LONGMAN DICTIONARY OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH

朗文当代英语词典

NEW EDITION

最新修订版

朗文出版公司

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Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English

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Grammar Codes

[A] attributive: an adjective that is used only before the noun that it describes: *a* **main** *road* / *an* **indoor** *swimming pool*

[C] countable: a noun that can be counted and has a plural form: *This is a* **dictionary**. *There are many* **dictionaries** *in the library.*

[F] an adjective that is used only following the noun that it describes, usually after **be** or another verb marked [L]: *The children are* **asleep**.

[I] intransitive: a verb that has no direct object: *They all* **came** *yesterday. We* **set off** *at 7 o'clock.*

[L] a verb that is followed by a noun or adjective complement, which refers to the subject of the verb. **Be** is the most common [L] verb but there are several others: *Jane* **is** *a doctor. Her dress* **was** *blue. He* **became** *President. You* **look** *very tired.*

[P] plural: a noun that is used only with a plural verb or pronoun, and that has no singular form: *These* **trousers** *are too tight.*

[S] singular: a noun that is used only in the singular, and that has no plural form: *There was a* **babble** *of voices. Let me have a* **think** *about it.*

[T] transitive; a verb that is followed by a direct object, which can be either a noun phrase or a clause: *She* **rides** *a bicycle to school. He* **made up** *a good excuse. We* **decided** *to leave. I've* **given up** *eating meat.*

[U] uncountable: a noun that cannot be counted, and that has no plural form: *We drink* **milk** *with our dinner. There isn't much* **milk** *left. / The book contained some interesting* **information** *about the town.*

[*the*] a noun that is the name of an actual place, organization, etc., and that is always used with the definite article: *the* **White House**. *This land belongs to the* **Crown**.

[~~*the*~~] a noun that is the name of an actual place, organization, etc. and that is never used with the definite article: *How did* **Wall Street** *react to this news? The matter was debated in* **Parliament**/*in* **Congress**.

[after *n*] shows that an adjective, adverb, or noun can follow a noun: *a piece of wood three inches* **thick**. *the director* **designate**

[*no comp.*] shows that an adjective or adverb is not used in the comparative or superlative form (with **-er**/**-est**, or **more**/**most**): *a* **nuclear** *weapon. a* **main** *road*

[+ *to-v*] shows that a word can be followed by an infinitive verb with **to**: *I* **want** *to leave early today. an* **attempt** *to reach an agreement / We're* **ready** *to go.*

[+ ~~*to*~~ *v*] shows that a verb can be followed by an infinitive verb without **to**: *You* **must** *tell the police about this. I* **saw** *him leave early today.*

[+ *v-ing*] shows that a verb can be followed by another verb in the **-ing** form: *I* **like** *playing football. We* **watched** *them playing football.*

[+ *that*] shows that a word can be followed by a clause beginning with **that**: *He* **read** *that oil prices were going down.*

[+ (*that*)] shows that a word can be followed by a clause beginning with **that**, but the word **that** can be left out: *He* **knew** *he would be late for work. I'm* **sorry** *you failed your exam.*

[+ *wh-*] shows that a word can be followed by a word beginning with **wh-** (such as **where**, **why**, or **when**) or by **how**: *He didn't* **know** *what to do/how to do it/where to find her. / the* **reason** *why I was so late / I'm not* **sure** *where to go.*

[+ *v-ed*] shows that a verb can be followed by a past participle: *She* **got** *trapped. We're* **having** *the car repaired.*

[+ *adv/prep*] shows that a word (esp. a verb) can be followed by an adverbial or prepositional phrase: *She* **lives** *abroad. She* **lives** *in the next street.* **Put** *it away.* / **Put** *it in the box. We could see* **far** *into the distance.*

[+ *obj(i)* + *obj(d)*] shows that a verb can be followed by an indirect object and then a direct object: **Give** *the teacher your book. Let me* **buy** *you a drink.*

[~~*obj*~~] shows that the direct object of a [T] verb can only be a clause and cannot be a noun or pronoun: [T + *that*; ~~*obj*~~] *The court* **determined** *that the man was guilty of assault.*

[*not in progressive forms*] shows that a verb is not used in the progressive aspect (i.e. not following the verb **be** in an **-ing** form): *I* **hate** *football.* (NOT *I am* **hating** *football.*) *She* **knows** *him quite well.*

[+ *sing./pl. v*] shows that a noun represents a group. In the singular it can be followed either by a singular verb or (especially in British English) by a plural verb: *The football* **team** *is/are playing tonight.*

