn't pass muster with him, although later he relaxed his rule a little bit and even smuggled in some thirty of his own written samples marked as "anonymous". His was not the kind of leisurely reading on the part of a connoisseur making fetishization of books, but that under an oil lamp in the prison house of learning for the specific purpose of enriching his dictionary with refined elegance of a bygone age occasionally interlaced with a smattering of novel "otherness" (According to him, for example, the number of possible combinations of the letters of the English alphabet is 1,391,724,288,887,252,999,425,128,493,402,200!) — a tradition reinforced by the *OED* afterwards. Today we are wont to speak of corpora painstakingly developed by teams working with scanners. To be sure, what we have in the end is a massive cache of riches. But remember: many men, many minds and many criteria, and scanning by machine is more often than not indiscriminate. Coming across such useless examples as "He is a muppet" under the entry word "muppet" in a prestigious British dictionary of the 2000s and a dubious one "I don't want a cigar

① Johnson referred to Ainsworth 584 times and to Bailey 197 times (de Vries, 1994:64).

② Murray, being a like-minded man of letters, copiously quoted Johnson in over 1700 places in his own work. Though he didn't live to see the entire Herculean work accomplished, the *OED* contains 414,825 entries with 1827,306 illustrative examples out of a total of five million.

now, thank you, but I'll take a rain check on it"^① under the entry "rain check" in another — both claiming to have derived from well-stocked corpora — we would undoubtedly be nostalgic about Samuel Johnson's selective acumen in providing apposite illustrative examples. Quoting literary giants verbatim may appear DWEM-ish and snobbish by present-day standards, but in the age of ours when science and technology dictate, Johnson's compendium of examples gives the reader a sense of transcendence over what is mundane and mechanical, doing credit to the sagacity of remarkable "wet ware" and breathing some uplifting air into the ambient feculence.

With your permission, dear reader, a tangential word or two by way of digression. "Reading maketh a full man". While the Baconian saying still rings mellifluously in the ears of superannuated people of my age, it gives rise to a hackneyed ennui among modish computer-savvy young men and women who would rather spend days and nights browsing BBS websites or other web pages, emailing, chatting, blogging, googling, playing games on the computer. When they encounter an unknown word in English, they will simply highlight it and click on an electronic dictionary for an equivalent in Chinese. The result of using some low-quality handheld electronic bric-a-bracs and, worse, developing a learning strategy thereby, can be disastrous. Some of the grossly mistranslated English store signs and menus such as "Japanese Arrangement" for "Japanese Cuisine" and "cloud swallow soup" for "wonton soup" that are internationally and uproariously notorious are a case in point. As a pedagogue, I keep advising my students to read variously and viscerally so as to ensure a minimum of an information input of a million words a year while using a sizeable enough decoding dictionary and an annual output of at least 10,000 words with the help of a "radioactive" encoding dictionary. Learning means, above all, an adequate amount of reading plus writing using two different kinds of dictionary, or, in a nutshell, making one "fuller" in the Baconian sense of the word.

Besides being a purposeful reader with scholarly talons laid on every available book, what other qualities are required of a lexicographer? Using Samuel Johnson as an exemplar once more, he or she has to be a bibliophile or a man or woman of letters, not only keen on reading with gusto but also capable of writing with brio. Johnson himself declared that he WROTE a dictionary instead of compiling one. Approximately sixty percent of all Johnson's learned quotes in the dictionary and elsewhere were taken from Greek or Latin savants, with Horace accounting for the most of them (Hitchings, 2005: 103). And his writing career began as early as when he wrote for Edward Cave's *Gentlemen's Magazine* in 1731, and, working to order, he could produce as many as — wow! — 10,000 words at one go a day. He edited a complete Shakespeare with a now world renowned preface and proceeded to work on *Lives of the English Poets* otherwise known as Johnson's Poets. His most learned essays appeared in the six-page *Rambler*, a magazine underwritten by the said Cave and a few others. It is in these essays that Johnson tried out a Latinate style fraught with words from his *Dictionary*: "adscititious," "efflorescence," "equiponderant," "quadrature," "terraqueous," and "to superinduce". Last but not least, integral to the *Dictionary's* appeal is decidedly Johnson's letter written on the 7th February 1755 to Lord Chesterfield, a disdainful lip-server of a patron who was now prepared to partake of the success of the project, a letter to salve the writer's own acrimony as well as to admonish the imposter. Deservedly, it is a masterpiece of English prose, a sample of controlled rage and epistolary satire — satire in prose rather than in its Johnsonian definition of being always in verse. Being so regularly and enthusiastically given to words is admittedly going a long way to being a wordsmith worth his salt. But Johnson was a wordsmith of common sense rather than abstrusities. His observations about it being easier to translate homelier words like "bright" and "sweet" into another language in a bilingual dictionary than explain them in the mother tongue in a monolingual one and about linguistic corruption happening most frequently and flagrantly as a rule at the extremes of the social spectrum are worth more than tons of the now vogueish academic gibberish. To me at least.

