The Verb *live* in Dictionaries: A Metalexicographic Study

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Tämä pro gradu -tutkielma tarkastelee joukkoa englanninkielisiä sanakirjoja sekä suomenkielisiä ja kaksikielisiä sanakirjoja vieraskielisen englannin kielen oppijan näkökulmasta. Sanakirjojen monimuotoisuutta tutkitaan esimerkkisanan *live* avulla. *Live* on monimerkityksinen sana, jonka edustamiseen eri sanakirjat käyttävät erilaisia määritelmiä, merkitysten jakoja ja esitystapoja. Tämä tutkielma käyttää metaleksikografian teorioita ja metodologioita selvittääkseen sanakirjojen eroja. Tutkimuksen tavoitteena on selvittää, mitkä sanakirjojen suurimmat erot ovat verbin *live* esityksessä, tarjoavatko sanakirjat käyttäjälleen riittävästi tietoa, miten suurelta osin erityyppiset sanakirjat kattavat verbin merkitykset ja käyttötavat, ja mitä parannuksia sanakirjoihin voitaisiin tehdä verbin *live* suhteen.

Tutkielman teoriaosuus esittelee leksikografian perusteita: sanan ja sanakirjan käsitteet määritellään, ja erilaiset sanakirjatyypit sekä sanakirjojen kokoamisen perusteet ja vaiheet esitellään. Lisäksi esitellään korpuksen käsite sekä korpuslingvistiikan ala. Tutkimuksen teoreettisen ja metologisen perustan muodostavaan metaleksikografiaan perehdytään. Tutkimusmateriaalina toimivien sanakirjojen perustiedot käydään läpi. Tutkimukseen on valikoitunut ykdeksän englanninkielisen sanakirjan joukko; suomi-englanti- ja englanti-suomi-sanakirjoja tutkittavaksi on otettu neljä kappaletta, ja suomenkielisiä sanakirjoja kolme.

Tutkielman empiirinen osaa tutkii verbiä *live* ja sen suomenkielisiä vastineita sanakirjoissa. Verbien *live*, *elää* ja *asua* ominaisuuksia tarkastellaan, ja niiden merkitykset kartoitetaan. Sanakirjojen määritelmien perusteella muodostetaan kokonaiskuva verbien tärkeimmistä merkityksistä, joita tarkastellaan lähemmin englanninkielisten sanakirjojen määritelmien pohjalta. Määritelmien pohjalta muodostetaan kunkin merkityksen pääpiirteet, ja tarkastellaan sanakirjojen välisiä yhtäläisyyksiä sekä eroja.

Sanakirja-analyysi osoittaa, millaisia eroja sanakirjojen välillä on verbin *live* kuvauksissa. Eroja löytyy niin sanaluokka- kuin merkitysjaoista, merkitysten määristä, määritelmien kieliasusta, sanan käyttämiseen liittyvän tiedon määrästä kuin typografisesta ulkoasusta. Sanakirjojen tavoissa käsitellä sanoja on suuria eroja, eikä käyttäjälle ole lainkaan yhdentekevää, mitä sanakirjaa hän käyttää. Sanakirjojen tutkimus osoittaa sekä ansioita että puutteita kaikista tutkittavana olevista sanakirjoista, ja esittää parannusehdotuksia, joden avulla kielenoppija voisi saada niistä parhaan hyödyn. Se myös tarjoaa ohjeita parempaan sanakirjojen laatimiseen.

Avainsanat: leksikografia; metaleksikografia; sanakirja

Contents

1 Introduction

A casual look into the average English-language general-purpose dictionary will show that the verb *live* has multiple meanings, as can be perceived in the entry for the verb in the *Bloomsbury English Dictionary* (2004):

live[1] /liv/ **(lives, living, lived)** *v* **1.** *vi* **HAVE LIFE** to be alive **2.** *vi* **STAY ALIVE** to remain alive ○ *lived through a serious illness* **3.** *vi* **RESIDE** to make your home in a particular place or condition or with a particular person ○ *lives alone* **4.** *vti* **LEAD PARTICULAR TYPE OF EXISTENCE** to spend your life in a particular way or under particular circumstances ○ *live comfortably* **5.** *vi* **MAKE LIVING** to earn or make a living ○ *lives by waiting tables* **6.** *vti* **FULLY ENJOY LIFE** to enjoy life to the fullest ○ *really knew how to live* **7.** *vi* **CONTINUE** to persist or continue in existence ○ *Her fame lives on.* **8.** *vt* **EXPERIENCE SOMETHING** to experience or go through something ○ *living a dream* **9.** *vti* **MAKE LIFE CONFORM** to make your life conform to something such as a philosophy or religion ○ *lived her faith* ○ *lived by strict rules* **10.** *vi* **BE KEPT SOMEWHERE** to be found or kept in a particular place (*informal*) ○ *The spare car keys live in this drawer.* [Old English *libban, lifian* < Indo-European, 'to stick'] ◇ **live and learn** to constantly gain

Illustration 1: Entry for the verb live in Bloomsbury English Dictionary.

Illustration 1 is a cropped scan of a dictionary page showing exactly what a dictionary user would encounter upon searching for the verb live, including all the complexities of its presentation. The example demonstrates that the verb *live* is a polyseme, that is, a word with several different, but related, meanings (Hartmann and James 2002, s.v "polyseme")[1]. According to Hartmann and James, polysemy is, in fact, "one of the most central problems in and justification for dictionaries . . ." (s.v. "polysemy"). Indeed, the issues of polysemy and the presentation of polysemous words in dictionaries are far from

1 Polysemy occurs when society advances, and "a need for means of expressing many new ideas, naming new products, expressing new kinds of action arises; and the method used in increasing the range of word-meanings is chiefly not the invention of new words but the addition of new meanings to words already in the language" (Hulbert 1955, 65).

straightforward, and consequently different dictionaries acknowledge different meanings, in different order, wording them differently and providing the reader with different amounts of or, in fact, contradictory, information on their use. Yet, "the non-bookish layman almost invariably supposes that one dictionary is as good, as authoritative, as another" (Hulbert 10). This situation causes a number of difficulties: not only do dictionary makers have to make important decisions on how to compile a dictionary entry, but, more importantly, this variation in presentation can also prove a significant challenge for the dictionary user: first, one needs to decide on a particular dictionary to consult, and then somehow decipher the sought information. Furthermore, the variation between dictionary descriptions may cause questions about their representativeness – when descriptions are different, can all of them be accepted as correct? If and when reason for critique arises, both the user and the creators of the dictionary are at a disadvantage: a dictionary whose entries are not easily decipherable will make it less informative, and less attractive, to the reader, and consequently financially less productive for its creators. Indeed, a dictionary that is obscure in its definitions undermines the whole purpose of a dictionary as a reference work. Let us consider the entry given for the verb *live* in the *Chambers Dictionary* (2011) in Illustration 2:

live[1] /*liv*/ *vi* (**liv'ing**; **lived** /*livd*/) to have, or continue in, life, temporal, spiritual, or figurative, to be alive; to enjoy life; to lead one's life in a certain way, eg *live well, loosely*, etc; to be supported, subsist, get a living; to survive, remain alive, escape death; to continue, last, escape destruction or oblivion; to reside or dwell. ◆ *vt* to spend or pass; to act in conformity to; to express (eg a set of principles, a creed, etc) by one's life, make one's life the same thing as. [OE *lifian* (WSax *libban*)]

Illustration 2: Entry for the verb live in Chambers Dictionary.

In this entry for the verb *live*, the meanings are given in a single column, only a semicolon between each meaning. Meanings are not presented in full sentences, and commas do not necessarily only stand between different submeanings, but between other elements as well. Examples are sparse and seem to

somewhat overlap. What, exactly, is meant by "having *temporal* or *spiritual* or *figurative* life"? What is the difference between *continuing in life*, *remaining alive* and *continuing*? These are some of the issues considered in this study.

The multitude of meanings and their presentation causes even more challenges for the dictionary user who is not a native speaker but a learner of English; in this study, the Finnish dictionary user. According to David Crystal (2003b, 106-9), up to a third of the world's population is using and/or being exposed to the English language, and the number is constantly expanding. At a time of globalisation and the Internet, the English language has become a means of communication between billions of people from a multitude of backgrounds. Contact between different languages happens more often and more easily than ever, creating a spectrum of expressions that can confuse even the most educated of people. Moreover, with a multitude of unique ways of expressing oneself, even when the language is common, the meanings of words can greatly differ from one language user to another. This situation has created a subfield of linguistics called *English as a lingua franca*, or, *ELF*, a field that has gained a steady footing after the turn of the millennium; the situation also reinforces the need for dictionaries, a need which has remained much the same throughout the history of dictionaries (House 245-7)[2]. Consequently, the importance of the English language in Finland, too, has become undeniable in the 21st century (Leppänen *et* al. 2008, 16)[3]. While there are dictionaries specifically aimed at non-native speakers, this study will acknowledge the fact that learners of English at various levels will use several types of dictionary in varying degrees and for different purposes: from bilingual translation dictionaries through monolingual learners' dictionaries to monolingual dictionaries aimed at the native speaker. Therefore, we will take a look at not only monolingual English-language dictionaries and learners' dictionaries, but also bilingual dictionaries, which in this study will be Finnish-English and English-Finnish dictionaries.

2 For more on ELF, see e.g. Mauranen (2003).
3 For more on the use of English in Finland, see Leppänen *et al*. (2008).

The aim of this study is to examine descriptions and categorisations of the verb *live* in different dictionaries, and to compare them with each other with the help of lexicographic theory and methods; consequently, the present study will be metalexicographic in nature [see Section 2.2 for a definition for *metalexicography*]. First, we shall establish definitions for different types of dictionary. Then, we will define what constitutes as a *word* in a dictionary, a matter which is crucial for both dictionary compiling and this study, but is more complex than one might initially assume. The verb *live* has been chosen as a case study because it is a good example of a word that has multiple meanings, and similar written forms with other words (such as the adjective *live* [laɪv]), as well as different translations into Finnish that may or may not depend on the meaning categories I will determine later in this study. The verb *live* and its Finnish counterparts will be examined on the basis of a set of criteria [introduced below in Section 5]; this will then be followed by a presentation of the different meanings of the English and Finnish verbs, with the help of grammar books and dictionaries. I will search for similarities and differences between dictionary descriptions, and see how well the dictionaries represent the various meanings of the verb *live*. The discrepancies observed will be discussed in more detail. The point of view of this study is specifically that of the language learner. As a result, the study may act as a useful aid in future work on dictionaries as well as language learning.

Thus, the research questions for this study are as follows:

1. What are the most significant differences between major dictionaries regarding their presentation of information, in the case of the example verb *live*?
2. Do the dictionaries examined give the information they aim or claim to provide?
3. How well do different types of dictionary agree on the meanings and uses of the verb *live* across the two languages examined, English and Finnish?
4. What improvements could be made in the presentation of the verb *live* for a better usability?

2 Theoretical and Methodological Background

In this chapter I will discuss the theoretical and methodological background for the present study. Given the scope of the study, my focus will be on lexicography: I will discuss the definition of a *dictionary*, introduce different types of dictionary, and explain the historical origins and more recent developments of dictionaries. I will also discuss the definition of a *word*, as well as construct stages of dictionary compiling. Furthermore, I will discuss the fields of metalexicography and dictionary criticism – fields that are essential for this study, and to which it makes a contribution. The relevant definitions and terminology of lexicography will be introduced. The field of corpus linguistics, while relevant to dictionary making and possible further applications of this study, is not a central focus point for this study, and will be discussed without deeper elaboration.

2.1 Lexicography

Lexicography can be defined as

> [t]he professional activity and academic field concerned with DICTIONARIES and other REFERENCE WORKS. It has two basic divisions: lexicographic practice, or DICTIONARY-MAKING, and lexicographic theory, or DICTIONARY RESEARCH. The former is often associated with commercial book publishing, the latter with scholarly studies in such disciplines as LINGUISTICS (especially LEXICOLOGY) . . .

(Hartmann and James, s.v. “lexicography”) [capitals in the original are cross-references within the dictionary]. In this study, I will use the term *lexicography* for “lexicographic practice”, and the term *metalexicography* for linguistic lexicographic theory and study [for more on metalexicography, see Section 2.2 in this study]. The following sections will discuss issues and practices in lexicography.

2.1.1 What is a dictionary?

According to Hulbert (9), “No reference book, perhaps no book of any kind except the *Bible*, is so widely used as 'the dictionary'”. Jackson (2002, 21) defines the dictionary as

> [. . .] a reference book about words. It is a book about language. Its nearest cousin is the encyclopedia, but this is a book about things, people, places and ideas, a book about the 'real world', not about language. The distinction between dictionary and encyclopedia is not always easy to draw, and there are often elements of one in the other.

Indeed, according to Landau (2001, 6) the terms *dictionary* and *encyclopedia* are “sometimes considered interchangeable”, but “[a] dictionary is a text that describes the meaning of words, often illustrates how they are used in context, and usually indicates how they are pronounced”. The difference between a dictionary and an encyclopedia correlate with *nominal* and *real definitions*: the former revolve around linguistic expressions, the latter around the object of description in the reality outside of language (Vilppula 1987, 9). Dictionaries also often include grammatical information about the words they describe, yet they are distinct from grammar books: “A dictionary describes the operation of individual lexical items, including, where relevant, how they fit into the general patterns of grammar” (Jackson 22).

The purpose of a dictionary is twofold: it is used as a reference source, to check the correct meaning and usage of words – the *prescriptive* function – but it is “also a (partial) record of the vocabulary of a language”, a “description of the lexical resources of the language” – the *descriptive* function (Jackson 22-23). In contrast to many other forms of printed text, it is unlikely that the readership of a dictionary will read through all of its entries page by page – “first of all, dictionaries are not meant to be read like that, and usually dictionaries contain too much text to make it a feasible undertaking . . .” (Jackson 30, 175). In everyday use one might consult a dictionary for example to check the correct spelling or pronunciation of a word (Hulbert 9). Indeed, even when dictionary makers “explicitly disclaim the ability to state what is correct [and] recognise the fact that to a large extent

usage is not fixed", to the average user a dictionary is mainly a prescriptive source: ". . . we all take what the dictionary says as authoritative . . ." (Hulbert 99; Jackson 21).

Nevertheless, it should be stressed that the category of "the dictionary" encompasses many kinds of different texts and is far from uniform, which becomes apparent when comparing entries in different dictionaries. "Even among dictionaries of the contemporary language there is a bewildering variety": size (desk-size, concise, pocket and smaller), dimensions, numbers of pages, coverage, and intended audience or user group are some of the variables among dictionaries (Jackson 24). Indeed, Jackson (21) claims that "What distinguishes [dictionaries] is more notable than what they have in common"; according to Crystal (2006, 212), "It has been estimated that the lack of correspondence in large English dictionaries can be as large as 50%. . . ."

Illustration 3 shows my division of different types of dictionary. Firstly, two major types of dictionary are distinguished according to the period of time they aim to cover: those with a *diachronic* (historical) purpose, and those with a *synchronic* one (Landau 27). Landau (7) calls this aspect of a dictionary *perspective*. The former type of dictionary "deal[s] with an extended period of time, often centuries, with the chief purpose of tracing the development of forms and meanings of each headword over the period covered" (Landau 27). On the other hand, the latter type "deal[s] with a narrow band of time and attempt[s] to represent the lexicon as it exists at a particular point in time – not necessarily the present" (Jackson 23). This study is concerned with synchronic dictionaries, which are further divided based on the number of languages they contain: monolingual dictionaries for one language only, and bilingual dictionaries for two languages – aimed at "someone who understands one language but not the other" (Landau 8)[4]. Monolingual dictionaries can be divided on the basis of their intended user groups: native-speaker dictionaries aimed at native speakers of English, and monolingual learners' dictionaries for non-native speakers of English. Bilingual dictionaries can be divided based on the

4 In actuality, many users of bilingual dictionaries may be competent in both languages of the dictionary to a greater or smaller extent – the main point here is that the dictionary user is more competent in one of the languages than the other.

direction of the translation. As a focal point of this study, monolingual native-speaker dictionaries will be further divided into groups according to the language they aim to represent: general, special-subject and special-purpose. Accordingly, other types of dictionary will be discussed in more brief terms. This division is visually presented in Image 3, and discussed below.

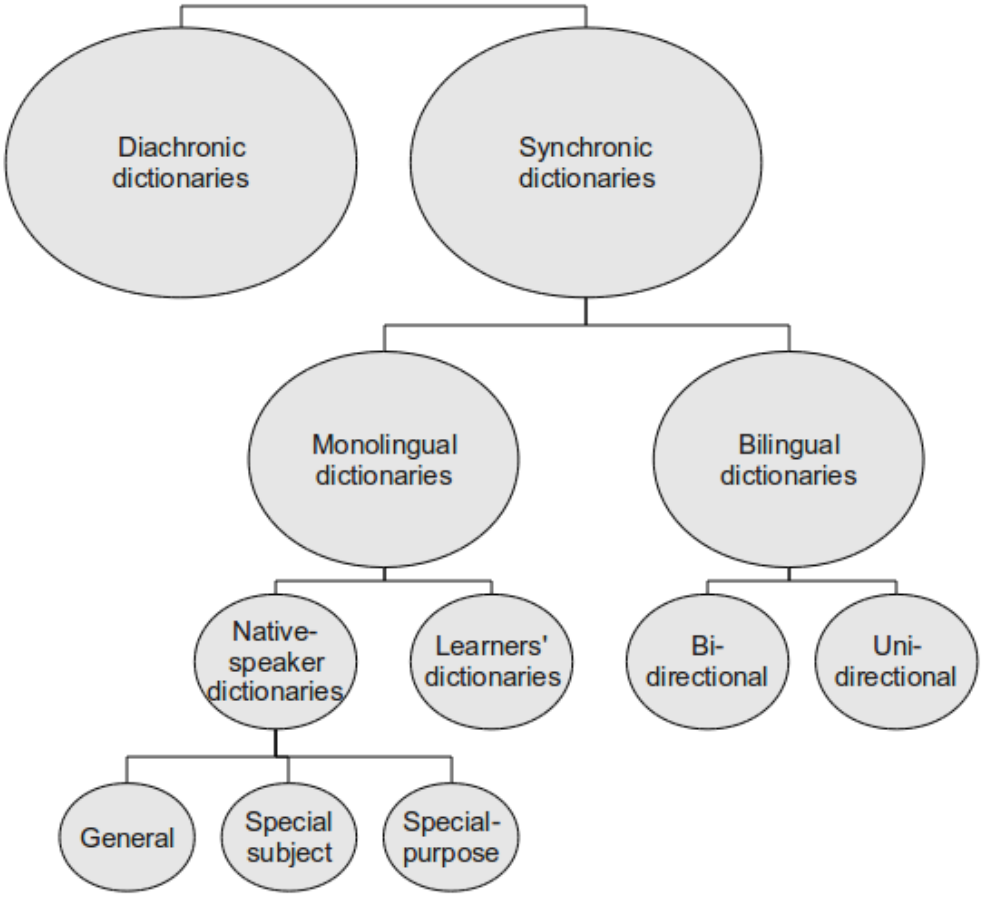

Illustration 3: Types of dictionary.

2.1.1.1 Monolingual native-speaker dictionaries

Monolingual dictionaries are dictionaries about, and written in, only one language. In the case of this study, the dictionaries will be English-language ones unless otherwise stated.

(a) General dictionaries

The type of "dictionary that most people own", "aimed at the native speaker adult user" (Jackson 24) can be called *the general dictionary* (Landau 33), *the general-purpose dictionary* (Hartmann and James, s.v. "general dictionary"), *the general native-speaker dictionary* (Landau 365), or *the general commercial dictionary* (Landau 23). Indeed, Landau (23) makes a distinction between two types of general dictionary, commercial and scholarly:

> The primary purpose of a commercial dictionary is to make money, although to the people writing it the day-to-day purpose is usually indistinguishable from that of a scholarly dictionary. The real difference is that the commercial lexicographer is in the business of communicating knowledge, whereas the scholarly lexicographer is not engaged in business, though he is often enough engaged in raising funds.

However, my study is less concerned with this distinction, and the dictionaries examined here are all commercial ones. In the main, I will refer to the type of general, monolingual dictionary aimed at the native speaker of English as the *general dictionary* or, when highlighting its distinction from multilingual dictionaries or those aimed at the non-native speaker, *monolingual general dictionary*. According to Landau (176) , "Native-speaker dictionaries are more concerned about providing extensive vocabulary coverage than depth of treatment of what they do cover". He describes general dictionaries as "appeal[ing] to a broad spectrum of the population, but this spectrum's attachment to the particular work is relatively weak; the market is horizontal", as opposed to the vertical market of specialized dictionaries (23). This leads one to believe that this type of dictionary is indeed one that the average person is most inclined to consult, and that there is a variety of possible dictionaries the audience may consider consulting within this type of dictionary.

(b) Special subject dictionaries

The genre of *special subject dictionaries* or *subject-field dictionaries* consists of "dictionaries confined to a special subject" – for example technical vocabulary (Landau 32-34). Despite the distinction between the general dictionary and the special subject dictionary, under the demands of the market "[t]he larger general dictionaries are becoming a collection of subject-field dictionaries merged with a general dictionary, which is being compressed into an ever smaller proportion of the entire work" (Landau 34). Landau (34) sees this as an adherence to "the prevailing cultural view in our society that science and technology are of the highest importance", although the proportion of specialised terminology in dictionaries distorts the recording function of actual usage in dictionaries, and increases their normativity. According to Jackson (169), "All dictionaries nowadays require the input of a range of staff with different skills and specialisms". This study is not concerned with special subject dictionaries as such, but their impact on general dictionaries should be noted.

(c) Special(-purpose) dictionaries

"Dictionaries limited to one aspect of language" may be called *special-purpose dictionaries*, *restricted dictionaries*, or *special dictionaries* (Landau 35). Landau (35-36) gives examples of such possible aspects of language: dialect, etymology, pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, usage, synonymy, offensive and taboo words, slang, neologisms, and idioms. Again, this type of dictionary is not under inspection here, although many elements of special dictionaries are seen in general dictionaries as well.

In addition to the above, there are some other types of intended user groups for monolingual dictionaries, such as children or speakers of a regional variety of English – however, these dictionaries have a more restricted target user group, and are not considered relevant for the scope of this study (Landau 13-14, 25). Yet, there are other features in the content of monolingual dictionaries that may

create significant variation between them, including the dictionaries featured in this study. These features will be discussed under Section 2.1.3 below.

2.1.1.2 Monolingual learners' dictionaries

Learners' dictionaries are aimed at both speakers of English as a second language (ESL) and at speakers of English as a foreign language (EFL) (Landau 16). The former group consists of "speakers of languages other than English who need to know it because they are living in an English-speaking country or because their country has adopted English as an official language or because it is used there unofficially but widely as a lingua franca", and the latter of speakers of "languages other than English who do not live in an English-speaking country but believe it would be useful to know . . ." (Landau 16). As the dictionaries examined in this study are aimed at both of these groups, I will use the term (*monolingual*) *learners' dictionaries* (MLDs) for both ESL and EFL dictionaries.

As opposed to general dictionaries, learners' dictionaries "need to contain more explicit, more comprehensive and more systematic information about the syntactic and lexical operation of words than a dictionary for native speakers" (Jackson 84). For example, many learners' dictionaries are designed to be as easy to use and read as possible, concentrate on current language, and typically make use of a defining vocabulary and the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) [see Section 2.1.1.4 below]. According to Landau (17), these dictionaries "are designed to enable the foreign learner to produce utterances in English (the *encoding* function), not just to comprehend them (the *decoding* function)". Especially collocations, i.e. words that tend to appear together, are "of great importance in ESL and bilingual lexicography, where readers are unfamiliar with the common associative patterns of the language they are trying to learn" (Landau 308-9). Learners' dictionaries emphasise the importance of "other elements of the dictionary entry [than the definition], especially the examples, [which] are as

important as the definition, and take up a much higher proportion of text space [in learners' dictionaries]. . .” (Landau 382).

The subsection of lexicography that revolves around monolingual learners' dictionaries has been described as “[p]erhaps the most interesting and innovative sector of British lexicography over the past quarter of a century and more”, and “associated with some of the most exciting lexicographical innovations” (Jackson 24, 69). Landau (17) adds that “The advanced-level ESL dictionaries, all of British origin as of this writing, are an impressive lot, more sophisticated and more demanding of the user than most native-speaker dictionaries”. Currently the most important MLDs are *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary* and *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (Jackson 69). The inclusion of MLDs should make for an interesting addition to this study.

2.1.1.3 Bilingual dictionaries

Bilingual dictionaries are dictionaries that work with two different languages[5]: rather than give a definition of a given word, they give its translation (Landau 8-9). Although bilingual dictionaries include much of the information found in monolingual dictionaries, their functions are quite different due to the reference needs of their intended user groups (Landau 16-17; Jackson 88, 135). According to Landau (9), the main purposes for using a bilingual dictionary are aids in *comprehension* (“as in reading, of the source language, by a person who knows the target language”) and in *expression* (“as in writing, of the target language, by a person who knows the source language”). Dictionaries that aim for the former are called *passive dictionaries*, and ones that aim for the latter *active dictionaries* (Landau 9). Bilingual dictionaries can be *unidirectional* (*monodirectional*), i.e. have the word list of one

5 It is also possible for a dictionary to include more than two languages; these are called *multilingual dictionaries* (Hartmann and James, s.v. “multilingual dictionaries”).

language only, or *bidirectional*, i.e. "be combined with another dictionary" with the headwords of the other language (Landau 9).

As we will see below, bilingual dictionaries precede monolingual ones (Landau 45). Nevertheless, the field of bilingual lexicography is still relevant and evolving: for example, bilingual lexicography is a field where hand-held electronic dictionaries "are already making an impact, and will very likely grow in popularity as they become more powerful . . ." (Landau 95-96).