Pronunciation Table

Consonants

symbol	key word
b	**b**ack
d	**d**ay
ð	**th**en
dʒ	**j**ump
f	**f**at
g	**g**et
h	**h**ot
j	**y**et
k	**k**ey
l	**l**ed
m	**m**um
n	**n**un
ŋ	su**ng**
p	**p**en
r	**r**ed
s	**s**oon
ʃ	fi**sh**ing
t	**t**ea
tʃ	**ch**eer
θ	**th**ing
v	**v**iew
w	**w**et
x	lo**ch**
z	**z**ero
ʒ	plea**s**ure

Vowels

symbol	key word
iː	**ea**t
ɪ	**i**t
i	happ**y**
ɨ	*a*cid
e	b**e**d
æ	b**a**d
ɑː	c**a**lm
ɒ	p**o**t
ɔː	c**au**ght
ʊ	p**u**t
ʊ̟	act**u**ality
ʊ̠	ambul**a**nce
uː	sh**oe**
ʌ	c**u**t
ɜː	b**ir**d
ə	cupb**oa**rd
eɪ	m**a**ke
əʊ	n**o**te
aɪ	b**i**te
aʊ	n**ow**
ɔɪ	b**oy**
ɪə	h**ere**
ɪə	peculi**ar**
eə	th**ere**
ʊə	p**oor**
uə	r**itu**al
eɪə	pl**ay**er
əʊə	l**ow**er
aɪə	t**ire**
aʊə	t**ow**er
ɔɪə	employ**er**

Special signs

|	separates British and American pronunciations: British on the left, American on the right
ˈ/	shows main stress
ˌ/	shows secondary stress
ˈ◂/	shows stress shift
ʳ/	at the end of a word means that /r/ is usually pronounced in American English and is pronounced in British English when the next word begins with a vowel sound
/ɪ̞/	means that some speakers use /ɪ/ and others use /ə/
/ʊ̟/	means that some speakers use /ʊ/ and others use /ə/
(ə)/	means that /ə/ may or may not be used

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Preface

In the early stages of learning a foreign language, one of our essential tools is a good bilingual dictionary, linking words of the language we know well to the corresponding words in the language we are learning. But as our competence and confidence increase, we reach a point at which the bilingual dictionary is inadequate to our needs. It ties us down to a perpetual exercise of translation, inhibits us from free creative expression in the foreign language we are now mastering, and simply does not give us enough information on the meanings and grammatical constraints of the words we want to use.

Learners all over the world need to reach that stage with English more than with any other language, and the new edition of the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* has been expertly and skilfully prepared to match their requirements. The rich and wide selection of headwords is drawn from both spoken and written sources, ordinary discourse and technical communication, British and American usage, as recorded in the many millions of running words in the Longman files of citations. Words are individually coded in a clear notation to indicate the grammatical relations into which they can enter, and their meanings are stated in terms of a uniquely devised small and clear *defining vocabulary*, separately listed for ease of reference. The definitions and the wealth of insightful and highly natural examples that accompany them bear witness to the expert professionalism of the Longman lexicographers, working in close collaboration both with linguistic experts, British and American, and also with numerous teachers possessing long experience of classroom work in many countries of the world. Special attention can thus be given to the known needs of advanced students, needs which include the most up-to-date meanings and such pragmatic aspects of usage as courtesy, intention, and speaker-addressee relations.

This Dictionary recognizes, not least, the international role of English as an essential instrument of communication. Through every aspect of its design, it securely speeds the learner's efficient and sensitive control of the language.

Professor Sir Randolph Quirk

General Introduction

This Dictionary aims to provide advanced students and teachers of English with accurate and appropriate information on the core vocabulary of contemporary international English, covering both the major varieties, American and British English, in particular. Around 56,000 words and phrases are entered, including scientific and technical language, business and computer terms, literary words, and informal and idiomatic usage. But the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* is not simply a reference book in which students can look up words and meanings that they do not know: it is also a vocabulary resource book, giving information on the grammar, collocations, and stylistic and situational appropriacy of words that will help students understand new vocabulary sufficiently well for them to *produce* the words correctly in speech or writing.

The overall approach of the Dictionary has been developed over several years, and has benefited considerably from the reactions of users of the first (1978) edition, from detailed reviews in learned journals, and from our own discussions with students, teachers, and academics. Most notably, we have conducted several research projects with schools and universities, in various countries, including Belgium, Britain, France, Germany, Mexico, Nigeria, Japan, and the United States, to try to find out how effectively students make use of the information as presented in dictionaries for learners of English. All this has enabled us to build up a clearer picture of learners' needs, and three main points have become clear:

1 the use of the 2000-word Longman Defining Vocabulary is the single most helpful feature. Students have found that this brings an unprecedented clarity to the definitions.