Part of being a wordsmith is to know as many languages as possible. Johnson was conversant in eight while James Murray knew twenty! A few years ago a Chinese dictionary-maker claimed to know thirteen. He was reviled all around but I kept wondering why he was never put to test to see if he was a really worthy polyglot. Yours humbly (that is the present writer) knows only Chinese and English, with six years of Russian in secondary school and one

① The example, as I see it, is possible but not probable if it is taken out of its social etymon. Can one take a rain check, for instance, on a slap in the face?

year of college German to boot. However rusty and paltry my knowledge about the latter two languages, it comes in handy in dictionary-making. For example, it was my knowledge of Russian that helped to decide if the plural form of Bolshevik was Bolsheviks or Bolsheviki, depending on whether the entry was treated as a totally naturalized English word or a loan Russian word. As this preface is being prepared, it is the Christmas season of 2006. I have always heard sung and seen as a lighting ornament the word NOEL but had to look it up in a dictionary to know that it comes from Latin “natal” to refer to the birth of Jesus Christ. Similarly, when I perspired profusely sitting in a sauna, I didn’t know the word had originated in Finnish, the language of a very cold country. In such circumstances I would wistfully lament that I didn’t take the trouble of learning more languages in order to be a well-equipped lexicographer. An indefatigable and vocal critic of the first edition of *The English-Chinese Dictionary (Unabridged)*, of which I was editor-in-chief, knew Chinese, English, Russian and Japanese. His scathing criticisms offended a no small number of my dictionary colleagues, but I always take my hat off to him and his quirky gibes never fall on deaf ears.

Another requirement is an extraordinary resolve and unusual fortitude plus pliant mutability when and where necessary. It is known to everybody that Johnson identified dictionary-making as “low drudgery” and the illustrative example he supplied for the entry word “dull” was “To make dictionaries is *dull* work”. On another occasion he was quoted to say:

The uncertainty of our duration ought at once to set bounds to our designs, and add incitements to our industry; and when we find ourselves inclined either to immensity in our schemes, or sluggishness in our endeavours, we may either check or animate ourselves by collecting . . . that art is long and life is short. . . . [Whoever has] trifled away those months and years, in which he should have laboured, must remember that he has now only a part of that which the whole is little; and that since the few moments remaining are to be considered the last days of Heaven, not one is to be lost (Hazen & Middendorf, 1958-: III, 97).

Johnson’s initial ambitions were towering but hardly realistic, dreaming that he could do the dictionary in three years single-handedly with the help of several amanuenses. Reality taught him a lesson the hard way that history of dictionary-making is one of deficits and delays. By Christmas of 1750, three years from when he first made his *Plan*, he had done from “A” to the twenty-first sense of “to carry” — a total of 280 pages. Fortunately he was now made excruciatingly aware of the excessive “immensity” of his proposed project, a project that had taken forty French to spend forty years on it^①. He was sane and pliant enough to change tacks, shrunk his expansive strategies, sacrificed numerous good enough quotations, loosened the rule about incorporating living authors as it was mentioned above, and so forth. As a result, to an experienced eye, the letters A to C are disproportionately more circumstantiated than those that follow.

A late teacher of mine, a famed dictionary person, Professor Ge Chuangui (or Hertz C. K. Ke by Wade-Giles) by name, signed a contract with the Commercial Press for A Large-size English-Chinese Dictionary in the early 1960s. Assisted by a few junior teachers and graduate students, Professor Ge ground away at it for five or six years and ended up finding himself still lingering in the A section. Take alone for instance the gathering of evidence of whether English nouns beginning with the letters “h” and “u” are preceded by the indefinite article “a” or “an” — so I am told — the cards Professor Ge and his men made exceeds fifty! Regrettably, the *magnum opus* aborted. Professor Ge was a deeply revered and loved person, a perfectionist. I remember writing to him in his twilight years quoting Samuel Johnson: “To pursue perfection, like the first inhabitants of Arcadia, is to chase the sun”. Bless his soul chasing the sun in Heaven!