2.1.1.4 History of dictionaries

A brief look at the history and developments of dictionaries will help us understand how the aforementioned diversity in dictionaries came to be, and how different features of dictionaries [see Section 2.1.3 below] have emerged. These developments can then be seen to pave the way to the differences observed in the dictionaries in this study. However, as we are not concentrating on the development of dictionaries as such, this section does not aim to formulate a thorough outline of the history of dictionary making. Further details of developments in dictionary making can be found in Appendix 1.

As Howard Jackson (31) explains, English lexicography first came into being in the Old English period[6] with the Rome-led spread of Christianity and monasteries onto the British Isles. Monasteries collected Latin transcripts into their libraries, and English monks occasionally wrote down English translations alongside the original text for their own, or other readers', aid. This practice of "glossing" started "[i]n the Middle Ages, as early as the eighth century . . ." (Landau 45), and eventually the notes were collected into glossaries (Jackson 31). Later, Latin continued to be the language of academics, and teaching and learning material for Latin was on demand (Jackson 32), resulting in the emergence of the earliest known printed English-Latin and Latin-English dictionaries in (approximately) 1440 and 1500,

6 "Old English is the term denoting the form of the English language used in England for approximately seven centuries (*c*450–1150 AD)." Irvine 2006, 33.

respectfully (Landau 45). In 1604, Robert Cawdrey published what is considered “the first monolingual English dictionary” (Jackson 33), *A Table Alphabeticall* (Landau 43, 48), and the following centuries saw the emergence of new important innovations in dictionary making.

During Renaissance, the vast amount of new words introduced into the English language, and the 'inkhorn' controversy[7] caused worry over the degeneration of the language, and nostalgia for the “'golden age' of the English language”, the Elizabethan period (Jackson 39). Consequently, Samuel Johnson published a renowned *Plan of a Dictionary of the English Language* in 1747 in order to “[establish] the standard by making a dictionary that attempted to survey and record the language, especially the literary language, as it had never been recorded” (Landau 57). In fact, many of the issues Johnson acknowledged are ones lexicographers still struggle with today (Jackson 46). Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* was published in 1755, and, as Landau (66-67) considers, “. . . his real achievement lay in his success in fulfilling – grandly – the expectations of the English literary establishment, and through its influence of a much wider segment of the public, that the English language was every bit as worthy of study as the French or German.”

In 1842, following the Philological Society's initiative to collect “unregistered words” with the help of volunteer readers, a long-lasting compiling of a dictionary was begun (Jackson 47). Its editorship changed from Herbert Coleridge to Frederick Furnivall to James Murray, who saw the publication of the first volume of the *New English Dictionary* in 1884 (Jackson 49-51). The dictionary was republished in twelve volumes in 1933 under the name *Oxford English Dictionary* (Jackson 51), a work Hulbert (38) calls “surely one of the greatest achievements of the human intellect”, and one “[e]very dictionary thereafter is indebted to . . .” (Landau 81).

7 To appear more sophisticated, authors and translators imported foreign, especially Latin, words into English or invented new words. “Although the need for new words in early modern English was real enough [. . .], linguistic innovation in the Renaissance generated a polemic well known as the 'inkhorn' controversy. The fundamental problem with neologisms was that, even granting their utility, they remained hard to interpret. Often derived from Latin roots and affixes, the use of 'inkhorn' terms [. . .] depended on knowledge of the very language they were designed to translate and supersede.” Blank 2006, 222.

G. & C. Merriam published *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* in 1898, starting a new type of dictionary called *college dictionary* (Jackson 67), which has become hugely successful in the United States (Landau 90-91). Since the 1980s, led by the *Collins English Dictionary* (1979), British dictionaries have adopted some of the common qualities in American college dictionaries (Landau 95), such as encyclopedic features and numbered definitions (Jackson 66-67).

As was noted earlier, dictionaries in fact originate from bilingual word lists aimed at language learners. Modern English dictionaries aimed at foreign learners arose from the field of English language teaching in Japan in the 1930s (Landau 74; Jackson 129). The first dictionary for foreign learners, *The New Method English Dictionary* of 1935, already used "a controlled defining vocabulary, a practice still employed by many ESL dictionaries" (Landau 74). In the following decades, dictionaries for learners made innovative advancements, many of which have also effected native-speaker dictionaries. Furthermore, the "revolutionary" use of computer corpora in dictionary making can be credited to the *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary* from 1987 (Jackson 131) [for a further discussion on corpora, see Section 2.3 below].

2.1.2 What is a word in a dictionary?

When compiling or examining a book about words, one soon needs to establish an answer to the question "what is a word?": is any string of letters *a word*? Does a *word* require intention, or meaning? If so, can a *word* be any invented, however artificial, string of letters, as long as someone has imposed some, however artificial, meaning upon it? Are such meaningful constructions as abbreviations and initialisms *words*? When does a *word* become "fit" for a dictionary entry?

Jackson (2) offers a distinction between an "*orthographic word* a word in writing, a sequence of letters bounded by spaces . . . [and a] *phonological word* a word in speech, a sequence of sounds ([whose] boundaries . . . are determined by rules of syllable structure, stress, and the like)." He

acknowledges that the former conception of a word "comes, of course, from writing, the medium in which we are most conscious of words; and dictionaries are based on the written form of the language" (1)[8]. In this study, we are more interested in written language and, therefore, orthographic words. However, Jackson's definition raises some questions: it allows for any intentionally or unintentionally written string of letters, meaningful or not, to be called words. This issue is very much relevant to this study, as dictionaries are books about words, as their marketing is largely based on the number of words they contain, and as dictionary makers do not have an agreed-upon standard for counting the words in their dictionaries. This study does not necessarily provide answers to these issues, but they will be taken into consideration.

In consequence to the questions and issues above, in the dictionary making process one has to select the words to be included in the dictionary under construction. Indeed, according to Jackson, "Any dictionary contains a selection from the total vocabulary of [current] English, which is difficult to estimate but probably lies between one and two million words" (Jackson 27, 75)[9]. Therefore, some items of a select language are included in a dictionary, and some are left out. Some of the selected words appear as headwords (words that begin a dictionary entry), and some are only mentioned alongside them (Hartmann and James, s.v. "headword"). Yet, according to Jackson (27-28), even when in actuality there is a definite number of words within a dictionary, "[d]ictionaries do not usually reveal their headword count, which would be unreliable in any case, as it depends on what items are included as headwords . . . and how compounds and derivatives are treated". This makes it "very difficult to make comparisons, because of the confusingly different methods of counting the contents" (Jackson 24). Despite this, the dictionaries examined in this study, published between 1995 and 2011, do reveal all kinds of numbers – correct or not – but Jackson's doubts do have a basis as the dictionaries use

8 In accepting Jackson's definition of a *word*, we do not comment on the possibility of non-written dictionaries; nevertheless, for the purposes of this study this issue is irrelevant.

9 This applies to most general dictionaries – diachronic or historical dictionaries are another matter, and will be discussed below.

varying terms with their numbers: “Another increasingly popular way to solve the problem is simply to report the number of definitions as well as (or instead of) entries, or to give the number of 'references' without specifying what a reference is” (Landau 377). The apparent issues with reliable word count do not seem to keep publishers from boasting on and competing with their numbers – even many British dictionaries, which have earlier been shy to mention any numbers of words included, have recently adopted this tradition (Landau 110). According to Crystal (2006, 211), “The best way to evaluate the coverage of a dictionary is to compare the words and senses it includes with another dictionary of about the same size” – indeed, this is exactly what we shall do later in this study.

The general public has a tendency to only consider those words listed in a dictionary “real words” – “if the dictionary says so, then it is so” (Jackson 21). This attitude follows a rather normative approach to language, and naively assumes dictionary making is void of all errors. However words are defined in and out of dictionary making, “[o]ne must not assume that the uses of a word not covered by its dictionary definition are wrong; definitions merely abstract meaning from a preponderance of usage”; on the other hand, “I am not saying uses of language cannot be wrong, only that their wrongness depends on the opinions of other people” (Landau 183). Thus, dictionary definitions are only *abstractions* and *evaluations* of actual language use, and indeed, dictionary makers are only human, their subjective decisions affecting the content of a dictionary. This notion should be kept in mind throughout this study as well; we shall examine the dictionaries with a critical eye.

2.1.3 Compiling a dictionary

When examining dictionaries, it is worthwhile to take a look into how dictionaries are compiled and constructed. Conventional lexicographic practices can help us understand why dictionaries are the way they are or, alternatively, in what ways these practices are sometimes broken. The compilation process brings forth issues and features that can then be examined and analysed using lexicographic theory.

Understanding how dictionaries are made gives us points of comparison between different dictionaries, as well as many useful tools for discussing dictionaries and lexicography.

According to Landau (343), there are three stages in the making of a dictionary: planning, writing, and producing. The following section introduces each stage, paying closest attention to the writing stage, which is the most central one for this study. Landau's lists of "types of dictionaries and other language references" (7-42) and "key elements in dictionaries" (98-152), as well as the lists of features in Jackson's chapters "Meaning in dictionaries" (86-100) and "Beyond definition" (101-116) are applied. The features mentioned create variation between different dictionaries; they may affect all types of dictionary, but this study mainly reflects them against English-language monolingual general dictionaries.

2.1.3.1 Planning

"No dictionary can begin to be compiled without considerable forethought and planning", Jackson (161) comments. The plan of a dictionary may be made public or not, but will in any case "[have] to address a number of important questions and make decisions about issues that will affect the nature of the finished product" (Jackson 161); in fact, the planning stage should determine the appearance of the macrostructure and microstructure of the dictionary [see Section 2.1.3.2 for definitions] (Jackson 163). Some important questions to be considered in the planning stage are the target user group, primary language of the market, size of the dictionary, manner of financing, and features of other types of dictionary (such as varieties of English, aspects of language, and etymological information) included (Jackson 161-2; Landau 16-24).

2.1.3.2 Writing

According to Jackson (27), the second stage – writing – consists of three parts: selecting headwords, selecting sources of data, and writing the entries. However, there are more aspects of writing a dictionary worth considering, listed below. These features are divided into two groups: features of the *macrostructure* and features of the *microstructure* of a dictionary (Jackson 78).

(a) The macrostructure of a dictionary refers to the appearance and structure of a dictionary: which words are selected as headwords, which ones are included as submeanings, and which ones are left out; the arrangement of entries in some specific order and in columns; "the overall organization of the dictionary" (Landau 99; Jackson 78). The data used for a dictionary may be obtained from previous dictionaries, a citation file, or corpora [see Section 2.1.4]; headwords may be ordered alphabetically or thematically; dictionaries contain different amounts of front and back matter[10]; the physical appearance of a dictionary has a significant impact on dictionary selection (Jackson 166; Landau 18, 148, 392-4). Some important features for this study are:

Headword list. After decisions in the planning stage, the headword list list has to be compiled so as to reflect the intended user group, size, and coverage (Jackson 163). The typical body of a dictionary consists of an alphabetical list of headwords accompanied by pieces of information; these together make a *dictionary entry* (Jackson 25). No dictionary of English can fully encompass all of the vast vocabulary of the language; in fact, "[g]eneral-purpose dictionaries will all tend to share a headword list that encompasses the core vocabulary", only differing in the special vocabulary included (Jackson 25).

10 The *front matter* of a dictionary consists of its introductory material, and the *back matter* of appendices (Landau 148). Typical front matter includes an introduction or preface "explaining the innovations and characteristics of the edition concerned", and a guide to using the dictionary (Jackson 25). Back matter may include such features as encyclopedic material, and writing and punctuation guides (Landau 149).

Nesting. Many dictionaries use a single alphabetical list, but some types of dictionary, especially learners' dictionaries and special-subject dictionaries, "employ a two-tier system" called *nesting* or *clustering*: there are subentries (called *run-ins*) attached under a headword (Landau 108, 365). Learners' dictionaries prefer this manner of presentation with semantically linked and morphologically similar words, so that the user can "build on his previous knowledge of the headword's meaning and add new forms to his working vocabulary" (Landau 365). On the other hand, nesting can make it more troublesome to find nested words "because they may appear out of alphabetical sequence, and if the user does not associate the headword with the compound form, he will not find it" (Landau 365).

(b) The microstructure of a dictionary deals with the layout, structure, and organization of the information within a single dictionary entry (Landau 99; Jackson 79). Among others, features of the microstructure include decisions on spelling, pronunciation, numbering of different senses, pictorial illustrations, synonyms, etymology, run-ins, usage information, and labeling. The following discusses those features that are considered the most relevant ones for our purposes; indeed, these aspects are at the forefront of this study.

The entry term. According to Landau (98), a lexical unit, meaning "the word or expression being defined", needs a *canonical form* i.e. *lemma*, which begins the main entry for the lexical unit in question and by which it can be placed in the alphabetical list of headwords in a dictionary[11]. Indeed, "most headwords, with the exception of cross-references and names, are canonical forms" (Landau 98).

11 "In order to have canonical forms, forms that the speakers of a language recognize as representative of grammatical paradigms, there must be a standard language. If there are competing forms with exactly the same meaning, one must arrive at some basis for deciding which of the various usages is to be represented in the dictionary as the canonical form." "...a single form must be chosen as the canonical one." "In English, the standard, which emerged during the fifteenth century, was that of the East Midland district that included London." (Landau 98)

For example, different verb-forms are not given separate entries, but all appear under their canonical form (Jackson 3).

Meaning and definition. According to Zgusta (1971, 27-47), the main components of lexical meaning are the *designation* ("the relations existing between the single words and their single parts of the extralinguistic world, as conceived by the speakers of a language"), the *connotation* ("we can describe connotation as consisting of all components of the lexical meaning that add some contrastive value to the basic, usually designative function"), and the *range of application* (~collocation, "[t]he semantic compatibility of grammatically adjacent words", Hartmann and James, s.v. "collocation"). Vilppula (7) notes that while other parts of the dictionary entry are often elaborately discussed in the instructional section of the dictionary, the meaning is barely discussed at all; he makes the conclusion that either defining causes no problems at all, or it is so problematic that dictionary makers dare not touch upon it. Indeed, for the lexicographer, "The hardest, and most important, part is often considered to be that of defining" (Jackson 170); for the reader the most important thing is that the meanings are correct and reliable (Vilppula 7). According to Landau (153):

> The traditional rules of lexical definition[12], based on Aristotle's analysis, demand that the word defined (called in Latin the *definiendum*) be identified by *genus* and *differentia*. That is, the word must first be defined according to the class of things to which it belongs, and then distinguished from all other things within that class. . . . Among other rules sometimes promulgated for definition are that a definition be equivalent to or capture the essence of the thing defined, that the definiendum not be included in any form among the words used to define it (called the *definiens*), and that the definition be positive rather than negative.

12 *Lexical definition*, as opposed to *logical definition* which is concerned with the real word, not words, and is the subject field of philosophers, not linguists (Landau 153).

Landau (157) lists further guidelines to defining based on Ladislav Zgusta's *Manual of Lexicography*:

> 1. All words within a definition must be explained.
> 2. The lexical definition should not contain words "more difficult to understand" than the word defined.
> 3. The defined word may not be used in its definition, nor may derivations or combinations of the defined word unless they are separately defined. But one part-of-speech may be used to define another, as "to use a crib" if the noun sense of *crib* (in the sense of a secret copy of notes, etc.) has been defined.
> 4. The definition must correspond to the part-of-speech of the word defined.

Also, Landau's own basic principles of defining that "must never be violated, else they defeat the whole purpose of the dictionary" (157-177), in order of importance, are avoiding circularity in definitions, defining every word used in the definition, defining the entry word, priority of essence (most essential elements of meaning come first), substitutability of the word defined by its definition, reflection of grammatical function (the definition must adhere to the part of speech of the word defined), simplicity, brevity, and avoidance of ambiguity (the definition must clarify the particular senses of polysemous words). Despite these guidelines, "[l]inguistic prescriptions for definition often proffer as a principle what is clearly desirable but what may not be possible or practicable", Landau (154) admits.

Sense division. Some dictionaries "lump" similar meanings together, forming fewer (often numbered) meaning groups, whereas others "split" meanings into many individual meanings. According to Jackson (89), the latter is more common, but by no means are the "splits" the same in different dictionaries.

Grammatical information. Nowadays, dictionaries have taken as their priority to provide grammatical information based on actual usage rather than prescriptive instructions – this difference in approach makes a great difference in the treatment of grammatical information in dictionaries (Landau 246). According to Landau (114-115), grammatical information in dictionaries is more useful for the foreign language learner than the native speaker, who tends to use language more freely; this clearly adheres to the descriptive, rather than prescriptive, function of dictionaries.

Usage information. According to Landau (217), "Usage refers to any or all uses of language, spoken or written". Dictionaries commonly add such usages and their labels as currency or temporality (*old-fashioned*, *archaic*), regional or geographical variation (*U.S*, *British*, *Australian*, *South African*, etc.; *regional*, *dialect*), technical or specialised terminology (label fields: *astronomy*, *physics*, *sports*, etc.; *technical*), restricted or taboo sexual and scatological usage (*offensive*, *vulgar*, *rude*), insult (*offensive*, *derogatory*, *disapproving*, *racist*), slang (*slang*), style, functional variety, or register (*formal*, *informal*, *written*, *spoken*, *poetic*, *humorous*, *euphemistic*), and status or cultural level (*nonstandard*) (Landau 217-8). However, Hulbert (83) notes that these labels depend heavily on the subjective views of dictionary editors.

Illustrative examples. Illustrative examples "exemplify the usage of particular senses [and are] a critical part of the dictionary definition . . ." (Landau 207). They may be used to give the reader information about collocation, formality, context of usage, connotation, grammatical context, and meaning (Landau 208). Examples may be invented or quoted; the former kind has the advantage that compilers can construct an ideal example for a particular purpose without having to go through masses of authentic examples, which may all be unsatisfactory; the latter has the advantage that the examples are, indeed, authentic, which serves the recording function of the dictionary and reduces normativity (Landau 208).

The following illustrations exemplify two different ways of presenting information in dictionaries. The *Collins Dictionary* (2011) gives separate entries for each part of speech for *live* – the verbal use shown in Illustration 4 is distinct from the adjectival use. Numbered meanings of the verb *live* appear in a single column one after another; some idiomatic expressions are numbered in the same fashion; and phrasal verbs are cross-referenced close to the end.

live[1] (lɪv) *vb* (*mainly intr*) **1** to show the characteristics of life; be alive **2** to remain alive or in existence **3** to exist in a specified way: *to live poorly* **4** (usually foll by *in* or *at*) to reside or dwell: *to live in London* **5** (often foll by *on*) to continue or last: *the pain still lives in her memory* **6** (usually foll by *by*) to order one's life (according to a certain philosophy, religion, etc) **7** (foll by *on*, *upon*, or *by*) to support one's style of life; subsist: *to live by writing* **8** (foll by *with*) to endure the effects (of a crime, mistake, etc) **9** (foll by *through*) to experience and survive: *he lived through the war* **10** (*tr*) to pass or spend (one's life, etc) **11** to enjoy life to the full: *he knows how to live* **12** (*tr*) to put into practice in one's daily life; express: *he lives religion every day* **13 live and let live** to refrain from interfering in others' lives; to be tolerant **14 where one lives** *US informal* in one's sensitive or defenceless position ▸ See also **live down, live in, live out, live together, live up, live with**

ETYMOLOGY Old English *libban, lifian;* related to Old High German *lībēn,* Old Norse *lifa*

Illustration 4: Entry for the verb live in Collins Dictionary.

The *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (1995) gives a separate entry to each meaning of the verb *live*, as well as to each meaning of the adjective *live*; related parts of speech are "run in". Illustration 5 shows one entry example for the verb and one for the adjective. Entries for meanings of the verb are not listed one after another, but adjectival entries appear among them.

live AS IT HAPPENS /laɪv/ *adj* [not gradable] (of a performance) broadcast, recorded or seen while it is happening; real • *This evening there will be a live broadcast of the debate.* • *Don't you think live recordings have more atmosphere than studio recordings?*

live /laɪv/ *adv* [not gradable] • *I've got two tickets to see Genesis* **(perform)** *live.*

live CONTINUE /lɪv/ *v* [I] (of things which can not be alive) to exist or continue to exist • *His body may be dead but his kindness will live with us always.* • *The memory of those terrible days lives* **on** *with all who were at the camps.* • If something **lives (on) in the memory**, it has such an effect that it is remembered for a long time: *What a brilliant production – it will certainly live on in the memory of many people.* See also **living memory** at LIVE HAVE LIFE.

liv·ing /ˈlɪv·ɪŋ/ *adj* [not gradable] • *The pyramids are a living monument to the skill of their builders.* • *Zoroastrianism is a living religion, although not many people practise it.*

Illustration 5: Entries for meanings of the adjective live and the verb live in Cambridge Dictionary.

Note the presentation of pronunciation, grammatical information, example phrases, etymology, and "quick definition" labels in the examples.

2.1.3.3 Producing

Landau (391-395) mentions the following aspects of the producing stage of a dictionary: proofreading; paper, printing, and binding; and electronic products. A noteworthy point for this study is the pressure the producing of a dictionary puts on the compilation of its entries: shorter entries require less space, consequently diminishing printing costs, and they also allow for the inclusion of more entries, adding to the market value of the dictionary (Landau 101; Jackson 162). Indeed, "Native-speaker dictionaries are more concerned about providing extensive vocabulary coverage than depth of treatment of what they do cover" (Landau 176). The inclusion of electronic products, such as CD-ROMs or online dictionaries, has become a common feature in the market (Jackson 69-72; Landau 394-395). Furthermore, Landau (396-8) mentions that after being produced, dictionaries are commonly revised

and abridged – completely new dictionaries are a rarity. Accordingly, most dictionaries used in this study have seen many former editions. Indeed, throughout the history of dictionaries former work has been added upon: this brings forth the question of copyrights and plagiarism. Dictionary production has seen periods when the efforts of previous lexicographers and other contributors, as well as other sources, have been credited, and periods when it has not – recently the trend has been leaning towards the latter (Landau 43). According to Landau (402),

> Dictionaries have always copied from one another, but no reputable dictionary today would take over entire sections of another work and print them verbatim, a practice common in the seventeenth century. If one makes a definition-by-definition comparison of a number of competing dictionaries, one will find very few identical definitions . . . On the other hand, one will find sharp discontinuities. Although phrased differently, the definition of a given sense usually covers the same ground in all major dictionaries.

The most independent dictionaries, and those that also influence other dictionaries the most, are those with the most reputation: the Merriam-Webster and Oxford dictionaries (Landau 402). All in all, Landau (403) claims that "none of the major dictionaries in the United States or Britain engages in plagiarism, but all use other dictionaries as sources or checks against their own work".

2.1.4 Corpora in lexicography

A *corpus* (plural *corpora*, Latin for "body") is a systematic collection of naturally occurring language in the form of text or speech (Landau 2, 190; Hartmann and James, s.v. "corpus"). In linguistics, it may be "any body of text collected with the aim of analyzing its features" – though since the 1970s, these collections have been typically stored in electronic form, and "indexed so that any particular word can be found quickly in the context in which it has been used" (Landau 190, 273, 284). A corpus may be monolingual, containing only texts in one language, or multilingual; corpora may encompass whole texts or a fixed number of words from each (Landau 324). Texts within a corpus can be divided into categories based on the source material, and genres based on the subject field of the text (Landau 325).

A representative corpus contains “a well-balanced collection of texts” from written and spoken sources and different contexts and genres (Rundell and Stock 1992b, 49).

As was mentioned earlier, corpora were originally compiled for studying the Bible and other religious texts. Edward L. Thorndike's *The Teacher's Word Book* from 1921 used a corpus of 4,5 million words, “[t]he first, modern, large-scale corpus of English compiled for lexical study” (Landau 273). Foreign-language teaching had a great impact on the development of corpus studies, and vice versa, especially in showing the importance of high-frequency words instead of uncommon ones (Landau 274-275). A major prerequisite for the development of corpora was the Survey of English Usage, begun in 1958 and directed by Randolph Quirk, which was later used as material for some corpora (Rundell and Stock 1992a, 12). Since the 1960s, such significant corpora as the *Standard Corpus of Present-Day Edited American English* (“the Brown Corpus”), the *Birmingham Corpus*, the *LOB Corpus* (Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen), the *London-Lund Corpus*, the *Longman Lancaster English Language Corpus*, the *British National Corpus* (BNC), the *Cambridge International Corpus* and the *International Computer Archive of Modern English* (ICAME) have been compiled (Landau 278-295). More recently, corpora of regional varieties of English, those of learners' language usage, as well as of specialised languages have appeared (Landau 292-4). There are *parallel corpora*, “corpora in two (or more) different languages that correspond in translational equivalents or some other way” (Landau 295). In the examination of dictionaries later in this study we will see that corpora have an important role in modern dictionaries.

The term *corpus linguistics* became widely known in the late 1980s (Leech 105); it refers to “[a] branch of LINGUISTICS concerned with the application of computational CORPUS techniques to

the solution of problems of a large-scale description (Hartmann and James, s.v. “corpus linguistics”). According to Landau (286),

> The emergence of corpus linguistics as an applied discipline in lexicography can be linked to the COBUILD Project begun in 1980 and directed by John Sinclair [Collins Birmingham University International Language Database]. COBUILD began compiling texts that would later become rocognized as the second generation of language corpora, the so-called megacorpora, of much larger size than the first generation corpora. . . .