2 although grammatical information is sometimes sought, most users found mnemonic codes offputting and impenetrable

3 examples are essential to a thorough understanding of the different uses of words

In response to these findings, the technique of writing entries using the Defining Vocabulary has been refined for this Dictionary, a new transparent system of grammatical presentation has been devised, and examples, selected particularly to aid vocabulary expansion and correct choice of words, have received special attention.

Our view that dictionaries for learners should present words not as isolated units of meaning, but rather in terms of their function in combination with other words and structures, has been confirmed by recent developments in the fields of text linguistics, vocabulary acquisition, and pragmatics. Consequently, a great deal of attention has been paid to showing the collocational properties of words and the grammatical relations into which they can enter. In addition, 20 Language Notes have been included in the Dictionary. These consider, among other things, the principles underlying the pragmatic implications of language use, and give guidance on the appropriate choice of words and phrases for particular purposes and in particular contexts.

The Longman Citation Corpus, consisting originally of around 25 million words of text on half a million conventional index cards (equivalent to scanning about 500 medium-sized books) has been expanded and updated by adding a further two million words of randomly gathered computerized text from current British and American newspapers, and another half a million words of citations covering 15,000 neologisms, gathered by human editors, and then computerized. This expansion of the Citation Corpus has greatly aided our lexicographers in ensuring that examples in the Dictionary demonstrate natural and typical patterns of the language.

The principal features of the Dictionary are:

Definitions that can always be understood

Students of English graduating from a bilingual translation dictionary often have considerable difficulty in coping with a dictionary which gives explanations entirely in English. It is for this reason that Longman has developed the technique of writing definitions within a core vocabulary of 2000 base words (the Longman Defining Vocabulary). Students and teachers around the world have appreciated the very real clarity of explanation which can only be achieved by controlling rigorously (by computer) the words used in the definitions. The Defining Vocabulary was based originally on *A General Service List of English Words* by Michael West, the only frequency list to take into account the frequency of *meanings* rather than the frequency of word forms. However, it

has been updated with reference to more recent frequency information, and its use by our lexicographers is further restricted in that only the most frequent *senses* of words, and compounds and phrasal verbs that were self-explanatory, were permitted.

Examples which aid comprehension and production

Over 75,000 examples are included in the Dictionary, often based on analysis of the authentic language in the Longman Citation Corpus, especially the recent citations from American and British newspapers. In using material of this kind, we have been careful to exclude sentences that are too context-dependent, or that contain anything distracting or irrelevant. Only examples that are *natural* and *typical*, and therefore useful in reinforcing the meaning given in the definition and in serving as model sentences to aid users in production, have been included.

Emphasis on collocations and appropriate word choice

Words often show strong tendencies to co-occur with certain other words. Familiarity with these natural patterns is a major factor in the development of lexical competence. In the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, such collocations are shown clearly in the examples. If the collocation is particularly fixed it is shown in heavy type (see, for example, the entry at **place**). Additionally, Usage Notes provide advice on which word has the appropriate meaning in a particular context.

Clear grammatical information to help users form grammatically correct sentences

The sophisticated grammar codes in the first edition of the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1978) were well-received by those particularly interested in grammar, but many users found them difficult to remember. The same detailed description of the grammatical behaviour of words is given in this edition, but by means of a clearer system that uses transparent abbreviations. For example, the code [+ (*that*)] at the word **pity** (definition 2) means that **pity** can be followed by a *that*-clause with or without the *that*, as in, for example, *It's a pity (that) you can't come to the party.*

In addition, the grammatical information is now given immediately in front of the example to which it applies, for instant recognition of grammatical patterns.

Illustrations that give linguistic information

In a highly innovative approach to the use of illustrations, over 500 new pictures have been devised to explain the meaning of words, by contrasting easily confused words (see **pile**), by showing groups of related words (see **pin**), or by clarifying the meanings of words that are usually used figuratively, like **pigeonhole** or **pillory**.

Phrasal verbs and compounds as separate entries

For ease of reference, compounds and phrasal verbs are treated as individual lexical items. Compound nouns and adjectives are full headwords, while phrasal verbs are entered as separate paragraphs, but listed after the root verb (see, for example, **pin** sbdy. sthg.→**down**, after **pin**[2]).

New words collected by computerized analysis

The 1980s has been a particularly fertile period for new words, many stemming from computer technology, new business practices, and social change. The constant updating of our Citation Corpus enables us to keep track of new words, new meanings, and new usages.