It is common sense that the dictionary is not an anthology of literature or of any other one subject. Nor is it a monograph on it. Knowledgeable persons tend to look at it as “a mine of information, an encyclopedia in disguise”

① A commonly accepted story. In fact, it took the *Académie française* fifty-five years to accomplish the dictionary in 1635. Who knows if the long delay wasn’t the downside of teamwork and the “too many cooks” syndrome?

(Eco, 1984:49). Johnson's is no exception, offering a miscellany of knowledge rather than an overarching system of it. The nature of the dictionary has decided that a lexicographer be a Jack or Jane of all trades: to name a few — an untiring word-muncher, a discriminate microstructural editor, a hair-splitting meaning explicator, a fault-finding proof-reader, and also, when the work is completed and published, a punching bag for rancorous attacks like Johnson was by Noah Webster on the other side of the Atlantic (Hitchings, 2005:244-46). (But Johnson, living in a haughty time, would rather be a “cudgel” than a “punching bag” because of his pride and prejudice.) Johnson's was basically a one-man show, yet he had to coordinate with his amanuenses. Later, in Sir James Murray's case, he had to work with a fistful of philological stalwarts no meaner in academic standing than himself, not to mention the two thousand-odd outside readers including the “mad professor”.^① An able editor-in-chief, therefore, needs to be equipped with managerial prowess, knowing about the strengths and weaknesses of every member of his team, tapping his/her potential to the full so as to ensure optimal work efficiency. Vis-à-vis publishers/booksellers, he/she becomes a hard-driving bargainer like Samuel Johnson, who committed himself to the proposed job over breakfast on 18th June 1746 only on condition of getting paid a considerable sum of £ 1,575, roughly equivalent to £ 150,000 today. True, there were giants in those times, as the proverb says. But these same giants found an added secretarial dimension to their dictionary work, lugging heavy books, cutting up quires of paper into copy slips, stamping serial numbers on them to prevent misfiling, and so forth. In short, traditional lexicography is the kind of work into which a dozen labours and chores roll, calling for a kind of *esprit de corps* or gung-hoism. He who master- or mistressminds a dictionary project and executes it must needs be a lexical steeplejack and a grassroots word hod-carrier at one and the same time. It is by no means an armchair job, hands down, as some visualize it to be. And it goes without saying that with the advent of the computer, a lexicographer's functions have further multiplied as a programmer, an interface designer, and a cyber-CEO perhaps.

Samuel Johnson is phenomenal. Having dwelt upon what ramifications his tradition has held out for posterity, I feel obliged to hasten to add as an afterthought his obvious inadequacies and limitations. In the first place, feedback to his dictionary was and has been controversial (Hitchings, 2005:240-41). To a moderner, 42,773 including some verbal rarities and curios doesn't account for anywhere near being adequate when we consider that the English language at the time comprised over 300,000 words, let alone the present-day vocabulary tally of World English as a common denominator. Secondly, as was pointed out in the preceding context, Johnson's personal prejudices are manifest in some of his definitions and are professionally unacceptable. Thirdly, yes, there are piquant wordings of definition such as “uxorious” as “infected with connubial dotage” and other pithy sallies (“Patriotism is the last refuge of a scoundrel”!) that Macaulay, Coleridge and Lamb spoke highly of. Alongside them, however, there exist definitions that are inaccurate, esoteric and obscure, some of which simply err (“leeward” = “windward”) or border on being absurd (“defluxion” = “a defluxion”). The gap between “the past tense” and “the present tense” also bears negatively upon the quality of definitions: for instance, we do not go to Johnson for the contemporary meaning of “penthouse”, “car”, “urinal”, “rapper”, “jogger”, or “barbecue”. Being a cynosure of British letters, Johnson wasn't prescient enough to see that “the American dialect, a tract of corruption” (Hazen & Middendorf, 1958-: X, 202), would one day become a global tongue a third of the world's population now have some command of and the other two-thirds aspire to learn. Furthermore, instances of inconsistency are numerous such as “uphil” but “downhill” and “instal” but “reinstall”. To me, technicalities aside, the most objectionable is a professed tendentiousness that attests to Johnson's fusion of a tool book with moral didacticism. All the seven illustrative examples for “to instruct” are quotes from the Bible and for his own preferred ends he even felt free to change them at will at times. Thus, when Caliban in *The Tempest* by Shakespeare actually said “I know how to curse”, Johnson unflinchingly added a NOT to make the utterance negative: “I know not how to curse”. This is something a lexicographer should never do — whether in the past, at present, or in future. In my humble opinion, it is a matter of professional ethics, although Johnson might have regarded lexicography as above all a consecrated vocation or even avocation.