Rather than a separate subfield of linguistics, corpus lingustics is a methodology (Meyer xi) – Landau (276-7) defines it as “the study of language using collections of text in a computerized file that can be analyzed by applying statistical procedures”. As opposed to generative grammarians, corpus linguists are interested in the variation in the structures of language, and “see complexity and variation as inherent in language” (Meyer 3). Geoffrey Leech (1992, 107) lists four focus points for computer corpus linguistics: focus on linguistic performance rather than competence; focus on linguistic description rather than linguistic universals; focus on quantitative, as well as qualitative, models of language; focus on a more empiricist, rather than a rationalist, view of scientific inquiry”. Sinclair (2004) defines basic principles for corpus compilation, following the notions of *representativeness*, *sample*, and *balance*: in short, the decisions in corpus compilation and selection of material should be as unbiased and well-justified as possible, representing the source of the material and containing texts in their entirety.

All kinds of corpora “share a common belief: that it is important to base one's analysis of language on real data” (Meyer 2002, xiii). Though intuition is in some aspects necessary when studying language (Sinclair 2004), Landau (278) is skeptical of “contextual clues” provided by pure intuition, preferring to resort to corpora for the task. According to Douglas Biber (quoted in Landau, 283), “humans tend to notice unusual occurrences more than typical occurrences, and therefore conclusions based on intuition can be unreliable”. Nevertheless, Landau (287) is reserved about “using only authentic examples without alteration”, a characteristic of *Cobuild* especially [see Section 2.1.3.2 (b)

"Illustrative examples" above]. According to Sinclair (109-110), people formulate texts not by an open-choice "slot-and-filler" principle, but an idiom principle, in which context conditions choices of words: "a language user has available to him or her a large number of semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices. . . ."

The study of such vast bodies of text has proven very advantageous for dictionary-making in particular, and indeed, the use of corpora has gained more and more prominence in dictionaries during the recent decades (Landau 339). Understanding what corpora are and how they can aid in compiling a dictionary will give us more insight into dictionaries, and help us evaluate their content. Here, we will focus on discussing *monitor corpora*, "large [corpora] that is not static and fixed but that is constantly being updated to reflect the fact that new words and meanings are always being added to English" (Meyer 15).

Before the emergence of electronic corpora, words and texts were stored as a citation file: "A *citation file* is a selection of potential lexical units in the context of actual usage, drawn from a variety of written sources and often some spoken sources, chiefly because the context illuminates an aspect of meaning" (Landau 190). This collection then be used as a basis for the headword list of a dictionary. Citation files depend upon those readers' judgment who are in a publisher's reading programme and contribute to the file, but despite this disadvantage, citation files continue to be important in "identifying new words together with examples of their contexts of use" (Jackson 28). According to Landau (193), "However important corpora are, they cannot be as up-to-the-minute as citation files, because it takes time to convert and process text and to incorporate it into the rest of the corpus".

On the other hand, the electronic storing of corpora means that the occurrences are not dependent on what the reader happens to notice – "[i]n that sense, the data from computer corpora are more complete and more reliable than from any other source" (Jackson 167). Indeed, computer corpora have been of increasing importance in dictionary making in the 21st century. According to Landau (2,

286), electronic corpora can be “used to study and analyze language use in ways that were not possible before, and the use of corpora has led to major changes in the way dictionaries are researched and written”; “[t]he broad availability of text in electronic form and the ability to store large amounts of data economically are the twin factors that have changed the face of lexicography”. Since most current dictionaries are editions of previous dictionaries, “general dictionaries depend on citation files and electronic corpora primarily to provide them with the basis for defining new words and new meanings of established words” (Landau 190).

Corpora can be used for a multitude of tasks in dictionary making, and they have allowed for many stages of dictionary creation to be automated, dramatically quickening the process (Meyer 16). The material can help decide whether or not more than one homograph should be recognised (Jackson 169). The frequency counts of search results can show which meanings are important and which are not, and in what order meanings should appear in a dictionary entry (Landau 302-304). Frequencies of co-occurring words can be easily measured and analysed with the help of different kinds of concordancing and lemmatising programs (Landau 333-9). Example phrases can be directly drawn from a corpus (Meyer 14). Corpora are useful in defining abstractions and idiomatic usages, pointing out collocations, and determining uses connected to a certain genre (Landau 185, 227, 308, 316). A concordancing program can automatically indicate the presence of prefixes and suffixes, irregular forms, and parts of speech, and makes it easier for the analyst to detect the context and meanings of lexical items (Meyer 16). Indeed, Landau (288) claims that the emergence of corpus linguistics has brought the fields of linguistics and lexicography closer to each other.

However, corpora do not necessarily provide dictionary makers with easy answers. A corpus is always a selection of texts, and as such reflects the biases of its designers; it represents certain social and educational classes, and is limited in its time-span (Landau 321). While lexicographers acknowledge that dictionary makers' own intuition cannot always be trusted, there seems to be little

discussion on the conflicting acceptance of the idea that the intuition of the original writers of corpus texts, and that of corpus analysts, *can* be trusted [Michael Rundell and Penny Stock briefly discuss this in their article "The corpus revolution", part 2 of 3, in *English Today*, ET 31, Vol 8. No. 3, July 1992, Cambridge University Press, 21-32. See pp. 23-24 in particular**]**. The search results in a corpus still have to be analysed; lemmatising continues to depend on the intuition of the person doing it; distinguishing frequencies of meanings is dependent on the compilers' judgment of differences in meaning; and the meanings found have to be presented in clear definitions (Landau 303, 316-7, 321, 338). A corpus will need to be rather large to yield enough results, but on the other hand, "A common problem when working with a citation file is not having enough examples of a particular usage; a common problem when working with a corpus is having too many" (Landau 296, 324). Indeed, as corpora grow in size so as to include enough search results for uncommon words, the amounts of common words become close to unmanageable (Rundell and Stock, 1992b, 47). Sinclair (2004) suggests that "A word which is not specially ambiguous will require at least twenty instances for even an outline description of its behaviour to be compiled by trained lexicographers". Indeed, Landau (324) suggests that corpora for dictionary use should contain at least 50 million words. When working with a vast amount of corpus results and possible meaning discriminations, if one follows the common practice of dismissing rare occurrences as marginal, one might deprave a dictionary user from the very item they are searching for – after all, dictionaries are typically consulted for the words one is *not* familiar with, rather than common words that occur often. All in all, as Landau (297) puts it, "No corpus can prove that a word or expression does not exist, and no corpus is perfect" – but when the corpus has been carefully put together and is representative, it can be useful in guiding dictionary makers.

2.1.5 Recent developments and future of lexicography

The biggest trends in the current state of lexicography seem to be the decline in printed products and the increase in electronic ones. Landau's (88, 95) prediction from 2001 was that desk dictionaries might still be attractive to customers in the future, but unabridged dictionaries would eventually only be available on CD or online, or completely disappear – their cost in time and money would be too high – and thematic dictionaries would gain more space in the market (Landau 18-19). However, many aspects of online dictionaries are, in fact, directly derived from their publishers' printed dictionaries, and the issues observed in this study are likely to recur in online dictionaries as well.

According to Landau (96), "Many dictionaries are already available via the Internet, but in most cases accessibility is limited to looking up particular words. This kind of access is a selling tool rather than an information service. . . ." At the date of publication of his book, some dictionaries were available in electronic form, though to Landau's (97) belief "hearing the pronunciation is the only unarguable improvement of a CD over a book [. . .] A book has portability and a solid independent existence" (Landau 97). Landau (90, 398-399) also criticises the lack of depth in sense discrimination in electronic dictionaries, and how the fast and easy distribution of information causes lower quality in "easily replaced" books. However, electronic dictionaries are likely to meet the needs of college students (Landau 395). Landau (269) foresees that "Dictionaries will . . . continue to devote most of their attention to the written language because people usually consult dictionaries to settle questions dealing with writing". An interesting prospect for future dictionaries is the inclusion of unedited language, something past dictionaries have not touched upon (Landau 272).

In relation to the future of dictionaries, Landau (269) briefly mentions AltaVista and Google as convenient search tools. These search engines could be used much in the same way as corpora – one can compare the search results of variant forms of words – although serious lexicographic research will still be dependent on "dedicated corpora" (Landau 268-9). In 2013, some 12 years after the release of

the second edition of Landau's book, the AltaVista search engine was shut down; its owner Yahoo! does have a search engine still, which is the second largest by query volume on the Internet, but its 6,42% of online queries is blatantly outnumbered by Google's share of 85,35% (Wikipedia). In accordance to what Landau supposes, Google and other search engines can be and are used as a means to search for lexicographic information on words, either by finding online dictionaries with the relevant entry or showing texts where said entry is being used, much like in a corpus. However, unless the item searched is a very simple and unambiguous one, this kind of procedure would require more time and effort from the user – in the case of dictionaries, lexicographers have already done this work. My uneducated guess is that when searching for lexicographic information on the Internet, one would be most inclined to turn to the Wikimedia Foundation and its projects Wikipedia and Wiktionary. Indeed, I would assume the importance of traditional dictionaries – printed or online – to keep declining in the future, and that of free-of-charge online databases such as Wikimedia to increase. The linguistic accuracy of such resources is doubtful, since anyone can create content on the Internet, and in the case of Wikimedia and the like, editors are not required to be knowledgeable of lexicography at all. However, this method of compiling information is more communal, and allows for subjective insights and innovations. Furthermore, with a legion of people doing the editing, information can be checked and corrected, and thus the amount of incorrect information will be minimised – much like the editorial team does in dictionary compiling. The academic linguist and lexicographer might still prefer to use “proven” sources – dictionaries – but much like the way entertainment in the form of music, movies, games and the like is now firmly footed in the electronic realm rather than physical reality, it is probable that the information provided by online wiki-type dictionaries will suffice to the general public. However, contrary to Landau's grim predictions, publishers are still releasing new editions of their dictionaries, and they are largely available to the public – it remains to be seen for how long.

2.2 Metalexicography

As the present study, rather than being an examination of compiling a dictionary, is, in fact, an evaluation of a set of dictionaries, we must now discuss the theoretical background of *metalexicogaphy*. This is a term used of academic lexicography (Jackson 30): “A complex of activities concerned with the status of the field of LEXICOGRAPHY” (Hartmann and James, s.v. “metalexicography”); a *metalexicographer* is “[o]ne who engages in the THEORY OF LEXICOGRAPHY” (Hartmann and James, s.v. “metalexicographer”). Metalexicography is not only interested in the processes of compiling dictionaries, but also in “researching and teaching about the whole business of making dictionaries: their history, their typology, their structures, their users, and so on” (Jackson 173). According to Jackson (29), “. . . dictionaries are not just commercial publications; they are also linguistic descriptions and so they are of interest to language and linguistics scholars, who subject them to academic scrutiny and criticism.” Indeed, an essential part of metalexicography is *dictionary criticism*, which aims to find an objective basis for criticism, as well as methods and applicable criteria for “reviewing and evaluating dictionaries” (Jackson 30, 172). Jackson (30) suggests the primary focus of the academic metalexicographer be “on the adequacy of a dictionary as a lexical description”, or alternatively “that of the user, particularly where accessibility and comprehensibility of the information could be an issue, as with a learners' dictionary . . .” Indeed, this study, too, follows the aims and procedures of metalexicography, and is a contribution to dictionary criticism.

One of the earliest well-structured criticisms on dictionaries was Richard Chenevix Trench's paper *On Some Deficiencies in Our English Dictionaries* of 1857, in which he lists some major deficiencies in dictionaries, many of which are still relevant to current dictionaries: failing to consistently represent obsolete terms, and families and groups of words; inadequacies in illustrative quotations and word etymologies; neglect of synonym discriminations; and the inclusion of redundant information (Landau 78).

According to Landau (7), despite some few attempts, “there is no standard, agreed-upon taxonomy for dictionaries”. Yakov Malkiel has made an attempt at one, “a thoughtful and discriminating typology”, in his book *A Typological Classification of Dictionaries on the Basis of Distinctive Features* (Landau 7). Malkiel distinguishes dictionaries by three categories: range, perspective, and presentation (Landau 7). *Range* refers to the extent to which a dictionary covers the entire lexicon of a language: the density of entries, the number of languages covered, and whether encyclopedic information is given (Malkiel 1968, 259). *Perspective* refers to the approaches taken in the dictionary making: diachronic or syncronic coverage, alphabetical or some other organisation, “detached, preceptive, or facetious” level of tone (Malkiel 259). *Presentation* refers to the comprehensiveness of presentation of material: form of verbal documentation, typographic features, source of example phrases, presence of pictorial illustrations, aspects of information given, etc. (Landau 7-8; Malkiel 260). Furthermore, Malkiel (260) sums up: “analysis may be reduced to the discussion of four salient points: (a) definition; (b) exemplification; (c) graphic illustrations (including maps); (d) special features (localization in territorial terms, on the social scale, or along the axis of “affectivity”; marking of pronunciation). Along these lines, the present study will examine some of these features, concentrating on details rather than broad descriptions.

According to Jackson (174), “Two main kinds of contribution have been made so far to the debate on criteria for dictionary criticism. One has put forward proposals for guidelines or criteria for reviewing. . . . The other kind of contribution, which is more recent, takes a set of dictionary reviews and subjects them to analysis . . .” Jackson's own “suggest[ion for] some methodological principles and guidelines for dictionary criticism” include the examination of method, internal and external criteria, presentation, content, perspective, and purpose (174-183). Regarding method, Jackson (175) notes that “The reviewer of a dictionary would not expect to read every word of the text”, as this would be too demanding an effort, and in discordance with how dictionaries are designed to be used; furthermore,

where reviewers of books, plays, films, music, and so on, are usually people with detailed knowledge on their subject, the reviewers of dictionaries are not always experts in lexicography. Indeed, a dictionary reviewer should be "knowledgeable about lexicography, . . . and they also need a sound methodology for critically reviewing a dictionary" – ideally, there would be a team of reviewers co-operating to construct a review (Jackson 175). Jackson (175) notes that

> For a detailed assessment of the content of a dictionary, Robert Chapman (1977) suggests that random sampling of entries should be used, such as 'the tenth main entry on every twentieth page', in order to yield a manageable set of entries (e.g. 50); and he proposes that each of these entries should be scrutinised carefully for 'accuracy, completeness, clearness, simplicity, and modernity' (criteria from McMillan 1949).

Indeed, in the present study we shall take this approach and apply it in even more detail, as we examine the sample word *live* in a set of dictionaries. As for the internal criteria for reviewing a dictionary, they reflect "what the dictionary says about itself, or what the editors claim for the dictionary" against the actual contents of the dictionary; the external criteria are derived from the already existing academic insights of metalexicography, including considerations of linguistic requirements for lexical descriptions, and of the design and production of the dictionary (Jackson 176). Jackson's principle of presentation revolves around how dictionaries present their material – this affects the accessibility of the information (Jackson 177). Dictionary reviewers should take into account such aspects of presentation as page layout, layout of the entries, length of entries, and abbreviations (Jackson 177-178). Attractive page layout, avoidance of abbreviations in the entries, and including abbreviations, affixes, derivatives, compounds and combining forms as headwords instead of nesting or appendices will improve accessibility (Jackson 177-178). Jackson (178) encourages academic reviewers to consider the presentation and accessibility of dictionaries, not only their content. According to Jackson (178-181), the reviewer's consideration of content should include range of vocabulary (neologisms, varieties of English, technical vocabulary), word formation (treatment of affixes and combining forms, derived and compound words, criteria for separate headwords and nesting), homographs (whether

single or multiple headwords are entered), sense division (how senses have been established, what the order of senses is), defining (adequacy of definitions, style of defining, encyclopedic information), aspects "beyond denotation" (lexical relations, collocations, connotations), pronunciation (transcription system, accent represented), grammar, usage (restrictive labels for context of use, usage notes), examples (the extent of use, the role of examples, source, consistency), etymology, and special features (essays, usage notes, comments, misspellings, frequency information, etc.). According to the aspect of perspective, dictionary criticism is not always practised from the point of view of an academic linguist or metalexicographer with lexicographical theory in mind; different standpoints are sometimes necessary in order to meet the needs of the audience (Jackson 181-182). Alternative perspectives for dictionary criticism include examining a dictionary from the point of view of the intended user, or that of a language teacher (Jackson 182). Finally, Jackson (182-183) suggests purposes for the existence of dictionary criticism: critical reviews can "inform the public of the existence of a new edition . . . directed at an interested public", such as teachers, students, or crossword addicts; they can evaluate how well a dictionary meets the needs of its intended audience; they contribute to academic lexicography, and "often propose ways in which dictionaries may be improved".

In the scope of this study, we will not be able to conduct a thorough study of all the aspects mentioned; instead, we will focus on the sample word *live*, and examine the features of our sample entries from the point of view of the non-native speaker.

2.3 Definitions

Many definitions for terminology used in this study have already been determined in the above. To clarify, I will use the word *word* for an orthographic word, along the lines of Jackson (2): "a sequence of letters bounded by spaces". Furthermore, a *lexeme* is

> A basic unit in the linguistic study of VOCABULARY. Lexemes are usually interpreted as a combination of a FORM (graphic/phonic substance) with a MEANING (semantic value) in a particular grammatical context. As such they occur as simple words (e.g. *face*), complex words (*preface*), phrasal and compound words *(face up to*, *face-lift*), 'multi-word expressions' (*fly-by-night*, *face the music*), and shortened forms which can stand by themselves (*prefab*)

(Hartmann & James, s.v. "lexeme") [capitals in the original are cross-references within the dictionary]. Therefore, a single word (such as *face*) may represent several lexemes (such as the noun *face* and the verb *face*); and a single lexeme (such as 'face') may be represented by several words (such as verb-forms *faces*, *facing*, *faced*). In accordance with Landau (98), I will call "the form chosen to represent a paradigm" the *canonical form* of the lexeme[13]. The *lemma* is "what we normally mean by a 'word'... the composite set of word-forms is called the lemma" (Sinclair 173); the *lemma* is "[t]he position at which an entry can be located and found in the structure of a REFERENCE WORK (Hartmann and James, s.v. "lemma"). Furthermore, a lexeme has *word-forms*, "inflectional variant[s] of a lexeme", such as the inflectional forms of verbs (Jackson 4).

On the other hand, it is "common practice" in dictionary making to differentiate between two lexemes that have the same form but unrelated meanings – these are called *homonyms* (Jackson 2). Homonyms have the same orthographic form but different etymology, i.e. origins (Jackson 2, 87). When the orthographic forms of words are the same, but pronunciation is different, the lexemes are called *homographs*, but these are relatively few in English (Jackson 2-3). When homonymy is detected,

13 "In order to have canonical forms, forms that the speakers of a language recognize as representative of grammatical paradigms, there must be a standard language. If there are competing forms with exactly the same meaning, one must arrive at some basis for deciding which of the various usages is to be represented in the dictionary as the canonical form." "...a single form must be chosen as the canonical one." "In English, the standard, which emerged during the fifteenth century, was that of the East Midland district that included London." (Landau, 98). This is called the Chancery Standard (Corrie 2006, 109-116).

dictionary makers typically enter the orthographic word "as many times as there are different etymologies" (Jackson 87). Words with the same orthographic form belonging to different word classes may also be listed as separate headwords (Jackson 88).[14]

When homonymy cannot be detected on the basis of etymology, pronunciation or word class membership, and the different meanings are somehow related and can be seen to "[belong] to the same cluster of meanings as other lexical units of the same form", the orthographic word is *polysemous* (Landau 100). The lexeme normally only has one dictionary entry "with multiple meanings or senses" given (Jackson 88). In fact, "[m]ost items of the vocabulary are polysemous, and it is one of the chief functions of the GENERAL DICTIONARY to distinguish between them, by means of definitions, synonyms or examples" (Hartmann and James, s.v. "polysemy").

According to Sinclair (1991, 170, 309), "Collocation is the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text" "at a significantly higher frequency in natural speech or writing than they occur with other words". Collocations and idioms are similar in that both are somewhat fixed constructions with two or more words, and indeed the two terms overlap; "In principle, we call co-occurrences idioms if we interpret the co-occurrence as giving a single unit of meaning. If we interpret the occurrence as the selection of two related words, each of which keeps some meaning of its own, we call it a collocation" (Sinclair 172).

14 Nevertheless, Landau (100-101) observes that determining homonymy is far from a straightforward matter.

3 Methods

As regards the practical research methods of this study, the examination of dictionaries was conducted in the following stages:

Steps 1-2: I began my work by forming a basic understanding of the verb *live*. First, English-language grammar books were consulted regarding the use of *live*. Any noteworthy details were listed, and based on Huddleston [see Section 5.1.1], a description of the use of *live* regarding its inflection, function and dependents was composed. Secondly, monolingual English-language dictionaries were consulted. A set of dictionaries was picked, based on availability, publisher, and extent. I examined the entries for the verb *live* in nine dictionaries. This set of dictionaries appeared to be rather extensive, but the information they gave also showed enough variation for a deeper study and interesting comparisons. In general, when several editions of the same dictionary were available, I preferred to use the latest one for this study. I included general dictionaries as well as (advanced) learner's dictionaries in order to account for any differences in the presentation of the sample word in different types of dictionary. The entries for the verb *live* were thoroughly examined; different meanings were paid attention to, and similarities between them noted. According to a division based on the different meanings of the verb, I then organised and grouped the meanings into a list, combining similar meanings, and giving each group a number: *live*$_1$, *live*$_2$, etc. The most common entries in the dictionaries were added into this list, and vague meanings and meanings that only appeared in one or two dictionaries were listed separately. Studying the different definitions in the dictionaries, any noteworthy details regarding the definitions, advice on usage and grammatical features, collocations as well as example phrases were listed. I then formed a general description of each meaning, especially noting any interesting differences – additional or conflicting details – in the descriptions. Each of these

meaning groups also included information about the use of each meaning in the form of such tag words as *formal*, *transitive* and *animate*/*inanimate*.

Steps 3-5: Next, I examined what translations bilingual dictionaries gave for the verb *live*, and for the most common translations given in English-Finnish dictionaries, namely *elää* and *asua*. I chose four bilingual dictionaries – two English to Finnish, two Finnish to English ones – in order to form an understanding of what possibilities for translations the dictionaries offer, including any commonly occurring example constructions. Different translations were also formed into a list. I then searched Finnish-language dictionaries for the headwords *elää* and *asua* – this was done much in the same fashion as the search for the verb *live* in English-language dictionaries: grammatical features were first noted, and then different meanings were formed into a list. Finally, I transferred all of these different meanings onto one spreadsheet, noting the connections between the entries in different types of dictionaries (Finnish, English, Finnish-English, English-Finnish) and arranging the meanings accordingly. An equivalence chart was formed for the easy visualisation of matching meanings, and the lack thereof.

Step 6-9: I then moved on to analysing the information obtained. Each meaning category was treated separately: their presentation, grammatical information, and example phrases were examined and compared among the dictionaries consulted. Notes were made of both accordance and discordance of information. All of this was reflected on from the point of view of a dictionary user, particularly from that of a language learner. Comments and evaluations of different dictionary presentations were made.

Step 10: Finally, considering the examination of dictionaries regarding the verb *live*, some remarks and recommendations for dictionary compiling were formed, along with speculations on future research on similar topics.

4 Research Materials

As the focus of this study, we shall now conduct a metalexicographic examination on a selected set of dictionaries. Even under the ever-growing influence of online dictionaries, printed dictionaries still seem to hold a footing in people's lives. In this study, I have aimed to examine dictionaries that are most likely in everyday use by the average target user, and in the case of my study, by the Finnish learner of English in particular. This has excluded some more specific dictionaries from my study. Two major kinds of monolingual dictionary were included: general-purpose dictionaries and advanced learner's dictionaries. Both of these assume a good basic knowledge of the English language, yet are expected to provide information detailed enough to aid the user in correct language usage. Furthermore, bilingual dictionaries were examined in order to form a full view of the language learner's possibilities. They also worked as a means to connect the information in the English-language dictionaries to that of the Finnish-language dictionaries, facilitating an examination of a wide set of dictionary information.

The following descriptions of dictionaries are based on the features of dictionaries listed above. The background information on the dictionaries aids us in understanding how the dictionaries in question have developed into what they are now; the discussions on the features of the dictionaries mark the variation between the dictionaries, and these can then be analysed to build an overall evaluation of each dictionary.

4.1 Monolingual English-language dictionaries

Nine monolingual English-language dictionaries were studied in detail for this essay: *Bloomsbury English Dictionary*, *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*, *Chambers Dictionary*, *Collins Dictionary*, *Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary*, *Longman Dictionary of the English Language*, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, *Macmillan English Dictionary for*

Advanced Learners, and *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* [see details below]. This selection of dictionaries was compiled through a consideration of the average Finnish user, and the extent and availability of the dictionaries. Some American dictionaries, though undoubtedly reputable in much of the English-speaking world and among lexicographers alike, were not chosen for this study because of their smaller representation in the Finnish market and less prominent reputation – hence, they do not reach the audience very well. Such dictionaries were the American *Webster*, *Funk&Wagnalls*, and *American Heritage* dictionaries. Because of their reputation, Oxford's native-speaker dictionaries were considered, but their historical focus and scholarly approach is seen to be too extensive for the target group considered here, and for the extent of this study – therefore only the publisher's learners' dictionary was included. The publishers Collins and Longman had both general-purpose as well as learners' dictionaries available, and both were included in the prospect of interesting differences occurring; Cambridge and Macmillan only had their learners' dictionaries available, and Chambers and Bloomsbury their general-purpose ones. This leads us into the total of nine dictionaries used in this study: four general-purpose dictionaries and five advanced learners' dictionaries[15]. All of these dictionaries are general in scope, and aim to provide broad information for large audiences. Considering the authority of the publishers, the large numbers of publication, as well as the easy availability of these dictionaries, it is justifiable to assume that they are used by relatively large groups of people. Usually the latest available edition was selected. The set of nine dictionaries appeared to provide me with enough data and variation to be able to formulate on one hand some general features of the presentation of the verb *live*, and on the other comments on the differences found.