Pragmatics of language

Pragmatics (the study of language as affected by factors such as the intentions of the speaker and the relationship between speaker and hearer) is now recognized as being of fundamental importance to linguistic competence. Guidance on the pragmatic use of words, but more usually phrases, is given throughout the Dictionary, particularly in Usage Notes and in the new Language Notes pages (for example **Politeness**). See also the essay by Professor Geoffrey Leech and Dr Jenny Thomas on **Pragmatics and the Dictionary** (page F12).

The *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* was compiled by a team of specialist ELT lexicographers with many years' experience of teaching English, who have had the benefit of advice from a distinguished panel of professors and teachers headed by Professor Sir Randolph Quirk.

In the course of compilation, the text of the Dictionary was read in detail by: Professor Y. Ikegami (University of Tokyo), Professor Mahavir P. Jain (Indian Institute of Technology, New Delhi), Professor Joan Morley (University of Michigan), and Professor Gabriele Stein (University of Hamburg).

The Dictionary has been produced specifically to serve the linguistic needs of advanced students and teachers: we hope you agree that it succeeds admirably.

Della Summers
Editorial Director

Grammar and the Dictionary

When we use a word, we need to know both its *meaning* and its *grammar*. For example, the words **recall** and **reminisce** both express the idea of remembering something that happened in the past: they have similar *meanings*. So in the sentence

The two old friends talked for hours, recalling their schooldays

it would be possible – as far as meaning is concerned – to use the word **reminisce** instead of the word **recall**. But as far as *grammar* is concerned, there is an important difference between these two verbs: **recall** is always transitive and **reminisce** is always intransitive. So the sentence

**The two old friends talked for hours, reminiscing their schooldays*

is grammatically incorrect, because **reminisce** cannot be followed by a direct object. Words of similar meaning do not always have similar grammar. It follows that using words properly in sentences depends not only on understanding their meaning, but also on knowing how they can behave grammatically.

For advanced learners working to improve their competence in English, a knowledge of the grammatical behaviour of words is obviously of particular importance. For this reason, the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* aims to give a complete and explicit description of the grammatical features of each word or meaning it contains. This is done by means of a system of "grammar codes", which takes as its main reference point the grammatical description given in *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik, 1985). The word **recall**, for example, is given the code [T], showing that it is a transitive verb. The word **reminisce**, on the other hand, is coded [I **(about)**], showing that it is intransitive, but can also be followed by the preposition **about**. If **reminisce** is to be substituted in the sentence shown above, these grammatical characteristics must be taken into account. With this information, we are able to produce a grammatically admissible alternative to our original sentence:

The two old friends talked for hours, reminiscing about their schooldays.

In addition to showing basic grammatical features (such as whether a verb is transitive or intransitive, and whether a noun is countable or uncountable), the grammar codes also give a full description of complementation types: that is, they explain the various kinds of grammatical construction that can be used with a word to complete its meaning – allowing for the fact that such constructions are not always required and that alternative constructions may be permitted. For example, a word admitting complementation by a *that*-clause is indicated by the code [+ *that*], while words that can be followed by a *to*-infinitive clause are given the code [+ *to-v*]. This information on complementation types is given not only for verbs but also for nouns and adjectives.

The same word may show a range of grammatical constructions. For example, **dream** in its central sense can be used intransitively (*Do you dream at night?*), with a collocating preposition (*What did you dream about?*), or with a *that*-clause (*I dreamt that I was flying to the moon*).

On the other hand, the individual meanings of a word often entail different grammatical behaviour. **Drive** can be used both transitively (*to drive a car, bus*, etc.) and intransitively (*she drove along the street*), but in the meaning "to force to go" only transitive use is permissible (*to drive cattle bad weather drove the tourists away*). The coding system thus combines ease of use with considerable descriptive power, and in this way the individual features of grammar appropriate to a word are clearly indicated throughout the dictionary.

The information given in the codes is reinforced by example sentences illustrating the range of grammatical features which a given word can exhibit. Furthermore, the codes indicating clause complementation and collocating prepositions are shown directly before the examples to which they apply. In this example,

en·dure ɪn'djʊə' ɪn'djʊər *v* **1** [T] to bear (pain, suffering, etc.) patiently or for a long time: *They endured tremendous hardship on their journey to the South Pole.* [+ *to-v/v-ing*] *I can't endure to see endure seeing animals suffer like that.*

the word class (*v*), then the grammar code [T] for transitive, and then the sample objects (pain, suffering, etc.) all work together to show

how the word is typically used. The code [+ *to-v*/ *v-ing*], meaning "can take a *to*-infinitive or a gerund", is given immediately before the example that demonstrates the two possible complementation types.

A full explanation of the grammatical information included in the dictionary is given in the introduction on pages F37–44, and an abbreviated table is given inside the front cover.