① See Simon Winchester's *The Professor and the Madman*, published by Harper Perennial in 1999.

On balance, none the less, Dr Johnson's *Dictionary* is not an ossuary but a receptacle of good taste, magnetic effusion, ennobling endeavour, propitious tradition, and creative lexicography, the memory of which hopefully will be kept alive long.

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体例说明

(一) 词条与词目

1. 词条指收入词典的一个条目。本词典所收词条有英语的基本词、一般词、外来词、缩略词、词缀、组合语素、人名、地名、组织机构名、历史事件名、宗教及神话专名、社会科学及自然科学术语等。

2. 一个典型的完整词条包括词目、注音、屈折变化形式、词性标注、语体标注、学科标注、释义、例证、习语、注解、内词条、词源说明等部分,但大多数词条并不包含上述所有部分;一个词条的主要部分是词目和释义,其他部分根据需要收列。

3. 词条按词目的字母顺序排列,拼法相同而词源、词义不同的词,分别立为词条,在词目的右上角标注^{1,2,3}等数字。如:

butt¹... (工具、武器等)粗大的一头…

butt²... 靶;靶墙…

butt³... 用头(或角)顶撞…

butt⁴... (盛酒或水的)大桶…

butt⁵... 比目鱼…

4. 词目指词条的首词。词目可以是单词,也可以是复合词、短语、缩略词和词缀等。词目一般用黑正体字印刷,未归化的外来词语用黑斜体字印刷。词目中黑点作为分节点;分写的复合词、人名、地名或短语等,其组成部分的单词如本词典中已收作独立词条,该词不再标注分节点。如:

jun·ior...

junior college...

junior common room...

5. 词目的变体形式,或并列在同一词条内,中间用逗号分隔,或分别立为词条,用等于参见法参见至主词条;只表现为增减个别字母的变体形式,亦可用括号括起可增减部分,不再并列或分立。如:

car·da·mom, car·da·mum..., **car·da·mon**... *n.*...

ca·lif... *n.* = caliph

car·po·phyl(l)... *n.*...

6. 名词词目如系复数形式或单复同形,在词目后予以注明;使用时后接谓语动词的数的要求与词形不一致时,在释义前加注说明。如:

ki·net·ics...[复] *n.* 1. [用作单]【物】动力学 2. [用作单或复](物理或化学变化的)历程…

air·craft...[单复同] *n.* 飞机…

cat·tle... *n.* [用作复] 1. 牛…

7. 单数形式的名词词目释作某义时需用复数形式时,在该释义前予以注明。如:

glass... 1 *n.* ... 7. [~es] 眼镜…

au·thor·i·ty... *n.* ... 3. [authorities] 当局…

8. 词目如有英美拼法差异时,一般分别立为词条。分立后通常以英国拼写形式为主词条,美国拼写形式用等于参见法参见至主词条。复合词一般只取英国拼写形式(如只立词条 **colour film**, 不另立 **color film**),但如仅属美国用语则立美国拼写形式为词条。

9. 人物条目以姓为词目,名以小黑体字列在姓后,中间用逗号分隔;地名以主要专名部分为词目,其他部分以黑体字列在后面,中间用逗号分隔。如:

Adams, John 亚当斯…

Corinth, Gulf of 科林斯湾…

10. 带有数字的词目,如系连续数字,按数字次序排入词条系列(如 **A₁, A₂, A₃, A₄, A₅**);如纯为数字或以数字

起首的,按读出后的字母拼写顺序排列(如 **999** 按 nine hundred ninety-nine 排入词条系列);如带有 & 等符号或非连续数字,按读出后的字母顺序排列(如 **R & B** 视作 R and B,排在 **randan** 后;**Catch-22** 视作 Catch-twenty-two,排在 **catchpole** 后)。

(二) 注 音

11. 注音用国际音标,采取宽式注音法。音标紧接词目注出,置于双斜线号之间。如因词性或释义不同而发音产生变化时,在有关词性或释义前另注发音。如:

beat /bit/...

in·ter·cept /ɪntə'sept/ **I** *vt.* ... **II** /'ɪntəsept/ **n.** ...

house·wife /'haʊswaɪf/ **I** ... **n.** **1.** ... **2.** /'hʌzɪf/... 针线盒...