The following section of this study introduces the nine dictionaries. The information is based on my observations of the appearance of the dictionaries, the information given on the cover and in the

15 It should be noted that for the user of the dictionary, the distinction between a general-purpose dictionary and a learners' dictionary is not all that straightforward: not all learners' dictionaries imply in their titles or book covers that they should be anything but general-purpose dictionaries.

front matter, as well as the formation of the entry for our sample word *live*. It shall be noted that the way the appearance of the dictionary and the formation of its entries are viewed by the user is bound to be somewhat subjective, though we aim for an accurate description; and the information dictionaries offer on themselves is based on marketing strategies and shall therefore be considered with some skepticism. A setback in this part of the study was the difficulty of finding some pieces of basic information on the dictionaries. From the user's point of view, a clear point of comparison would be the number of headwords in each dictionary, for example, but in some cases that information was not given in the dictionary. With the common practice of local libraries removing the cover jackets, which may have held this information, these numbers were not as readily accessible. Furthermore, delving into the Internet pages of the publishers in question was not any more informative – in most cases, their websites focus on incorporating the information inside their dictionaries onto their online pages, in the form of word search engines, rather than giving any information on the printed dictionaries. If the printed versions were mentioned, the information on any previous editions or other background was absent. Where some online book stores give the number of pages in each dictionary, they do not provide the customer with a headword count. However, we shall concede that this is the amount of information the average user needs to settle for.

Due to the scope of the present study, we shall keep the introductions brief. Features not mentioned below, such as the outward appearance of the dictionaries, are important matters when a member of the audience is selecting a dictionary to be used – however, we leave a thorough analysis of such for future research to tackle, concentrating on what the dictionaries claim of themselves and how the information in the entries is presented. For more details on the dictionaries, see Appendix 2.

4.1.1 *Bloomsbury English Dictionary* (2nd edition, 2004)

The edition notice page in the *Bloomsbury English Dictionary* (henceforth Bloomsbury) indicates that the first edition of the dictionary was published in 1999, but does not mention that it was in fact called the *Encarta World English Dictionary* – a fact only mentioned in the foreword by Nigel Newton. Newton discusses features of the latest edition of the dictionary, and highlights the global nature of English as a lingua franca and the global perspective of the dictionary, claiming that "This Dictionary was the first to use the world as its cultural perspective". He mentions the need for dictionaries to go beyond what Murray and Webster accomplished in their time, and "reflect a neutral cultural perspective rather than the history of nations that once held power over others". A large number of contributors from around the world has been engaged in the goal of the dictionary to "become the most widely used around the world". Newton also claims that *Bloomsbury* was "the first to be planned and created with the specific aim of being published in both book and electronic form", the latter being published by Microsoft, and that the dictionary is "celebrating the richness and diversity of the many varieties of English encountered in daily life". The introduction by Dr Kathy Rooney mentions that the dictionary has "been compiled in the two main spelling forms of the language (British English and American English)", also including regional varieties of the English-speaking world. The makers of the dictionary have aimed for up-to-dateness, information that can be found quickly, and clear, natural-sounding, easy-to-read definitions. The introduction claims that the editors have "developed the 'quick definition' feature that is unique to this Dictionary". According to Rooney, the IPA is an "excellent system for learners of our language", but *Bloomsbury* uses another pronunciation system, one "specially developed for this Dictionary", that "speakers of English will find easy to decode". Spellcheck notes, usage essays, synonym essays, etymology essays, and language heritage essays give the user further information on words.

4.1.2 *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (1st edition, 1995)

Despite of no explicit mention of it in the title of the book, the *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (henceforth Cambridge) is, in fact, a dictionary for advanced learners. Indeed, the second (2003) and third (2008) editions of the dictionary are called *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Even as newer editions are available, I shall focus on the original 1995 edition as it shows interesting deviation from the other dictionaries consulted. The foreword (viii) by the Editor-in-Chief, Paul Procter, mentions that the Cambridge University Press is "the oldest publisher in the world", and "[s]trangely, Cambridge has never published mainstream monolingual dictionaries before, although it has in the last twenty years become a major contributor to the field of English Language Teaching. It is therefore appropriate that this first dictionary should be designed for the foreign learner of English . . ." Cambridge aims to be fresh, clear and simple, with "no cumbersome numbers, and a specific innovation of *CIDE* is that each entry is for one core meaning to which the reader is immediately directed by the GUIDE WORD . . ."; it also claims that its use of expert consultants is unusual for a learners' dictionary. In the back matter, the grammar labels used in the dictionary are repeated – though only the first page. Interestingly, according to the contents page of the dictionary, the latter should contain "pronunciation symbols" instead. Indeed, there is no explanation of the pronunciation system used (which is IPA, with the addition of the symbols £ and $ to indicate British and American English). The guide words in the entries, the Phrase Index at the end of the dictionary, and special information boxes (such as False Friends, Labels) aid the user in locating a term.

4.1.3 *Chambers Dictionary* (12th edition, 2011)

On the inside of the front cover, the 12th edition of the *Chambers Dictionary* (henceforth Chambers) has a text about the publication of the *Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary* in 1901, and its revision in 1952, as well as an edition from 1972 that "dispensed with the possessive 's'". Confusingly, according

to the publication notice page the dictionary was first published as *Chambers's Twentieth Century Dictionary* in 1901, as *Chambers English Dictionary* in 1988, and as *The Chambers Dictionary* in 1993. The preface, which has no indication of author, discusses the ever-changing nature of the English language, and how a dictionary needs to reflect contemporary society. It mentions that this edition "contains hundreds of new words and meanings, that the editors have judged to be sufficiently firmly established in the language to justify their inclusion" (vii). The feature claimed to make Chambers unique is the inclusion of rare, literary and historical words.

4.1.4 *Collins Dictionary* (11th edition, 2011)

The copyrights of the *Collins Dictionary* (henceforth Collins) are originally from 1979 with William Collins Sons & Co. Ltd – the editions of 1998 and onwards are copyrighted to HarperCollins Publishers. The verso title page (ii) gives a brief description of the history of the *Collins Dictionary*, mentioning how William Collins published his first book in 1819, that "Collins dictionary publishing began in 1824", and that the first Collins English dictionary was published in 1874. The text highlights that William Collins was originally "a self-educated mill worker" who published "the world's first small-format dictionary, and also the world's cheapest: William Collins' [sic] idea was to publish a dictionary that everyone could afford". It claims that the Collins dictionaries are "easy to use and up to date, benefiting from extensive language research using the Collins corpus" of over 4,5 billion words. The foreword in Collins (vii), which does not indicate its author, makes bold statements: "Since its inception, Collins Dictionary has provided English speakers around the globe with the most accurate and up-to-the-minute representation of their language as it is really used. . . . we have put together a dictionary we believe to be the sharpest possible 'snapshot' of today's English"; "The principal strength of this dictionary – and what makes it the reference of choice for many newspapers and broadcasters – lies in its unstinting concentration on living English." Their "extensive reading, listening, and viewing

programme" is complemented by "a pioneering tool . . . our extensive corpus programme", a corpus of "an unparalleled" 4,5 billion words, which grows "[e]very month . . . by more than 35 million words, making it the biggest such resource in the world." In their own view, Collins's traditional strength has been in the field of science and technology.

4.1.5 *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* (5th edition, 2006)

Collins originally published the *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* in 1987; at some point, the title was changed to *Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary* (henceforth Cobuild). In the introduction, John Sinclair emphasises the modern, easy-to-use nature of the dictionary, the electronic dictionary found on the attached CD-ROM, the Bank of English ("still the largest collection of data of its kind in any language"), and the importance of collocation. The definitions are "modelled on the way people explain the meanings of words to each other, and it is refreshingly direct", and the most common words in English are pointed out in the dictionary. A "unique Cobuild feature" is an "Extra Column" with grammar codes that runs on the right side of the entry column. The dictionary points out the 3000 most frequent words in the English language.

4.1.6 *Longman Dictionary of the English Language* (2nd edition, 1995)

The *Longman Dictionary of the English Language* (henceforth Longman) does not indicate the kind of dictionary it represents, therefore leading us to believe it is a general-purpose one – though its physical size is similar to that of advanced learners' or collegiate dictionaries'. The title page gives the title and publisher of the dictionary, Viking; the information on the edition notice page indicates that the first edition of the dictionary was published by the Longman Group in 1984 with copyrights to Merriam Webster Inc; the second edition appeared in 1991, with the copyrights of new material for Longman Group UK Ltd, and was then published by Viking in 1995. The edition notice page begins with a single

word “VIKING”, followed by “Published by the Penguin Group”. Indeed, according to Wikipedia, the Penguin Group acquired Viking Press in 1975. The foreword by Professor Sir Randolph Quirk discusses the “excellence” of the second edition of *Longman* and the ever-changing nature of language that has created the need for it; the Longman Wordwatch campaign (volunteers sending in quotations of new or unfamiliar words and uses of words); and the inclusion of “around five hundred little essays by Brian O'Kill” that give encyclopedic and etymological information. According to the introduction by Brian O'Kill, the first edition of Longman “has established itself as a leading one-volume dictionary of current English” and is based on “the rigorous analysis of authentic language data”. The new edition is motivated by the changes in the English language, recent developments in the world as well as users' reactions to the first edition. The global nature of English has been considered, and encyclopedic entries have been added. O'Kill claims that Longman, “founded in 1724, is the oldest commercial publisher in Britain and has the longest tradition of publishing monolingual English dictionaries”, and discusses the history of dictionary-making and Longman's connection to Samuel Johnson. According to him, “In the twentieth century, Longman has pioneered dictionaries written specially for foreign learners of English”.

4.1.7 *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (5th edition, 2009)

The introduction in the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (henceforth LoCo) has no clear indication of author, but the email contact information of Mike Mayor and Chris Fox are given at the end. The foreword by Randolph Quirk discusses the importance of collocation: “The *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE) is brilliant both at capturing such relations [collocations] between words and at presenting them to the learner in an attractive and instantly comprehensible way that makes them easily memorable.” The dictionary has collocation boxes and an integrated thesaurus which “explains the differences between some 18,000 synonyms and closely

related words". Quirk remembers to mention that "the Longman name was already on the title page of Johnson's epoch-making *Dictionary of the English Language* in 1755". The introduction mentions that the Longman dictionaries aim to "provide students and teachers with the most comprehensive and accurate information on the English language whilst addressing our users' needs" – the dictionary should be user-friendly and up-to-date, based on students' and teachers' feedback, and the information available "in a variety of formats". The dictionary points out "the 3000 most frequent words in spoken and written English" with its *Longman Communication 3000* ("Longman dictionaries are still the only learners' dictionaries to make this distinction"), has grammar and error notes, and "signposts to help navigate long entries". Collocation, register, and synonyms are paid special attention to in the CD-ROM, the *Longman Language Activator*, and Register notes.

4.1.8 *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (2nd edition, 2007)

The foreword of the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (henceforth Macmillan) by Michael Hoey discusses the language learner's needs regarding dictionaries, and how each speaker defines words uniquely – "In fact, not only are we living dictionaries but we are first-rate lexicographers too". Hoey gives examples from his own life, and references to *Alice in Wonderland*, along with a list of defining strategies. According to Michael Rundell in the introduction to the new edition, the first edition of the dictionary "quickly gained a reputation for quality, innovation, and user-friendliness", and he mentions some prizes the dictionary has won. Rundell also discusses recent changes in language and technology, which have brought forth a need for a new edition. For this edition, the makers conducted a survey for its users and consulted "hundreds of teachers, language-teaching experts, and students of English". Macmillan often includes synonyms, encyclopedic information, and examples in its entries. The dictionary aims to improve the users' receptive, productive, and language awareness skills, and includes menus, collocation boxes, metaphor boxes,

language awareness articles, and “learning support through the MED's dedicated website and monthly magazine”. The dictionary points out 7500 high-frequency core vocabulary.

4.1.9 *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (8th edition, 2010)

The foreword in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (henceforth Oxford) has Michael Swan discussing the editor of the first edition, A. S. Hornby, and the development of language teaching, and underlining the importance of learning and teaching a language “well”. According to Swan (vii),

> [Hornby] saw clearly that, along with a good learner's grammar, a student of English can benefit enormously from a well-produced, pedagogically-oriented monolingual dictionary. Such a work has the space to provide detailed practical information about the most important words of the language: pronunciations, key meanings, collocations, grammatical patterning, synonym comparisons, constraints on usage and so on.

The eighth edition claims to continue Hornby's work with its “accurate simple definitions, realistic examples, information on pronunciation, guidance on the grammatical and collocational patterns that words enter into, and notes on synonym distinctions and other aspects of usage” (vii). The quick definitions, usage notes, and symbols used in Oxford make the dictionary clear to use. A pronunciation key to IPA runs at the bottom of every page in the main matter.

4.2 Bilingual Finnish-English and English-Finnish dictionaries

The bilingual dictionaries used in this study are *Suomalais-englantilainen sanakirja* (1982), *Uusi suomi-englanti-suursanakirja* (1984), *Englanti-suomi-suursanakirja* (2001), and *Suuri englanti-suomi-sanakirja* (2005). The information below is taken from the book covers and introductions of the dictionaries. These dictionaries will be used to link the monolingual English and Finnish dictionaries, enabling a more thorough study of the different meanings of the verb *live*. As such, they will not be elaborated on.

4.2.1 *Suomalais-englantilainen suursanakirja*

V. S. Alanne published the *Suomalais-englantilainen suursanakirja* (*Finnish-English General Dictionary*) (henceforth Alanne) in the United Stated in 1919. After his retirement in 1949, he began to update his previous work. The dictionary has been compiled with the help of the material in Yrjö Talvitie's English-Finnish dictionary, especially regarding technical and commercial terminology, as well as *Nykysuomen sanakirja*, Cannelini's Finnish-Swedish dictionary and Walter E. Harlock's Swedish-English dictionary.

4.2.2 *Uusi suomi-englanti-suursanakirja*

WSOY's *Uusi suomi-englanti-suursanakirja* (henceforth WSOY) underlines the relevance of this new dictionary due to recent rapid social and technological development, and the change in language and the emergence of new vocabulary caused by it. The work for the compilation of the dictionary began at the end of 1970's. *Uusi suomi-englanti-suursanakirja* uses *Nykysuomen sanakirja* as it primary source, but also encompasses the vocabulary of specified fields, words of foreign origin, and material taken from literature, the press, and radio. The makers of the dictionary have decided to leave out compounds, descriptive words, and words with typical endings, but instead include some rarely occurring vocabulary when equivalence in the languages has been observed. The dictionary aims to offer both British and American variants of words.

4.2.3 *Englanti-suomi-suursanakirja*

Englanti-suomi-suursanakirja (henceforth Hurme) is also published by WSOY. It was first compiled during the years 1963 to 1973, and updated and extended in 1986-90. The dictionary contains 90 000 headwords with plenty of proverbs and example phrases, with an emphasis on everyday language use. The aim of the compilers was to create a trustworthy, clear, and functional dictionary that includes the

basic vocabulary of both older and newer written language as well as the translations of current-day English everyday expressions into fluent modern Finnish. The primary sources for this dictionary were *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language*, *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*, *the Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*, *A Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, *Dictionary of New Words* by Mary Reifner, *Engelsk-Danks Ordbog* by B. Kjærulff Nielsen, and Langenscheidt's *Handwörterbuch Englisch-Deutsch*. For the updated edition, newest British and American dictionaries, press and other media were consulted, and the scope was broadened to Australian English as well. The dictionary claims to be the broadest, most thorough and most modern English-Finnish dictionary available.

4.2.4 *Suuri englanti-suomi-sanakirja*

The *Suuri englanti-suomi-sanakirja* (henceforth Gummerus) by Gummerus was compiled in cooperation with Kielikone Oy – it is based on Kielikone's English-Finnish database. The material of the database was updated and edited in the international Benedict dictionary project, part of the European Commission funded IST programme, which began in 2002. The dictionary contains more than 70 000 headwords: it includes vocabulary of modern English, stylistic variants, and everyday expressions; literary, poetic, ironic, pejorative and offensive language expressions; outdated expressions, proverbs, and contemporary special terminology. The dictionary has plenty of idioms and phrasal verbs, and example sentences based on the best corpora available, most notably the *British National Corpus*. The dictionary is especially aimed at students, translators and other language professionals.

4.3 Monolingual Finnish-language dictionaries

The following monolingual Finnish-language dictionaries were consulted in order to form a comparison between dictionaries of English and Finnish, and to weigh the information in bilingual dictionaries against that found in the monolingual Finnish-language ones. Since they are not the focus of this study as such, fewer dictionaries were consulted, and they will only be briefly introduced in the following.

The monolingual Finnish-language dictionaries used were *Kielitoimiston sanakirja* (2006), *Nykysuomen sanakirja* (1966) and *Uusi suomen kielen sanakirja* (1998).

4.3.1 *Kielitoimiston sanakirja*

Kielitoimiston sanakirja is an edited and expanded version of *Suomen kielen perussanakirja* of 1990-94, which in turn was based on *Nykysuomen sanakirja* of 1951-61. It was compiled at the Institute for the Languages in Finland. *Kielitoimiston sanakirja* (KTSK) is a printed version, with some additional material, of the electronic database by the same name (eds. Marja Lehtinen and Eija-Riitta Grönros, 2004) that includes nearly 100 000 entries. The aim of the dictionary is to describe the central word resources of the general Finnish of today, with a selection of rare words and expressions of foreign origin, words from special fields (typically those that often appear in mass media), everyday vocabulary, and commonly used slang and dialect expressions. The dictionary gives the reader advice regarding written forms, pronunciation, inflection, meanings, usage in different contexts, and stylistic nuances, with plenty of examples of proverbs.

4.3.2 *Nykysuomen sanakirja*

Nykysuomen sanakirja (henceforth NSSK) by WSOY contains approximately 201 000 headwords. The work was commissioned in 1927 by the Finnish government; by 1938 most of the collection of material

had been conducted; and publication was begun in 1951. The purpose of the commission was to compile a comprehensive dictionary which included all written and academic Finnish words that were in use or could be accepted to be used, and their explanations. However, the planning committee did point out that the production of an all-encompassing dictionary was neither possible nor desirable. For example, only the most commonly used compound words were included. Where there are examples of the use of a word, the editorial staff has mostly formed them themselves.

4.3.3 *Uusi suomen kielen sanakirja*

Timo Nurmi's *Uusi suomen kielen sanakirja* (USKS) consists of approximately 70 000 headwords of modern Finnish and their meanings. The scope varies from elevated style to colloquialisms. In addition to basic words, compounds and derivations, it also includes plenty of foreign loan words, as well as acronyms, phrases, idioms, and proverbs. The dictionary is a revised version of *Suomen kielen sanakirja* from 1992 (Nurmi, Rekiaro, and Rekiaro), with additional names of places and other cumbersome proper nouns.

5 The Verb *live* in Dictionaries

As a polysemous word, the verb *live* has several meanings. Furthermore, there are several alternative translations for the verb *live* in Finnish: it can be translated either as *elää* ('exist') or *asua* ('dwell, reside')**.**

However, the verb *live* in its different meanings and the adjective *live*, the noun *living*, the adjective *living*, as well as the plural form of the verb *life*, have the same written forms. This means that different senses cannot be recognised from the forms of the words; because two different word classes are involved, ways of distinguishing the parts of speech are needed. Huddleston (1988, 27-32) suggests the following criteria: inflection, function, dependents and lexical morphology, according to which different parts of speech all behave differently. In the case of *live*, the first three criteria appear to be useful.

This section examines the verb *live* and its Finnish counterparts, using Huddleston's criteria for the word class “verb”, giving a presentation of the different meanings of the verbs.

5.1 The verb *live*

5.1.1 Inflection, function and dependents

As a verb, *live* behaves in many ways like other English verbs. Nevertheless, it belongs to the relatively small group of *stative verbs*, which refer to a state or condition, and its subgroup *verbs of 'stance'* (Palmer 1987, 71). In the case of stative verbs, “the sense of duration is an integral part of the lexical meaning of the verb”; hence, the use of progressive forms is limited (Palmer 71-72). However, in the case of the small subgroup of verbs of 'stance' – such as the verbs *live*, *stand* and *lie* – “the distinction between progressive and non-progressive is even more specific, the former indicating a temporary, the

latter a permanent, state" (Palmer 71). When examining dictionaries for the word *live*, we should see if they indicate this fact.

(a) According to Huddleston (37), members of the word class "verb" can be inflected in tense, aspect, and mood. Furthermore, inflectional categories are differentiated by tense, person and number, polarity (positive and negative dimensions), and non-tensed forms (Huddleston 39-40). According to Huddleston (27), English verbs have six inflectional forms, here exemplified with the verb *live*:

base form (*live*)
general present tense (*live*)
3rd person singular present tense (*lives*)
past tense (*lived*)
present participle (*living*)
past participle (*lived*)

The base form is identical to the verb's lexical stem in all cases (Huddleston 38). The general present tense is syncretised with the base form (with the exception of *be*), but despite their similar forms, the general present tense is a tensed verb-form whereas the base form is not (Huddleston 38-42). Huddleston (39) notes that "For most verbs . . . there are two present tense forms: 3rd person singular and general (='not 3rd person singular')". The past participle is syncretised with the past tense form, but usually these forms are not confused with each other as they appear with finite verbs (Huddleston 39; Schibsbye 1970, 49). The present participle is always formed by adding the suffix /ɪŋ/ to the lexical stem (Huddleston 38-39). In addition to the above, English operator verbs may have negative forms – but the verb *live* is not a member of this group (**liven't*), hence "analytic negatives, marked by the adverb *not*" are used (Huddleston 38-40).

However, in contrast to Huddleston's categorisation, Schibsbye (6-8) only mentions four verb-forms, naming them differently and combining the base and general present tense forms, as well as the

past tense and the past participle. This method, then, allows for a different kind of analysis of the functions of each word-form:

basic form: infinitive, present indicative (with the exception of the 3rd person singular), imperative, subjunctive
basic from + -*s*: 3rd person singular present indicative
basic form + -*(e)d*: preterite and past participle
basic form + -*ing*: present participle and gerund

Considering the purposes of this study, we will on the main follow Huddleston's classification; Schibsbye's terminology will be used when needed a more detailed description is needed.

As we can see from the above examples, the base form and the general present tense cannot be formally distinguished from the adjective *live* [laɪv], and the 3rd person singular present tense cannot be formally distinguished from the plural form of the noun *life* [laɪvz]. Furthermore, the present participle and past participle have the same forms as the noun *living* as well as the adjectives *living* and *lived*. Therefore, if we are to make a distinction in the dictionary entries for different parts of speech, other means of distinguishing them are needed.

(b) Verbs denote actions, processes or events (Huddleston 37). As regards function, tensed verb-forms appear as ultimate head in finite clauses:

My grandmother lived with us for 15 years. (Cobuild)

In non-finite clauses, base forms function as head in verb phrases, for example imperatives (Huddleston 28):

Live and let die. (Cambridge)

Schibsbye (3) makes a classification of verbs according to function: 1. verbs used transitively; 2. verbs used intransitively; 3. verbs used as copulas; and 4. verbs used as auxiliary verbs. He states that this distinction is not a strict one, and most verbs belong to several of these groups – however, "commonly a verb occurs most frequently in one of these usages. . ." (Schibsbye 3).

Huddleston (43) notes that the base form is used in the imperative jussive, non-imperative jussive, *to*-infinitival, and bare-infinitival:

> Imperatives . . . are virtually always main clauses, whereas the other three classes are virtually always subordinate. Subordinate jussives are distinguished from infinitivals by the actual or potential presence of the subordinator *that*, and by the fact that a case-variable pronoun in subject function appears in the nominative form . . . The two types of infinitival are distinguished by the presence or absence of the special marker *to* before the verb.

According to Schibsbye (71-72), the present tense is used to express: "1 action or existence at the moment of speaking . . . 2 timelessness 3 repetition. . . ." The first purpose can be divided into *static* situations which "extend beyond the moment of utterance": states of affairs, relations, etc.; and *dynamic* situations: actions, processes, events, etc. (Huddleston 69). The past tense can be used for past time situations, past time schedule of future situations, and factual remoteness – "The tense difference thus signals a difference not in time, but in the speaker's assessment of the likelihood of the condition's being fulfilled: the past tense presents it as a relatively remote possibility, the present tense as an open possibility" (Huddleston 70-71). Furthermore, "The preterite is used of existence or action which is regarded as completed in the past"; and "The perfect tense refers to past and present together: if the verb has a durative or iterative association, the perfect signifies that an action or condition begun in the past still continues, or can be expected to recur in the present" (Schibsbye 71-72).

In addition to their verbal functions, the past participles of verbs can also function adjectivally as "statal passives" (Palmer 88; Schibsbye 49). This function "may be attributive: *lost property*, predicative: *my patience is exhausted*, or substantival in connection with the definite article: *the injured / the deceased*. . ." According to Palmer (88), "The *-en* forms that function in this way are essentially perfect in meaning and refer to a resultant present state. . . . Moreover, they occur with *already* which normally requires the perfect. . . ." Palmer (208-9) goes on to discuss the difficulties in classifying what we perceive as verb-forms as verbal nouns ("the bare infinitive, the *to*-infinitive and some of the *-ing*

forms) and as adjectives (the *-en* forms (the 'past participles') and the remaining *-ing* forms (the 'present participle'))" [see also Schibsbye 24-30, 50-51]. As issues of determining parts of speech are at hand, this has an impact on the representation of words with these qualities in dictionaries.