With acknowledgements to:
Professor Sir Randolph Quirk
Professor Geoffrey Leech

Pragmatics and the Dictionary

For many years the overriding concern of English language teachers was that their students should learn to speak and to write English *correctly*. More recently, serious attention has been drawn not only to the correct, but to the *appropriate* use of language. This shift of emphasis has taken place under the influence of studies in *pragmatics*.

Traditionally, dictionaries and grammars are concerned with what words, phrases, and sentences mean. Pragmatics, on the other hand, is the study of how words are *used*, and what *speakers* mean. There can be a considerable difference between sentence-meaning and speaker-meaning. For example, a person who *says* "Is that your car?" may *mean* something like this: "Your car is blocking my gateway move it!" – or this: "What a fantastic car – I didn't know you were so rich!" or this: "What a dreadful car – I wouldn't be seen dead in it!" The very same words can be used to complain, to express admiration, or to express disapproval.

This Dictionary will often help you by giving examples of typical speaker-meanings. Look, for example, at the following Usage Note at the entry for **way**.

■ USAGE . . . . . **By the way.** Although this expression seems to suggest that you are going to add unimportant information, in fact it is often used to introduce a subject that is really very important to you: **By the way,** *I wonder if we could discuss my salary some time?* | **By the way,** *do you think you could lend me £10?* —see also INCIDENTALLY (USAGE)

In general, the context in which the words are spoken, or the way in which they are said (for example, their intonation) will tell us which of the possible speaker-meanings is intended. But between speakers of different languages or people of different cultures, serious misunderstandings can occur. For example, it is common for a British teacher to say to a student: "James, would you like to read this passage?" Although the sentence is a question about what James likes, the teacher is not asking about James's wishes, but is *telling* him to read! A foreign student could easily misunderstand the teacher's intention, and reply: "No, thank you". This would strike the teacher either as being very rude, or as a bad joke. In other words, the reply would be *inappropriate*.

Misunderstandings are particularly likely to occur with words such as **please**, whose meaning cannot be explained by the normal method of dictionary definition; or with words such as **surely**, for which a definition giving the meaning of the word out of its context can easily be misleading.

For example, **please** is a conventional marker of politeness added to requests. But it cannot be simply equated with items such as **bitte** in German or **dōzo** in Japanese. Unlike these words, **please** cannot be used in reply to thanks (e.g. by a hostess giving a visitor a drink). And moreover, **please** is a minimal marker of politeness, which in some situations can actually be less polite than its absence! For example, "Will you please sit down?" is more likely to be used in addressing a naughty child than in addressing an important visitor to one's office. "Mind your head, please" is inappropriate because "Mind your head" is a warning, not a request: it is the kind of remark which is meant to benefit the hearer, rather than the speaker. These examples show how difficult it is to explain the meanings of some words without giving details of the context in which it would be appropriate or inappropriate to use them.

Many linguists and language teachers would argue that the most serious cross-cultural misunderstandings occur at the level of speaker-meaning (i.e. pragmatics). If foreign learners make grammatical errors, people may think they do not speak English very well, and make allowances for them. But if learners make pragmatic errors, they risk (as in the case of "Will you please sit down?") appearing impolite, unfriendly, or even aggressive. Conversely, some learners (e.g. some speakers of oriental languages) may make the mistake of appearing over-polite, which in turn can cause embarrassment, or can even give an impression of sarcasm. The study of pragmatics may thus be seen as central to the foreign student's need to communicate, and it is perhaps surprising that up to now no serious attempt has been made to incorporate pragmatic information into a dictionary for foreign learners of English.

Part of the explanation lies in the fact that pragmatics is a comparatively new field of study. But more relevant is the fact that we cannot formulate *rules* of pragmatic usage in the way that rules are formulated in grammar. The best we can offer is a *set of guidelines*, because so many factors influence the way we speak and how polite or indirect we are. The sorts of questions we must ask ourselves are:

1 How *formal* is the situation (is it a business meeting, a class discussion, or a picnic)?

2 How well do we know the people we are addressing (are they friends, workmates, or complete strangers)?

3 If we are talking to strangers, how similar are they to ourselves (e.g. are they people of a similar age, of the same sex, of a similar social *background, of the same profession)*?

4 Are we talking to people who are in a superior, equal, or subordinate relationship (e.g. our boss, a colleague, or a waiter)?

5 How great is the *demand* we are making on them (e.g. are we asking to borrow a pencil or a car)?

6 Do we have the *right* to make a particular demand (e.g. teachers can require a student to write an essay, but not to clean their car)?