12. 每个词目一般标注一个发音,有时也收入常用的异读音,中间用逗号分隔;如系英美发音差异,英国发音在前,美国发音在后,中间用分号分隔。如:

bim·a·na /'bɪmənə, baɪ'meɪnə/ ...

bil·lings·gate /'bɪlɪŋzɡeɪt, -geɪt/ ...

can't /kɑːnt; kænt/ ...

13. 词目及其变体形式并列在同一词条内时,如发音相同,只注一个发音;如发音不同,分别注出发音。如:

chock·full, chock·ful /'tʃɒk'fʊl/ ...

col·o·ra·tu·ra /'kɒlə'reɪ'tʃʊərə/, **col·or·a·ture** /'kɒlə'reɪtʃʊə(r)/ ...

14. 分写的复合词、人名、地名、短语等的组成部分的单词,如本词典中已收作独立词条,不再注音,未收的单词注出发音。如:

air sac ...

Bo·lan /bəʊ'lɑːn/ **Pass** ...

15. 缩略词一般不注发音;但可按单词拼读者注出发音。如:

dr. *abbr.* ...

ASR *abbr.* ...

ASROC /'æsroʊk/ *abbr.* ...

16. 词目后加注的屈折变化形式一般注出发音,但如其拼法及读音与词目相同时,不再注音;仅重复词末辅音字母的规则变化形式,也不再注音。如:

go¹ /gəʊ/ **I** (**went** /went/, **gone** /ɡɒn/)...

ba·by·sit /'beɪbɪsɪt/ (**-sat** /-sæt/; **-sit·ting**)...

beat /bit/ **I** (过去式 **beat**, 过去分词 **beat·en** /'bi:tən/或 **beat**)...

17. 内词条一般注出发音,但如其发音能根据词目读音和后缀(或组合语素)读音推出而且无重音等变化,不再注音。如:

de·con·tam·i·nate /di:kən'tæmɪneɪt/...

|| **de·con·tam·i·na·tion** /'di:kən'tæmɪ'neɪʃən/ **n.** / **de·con·tam·i·na·tor** **n.**

18. 注音中斜体音标表示该音可读可不读;(r)表示在英国发音中后接元音起始的词或词尾时,/r/音应该读出,非此则不读出;短划用于截同示异,代表与前面所注发音相同的部分。如:

e·jec·tion /ɪ'dʒekʃən/...

daugh·ter /'dɔːtə(r)/...

dom·i·nie /'dɒmɪni, 'dəʊ-/...

bot·u·li·nus /'bɒtjʊ'lɪnəs/, **bot·u·li·num** /-nəm/...

(三) 屈折变化及词性等

19. 词目的不规则屈折变化形式(动词的过去式、过去分词和现在分词,名词的数,形容词及副词的级,某些星座的所有格等)予以注出;规则变化形式除重复词末辅音字母者(如动词 **bug**→**bugged**; **bugging**)或变化后引起发音差异者(如名词 **house**→**houses**),不再加注。

20. 屈折变化形式用黑体字印刷,置于圆括号内,一般注在词目及注音后,限于某义项的注在该义项前。动词

的过去式与过去分词间用逗号分隔,过去式与过去分词同形时只注一个形式;过去分词与现在分词间用分号分隔。如:

be·gin /.../ (**be·gan** /.../, **be·gun** /.../; **be·gin·ning**)...

bind /.../ I (**bound** /.../)...

goose /.../ I ([复] **geese** /.../) *n.* ... 5. ([复] **goos·es**) (裁缝用的) 鹅颈式熨斗...

Crow /.../ I *n.* 1. ([复] **Crow(s)**) 克劳族...