Furthermore, the present participle (*-ing* form) can act as

> (1) a substantive: *I gave him my* ***blessing*** / *a street of silent-looking* ***dwellings*** ; (2) a gerund: ***hanging*** *criminals is no cure* / *I am prund of* ***being*** *your wife* / ***talking*** *so rudely is provoking* ; (3) the present participle: *a girl* ***smiling*** *her sweetest* / ***coming*** *up to me he said, 'Good morning'* / *what are you* ***looking*** *at?* ; (4) an adjective: *he is always* ***willing*** / *a* ***strapping*** *fellow* / *he is the* ***cunninger*** *of the two* ; (5) a preposition: *I will communicate with you* ***concerning*** *your friend* / *I have an advantageous offer to make him* ***regarding*** *the cattle* / *your facts are very valuable, specially as* ***touching*** (this is archaic) *your own stay in Crete . . .*

(Schibsbye 57) [italics and boldface in the original]. Once again, the interpretation of these usages is not straightforward: "*There is nothing like* ***learning*** (=substantive = 'knowledge' or gerund = 'the process of acquiring knowledge') / *his mind is wandering* (=adjective = 'wild, delirious', or present participle ='straying') / *a communication concerning your friend* (=present participle attached to *communication* = 'which has to do with', or preposition = 'about')" (Schibsbye 57). [For more on the present participle, see Schibsbye 57-59.][16]

Schibsbye (2) also makes a note about *durative verbs*, "verbs signifying condition: *sleep*, *wait*, *live*, whose common denominator is *be*". Such verbs can have different meanings in different structures; for example, in the sentence *I want to live*, "*live* expresses activity, not, as in general, condition: *they lived in Yorkshire*" (Schibsbye 2).

(c) As regards dependents, verbs fall into two types: firstly, intransive verbs, which either stand alone or are followed by adverbials:

> Will he live, doctor? (Longman)
> Gorillas live in central Africa. (Cobuild)

16 Despite these issues in determining the parts of speech of participles, in the English language they will be dealt with under the category of verbs (Huddleston 40).

Secondly, transitive verbs, which are followed by NPs as objects (Huddleston 28-29):

> She was destined from birth to live a life of hardship. (Macmillan)

In the predicate position, the head of a verb phrase is called the predicator, and its dependents within the VP can be either complements or adjuncts (Huddleston 52-53):

> Complements are sometimes obligatory, whereas adjuncts are always omissible. . . . The selection of a complement of a particular type depends on the presence of a verb lexeme of an appropriate class, whereas the selection of adjuncts is not lexically controlled this way. . . . The most central complements are NPs or AdjPs, while the most central adjuncts are AdvPs. . . .

In English, "The two most common types of complement are objects and predicatives" (Huddleston 53). Direct objects and subjective predicatives are distinguished grammatically by their form class, passivisation, number, and pronominal case (Huddleston 53-54). Other types of complement include place, direction and time complements (when they are not omissible); complements of prepositional verbs ("PP complements where the preposition is fully determined by the verb itself and thus does not have any identifiable independent meaning of its own . . ."); particles as complement ("most words that are used as particles also have uses as prototypical prepositions . . ."); finite clause complements (subordinate clause complements); and non-finite clause complements (*to*-infinitival, bare-infinitival, present-participial, past-participial) (Huddleston 60-64).

There are numerous kinds of adjuncts in the English language: those of manner, instrument (*with the bread-knife*), comitative (*She travelled with her grandfather*), time (*at midnight*), duration (*for twelve hours)*, frequency (*more often than not*), purpose (*so as not to miss her*), reason (*because I had no money*), degree (*enormously*), condition (*if you drop it*), viewpoint (*from my point of view*), modal (*perhaps*), and connective (*nevertheless*) (Huddleston 64). Adjuncts are typically adjectival phrases, prepositional phrases, subordinate clauses, or in certain cases noun phrases (Huddleston 65).

However, "The boundary between adjuncts and complements is by no means sharply drawn" (Huddleston 65). This is an issue for consideration when dictionaries give information on the phrasal

structures used with headwords. The transitivity and intransitivity of verbs is an issue that any representative dictionary should mention, and the type of dependent a verb takes can be enormously useful for the user.

5.1.2 Meanings of the Verb *live*

As we saw above, verbs have certain characteristics which distinguish them from other parts of speech; this is helpful when dividing meanings of the word *live* into lexemes in a dictionary. However, the verb *live* is an example of a verb that has multiple meanings, and the above criteria do not encompass the variation in meaning within the word class "verb". The meanings of the verb *live* can roughly be divided into the following groups, based on the descriptions of the verb *live* in the dictionaries consulted. The following order of meanings is based on the number of occurrence of each meaning in the dictionaries, starting with the most common one.

Table 1 gives a summary of the meanings found; each meaning will be discussed in the subsequent section. In the following, example sentences are taken from the dictionaries consulted, but typography and font are edited for clarity; the verb *live* appears in boldface.

	Bloomsbury	Cambridge	Chambers	Collins	Cobuild	Longman	LoCo	Oxford	Macmillan	TOTAL
live1 'exist'	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	9
live2 'dwell'	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	9
live3 'stay alive'	x	x (under live1)	x; x (under live1)	x		x	x (under live1)	x	x (under live1)	8
live4 'enjoy life'	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	8
live5 'maintain'	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	8
live6 'stay in memory'	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	8
live7 'in a way'	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	8
live8 'conform'	x	x (under live9)	x; x	x; x	x	x	x (under live9)			7
live9 'be kept'	x	x (under live2)				x	x	x (under live2)	x	6
live10 'at a time'							x	x (under live1)	x (under live1)	3
live11 'be found'		x (under live2)					x			2
live12 'imagine'	x						x			2
live13a 'pass, spend'			x	x		x				3
live13b 'exhibit'						x				1
live13c 'attain eternal life'						x				1
live13d 'conduct, pass'						x				1
TOTAL	10	10	9	9	5	12	12	8	9	

Table 1: Summary of meanings of the verb live in dictionaries.

5.1.2.1 *Live*$_1$ 'exist, be alive, have life'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

The first meaning of the verb *live* is given the definition 'be alive, have life, exist' in the dictionaries consulted. All nine dictionaries include this meaning in their descriptions of the verb *live*, and out of these, six dictionaries list it as the first meaning of the verb. Indeed, this meaning could be seen as the core meaning of the verb.

In most dictionaries consulted, the phrasing of this meaning includes the definitions 'be alive', 'have life' and 'exist' in different variations. Longman further defines that this meaning is used of people, animals and plants – however, Collins's definition "to show the characteristics of life" implies that this meaning could be used with inanimate subjects as well. Oxford mentions live$_1$ under the category BE ALIVE and it's second subsection: "to be alive, especially at a particular time" (see also live$_{10}$ 'live in a particular time') – in fact, none of the example sentences Oxford gives for this meaning represent live$_1$. In addition, Cambridge, Chambers, LoCo and Macmillan include the possibility of '*continuing* to have life' together with live$_1$, but this meaning will be discussed separately in section 4.1.2.3 Live$_3$.

> The baby only **lived** a few hours. (LoCo)
> We need water to **live**. (Cobuild)
> People cannot **live** without air. (Cobuild)
> Women seem to **live** longer than men. (Cobuild)
> He was so badly injured in the accident that the doctors don't expect him to **live**. (Cambridge)
> Can the right to **live** ever be denied to any human? (Cambridge)

The dictionaries indicate that this meaning of the verb is intransitive. It is noteworthy that in the vast majority of example sentences in the dictionaries, *live* does not appear as a finite head of a clause but complements another verb.

Chambers gives the description “to have, or continue in, life, temporal, spiritual, or figurative”; this sentence structure may well confuse the reader. The definition encompasses $live_1$ as well as $live_3$, but the additions *temporal*, *spiritual* and *figurative* make the description so broad that in fact all kinds of meanings mentioned by other dictionaries fall under this category. Indeed, compared to the twelve clearly discernible meaning categories listed in this study, Chambers only gives five different unnumbered meaning descriptions – this first broad description may include many of the categories that are not mentioned separately in Chambers. However, the description is so vague that it is difficult to determine what exactly is meant by the verb *live* in its “figurative” sense, for example.

Cambridge mentions several phrasal constructions under $live_1$: *live for* (+time), *live to (be)*, *live to see*, *you/we live and learn*, *live to fight another day, live to tell the tale*. According to the user manual, the first three are mere common collocations, and the latter have “a special meaning which is not clear from the meanings of the separate words”. Macmillan gives the phrases *live to the age of.../live to be...* and *live to do sth*; the first structure is also mentioned by Cobuild. In LoCo, common phrases include *live longer*, *for as long as I live*, *live to (be) 80/90 etc/live to the age of 80/90 etc*, *have two weeks/six months etc to live* and *live to see*. Most dictionaries either mention these under *$live_3$* or in a separate section for phrasal verbs and phrases.

5.1.2.2 *$Live_2$* 'dwell, reside, have a home'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live2	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Another meaning that is mentioned by all nine dictionaries, and one that can usually be quite clearly distinguished from the above meaning, is 'to dwell, reside, have home somewhere': “HAVE A HOME: (of a person or animal) to have as their home or as the place where they stay or return, esp. to sleep” (Cambridge)[17]. According to this description, $live_2$ can be used of persons or animals, but most of the

17 I say “usually” because in some cases, the difference between the two is clearly a matter of interpretation. In cases like

dictionaries consulted give the impression that this is not the case: “If someone lives in a particular place or with a particular person, their home is in that place or with that person” (Cobuild). This meaning of the verb is intransitive.

As can be seen from the dictionary descriptions, live$_2$ is related to the variable of place, and many of the dictionaries indicate that it is followed by an adverbial or preposition. Common prepositions used with live$_2$ include *in*, *near*, *on*, *at*, *out* and *with* (Cambridge, Collins, Macmillan, LoCo).

> They **lived** in Holland for ten years. (LoCo)
> He **lives** just across the street from me. (LoCo)

As the preposition *with* mentioned above implies, some of the descriptions allow for other types of dependents: “RESIDE to make your home in a particular place or condition or with a particular person” (Bloomsbury). Furthermore, Cambridge lists a submeaning 'sexual relationship' under the category for live$_2$, giving the phrases “live together/live with (each other)” and “live in sin” under it, whereas Longman assigns the meaning 'co-habit + *together*/*with*' a separate entry from 'dwell'[18]. On the other hand, in Bloomsbury, Cobuild, Cambridge, Longman and LoCo there are mentions of the construction *live with someone* that has no implication of a “sexual relationship”:

> My grandmother came to **live** with us when I was ten. (LoCo)

It seems that *with* is used in both kinds of meanings, although the distinction easily becomes unclear even in context. In addition to these vague differences in meaning, most dictionaries only mention the structure *live with/together* separately under phrasal verbs, not under their entries for live$_2$.

Oxford and Cambridge give examples of the meaning 'be kept somewhere' under live$_2$, but in this essay this meaning is discussed in Section 4.1.2.9 *Live$_9$* 'be kept somewhere'.

“She lived in Italy for two years”, the verb *live* likely has a more broader sense than simply 'dwelling', and is connected to live$_1$.

18 In contrast to *live together/with*, there is a commonly occurring phrase *live alone* in the dictionaries. I would suggest that this construction has as much to do with relationship status as cohabiting.

LoCo, Cambridge, Oxford and Bloomsbury mention some commonly used phrases under the entry for *live*$_2$: *live next door to*, *live there*, *live here*, *somewhere to live*, *a place to live*, *live at home* (=in your parents' home), *live with each other*, *live alone*, *live rough* (=live outside because of having no home) (BrE), *live in* (=dwell at the place of work), *live out* (=dwell out of the place of work). Other dictionaries indicate that the phrases *live in* and *live out* are in fact phrasal verbs, and *live rough* is an idiom.

5.1.2.3 *Live*$_3$ 'stay alive'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live3	x	(x)	x; (x)	x		x	(x)	(x)	x

A meaning of the verb *live* that was mentioned by eight of the dictionaries consulted, is 'stay alive'. Five dictionaries give this meaning a separate entry, and four mention it together with live$_1$ 'be alive' (one mentioning it twice) – indeed, these two meanings are very closely connected. When listed separately, live$_3$ is given such definitions as "to remain alive or in existence" (Collins). As mentioned earlier in Section 5.1.2.1, Cambridge, Chambers, LoCo and Macmillan mention this meaning together with 'be alive'. Oxford lists both meanings under the heading BE ALIVE, but numbers them separately (subsection 2: "to remain alive"). Cambridge combines the two meanings in the first entry "(to continue) to be alive or have life", but gives a separate entry for "STAY ALIVE [I] to stay alive, esp. by getting enough money to pay for food, a place in which to stay, clothing etc., or by eating a particular food" – however, despite its clear mention of 'staying alive', the latter meaning can be seen to represent live$_5$ 'maintain oneself' (see Section 5.1.2.5 in this essay), not live$_3$. In addition to mentioning "continuing in life", Chambers gives another meaning "to survive, remain alive, escape death" – both can be seen to represent live$_3$. Live$_3$ is used intransitively.

> The doctors said he only had six months to **live**. (Oxford)
> Spiders can **live** for several days without food. (Oxford)

Without light, plants couldn't **live**. (LoCo)
He is extremely ill and not expected to **live**. (LoCo)
The baby only **lived** a few hours. (LoCo)

Bloomsbury gives the example *lived through a serious illness* here. In cases like this, the lines between non-phrasal and phrasal verbs are vague. However, the same construction occurs under live$_{7}$ in Cambridge and under live$_{12}$ in LoCo. Therefore, this study gives separate mentions to phrasal verbs below, a practice common in the dictionaries consulted albeit too often not systematically followed through with. The common collocations mentioned by LoCo (*live longer*, *for as long as I live*, *live to (be) 80/90 etc*/*live to the age of 80*/*90* etc, *have two weeks*/*six months to live*) are included under live$_{1}$ in this study, as the dictionary does not separate the two meanings. As was mentioned earlier, many dictionaries give these examples under live$_{1}$. Some dictionaries mention the collocational pattern *live to + infinitive (do sth*, *see sth*) under *live$_{3}$*, but as other dictionaries mention it under live$_{1}$, this essay deals with this construction under live$_{1}$. Indeed, the two meanings – live$_{1}$ and live$_{3}$ – are so closely related that it may be difficult to make a clear division between them.

5.1.2.4 *Live$_{4}$* 'enjoy life to the fullest'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live4	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x

Another meaning of the verb *live*, mentioned by all but one dictionary consulted, is 'enjoying life to the full(est)'. This meaning is also worded “to have a full and exciting life” (Oxford), “to have an interesting life” (Cambridge) and “to have a life rich in experience” (Longman):

We're beginning to **live** at last! (LoCo)
When she was in her twenties she **lived** – I mean really **lived** – but now she's settled down. (Cambridge)

According to seven dictionaries, this meaning is intransitive; according to Bloomsbury, it can be both transitive and intransitive – but with no examples of transitive uses, there appears no reason for this

analysis. On the basis of the example sentences given, *really* seems to be a common collocation with this sense of *live*:

> really knew how to **live** (Bloomsbury)
> during his time in China he really **lived** (Longman)

Cambridge, LoCo and Macmillan also mention the phrase *live a bit/little* under live$_4$. Bloomsbury and Collins include the phrase *to know how to live*. Cambridge mentions the idiomatic phrase *live it up* here.

5.1.2.5 *Live$_5$* 'maintain oneself'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live5	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	

Another important meaning of the verb *live* is 'to maintain oneself'. Dictionary descriptions include "to maintain oneself, subsist" (Longman), "to earn or make a living" (Bloomsbury), "to support one's style of life; subsist" (Collins), "to be supported, subsist, get a living" (Chambers), and "to keep yourself alive in a particular way" (Macmillan). As was mentioned above, Cambridge describes this meaning thus: "STAY ALIVE to stay alive, esp. by getting enough money to pay for food, a place in which to stay, clothing, etc., or by eating a particular food". Cobuild gives the following description of this meaning: "If people **live by** doing a particular activity, they get the money, food, or clothing they need by doing that activity".

> Fishing is the way their families have **lived** for generations. (LoCo)
> The Aymaras **live** by hunting and fishing in the Desaguadero river. (Macmillan)
> She has an inheritance to **live** off (Am also **live** off of) so she doesn't need to get a job. (Cambridge)
> Many people **live** off the profits of cocaine production. (Cambridge)
> He only agreed to marry her so he could **live** off her (money). (Cambridge)
> His wage won't be enough to **live** on if we have another child. (Cambridge)
> The natives **live** on a diet of fruit and occasionally meat. (Cambridge)
> Millions of families **live** on benefits. (Macmillan)

As we can see from these examples, live$_5$ is often complemented by a phrase denoting occupation, source of income or food, type of food, or a person providing for the subject. Live$_5$ is intransitive.

All eight dictionaries mention that this meaning of *live* is often followed by *by (doing something)*, *(up)on* or *off*. In fact, in all but one of the example phrases, these prepositions are present. This causes doubt whether or not all mentions of live$_5$ in the dictionaries are, in fact, examples of the prepositional phrases *live by*, *live on* and *live off*. On the other hand, many of the dictionaries still mention these phrasal constructions in a separate section for phrasal verbs. Oxford is the only dictionary consulted that does not have a separate entry for this meaning for the verb *live*, but only gives the phrasal verbs *live by*, *live on*, and *live off* in a list of phrasal verbs. As we noted above, the distinction between phrasal verbs and the complements of verbs is not always clear-cut, but this examination gives indication that dictionaries have reason to take a clearer stand on this matter.

5.1.2.6 *Live$_6$* 'continue to exist in memory'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live6	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x

Another rather complex meaning of the verb *live* is 'to continue to exist in memory'. It is mentioned by all but one dictionary consulted – their descriptions are varied, but the underlying meaning is 'living that is figurative and related to something being remembered': “(of things which can not be alive) to exist or continue to exist”[19] (Cambridge); “to continue to exist or be remembered” (Oxford); “to remain in human memory or record” (Longman). Some of the wordings might resemble those of live$_3$ ('stay alive'), but the examples given of live$_6$ show that the meanings are quite different:

> His name will **live** forever. (LoCo)
> The spirit of revolution still **lives**. (Macmillan)

19 Note that the description says “can not be alive”, not “cannot be alive”.

In the majority of cases (Oxford, Cambridge, Collins, Macmillan, LoCo), the dictionaries include the idiomatic phrase *live (on) in sb's memory* either in the description, example phrases, or examples of common collocations with this meaning. Some of the dictionaries include the phrasal verbs *live on* (Cambridge, Collins, Bloomsbury) and *live with (sb)* (Cambridge, Oxford) in this meaning group.

> Her fame **lives** on. (Bloomsbury)
> The memory of those terrible days **lives** on with all who were at the camps. (Cambridge)
> Her words have **lived** with me all my life. (Oxford)
> The events of that day have always **lived** in my memory. (Macmillan)

The examples show that this meaning is often used with a time adjunct. The dictionaries agree that this use is intransitive. It is important to point out that a transitive use with a similar figurative meaning is introduced below in Section 5.1.2.12 *Live*$_{12}$ 'experience, go through, imagine'.

5.1.2.7 *Live*$_7$ 'spend your life in a particular way'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live7	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x

This meaning of the verb *live* deals with the quality of life: "WAY OF LIFE to have a particular type of life, or live in a particular way" (LoCo) or "under particular circumstances" (Bloomsbury). Dictionaries seem to hold different opinions on the transitivity of this meaning: according to Collins and Chambers this use is intransitive, whereas LoCo, Bloomsbury, Oxford, Cobuild, Cambridge, Macmillan mention it can be either transitive or intransitive. This incongruence could be due to different kinds of complementation, which not all dictionaries seem to take into account. However, the underlying meaning is much the same in all cases. According to Cambridge and LoCo,when intransitive, live$_7$ is always used with an adverbial or a preposition.

To account for the issues of transitivity as well as different kinds of complement, I have formed the following categorisations of the complementation of $live_7$. It can be formed using

(a) an adjective: *live comfortably* (Bloomsbury, Cambridge, Macmillan), *live well* (=have plenty of food, clothes etc) (LoCo), *live happily ever after* (=like in a children's story) (Cambridge, LoCo), *live peacefully*/*quietly*/*happily* etc (LoCo), *live poorly* (Collins), *live loosely etc.* (Chambers), *live dangerously* (LoCo):

> Food is inexpensive here, so you can **live** quite cheaply. (Macmillan)
> Most elderly people prefer to **live** independently if they can. (LoCo)

(b) a prepositional phrase with a noun phrase complement[20]: *live under a constant threat* (Cambridge), *live in peace/poverty* etc (LoCo):

> They have **lived** under military rule for nineteen years. (Macmillan)
> We **live** in hope that a cure will be found. (LoCo)

(c) a noun phrase, most often with the head word *life*[21]: *live a full/quiet/busy life* (Macmillan), *live a quiet/active/healthy etc life* (LoCo), *live a life of crime/luxury/hardship* (Macmillan).

> She **lived** a very peaceful life. (Oxford)
> She **lived** and died a single woman. (Oxford)
> We can start **living** a normal life again now. (Cobuild)
> He's not well enough to **live** a normal life. (LoCo)
> He had chosen to **live** the life of a monk. (LoCo)
> I just want to **live** my life in my own way. (LoCo)

In Oxford, the primary structure of $live_7$ is structure (b); examples of structure (c) are mentioned under (b) as "prepositions, adverbs and structures that can be used with this word", with a difference between the structures *live sth* and *live + noun* indicated; structure (a) is not mentioned.

It should be noted that some dictionary examples for this meaning include expressions that are listed as idioms or phrasal verb constructions in other dictionaries, or mentioned under a different meaning category. Cambridge lists all kinds of idiomatic and phrasal expressions here: *live alone*, *live*

20 Naturally, not all kinds of prepositional phrases can be included in the scope of this group, but by definition only those describing a particular way of living have been included here. However, this line can be difficult to draw at times.

21 Schibsbye (4) calls these "'cognate object' expressions".

by (live$_5$ in this essay), *live beyond means*, *live for*, *live out* (fulfil), *live out* (the rest of one's life), *live with/through*, *live with* (bear), *live without*, and *live life to the full* are given as common collocations; *live a lie*, *live and breathe*, *live and let live*, *live like a king/lord*, *live your own life*, and *live by/on one's wits* are given as idiomatic expressions. LoCo also includes the phrases *live my life*, *live by* (live$_5$), *live from day to day*, and *live out of a suitcase*; and Longman *live life to the fullest* and *live for*. Many of these have already appeared under different categories in this essay, or are listed below as phrasal verbs. This goes to show that the treatment of phrasal constructions in dictionaries is far from simple, and in my opinion is best left to be treated in separate sections for phrasal verbs and idioms.

The dictionaries consulted do not give the above division of complements, nor do they comment on it. The description here is one I have formed on the basis of the explanations and examples given by different dictionaries, and it seems to be the most logical way of presenting this meaning of the verb. However, as 'to live in a particular way' is quite a broad description, I do acknowledge that my definition of live$_7$ is far from absolute.

5.1.2.8 *Live$_8$* 'conform to religion etc.'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live8	x	(x)	x; x	x; x	x	x	(x)		

A meaning mentioned in many of the dictionaries consulted, but one that has somewhat confused descriptions, is 'conform to religion etc.'. Firstly, three dictionaries indicate that this meaning is transitive:

> to put into practice in one's daily life; express: *he lives religion every day* (Collins)
> to express (eg a set of principles, a creed, etc) by one's life, make one's life the same thing as (Chambers)
> to enact, practise *live a lie* (Longman)

However, Chambers gives another transitive entry with a very similar meaning, “to act in conformity to”, which seems to overlap with the descriptions of this meaning in other dictionaries. Collins also

gives another similar entry, but indicates that this meaning is in fact intransitive:

> (usually foll by by) to order one's life (according to a certain philosophy, religion, etc)

Furthermore, Bloomsbury gives only one entry for this meaning, but claims it can be either transitive or intransitive:

> MAKE LIFE CONFORM to make your life conform to something such as a philosophy or religion *lived her faith*, *lived by strict rules*

There is a clear correlation in meaning between these different descriptions, but transitivity seems to be the cause for the confusion. In addition, some dictionaries include clearly phrasal or idiomatic expressions (*live by*, *live a lie*) in their descriptions, whereas others leave these to be listed in a separate list of phrasal verbs and idioms. In this study, we shall treat phrasal constructions separately below; and as all examples of intransitive uses of live$_8$ in the dictionaries are in fact examples of phrasal verbs, it can be concluded that this meaning is transitive. All in all, in this study the meaning category live$_8$ encompasses all similar meanings, whether or not they are indicated as transitive, intransitive, both or neither. The underlying meaning is to 'conform one's life to something such as a religion or certain rules'.

5.1.2.9 *Live$_9$* 'be kept somewhere'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live9	x	(x)				x	x	x	(x)

Six dictionaries list a meaning of *live* that means 'to be kept somewhere': "BE KEPT SOMEWHERE to be found or kept in a particular place" (Bloomsbury), "to be usually kept in a particular place" (Macmillan). Oxford and Cambridge mention this meaning under their entries for live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home'. The dictionaries indicate that this meaning is figurative (Cambridge) and informal (Bloomsbury, Longman, Macmillan, LoCo), and especially used in British English (Longman, LoCo). According to LoCo, live$_9$ is always followed by an adverbial or preposition, and Macmillan mentions

that live$_9$ can be followed by *in*, *on* or *under*. This use of *live* is intransitive.

> Where do these plates **live** (=where are they usually kept)? (Oxford)
> The box **lives** on the top shelf there. (Macmillan)
> The spare keys **live** in this drawer. (Bloomsbury)

5.1.2.10 *Live$_{10}$* 'live in a particular time'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live10							x	(x)	(x)

One dictionary gives a separate entry to the meaning 'live in a particular time', and two list this meaning under live$_1$. Indeed, this meaning could be seen to be a subgroup of live$_1$, or simply an occurrence of live$_1$ with more defined adverbial complements. In detail, live$_{10}$ refers to being alive "at a particular time" (Macmillan):

> When did Handel **live**? (Oxford)
> Hippodamus **lived** in the early fifth century BC. (Macmillan)
> She **lived** at a time when women were not expected to work. (LoCo)
> Gladstone **lived** during a period of great social change. (LoCo).

LoCo indicates that this sense is used with an adverbial or preposition. According to Macmillan and LoCo, these adverbials are often *in*, *at*, *before* or *after*.