People of different cultures will answer these questions differently. Thus it is less of an "imposition" to ask for a cigarette in Eastern Europe (where they are very cheap) than in some parts of Western Europe (where they are expensive). And the point should be made that different English-speaking cultures vary among themselves, just as they differ from non-English-speaking cultures. For example, it can be less of an "imposition" to borrow someone's car in the United States than it is in Great Britain.

People from different cultures will attach different values to the same factors. For example, a teacher has a higher status in some countries than in others. In some cultures, people are very deferential to their parents: the idea of parents being polite to their young children, as often happens in American or British middle-class homes (e.g. a mother's saying "Peter, would you mind shutting the door, please?") will seem very strange. Finally, the *importance* attached to factors such as differences of sex, age, and social status varies enormously from culture to culture.

In spite of the difficulties of generalizing, we attempt in this dictionary to capture "guidelines" of pragmatic usage by three means:

1 By *Usage Notes* forming part of the alphabetic entries for words (see, for example, the Usage Notes under **actually**, **afraid**, **all right**, **(I) mean**, **please**, **surely**).

■ USAGE . . . . . In conversation, **actually** *can be used to soften what you are saying*, especially if you are correcting someone, disagreeing, or complaining: *"Happy Birthday, Tom."* *"Well,* **actually** *my birthday was yesterday."* But it can be used with the opposite effect, if you speak with sarcasm: *I didn't ask your opinion,* **actually**.

2 By *Language Notes* covering more general pragmatic topics, which cannot be limited to the treatment of individual words, and which affect the meaning, in context, of many different words or phrases. (See, for example, the Language Notes for **Apologies** (p 38), **Criticism and Praise** (p 244), **Invitations and Offers** (p 556), and **Thanks** (p 1097).)

3 By comments and examples within the entries for individual words, showing how they are used in context. This example at **quite** shows how it can be used to show annoyance:

(shows annoyance) If you've quite finished interrupting perhaps I can continue.

And this example at **respect** shows how it is used in a fixed phrase to express polite disagreement:

(used formally to introduce an expression of disagreement) **With (the greatest) respect/With due respect,** *I think you're wrong.*

What we can reasonably attempt to show in these Notes is the way in which pragmatic questions are resolved in some typical situations, for a (hypothetical) "average" speaker of British or American English. The Notes are designed to help overcome problems of inappropriateness, whether these are caused by linguistic or by cultural differences.

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Explanatory Chart

Page references are to the **Quick Guide** (pages F16 to F29) and the **Full Guide** (pages F30 to F53)

a·board ə'bɔːd ə'bɔːrd *adv, prep* on or into (a ship, train, aircraft, bus, etc.): *The boat is ready to leave. All aboard!* | *The plane crashed, killing all 200 people aboard.* —compare **on board** (BOARD[1])

British and American pronunciations: page F22, F51

an·ti·bi·ot·ic /ˌæntɪbaɪ'ɒtɪk ˌ-'ɑː-/ *n* a medical substance, such as PENICILLIN, that is produced by living things and is able to destroy or stop the growth of harmful bacteria that have entered the body: *a course of antibiotics to clear an infection* —**antibiotic** *adj*

word class (or "part of speech") labels: page F37

bad·ger[1] /'bædʒə'/ *n* **1** [C] an animal which has black and white fur, lives in holes in the ground, and is active at night **2** [U] the skin or hair of this animal
badger[2] *v* [T **(into)**] to (try to) persuade by asking again and again; PESTER: *The children badgered me into taking them to the cinema.*

words with same spelling but different use or meaning: page F16, F30

blot·ter /'blɒtə'‖'blɑː-/ *n* **1** a large piece of blotting paper against which writing paper can be pressed to dry the ink **2** *AmE* a book where records are written every day, before the information is stored elsewhere

words having more than one meaning: page F20, F34

clam·our[1] *BrE*‖ **clamor** *AmE* /'klæmə'/ *n* **1** [S] a loud continuous, usu. confused noise or shouting

spelling variation: page F23, F31

cri·te·ri·on /kraɪ'tɪəriən/ *n* **-ria** /riə/ *or* **-rions** an established standard or principle, on which a judgment or decision is based

meanings explained in clear language: page F34

dam·age[2] *v* [T] to cause damage to: *to damage someone's reputation* | *The building was severely damaged by the explosion.* | *Smoking can damage your health.* | *The incident had a damaging effect on East-West relations.*

useful natural example sentences: page F20, F35

drawing pin /'··· ·/ *BrE*‖ **thumbtack** *AmE*— *n* **a short pin with a broad flat head, used esp. for putting notices on boards or walls**