21. 词性按语法范畴以英语缩略形式标注,用黑斜体字印刷。本词典采用的词性有:

名词 *n.*

代词 *pron.*

动词 *vt.*, *vi.*, *v. aux.* 等

介词 *prep.*

形容词 *a.*

连词 *conj.*

副词 *ad.*

感叹词 *int.*

冠词 *art.*

22. 多词性的词在各词性前标以黑体罗马数字 I, II, III...等;动词兼有 *vt.*, *vi.*, *v. aux.* 等功能时加标阴文数字 ①, ②...等。分写的复合词、人物名、地名、化学符号等不注词性。如:

bal·lot ... I *n.* ... II ① *vi.* ... ② *vt.* ...

block vote ... 1. ... 2. ...

Bethune, Mary Mc·Leod ... 贝休恩...

23. 词缀、组合语素及缩略词按构词法范畴以英语缩略形式标注,用白斜体字印刷:

前缀 *pref.*

组合语素 *comb. form*

后缀 *suf.*

缩略词 *abbr.*

(四) 释义与例证

24. 多义词(或习语)的义项,较常用的排在前面;各不同义项前标以黑体阿拉伯数字 1., 2., 3. ...等;同一义项中的诸义,相近的用逗号分隔,稍远的用分号分隔。如:

ba·ton ... *n.* 1. 短棍,短棒;警棍 2. (用以表示官职或权力的)官杖,权杖,节杖...

as¹ ... || ... ~ *to* 1. 至于;关于... 2. 按照,根据...

big·ge·ty ... *a.* <美俚>傲慢的,自负的,趾高气扬的;厚颜无耻的

25. 对释义作语法、用法等方面的补充说明或标注词形变化等时,用方括号加注;作内容、意义等方面的补充说明时,用圆括号加注。地名用方括号注出归属或所在,用圆括号加注补充说明;人物条目用圆括号注出有关参考资料;普通英美人名用圆括号注出性别(*m.* 表示男性, *f.* 表示女性)。如:

be·cause ... *conj.* ... 4. [用来引导名词从句]...这一点原因, ...这一事实 (= *that* 或 *the fact that*)...

day ... *n.* ... 4. ... [常作 D-]重大日子,节日...

craze ... I *n.* 1. ... [the ~]风靡一时的事物...

co·coon·ing ... *n.* (空余时间不出门旅游、吃饭或看戏,连必需品也多采用邮购方式的)茧式生活(方式)...

Ban·dung ... 万隆[印度尼西亚爪哇岛西部城市](1955年曾在此举行首届亚非会议,即万隆会议)

Adams, Franklin Pierce 亚当斯(1881-1960,美国专栏作家和诗人,笔名 F. P. A.,为几家报纸的联合专栏“瞭望塔”撰稿,被誉为现代报纸专栏的奠基人)

Grace ... 格雷斯(*f.*)

26. 释义常通过措词或加注等方式表明词目的词性或使用时的范围和搭配关系(如名词、动词、形容词的词性,动词的宾语或主语,形容词的修饰面,动词、形容词等的习惯搭配等)。如:

con·stru·al ... *n.* (对事实、资料等作出的)解释,说明

con·tract ... ① *vt.* 1. 使皱缩... ② *vi.* 1. 皱缩...

con·fide ... ① *vt.* 1. 吐露(秘密等)... ② *vi.* 1. 吐露秘密...

growl·ing ... *a.* ... (乐器)发鼾声般低音的...

a·rise ... *vi.* ... 4. (由...)引起,(由...)产生,起源(于)(*from*, *out of*)...

fond¹ ... *a.* 1. ...喜爱的,喜欢的(*of*)...

27. 释义根据需要设置略语标注,标示语体、语域、语种及学科等;有关语体等的略语置于尖括号内,有关学科的略语置于鱼尾号内。加注位置视标注所辖范围而定,或紧置某释义或义项前,或置于数义项以至数词性前,有时亦置于例证前。如:

droob ... *n.* 〈澳口〉可怜虫...

a·gent... I *n.* ... 6. 〈口〉行商... II *a.* 〈罕〉主动的...

ac·id ... I *a.* ... 2. 【化】酸的;酸性的... II *n.* ... 2. 【化】酸,酸类...

an·dan·te ... 【音】I *ad. & a.* 徐缓地(的)... II *n.* 1. 行板...

a·mi... 〈法〉*n.* 1. 男朋友...