A subsection of this meaning is the construction "*the best/greatest etc that/who ever lived* (=the best, greatest etc who has been alive at any time)" (LoCo):

> He's one of the greatest pianists who ever **lived**. (Macmillan)

LoCo mentions the above structure as a "grammar pattern" for live$_{10}$, and Macmillan gives it a subsection under live$_1$ ("BE/STAY ALIVE"). Oxford includes an example sentence of this construction in its entry for live$_1$ ("to be alive, especially at a particular time"). It could be speculated that this meaning is simply live$_1$ with the addition of an adverbial of time, and not a separate meaning as such, and that dictionaries could simply mention the structures in their entries for live$_1$ – as some of them already do. This use is intransitive.

5.1.2.11 *Live*$_{11}$ 'be found somewhere (animals, plants)'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live11		(x)					x		

Two dictionaries consulted distinguish a meaning which is used of animals in their natural living environment: "PLANT/ANIMAL a plant or animal that lives in a particular place grows there or has its home there (LoCo):

> These particular birds **live** on only one island in the Pacific. (LoCo).

It is possible to see this meaning being covered by other meaning groups: the distinction in meaning between whether an animal *is found*, *exists*, or *dwells* in a certain place is rather superficial. Indeed, Cambridge mentions this meaning under its entry for live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home'. But, as was seen above, the dictionary entries for live$_2$ for the most part only include human subjects, and those for live$_1$ do not take into account adverbials of place, which are very essentially connected to live$_{11}$. Perhaps the essential reasoning behind listing separate meanings is that it is even more difficult to draw a line between 'existing' and 'dwelling' in regards to animals than humans, therefore creating a need for a separate dictionary entry.

This use of *live* is intransitive. According to LoCo, it is always used with an adverbial or preposition, often with the prepositions *in* and *on*.

5.1.2.12 *Live*$_{12}$ 'experience, go through, imagine'

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live12	x						x		

This group consists of the verb *live* when it occurs with a noun phrase that implies an imaginary state. The main feature that differentiates this meaning from live$_6$ 'continue to exist in memory' is that the

structure of live$_6$ is “something lives (in history, memory, imagination etc)”, whereas the structure of live$_{12}$ is “someone lives something (imaginary)”. This is best explained with the help of an example:

> **living** a dream (Bloomsbury)

According to Bloomsbury, this meaning is transitive. LoCo claims that the use is intransitive, and only includes examples where the verb *live* is complemented by a prepositional phrase, commonly one with *in* or *through*:

> He **lives** in a fantasy world.
> She **lived** through her children's lives.
> You must stop **living** in the past (=imagining that things from the past are still happening).

However, the examples above indicate that this meaning can be either transitive or intransitive – though some might prefer to divide the transitive and intransitive meanings into separate meaning categories. The construction *live a lie* could easily be seen as an example of this meaning, but we consider the phrase to be established enough to be called an idiom.

5.1.2.13 Other meanings of the verb *live*

	BLO	CAM	CHA	COL	COB	LON	LOC	MAC	OXF
live13a			x	x		x			
live13b						x			
live13c						x			
live13d						x			

There are some specific meanings of the verb *live* that are mentioned separately from the above meanings, but are only mentioned in one, two or three of the dictionaries. Those entries are:

(a) 'pass, spend, experience' This is a transitive use of the verb *live*, which Collins defines: “to pass or spend (one's life, etc)”. This meaning is mentioned by Collins, Chambers and Longman, but unfortunately none of these dictionaries elaborate on this meaning; only Longman gives an example sentence: “she lived three years as a nun”. This leads us to believe that this meaning is, in fact, the one

mentioned in live$_7$ 'spend your life in a particular way' (b), and the dictionaries simply wish to make a distinction between the transitive and intransitive uses of live$_7$.

(b) 'exhibit vigour, gusto, or enthusiasm in' This is a transitive meaning mentioned by Longman, with the example "*lived life to the fullest*". Indeed, this meaning much resembles our meaning live$_4$ 'enjoy life to the fullest', with the difference that the latter is intransitive. However, these kind of constructions could be seen as representations of live$_7$ 'spend your life in a particular way' (c).

(c) 'attain eternal life' Longman mentions another intransitive meaning with the example "though he were dead, yet shall he live". Nevertheless, this meaning seems rather marginal, and could be seen as part of the meaning category live$_6$, or even live$_3$ with a figurative sense.

(d) 'to conduct or pass one's life' Longman gives a separate entry for this intransitive meaning, with the example "lived only for his work". However, with the information available, we can suspect that the description is, in fact, of the meaning for live$_7$ 'spend your life in a particular way', and the example phrase refers to the phrasal verb *live for*, which will be discussed under Appendix 4.

Furthermore, Collins also lists the phrasal verbs *live with* "to endure the effects (of a crime, mistake, etc)" and *live through* "to experience and survive: *he lived through the war*" as separate meanings of the verb *live*. However, these constructions are listed under phrasal verbs and can be found in Appendix 4 of this essay.

A detailed list of dictionary descriptions can be found in Appendix 3.

5.1.2.14 Other verbal constructions: phrasal verbs and idioms

All of the dictionaries particularly mention some special structures with the verb *live* in them. Some dictionaries classify these structures as *phrasal verb* constructions, *idioms*, and/or *phrases*; some dictionaries do not give a definition for the structures mentioned; some even list these structures as meanings of the verb *live*. In fact, lines between different types of constructions, such as phrasal verbs, idioms, phrases, and collocations, are rarely clear-cut (Sinclair 172). Nevertheless, I will determine *phrasal verbs* as expressions that consist of a verb and an adverbial particle in which the meaning is not transparent from the combination; *idioms* shall be fixed expressions of other kinds, with other parts of speech, that tend to be equally opaque in meaning[22] (Hartmann and James, s.v. "phrasal verb", s.v. "idiom"; Sinclair 172-3).

Indeed, the indistinctive nature of these constructions leads to variation in their presentation in dictionaries. In Collins, for example, phrasal verbs are given headword status (with no other indication of phrasal verb status), but idioms can occur either under a headword or as headwords (with no other indication of idiom status, either). Especially Cambridge differs from the other dictionaries consulted in that the division between phrasal verbs and other expressions remains vague: word combinations that are categorised as *phrasal verbs* by other dictionaries are sometimes placed under the meaning categories of the verb *live*, and sometimes assigned separate entries, which may or may not clarify the meaning behind them and cause difficulties in looking up a phrasal verb. This is exemplified in Illustration 6.

22 According to Landau (309), "An *idiom* is usually defined as a group of two or more words whose collective meaning cannot be divined by someone who knows the meanings of the separate words". Their placement in dictionaries can be "particularly troublesome" (Landau 107); as Jackson (100) mentions, "Many dictionaries are not very explicit about the rules of finding an idiom".

live INTERESTING LIFE /lɪv/ *v* [I] to have an interesting life • *I don't want to get a regular job yet – I want to live* **(a bit/a little)** *first!* • *When she was in her twenties she lived – I mean really lived – but now she's settled down.* • *If you haven't seen Venice, you haven't lived.* • If you **live it up** you have an exciting and very enjoyable time with parties, good food and drink: *He's alive and well and living it up in the Bahamas.*

live down *obj*, **live** *obj* **down** *v adv* [M] to stop feeling uncomfortable about (something embarrassing or bad that you have done) usually by waiting long enough for other people to forget it or by behaving well • *I'll never be able to live down addressing Admiral Keene by the wrong name.*

live up to *obj v adv prep* [T] to achieve (what is expected, esp. high standards) • *The concert was brilliant – it lived up to all our expectations.* • *It'll be difficult to live up to the standards set by our last captain.*

Illustration 6: Entries for the verb live and phrasal verbs live down, live up to in Cambridge.

Some dictionaries only include a list of constructions which includes phrasal verbs, idioms and common structures without any identifying indicators, as in Chambers:

■ **live a lie** to conduct one's life in such a way as to deny or conceal some essential circumstance or aspect of one's character, *usu* shameful. **live and breathe** to be passionately enthusiastic about. **live and learn** to keep learning new and surprising things. **live and let live** to give and expect toleration or forbearance. **live by** to order one's life according to (a principle, etc). **live down** eventually to rehabilitate oneself in people's eyes after (a failure, mistake, etc). **live for** to attach great importance to; to make (something) the chief concern of one's life; to look forward longingly to. **live in** to reside at one's place of employment. **live it up** to go on a spree; to cram one's life with excitement and pleasure. **live off** to be financially supported by; to feed oneself exclusively on (particular foods). **live on** to live by feeding upon, or with expenditure limited to; to continue or last. **live on air** (*facetious*) to have no apparent means of sustenance. **live out** to live (one's life) entirely in a particular way or place; to survive; to fulfil (eg the destiny reserved for one); (of someone in domestic service) to live away from the workplace (*US*); (of eg a hotel worker, hospital doctor, etc) to live away from one's place of employment; (of a student) to have accommodation outside the college or university campus. **live out of** (*inf*) to depend on the limited range of eg food offered by (tins) or clothes contained in (a suitcase). **live through** to experience at first hand and survive (*esp* an unpleasant event). **live to** to live long enough to, come at last to. **live together** to cohabit. **live under** (*archaic*) to be tenant to. **live up to** to behave in a manner worthy of; to fulfil or satisfy (expectations, a promise, etc). **live well** to live luxuriously. **live with** to cohabit with; to accept and adapt to as an inescapable part of one's life. **the living theatre** the live theatre.

Illustration 7: Presentation of phrasal verbs, idioms, etc. in Chambers Dictionary.

Furthermore, some dictionaries mention some of these structures only in their example sentences for the meaning categories of the verb *live*, not formally giving the structure used.

Due to different practices in categorising these structures, and the different opinions on what each structure should be termed, the categorisation I have made of phrasal verbs and idioms is by no means absolute. The situation is further complicated by the fact that many of these phrases contain a structure that can be clearly identified as a phrasal verb, but also include additional elements [for example *live out (one's life)*, *live for the day/time (when)*] – therefore the line between a phrasal verb and an idiom becomes rather hazy. Nevertheless, in Appendix 4 I have made a division of these structures into phrasal verbs and idioms based on the available information, and only where there has been a clear discrepancy between the information in different dictionaries has it been pointed out.

When it comes to phrasal verbs, in most cases there is a straightforward Finnish equivalent offered by the English-Finnish dictionaries consulted. In the case of idioms, the dictionaries are less helpful – only about one-third of the idioms mentioned in English-language dictionaries could be found in the English-Finnish dictionaries.

Because of the vast amount of phrasal verbs and idioms in the dictionaries, and the limited scope of this study, we will not elaborate upon them here. A list of all the phrasal verbs and idioms found in the dictionaries consulted can be found in Appendix 4.

5.1.3 Other parts of speech in dictionaries

It should be noted here that in addition to the verbal structures of *live*, the dictionaries also give entries or examples in which *live* represents another part of speech. Such entries are the adjectives *live* [laɪv] and *living*, and the noun constructions *the living* (plural), *a living*, *living*, and *lives* (plural). The division of parts of speech is not always made clear, but because of the scope of this study, only verbal occurrences of *live* will be examined here.

5.2 Finnish equivalents of the verb *live*

The following section briefly discusses Finnish equivalents of the verb *live* and their characteristics following Huddleston's criteria. The amount of information is kept to a minimum, as the Finnish verbs are not a point of focus for this study; they are included here to make comparisons between the meanings in dictionaries [See Table 2 below].

5.2.1 Inflection, function and dependents

(a) According to *Suomen kielioppi* (Leino 1991, 43), in the Finnish language words are divided into word classes based on their inflection. In Finnish, any word that can be inflected by person is a verb (71). Firstly, all verb-forms belong to the main classes of active or passive forms (71). Verb-forms can either be finite or infinite; infinite forms are divided into infinitives and participles; there are seven conjugational forms according to person; the possible tenses are the present, imperfect, perfect and pluperfect; negative expressions have their own forms; and verbs can appear in the indicative, potential, conditional, and imperative forms (72-73). Infinitives and participles may usually take a possessive suffix (83). Furthermore, participles resemble adjectives, for example in that they are gradable (83, 87).

In addition, in the Finnish language the agent participle behaves like an adjective, but it should not be confused with the third infinitive nor nouns derived from verbs, both of which can have the same form with it; the interpretation of these words depends on the context (Leino 88-89).

(b) Verbs may act as predicates, subjects, attributes, objects, and adverbials in Finnish (Leino 134-5). Any predicate must be an inflected verb-form, and any inflected verb-form must be a predicate (102). Infinitival forms have the same functions in a clause as nouns; participles, like adjectives, can be used attributively (83). The short form of the first infinitive and the fourth infinitive may also act as subject of a clause (108).

(c) In Finnish, only verbs may take an object (Leino 82). Any object in a phrase always has a verb as its head. Verbs that may take an object are transitive, and verbs that may not are intransitive. The object can be a noun, or an adjective, numeral or pronoun used like a noun; the short form of the first infinitive; or a finite or non-finite clause (122).

5.2.2 Meanings

5.2.2.1 *Elää*

The monolingual Finnish language dictionaries consulted give the verb 'elää' the following intransitive meanings [my translation into English]:

(a) 'to be alive, living, to exist as a living being; of living, existing as a biological phenomenon a. of people b. of animals, plants': The closest English equivalent to this meaning is live$_1$ 'exist, be alive, have life'; this meaning also encompasses that of live$_{11}$ 'be found somewhere (animals, plants)'. Interestingly, *Nykysuomen sanakirja* gives plenty of examples of the use of the adjective *elävä* under the head word *elää*.

(b) 'to dwell, to lodge, to be staying; of living as determined by place, space, manner etc': The closest English equivalent to this meaning is live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home'.

(c) 'to be in existence, to influence, to have vitality; to have an effect like a living thing': The closest English equivalent is live$_6$ 'continue to exist in memory'.

(d) 'to make sounds; to function; to move, to change; to show the characteristics of life': The closest English equivalent is most likely *Collins*'s definition of live$_1$ “to show the characteristics of life”.

(e) 'to get one's living, sustenance, maintenance, subsist': The closest English equivalent is live$_5$ 'maintain oneself'.

(f) 'to be (constantly) in a certain emotional state, mood etc': The closest English equivalent can be found in section 4.1.2.13 (b) 'exhibit vigour, gusto, or enthusiam'.

(g) 'to surrender, to devote oneself to': The closest English equivalent is live$_8$ 'conform to religion etc'.

(h) 'to spend a particular kind of life; behave in a certain manner; to be constantly in a certain state': The closest English equivalent is live$_7$ 'spend your life in a particular way'.

(i) 'to see, experience; to get to, have to experience, go through': The closest equivalent to this meaning may be live$_{12}$ 'experience, go through, imagine' or that mentioned in Section 4.1.2.13 (a).

(j) 'to live a rich life, a life worth pursuing': The closest English equivalent is live$_4$ 'enjoy life to the full(est)'.

(k) 'of righteous, eternal life': The closest equivalent in English is found in Section 4.1.2.13 (c) 'attain eternal life'.

(l) 'to constantly exist, continue, stay (of both animate and inanimate subjects): The closest English equivalent is live$_3$ 'stay alive'.

Nykysuomen sanakirja also mentions three transitive meanings of *elää*:

(m) 'with a time adjunct as object': This description is extremely vague, but the closest English-language equivalent is probably live$_{10}$ 'live in a particular time'.

(n) 'with a place adjunct as object: dwell, cultivate, take care of'

(o) 'with some other word as object: (personally) experience, live through something within': The closest English-language equivalent is live$_{12}$ 'experience, go through, imagine'.

Naturally, these equivalencies are only approximate, and some aspects and nuances are lost in translation[23]. Yet, these meanings found in the Finnish-language dictionaries show a good approximate equivalence to the ones found in monolingual English dictionaries; only the English meaning live$_9$ 'be kept somewhere' and the Finnish meaning (n) 'dwell, cultivate, take care of' could not be matched with an equivalent. This attests the validity of my categorisations, and can help a Finnish learner of English

23 One aspect that was not taken into account of was the transitivity of these verbs. This is due to the fact that such matters tend to vary from one language to the other, and are not necessarily good grounds for translation.

language decipher the correct meaning. After this analysis, we can continue to inspect bilingual dictionaries and see if the equivalences carry on to their descriptions.

The Finnish-English bilingual dictionaries consulted give the following translations for *elää*:

(a) live, be alive, have life, exist. This equals to $live_1$ 'exist, be alive, have life'.

(b) live on, live off, subsist, exist on; feed, feed on; live, earn one's living by, support oneself by, earn, make one's living by, maintain oneself, support life. This equals to $live_5$ 'maintain oneself'.

(c) live for, devote one's life, oneself to. This equals to $live_8$ 'conform to religion etc'.

(d) experience, live through. This equals to $live_{12}$ 'experience, go through, imagine'.

(e) move, stir. The closest equivalent is Collins's description of $live_1$: “to show the characteristics of life”.

The English-Finnish bilingual dictionaries consulted give the following meanings to *live* [my translation into Finnish]:

(a) live; be alive or living (also figuratively). This equals to $live_1$ 'exist, be alive, have life'.

(b) dwell; stay. This equals to $live_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home'.

(c) (of a ship) survive, not be destroyed

(d) live, stay in memory. This equals to $live_6$ 'continue to exist in memory'.

(e) live, spend (time). This equals to $live_7$ 'spend your life in a particular way'.

(f) live by something, indicate something with one's life. This equals to $live_8$ 'conform to religion etc'.

Most of the meanings given by bilingual dictionaries, too, could easily be matched with my meaning categories for the verb *live* [see Table 2 below]; only one meaning found in English-Finnish dictionaries, namely meaning (c) '(of a ship) survive, not be destroyed', was not matched.

5.2.2.2 *Asua*

The monolingual Finnish dictionaries consulted in this study give the following meanings to *asua* [my translation into English]:

(a) 'to permanently or temporarily reside, lodge, have as one's home or whereabouts, have a residence, live': The closest English equivalent is live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home'.

(b) 'to constantly be somewhere, to stay, to constantly be in a certain manner or in a certain state, to constantly be present, to constantly or permanently be somewhere' (of animate and inanimate subjects; especially in elevated style)

(c) '*tr* as a resident to farm or take care of, to be a resident somewhere' (as in 'to inhabit a house, land')

(d) 'to take one's time, stay, go slow' (*colloquial*)

The Finnish-English dictionaries consulted give the following translations to *asua*:

(a) 'live, dwell, abide, reside, stay, stop (at), be staying, stopping (at), lodge, room (with), be living, be residing (at)'. The closest English equivalent is live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home'.

(b) 'inhabit, occupy, be in occupation of'

(c) 'dwell, stay': fear dwelt in her eyes (*elevated style*)

(d) 'cultivate, farm'

(e) 'populate, people'

The meanings in English-Finnish dictionaries for *live* were already discussed above; meaning (b) was equivalent to live$_2$ and *asua*. As we can see from the above, the Finnish verb *asua* has several meanings not covered by the dictionary descriptions of the verb *live* in English-language dictionaries; but some of the meanings mentioned in Finnish-language dictionaries are included in bilingual dictionaries. However, as the English verb is the focus of this study, we will not examine the issue further.

5.3 Contrastive analysis of the verb *live*

Table 2 below summarises all meanings for the verb *live* found in the dictionaries consulted. What is more, the meanings found in different types of dictionary have been connected to each other, giving a clear view of which meanings can be found in each type of dictionary, and which meanings have their equivalents in other types of dictionary. The table also mentions the meaning categories I have assigned above.

The first vertical column gives the meanings for the Finnish verb *elää*, with the category identification I have assigned above. This is followed by the descriptions found in Finnish monolingual dictionaries. Next, equivalents found in bilingual dictionaries are given. Then, the table gives the meanings found in English monolingual dictionaries, and finally, the meaning categories for the verb *live* I have formed above. When no equivalents have been found, it is indicated with gray slots. Typography has been edited for brevity. This table gives us a clear presentation of how the meanings found in different dictionaries are matched.

my category	Finnish dictionaries' definition: elää	Finnish dictionaries' definition: asua
elää (a)	(elämisestä, olemassaolosta biologisena ilmiönä) ihmisestä tai eläimestä, kasveista; olla hengissä, elävä; olla elossa, elävä, olemassa elollisena olentona	
elää (b)	asua, majailla; asua, asustaa, oleilla; elämisestä paikan, tilan, tavan tms. puolesta määritettynä: a. asustaa, oleilla	(a) oleskella t. majailla vakinaisesti jssak, pitää kotinaan t. olopaikkanaan, pitää asuntoa, elää; pitää kotinaan, pitää asuntoa, majaa jossakin, asustaa, oleskellä, elää *Hän asuu mukavasti vuokralla, pienessä puutalossa, lähiössä. Pohjoisen asutut seudut* 'joissa on asutusta'; pitää asuntoa, majailla, elää, oleskella (vakinaisesti) jssak
elää (c)	vaikuttaa; olla olemassa, vaikuttaa, olla elinvoimainen; tehota t. vaikuttaa elävän tavoin, tehota sisäisillä ominaisuuksillaan	
elää (d)	äännellä; olla toiminnassa; liikehtiä; osoittaa elonmerkkejä, olla toiminnassa; liikkua, muuttua; osoittaa elonmerkkejä, olla liikkeessä, liikehtiä, joskus myös: äännellä, kohista tms	
elää (e)	saada toimeentulonsa, ravintonsa; saada ravintonsa, elantonsa, toimeentulonsa, tulla toimeen; saada elatuksensa, ylläpitonsa jstak, tulla toimeen: a. fyysillisestä toimeentulosta, adverbiaalina ravintoa tms. merkitsevä sana b. laajemmin; us. adverbiaalina elinkeinoa, elinehtoja, toimeentulon edellytyksiä merkitsevä sana	
elää (f)	tietyn tunnetilan vallassa olemisesta; olla jatkuvasti jnk mielialan tms. vallassa; (elämisestä paikan, tilan, tavan tms. puolesta määritettynä) olla pysyvästi jnk mielialan, tunnelman, yl. jnk psyykillisen tilan vallassa	
elää (g)	antautua, omistautua; omistautua jllek; (elämisestä paikan, tilan, tavan tms. puolesta määritettynä) omistautua jllek, antautua jhk	
elää (h)	viettää tietynlaista elämää; käyttäytyä t. esiintyä jllak tavalla, viettää jonkinlaista elämää; (elämisestä paikan, tilan, tavan tms. puolesta määritettynä) olla jatkuvasti jssak olotilassa, olla t. käyttäytyä jatkuvasti jllak määrätavalla	
elää (I)	nähdä, kokea; saada kokea, joutua kokemaan, käydä läpi	
elää (j)	(elämisestä paikan, tilan, tavan tms. puolesta määritettynä) elää rikasta, tavoittelemisen arvoista elämää	
elää (k)	(elämisestä paikan, tilan, tavan tms. puolesta määritettynä) heng. vanhurskaasta, iankaikkisesta elämästä	
elää (l)	olla jatkuvasti olemassa, säilyä, pysyä	
elää (m) (trans)	1 obj:na aikaa ilmaiseva s.	
elää (n) (trans)	obj:na paikkaa ilmaiseva s.:asua, viljellä, hoitaa	(c) *tr* asukkaana viljellä t. hoitaa; olla asukkaana jssak, viljellä t. hoitaa asukkaana
elää (o) (trans)	3 obj:na jk muu s.: (omakohtaisesti) kokea, elää sisimmässään mukana	
		(b) ed:een liittyen, vars. *ylät.*, muistakin kuin elollisista olennoista: olla jatkuvasti jssak, "piillä", viipyä; olla jatkuvasti jllak lailla t. jossak tilassa, pysyä; *ylät* pysyä, olla jatkuvasti läsnä; *vars. ylät.* olla pysyvästi t. jatkuvasti jssak
		(d) *ark.* hidastella, aikailla, kuppailla; *ark* viivytellä, kuhnailla jssak

Table 2: Equivalence chart of dictionary meanings (p.1 of 3)

Finnish-English dictionaries' definition: elää	Finnish-English dictionaries' definition: asua
(a) live (a hermit, a bachelor, a double life, in the country, in need, from day to day, unforgettable moments, modestly, to be old, on one's own, by oneself, together, apart), be alive, have life, exist: fishes live in the sea, his memory will live, he lived in the 18th century (under Henry VIII), live and die	
	(a) live, be living (at home); (*kirj*) dwell, abide (in the country); (*vakituisesti*) reside, be residing (in London); (*tilapäisesti*) stay, stop (at a hotel, with one's friends), be staying, stopping (at); (majailla) lodge, (*Am* also) room (with)
(e) move: only the eyes were moving; stir: the town began to stir, wood stretches and contracts	
(b) live on (vegetables; one's salary), live off (raw fish), subsist, exist on (water, vegetables, charity); (of animals, also:) feed, feed on (grass, roots); live, earn one's living by (one's work, one's labour, hunting and fishing); support oneself by, earn, make one's living by (writing novels, selling computers), maintain oneself, support life	
(c) live for (an idea, one's family, oneself only), devote one's life, oneself to (art, science)	
(d) experience (exciting moments); live through: he has lived through the terrors of two wars	
	(b) (*olla jnk asukas*) inhabit, occupy, be in occupation of (a house); (d) cultivate, farm (an estate)
	(c) (ylät) (viipyä, olla jatkuvasti) dwell, stay: fear dwelt in her eyes
	(e) populate, people

Table 2: Equivalence chart of dictionary meanings (p.2 of 3)

English-Finnish dictionaries' definition: live	English dictionaries' definition: live	my category
(a) (live itr) elää; olla elossa t. elävä: his memory will live. He lives for his work. Hän elää työlleen. The tribe lived by fishing and hunting. Heimo eli kalastuksella ja mestästyksellä. Mrs Hughes' husband lived to be 81. Rouva Hughesin aviomies eli 81-vuotiaaksi.	exist, be alive, have life; be found somewhere (animals, plants)	live1; live11
(b) (live itr) asua; oleskella: he lives in England. He lived in a little cottage by himself. Hän asui yksikseen pienessä mökissä.	dwell, reside, have a home	live2
(d) (live itr) elää, säilyä muistoissa: Those warm days of summer will live in my memory. Nuo lämpimät kesäpäivät säilyvät muistoissani.	continue to exist in memory	live6
	to show the characteristics of life	live1 Collins
	maintain oneself	live5
	exhibit vigour, gusto, or enthusiam in	live13b
(f) (live tr) elää jnk mukaisesti, elämällään osoittaa: one's faith	conform to religion etc	live8
(e) (live tr) elää, viettää: a double life	spend your life in a particular way	live7
	pass, spend, experience	live12; live13a
	enjoy life to the fullest	live4
	attain eternal life	live13c
	stay alive	live3
	live in a particular time	live10
	experience, go through, imagine	live12
	be kept somewhere	live7
	conduct or pass one's life'	live13d
(c) (live itr) (laivasta) selviytyä, olla tuhoutumatta: no ship could live in such a rough sea		

Table 2: Equivalence chart of dictionary meanings (p.3 of 3)

6 Metalexicographical Analysis and Discussion of Data

Table 2 above summarises my analysis of the verb *live* in dictionaries, showing the twelve discernible meanings for the verb *live*, as well as the additional meanings discussed earlier. According to Hulbert (77), most words have no more than four or five meanings – as the table shows, *live* is an exceptional word in this sense. The above table lists all the meanings found in the dictionaries consulted, and shows the correspondence between meanings in different types of dictionary. As we can see, both monolingual dictionaries (Finnish and English) include the most thorough differentiation of meanings – indeed, bilingual dictionaries omit a great deal of these meanings. The monolingual dictionaries show a high level of correspondence: out of the 19 different meanings for the verbs *elää* and *asua*, 15 are matched in the English-language dictionaries' descriptions of the verb *live* (with some overlapping descriptions). Only two meanings found in the monolingual English dictionaries do not have a corresponding meaning in the Finnish dictionaries. Interestingly enough, bilingual dictionaries mention five meanings that cannot be matched with any of the meanings given in monolingual dictionaries. This could be due to the fact that the bilingual dictionaries consulted pay plenty of attention to figurative meanings, phrasal verbs, and idiomatic constructions, which apparently are not considered as important by monolingual dictionaries.