British and American word differences: page F27, F48

dry-clean /ˌ· '·/ *v* [T] to clean (clothes, material, etc.) with chemicals instead of water
dry clean·er's ˌ·' ··/ *n* a shop where clothes, materials, etc., can be taken to be dry-cleaned
dry dock /'· ·/ *n* a place in which a ship is held in position while the water is pumped out, leaving the ship dry

compound words shown as separate entries: page F17, F30
stress patterns shown for compound words: page F22, F52

flake[2] *v* [I (OFF)] to fall off in flakes: *The paint's beginning to flake (off).*
flake out *phr v* [I] *infml* to fall asleep or become unconscious because of great tiredness

phrasal verbs: page F18, F32

frying pan /ˈ·· ˌ·/ also **skillet** *AmE*— *n* **1** a flat pan with a long handle, used for frying food: *a non-stick frying pan* **2 out of the frying pan into the fire** out of a bad position into an even worse one —see picture at PAN

idioms: page F19, F32

fur·tive /ˈfɜːtɪv‖ˈfɜːr-/ *adj* quiet and secret; trying to escape notice or hide one's intentions: *She cast a furtive glance down the hotel corridor before leaving her room.* —~**ly** *adv* —~**ness** *n* [U]

derived words shown without definitions: page F18, F33

gap /gæp/ *n* [(**in, between**)] an empty space between two objects or two parts of an object: *The gate was locked but we went through a gap in the fence.*

grammar codes: page F28, F39

guarantee² *v* [T] **1** to give a guarantee: *The manufacturers guarantee the watch for three years.* [+(*that*)] *They have guaranteed that any faulty parts will be replaced free of charge.* [+*obj*+*to-v*] *Our products are guaranteed to last for years.* [+*obj*+*adj*] *All our food is guaranteed free of artificial preservatives*

hit man /ˈ· ·/ *n infml, esp. AmE* a criminal who is employed to kill someone

labels showing style, region, etc.: page F26, F45

hope·ful·ly /ˈhəʊpfəli/ *adv* **1** in a hopeful way: *The little boy looked at her hopefully as she handed out the sweets.* **2** if our hopes succeed: *Hopefully we'll be there by dinnertime.*
■ USAGE This second meaning of **hopefully** is now very common, especially in speech, but it is thought by some people to be incorrect.

Usage Notes: page F25, F49

im·port¹ /ɪmˈpɔːt‖-ɔːrt/ *v* [T (**from**)] to bring in (something, esp. goods) from another place or esp. another country: *a rise in the number of imported cars|of cars imported from Japan* —compare EXPORT¹ —~**er** *n*

"cross-references" directing you to other words: page F27, F48

in·ci·dent /ˈɪnsɪ̣dənt/ *n* **1** an event; a happening, esp. one that is unusual: *one of the strangest incidents in my life|The day passed quietly,* **without further incident**. (=with nothing unusual happening)

words often used together, shown in dark type: page F19, F36
explanation of example: page F21, F36

lb *written abbrev. for:* pound (weight)
lbw /ˌel bi ˈdʌbəljuː/ *abbrev. for:* **leg before wicket** (LEG¹)
LCD /el siː ˈdiː/ *n* liquid crystal display; part of an apparatus on which numbers, letters, etc. are shown by passing an electric current through a special liquid

abbreviations and words using capital letters: page F31

mal- —see WORD FORMATION, p B5

prefixes and suffixes: page F19, F31

out·do /aʊtˈduː/ *v* -**did** /ˈdɪd/, -**done** /ˈdʌn/, *3rd person sing. present tense* -**does** /ˈdʌz/ [T] to do or be better than (someone else)

irregular verb forms: page F23, F38

o·vum /ˈəʊvəm/ *n* **ova** /ˈəʊvə/ *tech* an egg, esp. one that develops inside the mother's body

nouns with irregular plurals: page F23, F38

A Quick Guide to Using the Dictionary

The Quick Guide explains how to find the word or meaning you are looking for, and how the dictionary can help you to choose the RIGHT word and use it in the RIGHT way.

1 Finding the word you are looking for

Read the passage. Some of the words are in dark type, and the section that follows explains how to find them in the dictionary.

Chairman's report on this year's results

This has been an excellent year for the company, with sales well above our original **forecasts**, and the big increase in profits has enabled us to reduce our borrowings from the **bank**. Most of the improvement has been in our exports to overseas customers, and this is partly due to better **market research**. Our performance in the home market remains rather **run-of-the-mill**, but there are encouraging signs that we are beginning to do better in this area too. Only three or four years ago, we were regarded as the **lame ducks** of the industry, so this has been a remarkable turnaround in the company's fortunes.