28. 释义后根据需要设置例证,例证均用汉语译出,释义与例证之间用冒号分隔;有若干例证时,例证之间用斜线号分隔。例证如是短语,后面不加标点;如是句子,根据语言要求加标点。如:

day ... *n.* 1. 昼,白天;during the ~ 在白昼/ a foggy ~ 雾天/ Days are longer in summer than in winter. 夏季日长,冬季日短。...

29. 例证中用代字号代表词目词,但如该词在例证中有大小写变化、需重复词末辅音字母、失去或置换字母时,仍全词拼出(例见第28条)。

30. 例证中所用代词 one 指施事者本人(或自己),one's 指施事者本人的(或自己的),sb. 指施事者以外的某人(或别人),sb.'s 指施事者以外的某人的(或别人的)。如:

fulfill one's ambition 实现(自己的)抱负

beat sb. senseless 把某人打得失去知觉

31. 在释义及例证之后,根据需要收列注解一栏,对牵涉全词条或若干释义的有关问题作补充说明;注解栏前加标菱形号,以示分隔。如:

ap·pen·dix ... ◇用于作“阑尾”解时多用英语式复数 *appendixes*, 用于作“附录”等解时多用拉丁语式复数 *appendices*, 但目前实际使用中两者都用 *appendixes* 的情况正迅速增多...

(五) 习 语

32. 习语(包括谚语)作为一个独立部分,集中收列在全部释义及例证之后,用黑斜体字印刷。习语部分前加标平行号,以示分隔。习语也包含释义及例证等内容,以上第24至31条有关释义例证的各项规定,原则上也适用于习语的释义及例证。

33. 习语按字母顺序排列,冠词、用代字号代表的词及括号中的词均计算在内。

34. 习语的词条归属按下述原则处理:

- (1) 动词与名词、介词与名词、形容词与名词等组成的以名词为关键词的习语,一般收在名词词条内,如其中有两个名词,收在第一个名词的词条内。如:

take place 入 **place** 词条

look sb. in the face 入 **face** 词条

made out of (the) whole cloth 入 **whole cloth** 词条

on the chance (of 或 that...) 入 **chance** 词条

cut blocks with a razor 入 **block** 词条

- (2) 动词与副词、动词与介词、动词与代词等组成的以动词为关键词的习语,一般收在动词词条内。如:

bring down 入 **bring** 词条

come out with 入 **come** 词条

beat it 入 **beat** 词条

as follows 入 **follow** 词条

- (3) 动词与形容词、介词与形容词等组成的以形容词为关键词的习语,一般收在形容词词条内。如:

come true 入 **true** 词条

be keen on 入 **keen** 词条

(as) quick as thought 入 **quick** 词条

for certain 入 **certain** 词条

- (4) 介词与代词组成的习语,一般收在代词词条内。如:

with it 入 **it** 词条

above all 入 **all** 词条

(all) by himself 入 **himself** 词条

- (5) 句子或从句形式的习语,一般收在作主语的词的词条内;主语为代词时,收在其他起关键作用的词的词条内。如:

Care killed the cat. 入 **care** 词条

as matters stand 入 **matter** 词条

how the land lies 入 **land** 词条

He who laughs best laughs last. 入 **laugh** 词条

- (6) 不属于上述 5 种情况的,一般收在习语中第一个词(冠词不计)的词条内,或收在起关键作用的词的词条内。如:

the birds and (the) bees 入 **bird** 词条

How about...? 入 **how**¹ 词条

35. 有的习语除按上条规定收入有关词条外,也同时收在该习语其他参与词的词条内。释义(及例证)一般只见于一词条,其他词条内的习语参见至该词条。

(六) 内 词 条

36. 内词条是词条的一个独立部分,前标平行号以示分隔。内词条的词目用黑体字印刷,词目后标注词性,注音与否根据本说明第 17 条规定决定。内词条一律不收释义,其释义一般可按词目释义推得。如:

ac·id ... || **ac·id·ly** *ad.* / **ac·id·ness** *n.*

37. 内词条主要是词目的派生词,也可以是从同一词根派生的其他派生词或词目的逆构词等;有时词性不同而释义可以推得的同形词,也收列为内词条。如:

an·ar·cho·syn·di·cal·ism ... || **an·ar·cho·syn·di·cal·ist** ... *n. & a.*

hy·dro·cool·ing ... || **hy·dro·cool** *vt.*

high sea ... || **high-sea** *a.*

(七) 词 源

38. 词源分别从词义及词形演变的历史沿革或从构词法角度作简要说明。词源说明置于方括号内,在词条之末。源语的语种用白正体英语略语(或全文)标示;源语中的来源词用白斜体字印刷,其英语词义用白正体字印刷;词源说明中的<号表示“从”,“来自”。如:

aes·thete ... [*<Gr aisthētēs one who perceives*]