"... sales well above our original **forecasts**"

fore·cast[1] /fɔːkɑːst ˈfɔrkæst/ *v* **-cast** *or* **-casted** [T] to say, esp. with the help of some kind of knowledge (what is going to happen at some future time); PREDICT: *He confidently forecast a big increase in sales, and he turned out to be right.* [+ *that*] *The teacher forecast that fifteen of his pupils would pass the exam.* [+ *wh-*] *I wouldn't like to forecast whether he will resign.* — **~er** *n. a weather forecaster*

forecast[2] *n* a statement of future events, based on some kind of knowledge or judgment: *The weather forecast on the radio said there would be heavy rain.* / *the government's economic forecasts for the coming year* [+ *that*] *The newspaper's forecast that the government would only last for six months turned out to be wrong.*

There are two separate entries for the word **forecast**. This is because it can be used either as a verb or as a noun. In this passage it is being used as a noun, so you need to look at the second of these entries to find the meaning. Words that look the same but belong to a different word class are dealt with in separate entries. Each entry is marked with a raised number (like **forecast**[1] and **forecast**[2]), so if you don't find the meaning you want in the first entry, carry on looking.

"... to reduce our borrowings from the **bank**"

bank[1] /bæŋk/ *n* **1** (a local office of) a business organization which performs services connected with money, esp. keeping money for customers and paying it out on demand: *The major banks have announced an increase in interest rates.|She works at the bank in the High Street.* '*I think she's a lot more interested in your* **bank balance** (= your money) *than your personality!*' **2** a place where something is kept until it is ready for use, esp. products of human origin for medical use: *a kidney bank|Hospital blood banks have saved many lives.* **3** (a person who keeps) a supply of money or pieces for payment or use in a game of chance —see also **break the bank** (BREAK)

bank[2] *v* **1** [T] to put or keep (money) in a bank **2** [I] **(with)** to keep one's money (esp. in the stated bank): *Who do you bank with?*

bank[3] *n* **1** land along the side of a river, lake, etc.: *the left bank of the Seine|the banks of the River Nile*

This numbering system is also used for words with completely different meanings. So, for example **bank**[1] and **bank**[3] are treated separately, even though they are both nouns because there is no historical connection between the two words and their meanings are completely different.

"... better **market research** ... remains rather **run-of-the-mill**"

market price /ˌ-ˈ-/ *n* the price which buyers will actually pay for something

market research /ˌ-ˈ-ˌ-/ *n* [U] the process of collecting information about what people buy and why, usu. done by companies so that they can find ways of increasing sales: *We know the product will sell well because we've done a lot of market research on it.*

market town /ˈ-ˌ-/ *n* a town where a market is sometimes held, esp. one for buying and selling sheep, cattle, etc.

run-off /ˈ-ˌ-/ *n* a last race or competition to decide the winner, because two or more people have won an equal number of points, races, etc. —compare PLAY-OFF; see also RUN **off**

run-of-the-mill /ˌ-ˌ-ˈ-/ *adj usu. derog* ordinary; not special in any way: *a run-of-the-mill office job|performance* —see also RUN[1] (6)

runs /rʌnz/ *n* [*the* + P] *infml. esp. BrE for* DIARRHOEA

runt /rʌnt/ *n* **1** a small badly developed animal

Market research and **run-of-the-mill** are "compound words": that is, expressions which are made up of two or more words but which function in the same way as single words and have their own special meanings. Some compound words are written as one word (like **chairman** and **turnaround**), some are written as two separate words (like **market research**), and some are joined by hyphens (like **run-of-the-mill**). Compound words appear in their own place in strict alphabetical order, as these examples show.

"... regarded as the **lame ducks** of the industry"

lame duck /ˌ-ˈ-/ *n sometimes derog* **1** a person or business that is helpless or ineffective **2** *AmE* a political official whose period in office will soon end

duck[1] /dʌk/ *n* **ducks** *or* **duck 1** [C] **drake** *masc.* — a common swimming bird with short legs and a wide beak, either wild or kept for meat, eggs, and soft feathers —see also DUCKS, DEAD DUCK, LAME DUCK, SITTING DUCK, **like water off a duck's back** (WATER)

Lame duck is also a compound word and appears at its own alphabetical place, as shown. Unlike **market research**, however, it is an "idiomatic" expression: that is, you would not be able to guess its meaning from the meanings of its separate parts (**market research** is a kind of research, but a ***lame duck*** *is not a duck at all*). *In cases like this*, the dictionary gives additional help to users by providing a reference to **lame duck** at the entry for **duck**. So if you look for **lame duck** at **duck** you will be directed to the correct place.