39. 词源说明中源语的形式如与词目相同,不再列出,其最近的源语语种略语前不加<号。一个源语与其前的源语释义相同时,此释义不再列出;同种源语在推溯时一般只在首现时标示语种。如:

ba·sis ... [*L<Gr:step <bainein to step, go*]

vi·a·ble ... [*Fr<vie life <L vīta*]

bra·va·do ... [*<Sp bravada <Ital bravata <bravo brave*]

40. 由两个或两个以上词根构成的词以及带有词缀或组合语素的词,如其中构成部分的词源可在其他词目下查得,用大写细白正体字表示参见的词目,结合处用+号表示合成。参见词目中未在此词中出现的拼写部分用括号括起。如:

bi·cron ... [*<BI(LLION) + (MI)CRON*]

be·ta·in ... **be·ta·ine** ... [*<NL Bēta beet + -INE⁵*]

a·clin·ic ... [*A-⁵ + -CLINIC*]

41. 词源中来源不明、不确定或未经证实处标以?号。如:

jade² ... [?]

bu·gle² ... [*OFR<?*]

at·oll ... [*Maldivian <? Malayalam adal uniting*]

42. 词源中有时也用汉语作简要说明或提供有关背景知识。如:

mu·sette ... [*OFR, 指小词<muse bagpipe*]

dig·i·tal·is ... [*NL<L:relating to a finger <digitus finger, 缘花冠似手指*]

ban·zai ... [日文汉字:万歳]

Babbitt metal ... [据美国发明家 Isaac Babbitt (1799-1862)的姓名名]

ber·serk ... [berserker 的逆构]

(八) 标点符号

43. 逗号(,)用于分隔并列的词目、相近的释义、某些屈折变化形式等,亦用于例证、习语、注解等中按标点规则需用逗号处。

44. 顿号(、)用于分隔释义、例证等中列举同类事物时。

45. 句号(英文中用.,中文中用。)用于例证中的句子或由句子构成的习语末尾。

46. 分号(;)用于分隔屈折变化中的过去分词与现在分词、注音中的英美发音差异、同一义项中含意稍远的释义等,亦用于例证、习语、注解等中按标点规则需用分号处。

47. 冒号(:)用于引出例证或例词,亦用于例证、习语、注解等中按标点规则需用冒号处。

48. 问号(?)用于某些例句或习语中;亦用于词源说明中,表示来源不明、不确定或未经证实等。

49. 感叹号(!)用于某些例句或习语中,亦用于某些感叹词的释义后。

50. 删节号(英文中用...,中文中用…)用于释义中,表示及物动词、介词的宾语,亦用于释义、例证、习语中其他表示删节处。

51. 引号(“”)用于标出词缀及组合语素的释义,亦用于释义、例证等中按标点规则需用引号处。

52. 圆括号(())用于加注屈折变化形式、动词等后的习惯搭配、释义及例证中有关内容等方面的补充说明等,亦用于词目、注音、屈折变化形式、例证、习语等中括起可有可无的字母、音标或词语,还用于释义、例证、习语中括起可以置换的词语等。

53. 方括号([])用于加注某些词目的数、释义及例证中有关语法、用法等方面的补充说明或词形变化、地名的有关归属等的说明、词源说明等。

54. 尖括号(< >)用于加注有关语体、语域、语种等方面的略语。

55. 鱼尾号(【 】)用于加注有关学科范围方面的略语。

56. 平行号(∥)用于词条内的习语部分及派生词部分前,表示一个部分的开始。

57. 斜线号(/)用于分隔例证与例证、习语与习语、内词条与内词条;双斜线号(/ /)用于标注发音。

58. 代字号(~)用于例证及习语中,代表词目词。

59. 连字符(-)用于连接复合词、表示移行等;连字符亦用来表示截同示异时的省略部分。

60. 菱形号(◇)用于词条内的注解部分前,表示一个部分的开始。