6.1 Metalexicographical analysis

As we have seen above, the nine dictionaries included in this study differ from each other – in some cases significantly so. Based on the above study of their descriptions of the verb *live*, we can make some remarks and evaluations of the dictionaries:

Bloomsbury gives ten numbered meanings for the verb *live*. As examples are sparse, and only include phrases instead of full sentences, sometimes the meanings remain unclear. All ten meanings are

discernible, but in some cases a meaning is only represented by a phrasal verb, and this status is not mentioned. Idioms are indicated clearly, but they are few.

Cambridge gives each major meaning of a word its own unnumbered entry, though lumps some meanings together that could be seen to have their own individual meanings[24]. The verb *live* is entered five times. The order of the entries is very confusing: run in after entries for the verb *live* there are adjectives *live* and *living*; furthermore, the main entry for the adjective *live* appears among the entries for the verb. There is no clear explanation or indication of differences between idioms, phrasal verbs and other constructions mentioned. Only two phrasal verbs – *live down* and *live up to* – are given separate main entries; other phrasal verbs are placed under meaning categories for the verb *live*. Cambridge provides the user with many collocations indeed, but most phrasal structures also appear as "collocations" since there is no clear indication of their status. Out of the nine dictionaries in this study, the presentation of information in Cambridge, despite probably aiming for an innovative approach, seems the most cumbersome for the user.

As was mentioned above, the presentation and definitions given by ***Chambers*** provide the dictionary user with little useful information. Many meanings are given for the verb *live*, but without a clear distinction between them, it is difficult to say which meanings listed in this study are mentioned and which ones are not – the descriptions are too broad. Phrasal constructions are separated from the meanings for the verb *live* with a symbol, but the section contains both phrasal verbs and idioms.

Collins gives the verb *live* twelve numbered meanings. However, some of them are clearly phrasal verb uses. This is not mentioned in the dictionary; in fact, mentions like "usually foll by *in* or *at*" appear in several meaning categories, whether or not the meanings can be seen to be those of the

24 Landau (101) observes that "some ESL dictionaries, such as the *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (*CIDE*) and the *Cambridge Dictionary of American English* (*CDAE*), accord separate headword status to different meaning clusters. This treatment obscures rather than emphasizes homonymic status, but it was seen as a way to help foreign learners find particular meanings, since learners lack the knowledge and intuitive sense of native speakers that make them 'unable to conceive different senses as connected'".

verb *live* or of phrasal verbs. Indeed, because of this phrasal verbs are difficult to locate in the dictionary: some of them appear as headwords, some under the meanings of the headword *live*. Furthermore, the strict alphabetisation of entries means that phrasal verbs appear among other entries, not directly after the entry for the verb *live* – but idioms appear at the end of the entry for the verb *live*. There are no clear labels for indicating phrasal verbs or idioms. When a verb is intransitive or transitive, this is mentioned, but in cases where it can be both, this is not mentioned; the indication "mainly tr/intr" means "unless otherwise stated".

Cobuild lists six meanings for the verb *live*, though some of them are clearly mentions of phrasal verbs. Some phrasal verbs are also listed after the main entry in a separate section for phrasal verbs. In the case of long entries, the entry word is followed by a menu to help in navigation – though in the case of *live*, the menu only differentiates verbal uses from adjectival ones, instead of different verbal uses from each other. The feature of Cobuild that is intended to make it easy to use, namely definitions that are constructed with complete sentences, appear to make the definitions for verbs only more complicated (consider this definition for live$_7$ 'spend your life in a particular way': "If you say that someone lives in particular circumstances or that they live a particular kind of life, you mean that they are in those circumstances or that they have that kind of life".) Idioms are only mentioned in cross-references to the entries for the nouns they contain.

The typography on ***Longman*** resembles older dictionaries and is very traditional-looking – perhaps even unattractive for the contemporary dictionary user. For example, in example phrases the entry word is not repeated, but a tilde (~) appears instead. There are short example phrases or sentences, which appear authentic but sometimes rather peculiar. Some phrasal verbs are listed as meaning categories for the verb *live*, which makes their presentation unclear. The category division and examples seem rather confused. Some of the 13 numbered meaning categories seem outright irrelevant.

LoCo's use of bright colours makes its definitions appear very accessible. The use of quick definitions is not very consistent (1 IN A PLACE/HOME, 2 PLANT/ANIMAL, 4 BE/STAY ALIVE etc.), but they seem to serve their purpose. Often common collocations and prepositions appear within example sentences in bold type. As phrasal verbs, idioms and other phrases are given their own numbered meanings, the list is long, and idioms are not formally separated from other phrases. These also include compounds where the adjective *living* is used, which seems peculiar. However, phrasal verbs are clearly separated from the above, each having its own subentry, and numbered submeanings where necessary.

Macmillan's quick definition index that appears after the headword and before any definitions may make it faster to find a meaning and get an overview of the different meanings – but in some cases, the wordings are different in the index and the definition (such as the pair 3 keep alive certain way – 3 to keep yourself alive in a particular way). The seven numbered meanings include common collocations, some of which are phrasal verbs without indication of this status. The fourth meaning category for the verb *live* has a definition, and another one underneath numbered 4a, but there is no 4b. "Phrases" and phrasal verbs are listed in separate lists, both of which are extensive.

Like in LoCo, the quick definitions in ***Oxford*** are not uniform: 1 IN A PLACE 2 BE ALIVE 4 TYPE OF LIFE etc. Otherwise, the descriptions seem accurate, and the six meanings listed for the verb *live* cover all central meanings. They seem to give the user enough information without making too elaborate and cumbersome distinctions in meaning – many of which the user will be able to deduce on their own. It should be noted that the symbols and other typographically marked features in the sample entry are easily found in the front matter, though the dictionary does not specify what the "+" symbol means: whether the following prepositions are compulsory or not. Also, the exact meanings of some entry features in Oxford, such as "prepositions, adverbs and structures that can be used with this word", remain vague even with the guide to using the dictionary.

6.2 Discussion of data

Considering the summary of the meanings found presented in Table 1 in Section 5.1.2, we can say that we have mapped out all the central meanings of the verb *live*. However, the dictionaries consulted showed great variation firstly in the meanings they included, and secondly in the ways the meanings were presented. Among these dictionaries, Collins and Chambers were ones to include multiple entries for some of the meaning categories I have discerned; these categories were live$_3$ and live$_8$. Much more common was the combining of different meanings under a single entry, either using broad definitions, submeanings, or example sentences. This practice was especially common in Cambridge, but also appeared in Chambers, Oxford, Macmillan, and LoCo. It is difficult to pinpoint what dictionaries *should* do in cases like this – after all, the meanings are often closely related, which is only natural as we are talking about a single lexeme. Therefore, we cannot simply conclude that the dictionaries that give the most meanings are somehow better than the ones that do not. Furthermore, my table is an extreme simplification of the dictionary descriptions, and does not indicate *how* the information is presented – an ever-important issue for the dictionary user. All this considered, we can see that Longman mentioned all of the twelve meaning categories I have constructed, and Cambridge and Bloomsbury both mentioned ten. Cobuild had the fewest mentions of my meaning categories, five. On average, the dictionaries mentioned nine of the meaning categories.

Five dictionaries consulted mentioned the first eight meaning categories I have listed (live$_1$ to live$_8$). This gives us some indication that these meanings are likely to be the most central ones, and indeed should be mentioned by a dictionary that aims to represent the language well. However, let us not assume that dictionary descriptions are "correct" simply because they appear often. The following is a discussion of the different meaning categories and their representations in dictionaries.

Live$_1$ 'exist be alive, have life': This meaning, along with live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home', was found in all the dictionaries consulted. Indeed, these two meanings can be seen as the most central

ones for the verb *live*, the other meanings in one way or another derived from the two. Indeed, several other meanings categories were only mentioned under the entry for live$_1$ in some of the dictionaries consulted. Especially live$_3$ 'stay alive' was often combined with live$_1$. An interesting finding in the dictionary examples is how rare it was to see an example phrase of live$_1$ as a finite head of a clause; this piece of information could certainly be something the dictionary user could make use of. As we noted above, it is rather peculiar how Oxford only gives examples of "existing at a particular time" for live$_1$ – though the connection of the two is clear [see live$_{10}$ below]. The subjects live$_1$ takes was issue in the dictionaries: whether they can be people only, or animals, plants, and inanimate subjects as well. The oddly-worded definition in Chambers could be clearer to the reader, but it does make a point about the interrelations of the meanings of the verb *live*: does a dictionary need to separate and number many different meanings for a word that has such clear essential meanings, and whose submeanings could possibly be easily comprehended by the reader simply by association?

Live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home': This is one of the two most central meanings of the verb *live*. Live$_2$ has some issues in its definitions: the dictionaries consulted are not unanimous whether it can be used of persons only, or animals as well; and when live$_2$ appears with *with* and a personal object, there is discordance whether this is a collocational pattern for live$_2$, a separate meaning of the verb *live*, or a case of a phrasal verb. Furthermore, some dictionaries indicate that this kind of construction is used of a "sexual relationship", and some do not.

Live$_3$ 'stay alive': As was noted above, this meaning is closely connected to live$_1$. Four dictionaries give it a separate meaning category, and four mention it under live$_1$. This is quite understandable considering the meaning of the verb and the nature of the descriptions. On one hand, such a meaning would be completely unheard of with other verbs – certainly no dictionary would give separate meanings for the verb *fish* as 'catch fish' and 'continue to catch fish'. On the other hand, the

nature of the verb *live* is rather different from most other commonly occurring verbs, and its uses are manifold.

Live$_4$ 'enjoy life to the fullest': With eight instances, this meaning was commonly found in the dictionaries consulted. One could deduce that this meaning is, in fact, a figurative use of live$_1$, though none of the dictionaries mentioned this. The only issue with the dictionary descriptions for this meaning was that Bloomsbury mentioned that it can be either transitive or intransitive, whereas the others said it is intransitive. This could be an error on Bloomsbury's behalf; on the other hand, without seeing any example phrases we cannot outrule the possibility that there exist some structures where the verb is used transitively. After all, people use language in creative ways, and if the compilers of a dictionary can exhibit the existence of such a use, they should record it.

Live$_5$ 'maintain oneself': As was mentioned above, this meaning was given a subentry in eight dictionaries consulted; and from the dictionary descriptions and examples it can be concluded that this meaning is, in fact, a representation of the phrasal verbs *live by*, *live off*, and *live on*. If the dictionaries consulted maintain that this is a separate meaning of the verb *live*, they should also indicate this with the use of appropriate example sentences. If this cannot be done, this meaning should be left out of the entry for the verb *live* and only be mentioned in a section for phrasal verbs – the way Oxford already does.

Live$_6$ 'continue to exist in memory': Mentioned in seven dictionaries, this meaning is likely a common one. It is used with inanimate subjects, or subjects that are not physically alive (any longer) – therefore, it is clear that the meaning is a figurative one. In fact, this meaning could easily be combined with that of live$_3$ 'stay alive', with the mention that the use is figurative, but none of the dictionaries consulted did so. Some of the dictionaries included the phrasal verb *live on* under this meaning – in my opinion, this should be treated separately in a section for phrasal verbs, with a mention or submeaning for a figurative use; the same goes for the structure *live with (sb)*.

Live$_7$ 'spend your life in a particular way': Again, eight dictionaries mentioned this meaning; but, as was mentioned above, it proved to have the most varied descriptions and classifications in dictionaries, and the most issues in its presentation. My attempt at giving a thorough description for this meaning is a result of this multitude, and as such, not a very ideal one for dictionary use. However, the discordance and lack of information on the transitivity and kinds of complementation is an issue for dictionary makers to consider. It seems that collocational patterns are highly important for this meaning of *live*, and therefore, this should be commented on. Also, phrasal verb constructions should, once again, clearly be separate from the meanings for the verb *live*.

Live$_8$ 'conform to religion etc': This is another meaning of the verb *live* that could be seen as a figurative one. The meaning was included in seven dictionaries; in two it appeared under live$_7$ 'spend your life in a particular way, circumstances'; in two dictionaries, the meaning appeared twice. These differences can be accounted to the inclusion or exclusion, and possible combination of, intransitive and transitive meanings and phrasal verbs. When phrasal verbs, particularly *live by*, were included in this meaning, this was considered an intransitive use of the verb. As we have already noted, the division between collocations, phrasal verbs, and idioms is not a clear-cut one, and can cause trouble for a dictionary compiler. However, when there is a common construction that can be regarded as a phrasal verb construction, I would say there is no need to mention this as a separate meaning for the verb, but only in a list of phrasal verb constructions. When in a certain meaning a verb is *always* used with a certain particle or preposition, it is hardly a matter of an independent meaning of the verb but a fixed construction.

Live$_9$ 'be kept somewhere': Some of the dictionaries consulted mention this meaning under live$_2$ 'dwell, exist, have a home', and some mention it is a figurative use of the verb. Indeed, a meaning like this could easily be included as a figurative submeaning of live$_2$. Especially with its restrictions

(informal, British English), it does not seem feasible to give this use a separate meaning category in a dictionary.

Live$_{10}$ 'live in a particular time: This meaning was only mentioned in three dictionaries, and two of these listed it under live$_1$ 'exist, be alive, have life'. Indeed, as was mentioned above, the latter seems like a good practice, as this meaning can be easily seen to be a subgroup of live$_1$, or simply one of its occurrences with certain complements.

Live$_{11}$ 'be found somewhere': This meaning was only mentioned by two of the dictionaries consulted, and in one of the cases under live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home'. However, because most of the descriptions for live$_2$ exclude animal and plant subjects, this meaning was given a separate section in this study. Furthermore, this meaning is an interesting combination of 'existing', 'dwelling' and 'being found somewhere'. Yet, these verbs, when used with animal subjects, are far from interchangeable. Whether or not dictionary makers consider this a feasible reason for a separate meaning category of the verb *live* when used with animal subjects is for them to decide, but at least they should clearly indicate which meanings are used with human and which with animal subjects, and when meanings are exclusive, they should offer a congruent meaning for other possibilities as well.

Live$_{12}$ 'experience, go through, imagine': Only two dictionaries mentioned this meaning, disagreeing on its transitivity.

The additional meanings listed under section *Live$_{13}$* in this study were already connected to other meanings, hence they are not examined here further. As they were seen to be part of other meaning categories, it seems completely unnecessary for dictionaries to mention these meanings in separate meaning categories.

It should be noted here that the dictionary entries for the verb *live* had scarce examples of progressive uses, and this matter was not commented on. However, Huddleston [see Section 5.1.1 in

this essay] maintains that there is a clear distinction in meaning between the progressive and non-progressive uses. This is a matter that dictionary compilers could use in their work.

Regarding the treatment of phrasal verbs and idioms, as we already noted, these should first and foremost be treated in a consistent manner in dictionaries. Furthermore, the notes for the use of the dictionary or the entry itself should clearly point out which expressions are counted as phrasal verbs, which as idioms, and which as collocational patterns or common phrases. An issue for dictionary compilers to consider is also the arrangement of such expressions: whether they are mentioned at the end of the entry for the verb they include or separately; if separately, whether they appear immediately after the entry for their verb, or alphabetically among other entry words; and whether each meaning is given its own entry or submeanings. By purely subjective preference, from the point of view of a dictionary user, I prefer an arrangement that gives phrasal verbs immediately after the headword for the verb they contain, in a separate section for phrasal verbs, with indication of this status. I remain undecided whether different meanings of phrasal verbs, especially when they are drastically different, should be given their own entries, or if each phrasal verb should only appear once with numbered submeanings. For the treatment of other related constructions than phrasal verbs, the issue of arrangement does not seem as crucial an issue – as long as it is consistent and clear to the user.

7 Conclusion

In this study, we have seen that “the dictionary” as a uniform type of text is a myth: in reality, there is a whole range of variation between different dictionaries and their contents. Dictionaries come in all shapes and sizes, with different kinds of features and for different kinds of audiences. I have taken a look into nine monolingual English-language dictionaries, and seen, firstly, how they follow certain patterns in their meaning division and wording of meanings, and on the other hand how they differ from each other, even giving contradicting information.

In this study, I have shown how varied the strategies of dictionary making are, and how complex many words, in this case the verb *live*, can be. The current study is a relatively shallow delve into (meta)lexicography, but serves as an adequate consideration of the possibilities a dictionary user, and especially our target user, the Finnish language learner, has available. I have discovered features that can serve both as useful guidance for dictionary makers, and as grounds for a deeper study into the subject. In an examination with a broader scope and size, it would have been interesting to extend the study with a field study of actual dictionary use. Another possibility, originally planned to be part of this study, would be comparing the information found in the dictionaries to that found in an English-language, or bilingual, corpus. As the dictionaries in this study make use of corpora, it would be intriguing to see if an actual corpus would yield the same results as the dictionaries indicate. Another study with a different focus could use the information gathered in this study in a more elaborate examination of the dictionaries included in this study: for example, the more superficial features, such as the appearance of the dictionary and its typography, and the impact these have on dictionary selection and use, could be analysed further. In addition, it was only possible to include a brief look into bilingual and monolingual Finnish dictionaries in this study; these could be examined in more detail. It would also be very interesting to compare the information found in this study with that of

wiki-type online dictionaries, and observe how it is different. The present study has examined a subject that still has much to be explored, and can serve as a background for multiple further applications.

I have discovered that the usability of a dictionary constitutes of many details the compiler needs to consider. As dictionaries are used for "establish[ing] the existence of a word . . . check[ing] the spelling of a word . . . [and] look[ing] up a word that we have met and with which we are not familiar, and whose meaning we need to ascertain" (Jackson 23), the information in a dictionary should be easily deciphered. Dictionary makers have developed all kinds of methods for improving the usability and attractiveness of their dictionaries, but the balance between providing a sufficient amount of information in a relatively small space and giving it in such a way as not to confuse the reader is fragile. Landau (173) points out that "Verbs are often considered – justly, I think – the most difficult words to define, in part because many verbs have numerous senses that must be discriminated, and partly because of the complex relationship between verbs and their objects". This seems to be the case with the verb *live* as well. With at least twelve discernible meanings, there is great variation between dictionary presentations of the verb.

As we have seen above, some learners' dictionaries have taken a habit of mentioning grammatical and collocational patterns only within example phrases (Jackson 136-7). Personally, I think this will only cause more confusion for an advanced learner: many dictionaries in this study did not clearly state what, for example, a phrase in bold means; the reader may interpret these structures as possibilities among other uses, or the only possible uses. I might also make a few pointers for dictionary compilers about the treatment of pronunciation. According to Jackson (104), general dictionaries have moved towards excluding the pronunciation instruction of common words; this may not be an issue for the actual users of such a dictionary, but it clearly indicates that dictionary makers do not consider language learners to be part of the intended audience of general dictionaries.

With the claims dictionaries make of themselves, it can prove difficult to select a dictionary to

use. Nowadays, the use of corpora is a feature almost all dictionaries claim (Jackson 131); with no first-hand experience on the differences between dictionaries, mentions of the use of a corpus do not make the selection any easier for the dictionary user. Another issue I discovered, regarding corpora, is the dualism imposed on intuition and “hard evidence”. The lexicographer's intuition on language is often not considered a reliable source of data, and indeed it can limit and distort representations of actual language use. However, the texts a corpus is based on are nothing but expressions of other people's subjective intuition. If dictionary descriptions of language use are thus based on the linguistic opinions of the majority of language users, the Wikimedia approach seems like a rather well-functioning solution in modern society. On the other hand, when compilers of a dictionary omit certain rarely used occurrences of a use, they may at the same time exclude the very detail a dictionary user is looking for – surely, the user is more likely to consult a dictionary for an unknown use than a familiar and common one.

All in all, modern dictionary makers aim to represent language as it is used. Whatever the material indicates, a lexicographer is to analyse and document. However, a representative source and thorough analysis are not enough; it is essential for a dictionary to provide its readers with information they are able to decipher. This remains a challenge for all dictionary compilers.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Major works and advancements in the history of lexicography.

- Ælfric's "The London Vocabulary" from the beginning of the 11th century is one of the best-known glossaries (Jackson 31).
- *Promptorium Parvolorum, sive Clericorum* ("storehouse [of words] for Children or Clerics") from around 1440 is the "earliest known English-Latin dictionary" (Landau 45).
- *Hortus Vocabularum* of 1500 is the first printed Latin-English dictionary (Landau 45).
- Robert Cawdrey's *A Table Alphabeticall* of 1604 is "the first monolingual English dictionary" (Jackson 33).
- Henry Cockeram's *The English Dictionarie* of 1623 included encyclopedic entries, and made a distinction between "words of current usage, vulgar words, and refined and elegant terms" – this became "the standard practice in later dictionaries (Landau 50).
- Thomas Blount's *Glossographia of* 1656 contained words collected from the dictionary maker's own reading, etymologies, and illustrations; Blount also gave his sources and cited his authorities (Jackson 35-36; Landau 51); "More importantly, Blount recognized the changing nature of language and endorsed the process by which new words became assimilated through use by respected authors" (Landau 51).
- Elisha Cole's *An English Dictionary* of 1676 included cant and dialectal terms (Landau 52).
- *A New English Dictionary* of 1702[25] gave rise to a shift in focus from "hard words"[26] to a more general and common vocabulary, as well as including polysemy (Landau 52).
- Nathaniel Bailey's *An Universal Etymological English Dictionary* of 1721 had elaborate etymologies in several languages, and proverbs (Landau 53; Jackson 38); he also aimed at a presentation of actual language use as thorough as possible (Landau 56).
- Bailey's subsequent editions showed an inclination towards recording actual language use, and contained indications of word stress, symbols for usage guidance, and common words including vulgar and taboo words (Landau 54-56).
- Bailey's *Dictionarium Britannicum* of 1730 gave pronunciation instructions and acknowledged the assistance of specialists (Jackson 38).
- Samuel Johnson's *A Plan of a Dictionary of the English Language* of 1747 established some standards for dictionary-making (Landau 57).
- Benjamin Martin's *Lingua Britannica Reformata* of 1755 was based on his opinions of the inevitable nature of language change; it also introduced a theory for using numbered definitions

25 "John Kersey . . . was reputedly the editor of *A New English Dictionary* (1702)." Landau, 52.

26 "A word associated with the formal style of written text, and which is therefore relatively unfamiliar" Hartmann and James, s.v."hard word".

for senses (Landau 60-61). The book may have influenced Johnson's subsequent work (Landau 60-61).

- Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* of 1755 gave focus on phrasal verbs, and excelled in its use of quotations (Jackson 46; Landau 62).
- James Buchanan's *Linguae Britannicae* of 1757, William Kenrick's *A New Dictionary of the English Language* of 1773, Thomas Sheridan's *A General Dictionary of the English Language* of 1789, and John Walker's *Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language* of 1791 made advancements in the dictionary treatment of pronunciation (Landau 66-67). The latter is also noteworthy because it addressed the needs of immigrants and "upwardly mobile middle-class people,", though the advice it gives can be considered conservative (Landau 68).
- Noah Webster's name became originally known for his *American Spelling Book* (part of *A Grammatical Institute of the English Language*) from 1783, in which he proposed spelling reforms for American English (Landau 69; Jackson 62).
- Noah Webster's *An American Dictionary of the English Language* of 1828 had excellent definitions (Jackson 62), but was followed by a long-lasting feud with Joseph Worchester (Landau 72-73).
- Joseph Worchester's *Universal and Critical Dictionary of the English Language* of 1846 and *A Dictionary of the English Language* of 1860 were excellent and at the time triumphed over Webster's (Landau 72-73).
- After Noah Webster's death in 1843, George and Charles Merriam bought the rights to reprint and revise Webster's dictionaries (Jackson 63). The success of Noah Porter's edition of Webster's *A Dictionary of the English Language* of 1864 (known as the Webster-Mahn) put an end to the rivalry between Webster and Worchester (Landau 74).
- The *New English Dictionary*, at the time edited by James Murray, the first volume of which was published in 1884, later became known as the Oxford English Dictionary, and was broad in its headword count as well as etymological information (Jackson 48-51).
- *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* of 1898 started the tradition of college dictionaries (Jackson 67).
- Modern English dictionaries aimed at foreign learners emerged in Japan in the 1930s, from the field of English language teaching, especially from "the endeavours . . . of three teachers of English as a foreign language": H. E. Palmer, A. S. Hornby, and Michael West (Landau 74; Jackson 129).
- *The New Method English Dictionary* of 1935 (edited by Michael West and James Endicott) was the first dictionary for foreign learners; it already used "a controlled defining vocabulary, a practice still employed by many ESL dictionaries" (Landau 74).
- The *American College Dictionary* of 1947 (published by Random House, edited by Clarence L. Bernhart) made the collegiate dictionary a hugely successful phenomenon in the US, and reintroduced taboo words into dictionaries (Landau 90-91, 94).

- John Ogilvie's Imperial Dictionary of 1950 served to refresh the British dictionary scene (Hulbert 32), and started a trend for dictionaries to "[give] prominence to pictorial illustration" (Landau 143).
- The *Collins English Dictionary* of 1979 started a habit for British dictionaries to adopt features from American college dictionaries (Landau 95).
- The *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary* of 1987 started a tradition of using computer corpora in dictionary making (Jackson 131).
- The second edition of the *Longman Dictionary of American English* of 1997 is a corpus-based dictionary that extensively covers American English as well (Landau 76).

Appendix 2: Dictionary details

title	**Bloomsbury**
publisher	Bloomsbury
editor(s)	Kathy Rooney (Editor-in-Chief)
type	general
first edition	1999
edition used	2
year of publication	2004
headword count	100 000
corpus	Bloomsbury Dictionary Database; Corpus of World English
cover	hardback
design on cover	black paper-like material, text in gold
edge indices	none
inside of cover	none
frontispiece	none
front matter	Foreword; an Introduction; How to Use the Dictionary; Subject Labels for Specialist Areas; Abbreviations and Symbols; Pronunciation Guide; article “English: the Word Web”; “Routes into English” diagrams; “A Brief History of the English Language”; “The Formation of New Words in English”; “A Brief History of Dictionaries and Dictionary-Makers”; “World English”; “The Future of English”
typography of entries	Each homograph is assigned a separate headword and entry. All meanings in an entry appear in a single column, with etymological information and idioms at the end. Phrasal verbs appear at the end of the entry, intended below it, on separate rows.
entry features	Entry word. Pronunciation. Verb-forms. Transitivity. Definition. Example phrase.
main body appendices	none
back matter	list indicating the entries which are accompanied by “tables, charts, and composite pictures”
defining vocabulary	N/A
CD-ROM	none
symbols	to indicate parts of speech, illustrative examples, idioms, cross-references, “contraindicated usage”
quick definitions	x
arrangement	separate entry for each homograph; parts of speech in the same entry; phrasal verbs listed at the end; idioms indicated
numbered meanings	x
usage notes	x
pictures	x
pronunciation	respelling
etymology	x

title	**Cambridge**
publisher	Cambridge
editor(s)	Paul Procter (editor-in-chief)
type	learner
first edition	1995
edition used	1
year of publication	1995
headword count	100,000 words and phrases; 50,000 headwords
corpus	Cambridge Language Survey corpus
cover	paperback
design on cover	orange and black
edge indices	indicating the Phrase index
inside of cover	grammar and usage labels
frontispiece	none
front matter	foreword, How to find words and meanings, How to use the dictionary, Grammar: The Parts of Speech, diagram of the Cambridge Language Survey
typography of entries	Each meaning is assigned a separate headword and entry. Some phrasal verbs appear within the entries for their verbs, some as their own entries. Other related parts of speech are run in at the end of the entry on separate lines.
entry features	Entry word. Quick definition box. Pronunciation. Transitivity. Definition. Example sentence. [Definition. Example sentence. Etc.]
main body appendices	none
back matter	list of the Defining Vocabulary, 63-page Phrase Index to help the reader locate “a group of words” in the dictionary, a list of Pictures, Language Portraits and lists of False Friends; Grammar Labels
defining vocabulary	2000 words
CD-ROM	none
symbols	for British and American English
quick definitions	x
arrangement	every meaning has a separate entry; sometimes different parts of speech together; collocations and idioms in bold within entries
numbered meanings	none
usage notes	x
pictures	x
pronunciation	IPA
etymology	none

title	**Chambers**
publisher	Chambers
editor(s)	Vivian Marr (Editorial Director)
type	general
first edition	1901
edition used	12
year of publication	2011
headword count	N/A
corpus	N/A
cover	hardback
design on cover	buckram, bright red, text in gold
edge indices	none
inside of cover	text about the history of this dictionary
frontispiece	none
front matter	Preface, “A short history of English”, “Varieties of English”, “Using the dictionary”, “Spelling rules”, “Characters used in other languages”, “Detailed chart of pronunciation”, “Abbreviations used in the dictionary”
typography of entries	Each homograph is assigned a separate headword and entry. All meanings in an entry appear in a single column, with etymological information at the end. Other related parts of speech appear at the end of the entry on a separate row. Idioms and phrasal verbs appear at the end of the entry, intended below it, on separate rows, not distinguished from one another.
entry features	Entry word. Pronunciation. Transitivity. Verb-forms. Definitions. Etymology.
main body appendices	Word Lover's Miscellany; Wordgame Companion
back matter	lists of “Phrases and quotations from foreign languages”, “Alphabets”, “Roman numerals”, “Chemical elements”, “SI units”, “Beaufort scale”, “Mohs scale”, “Earthquake severity measurement scales”, “Wine bottle sizes”, “Wedding anniversaries”, “Mathematical symbols”, “Planets”, and “Major planetary satellites”.
defining vocabulary	N/A
CD-ROM	none
symbols	star for rare, literary, historical words
quick definitions	none
arrangement	separate headwords for homographs; different parts of speech together; idioms and phrasals after the entry together
numbered meanings	none
usage notes	x
pictures	none
pronunciation	respelling
etymology	x

title	**Collins**
publisher	Collins
editor(s)	Gerry Breslin, Ian Brookes, Robert Groves, Andrew Holmes (Editors)
type	general
first edition	1979
edition used	11
year of publication	2011
headword count	N/A
corpus	Collins corpus
cover	hardback
design on cover	linen buckram, dark blue, text and ornaments in silver
edge indices	x
inside of cover	Pronunciation Key, Abbreviations
frontispiece	none
front matter	foreword, Guide to the Use of the Dictionary, essay “From Nuclear Winter to Arab Spring: How a Dictionary Reflects Language Change” by Ian Brookes and Kate Wild, an entry list of words titled “New and Emerging English”
typography of entries	Each homograph is assigned a separate headword and entry. All meanings in an entry appear in a single column, with idiomatic expressions as meaning categories, and with etymological information at the end. Phrasal verbs are cross-referenced at the end of the entry. Phrasal verbs are assigned separate headwords, and appear in strict alphabetical order.
entry features	Entry word. Pronunciation. Transitivity. Definitions with example phrases.
main body appendices	none
back matter	none
defining vocabulary	N/A
CD-ROM	none
symbols	to show multiple parts of speech
quick definitions	none
arrangement	“strict alphabetical order”, separate entries for homographs, phrasal verbs “if the meaning of the phrasal verb cannot be deduced from the separate meanings of the verb and the particle”; parts of speech in the same entry
numbered meanings	x
usage notes	x
pictures	none
pronunciation	IPA
etymology	x

title	**Cobuild**
publisher	HarperCollins Publishers
editor(s)	John Sinclair (Editor-in-Chief)
type	learner
first edition	1987
edition used	5
year of publication	2006
headword count	over 110,000 “words, phrases and definitions”
corpus	Bank of English (part of Collins Word Web)
cover	harback
design on cover	blue and green; image of CD-ROM
edge indices	running along the upper edge for the alphabet; for the back matter
inside of cover	none
frontispiece	none
front matter	Introduction; Guide to the Dictionary Entries; a text on The Bank of English; Definitions; Style and Usage; Pragmatics; List of Grammatical Notations; Explanation of Grammatical Notation; Pronunciation
typography of entries	Each homograph is assigned a separate headword and entry. All meanings in an entry appear in a single column, with “the extra column” running on the right. Some phrasal verbs appear as meaning categories, some at the end of the entry, intended below it, on separate rows.
entry features	Entry word. Pronunciation. Verb-forms. Definition. Example sentence.
main body appendices	none
back matter	Irregular Verbs; Prefixes and Suffixes; Frequency Bands; Illustrations (Housing, Car, Tools, Kitchen Utensils, Fruit, Vegetables); Access to English (information on writing different kinds of essays and documents)
defining vocabulary	“a natural defining vocabulary with most words in our definitions being amongst the 2,500 commonest words of English”
CD-ROM	x
symbols	diamonds for frequency information; another kind of diamonds for phrasal verbs
quick definitions	none
arrangement	separate entries for different parts of speech, running after one another in the same paragraph; idioms at the end of the entry, but only as “see” with references to the nouns; entry followed by phrasal verbs, all in separate entries and indicated with a diamond
numbered meanings	x
usage notes	x
pictures	none
pronunciation	IPA
etymology	none

title	**Longman**
publisher	Longman
editor(s)	Brian O'Kill (Associate Editor)
type	general
first edition	1984
edition used	2
year of publication	1995
headword count	220 000 “meanings”
corpus	Merriam-Webster-based corpus, Longman Wordwatch Project, LOB
cover	hardback
design on cover	black with white, red and blue details
edge indices	none
inside of cover	Abbreviations, pronunciation symbols
frontispiece	none
front matter	Acknowledgements, a Foreword by Professor Sir Randolph Quirk, a General Introduction by Brian O'Kill, an “Explanatory Chart” of the construction of a dictionary entry, a Guide to the Dictionary, and Abbreviations used in the Dictionary.
typography of entries	Each homograph is assigned a separate headword and entry. All meanings in an entry appear in a single column, with etymological information and idioms at the end. Phrasal verbs appear at the end of the entry, intended below it, on separate rows.
entry features	Entry word. Pronunciation. Transitivity. Definitions with example phrases.
main body appendices	none. Within the body matter, there are a list of the books of the Bible, of monetary units in different countries, of the months in different types of calendar, of numbers, of military ranks, and of weights and measures, and the periodic table of chemical elements.
back matter	Abbreviations (repeated)
defining vocabulary	N/A
CD-ROM	none
symbols	none
quick definitions	none
arrangement	different parts of speech in same entry; idioms at the end in an entry; phrasal verbs after the entry but under it
numbered meanings	x
usage notes	x
pictures	none
pronunciation	respelling
etymology	x

title	**LoCo**
publisher	Longman
editor(s)	Michael Mayor (Editorial Director)
type	learner
first edition	1978
edition used	5
year of publication	2009
headword count	230 000
corpus	Longman Corpus Network
cover	hardback
design on cover	yellow, red, blue
edge indices	x
inside of cover	Pronunciation table
frontispiece	none
front matter	Foreword by Randolph Quirk, Introduction, How to use the Dictionary, Numbers, Symbols
typography of entries	Each homograph is assigned a separate headword and entry. The meanings in an entry appear in separate rows. Collocations and idiomatic expressions appear within example sentences. Other associated parts of speech appear as meaning categories. Phrasal verbs appear at the end of the entry, intended below it, on separate rows.
entry features	Entry word. Pronunciation. Transitivity. Definition with example sentences.
main body appendices	Formality in spoken and written English
back matter	Longman Communication 3000, Longman Defining Vocabulary, Irregular verbs, Maps of United Kingdom, North America, Australia and New Zealand, Geographical names, Numbers, Weights and Measures, Word Formation, photo acknowledgements, Licence Agreement to the CD-ROM
defining vocabulary	Longman Defining Vocabulary of 2000 words
CD-ROM	x
symbols	for frequencies of words, academic words
quick definitions	none
arrangement	separate entries for different parts of speech; idioms and phrases treated as meanings; phrasal verbs after the main verb in separate lines
numbered meanings	x
usage notes	x
pictures	x
pronunciation	IPA
etymology	none

title	**Macmillan**
publisher	Macmillan
editor(s)	Michael Rundell (Editor-in-Chief)
type	learner
first edition	2002
edition used	2
year of publication	2007
headword count	N/A
corpus	World English Corpus, “with additional material exclusively developed for this Dictionary, including ELT materials and a corpus of learner texts”
cover	hardback; no cover jacket
design on cover	bright red
edge indices	x
inside of cover	Grammar codes; Labels and symbols
frontispiece	none
front matter	Foreword, Introduction to the new edition, Using your dictionary, Numbers that are entries
typography of entries	Each homograph is assigned a separate headword and entry. Meanings in an entry appear in a single column on separate rows, with phrases and phrasal verbs, in separate lists, at the end of an entry, intended below it, on separate rows.
entry features	Entry word. Pronunciation. Quick definition summary box. Transitivity. Definition. Example sentence. Collocations.
main body appendices	Improve your writing skills, Expand your vocabulary, Language awareness
back matter	Geographical names and nationalities, Defining vocabulary, Pronunciation guide
defining vocabulary	2500 words
CD-ROM	x
symbols	for cross-references, example sentences, synonyms, opposites
quick definitions	x + a quick definition index following the headword if many senses
arrangement	separate entries for each word class; idioms, phrases and phrasal verbs after the definition, clearly marked
numbered meanings	x
usage notes	x
pictures	x
pronunciation	IPA
etymology	none

title	**Oxford**
publisher	Oxford
editor(s)	A. S. Hornby (1st edition); Joanna Turnbull (Managing Editor of this edition)
type	learner
first edition	1948
edition used	8
year of publication	2010
headword count	184 500 “words, phrases and meanings”
corpus	British National Corpus, Oxford English Corpus
cover	paperback
design on cover	Dark blue, turquoise, bright details, small photos
edge indices	x
inside of cover	abbreviations, symbols, labels
frontispiece	A page from A Learner's Dictionary of Current English of 1948
front matter	foreword, text on the Hornby Trust and Scholarship, Key to dictionary entries, Numbers
typography of entries	Each homograph is assigned a separate headword and entry. All meanings in an entry appear in a single column on separate rows. Idioms and phrasal verbs, listed separately, appear at the end of the entry, intended below it.
entry features	Entry word. Pronunciation. Quick definition. Definitions. Example sentences.
main body appendices	none
back matter	32-page Oxford Writing Tutor for different types of essays and documents; 64-page Visual Vocabulary Builder with drawn colour images and relevant terms appointed, and some short pieces of further information on topics such as global warming, types of house, hobbies, sports, transportation, and computing, correct collocations for cooking vocabulary and music, and maps of the British Isles, Canada and the United States of America, and Australia and New Zealand; a Reference section with lists of irregular verbs, common first names, and geographical names, grammatical information on verbs, phrasal verbs, nouns and adjectives, collocation, and idioms, and notes on usage, punctuation, numbers, pronunciation and phonetic symbols, British and American English, and the language of literary criticism, and information on the Oxford 3000
defining vocabulary	Oxford 3000
CD-ROM	x
symbols	to show multiple parts of speech, derivatives, opposite and synonymous words, related words, idioms, phrasal verbs; how words are stressed and syllables divided; where the object appears in phrasal verbs, Academic Word List words; Oxford 3000 words
quick definitions	x
arrangement	separate entries for homonyms and compound words; parts of speech under a single headword with subentries for each part of speech, and derivatives easily understood from the headword at the end of the entry; idioms and phrasal verbs under headword but marked clearly
numbered meanings	x

usage notes	x
pictures	x
pronunciation	IPA
etymology	none

Appendix 3: Dictionary descriptions

	Bloomsbury
Live 1	**1.** *vi* **HAVE LIFE** to be alive
Live 2	**3.** *vi* **RESIDE** to make your home in a particular place or condition or with a particular person ○ *lives alone*
Live 3	**2.** *vi* **STAY ALIVE** to remain alive ○ *lived through a serious illness*
Live 4	**6.** *vti* **FULLY ENJOY LIFE** to enjoy life to the fullest ○ *really knew how to live*
Live 5	**5.** *vi* **MAKE LIVING** to earn or make a living ○ *lives by waiting tables*
Live 6	**7.** *vi* **CONTINUE** to persist or continue in existence ○ *Her fame lives on.*
Live 7	**4.** *vti* **LEAD PARTICULAR TYPE OF EXISTENCE** to spend your life in a particular way or under particular circumstances ○ *live comfortably*
Live 8	**9.** *vti* **MAKE LIFE CONFORM** to make your life conform to something such as a philosophy or religion ○ *lived her faith* ○ *lived by strict rules*
Live 9	**10.** *vi* **BE KEPT SOMEWHERE** to be found or kept in a particular place (*informal*) ○ *The spare car keys live in this drawer.*
Live 10	
Live 11	
Live 12	**8.** *vt* **EXPERIENCE SOMETHING** to experience or go through something ○ *living a dream*
Live 13a	
Live 13b	
Live 13c	
Live 13d	

	Cambridge
Live 1	live HAVE LIFE *v*[I] (to continue) to be alive or have life ● *He was so badly injured in the accident that the doctors don't expect him to live.* ● *Some lichens are thought to have been living* **for** *at least 9000 years.* ● *Her granny lived* **to (be)** *the ripe old age of 94.* [+ *to* infinitive] ● *Do you think he will live (long enough)* **to see** *his plans come to fruition?* ● *Can the right to live ever be denied to any human?* ● People sometimes say **you/we live and learn** [. . .] To **live to fight another day** [. . .] **live to tell the tale** [. . .]
Live 2	live HAVE A HOME *v*[I always + adv/prep] (of a person or animal) to have as their home or as the place where they stay or return, esp. to sleep ● *Where do you live?* ● *We live* **in** *London now but we used to live* **in** *France.* ● *Many people want to live* **in** *the country.* ● *Few people these days still employ a housekeeper who lives* **in** (=lives in the house where they work). ● *Some students live* **on** *the University campus.* ● *(Br) Other students live* **out** *in rented accommodation in the town.* ● *My brother lives* **(together) with** *four other people in a shared house.* [I] ● *Few animals live above the snowline.* ● *Our dog lives* **in** *a kennel in the garden.* ● *(fig.) Where do the knives live* (=Where is the place they are usually kept) *in your kitchen?* ● *You've only been here a week and already the room looks very* **lived in** (=comfortable and regularly used). ● If two people **live together/live with** each other/(*esp humorous*) **live in sin**, they share a house and have a sexual relationship but are not married: *Many young people nowadays live together before they get married.*
Live 3	see live1
Live 4	live INTERESTING LIFE *v*[I] to have an interesting life ● *I don't want to get a regular job yet – I want to live* **(a bit/a little)** *first!* ● *When she was in her twenties she lived – I mean really lived – but now she's settled down* ● *If you haven't seen Venice, you haven't lived.* ● If you **live it up** you have an exciting and very enjoyable time with parties, good food and drink: *He's alive and well and living it up in the Bahamas.*
Live 5	clothing, etc., or by eating a particular food ● *For several years, she lived* **by** *begging* ● *She has an inheritance to live* **off** (*Am also live* **off of**) *so she doesn't need to get a job.* ● *Many people live* **off** *the profits of cocaine production.* ● *He only agreed to marry her so he could live* **off** *her (money).* ● *His wage won't be enough to live* **on** *if we have another child.* ● *The natives live* **on** (=stay alive by eating) *a diet of fruit and occasionally meat.*
Live 6	live CONTINUE *v*[I] (of things which can not be alive) to exist or continue to exist ● *His body may be dead but his kindness will live with us always.* ● *The memory of those terrible days lives* **on** *with all who were at the camps* ● If something **lives (on) in the memory**, it has such an effect that it is remembered for a long time: *What a brilliant production – it will certainly live on in the memory of many people.*
Live 7	live *(obj)* SPEND LIFE *v*[always + adv/prep] to spend (your life) (in a particular way) ● *After a while you get used to living alone.* [I] ● *He lived under a constant threat of his health problems returning.* [I] ● *When you retire, you want to live life comfortably.* [T] ● *So the prince and princess got married, and lived* **happily ever after.** [I] ● *I always try to live* **by** *what I believe in.* [I] ● *The US is living* **beyond** *its* **means** (=spending more than it earns). [I] ● *She just lives* **for** (=Her main or only interest in life is) *parties and having a good time.* [I] ● *He simply wants to live* **out** (=experience or do) *the rest of his days in peace.* [T] ● *Winning the money allowed her to live* **out** (=do) *a lot of the things she'd only dreamed of doing before.* [M] ● *He lived* **with/through** (=experienced) *terrible suffering because of back pain until the age of fifty.* [I] ● *I'm sorry your tooth is hurting but you'll just have to live* **with** (=bear) *it until we get you to the dentist.* [I] ● *The TV's broken – we'll just have to live* **without** (=not have) *it for a while.* [I] ● *She certainly lived her life* **to the full** (=was always doing something interesting). [T] ● [. . .] **living a lie** [. . .] **lives and breathes** [. . .] **live and let live** [. . .] **live like a king/lord** [. . .] **live** your **own life**]. . .] **live by/on** their **wits**
Live 8	see live11
Live 9	see live2
Live 10	
Live 11	see live2
Live 12	
Live 13a	
Live 13b	
Live 13c	
Live 13d	

	Chambers
Live 1	to have, or continue in, life, temporal, spiritual, or figurative, to be alive
Live 2	to reside or dwell
Live 3	to survive, remain alive, escape death; see live1
Live 4	to enjoy life
Live 5	to be supported, subsist, get a living
Live 6	to continue, last, escape destruction or oblivion
Live 7	to lead one's life in a certain way, eg *live well*, *loosely*, etc
Live 8	*vt* to act in conformity to; vt to express (eg a set of principles, a creed, etc) by one's life, make one's life the same thing as
Live 9	
Live 10	
Live 11	
Live 12	
Live 13a	*vt* to spend or pass
Live 13b	
Live 13c	
Live 13d	

	Collins
Live 1	**1** to show the characteristics of life; be alive
Live 2	**4** (usually foll by *in* or *at*) to reside or dwell: *to live in London*
Live 3	**2** to remain alive or in existence
Live 4	**11** to enjoy life to the full: *he knows how to live*
Live 5	**7** (foll by *on*, *upon*, or *by*) to support one's style of life; subsist: *to live by writing*
Live 6	**5** (often foll by *on*) to continue or last: *the pain still lives in her memory*
Live 7	**3** to exist in a specified way: *to live poorly*
Live 8	**6** (usually foll by *by*) to order one's life (according to a certain philosophy, religion, etc); 12 *(tr)* to put into practice in one's daily life; express: *he lives religion every day*
Live 9	
Live 10	
Live 11	
Live 12	
Live 13a	**10** *(tr)* to pass or spend (one's life, etc)
Live 13b	
Live 13c	
Live 13d	

	Cobuild
Live 1	4 To live means to be alive. If someone **lives to** a particular age, they stay alive until they are that age. □ *He's got a terrible disease and will not live long... He lived to be 103... Matilda was born in northern Italy in 1046 and apparently lived to a ripe old age... The blue whale is the largest living thing on the planet.* V adv, V to-inf, V *to* n, V-ing
Live 2	1 If someone **lives** in a particular place or with a particular person, their home is in that place or with that person. □ *She has lived here for 10 years... She always said I ought to live alone... Where do you live?... He still lives with his parents.* V + adv/prep
Live 3	
Live 4	
Live 5	5 If people **live by** doing a particular activity, they get the money, food, or clothing they need by doing that activity. □ *...the last indigenous people to live by hunting... These crimes were committed largely by professional criminals who lived by crime.* VERB: no cont, V *by* -ing/n
Live 6	
Live 7	2 If you say that someone **lives** in particular circumstances or that they **live** a particular kind of life, you mean that they are in those circumstances or that they have that kind of life. □ *We lived quite grandly... Compared to people living only a few generations ago, we have greater opportunities to have a good time... We can start living a normal life again now.* V + adv/prep, V n
Live 8	6 If you **live by** a particular rule, belief, or ideal, you behave in the way in which it says you should behave. □ *They live by the principle that we are here to add what we can to life, not to get what we want from it.* V *by* n
Live 9	
Live 10	
Live 11	
Live 12	
Live 13a	
Live 13b	
Live 13c	
Live 13d	

	Longman
Live 1	**1** to be alive; have the life of an animal or plant
Live 2	**5** to occupy a home; dwell <living *in a shabby room*> <*they had always* ~d *in the country*>; 9 to co-habit - + *together* or *with*
Live 3	**2** to continue alive <*will he ~, doctor?*>
Live 4	**8** to have a life rich in experience <*during his time in China he really* ~d>
Live 5	**3** to maintain oneself; subsist <~ by writing>
Live 6	**7** to remain in human memory or record
Live 7	
Live 8	*vt* **2** to enact, practise <~ *a lie*>
Live 9	**10** *chiefly Br informal* to be found in a specified place, esp normally or usually <*a big freezer that* ~s *elsewhere – Doing Up Your Home*>
Live 10	
Live 11	
Live 12	
Live 13a	*vt* **1** to pass, spend, or experience <she ~d three years as a nun>
Live 13b	*vt* **3** to exhibit vigour, gusto, or enthusiasm in <~d *life to the fullest*>
Live 13c	**6** to attain eternal life <*tough he were dead, yet shall he* ~ – Jn 11:25 (AV)>
Live 13d	**4** to conduct or pass one's life: <~*d only for his work*>

	LoCo
Live 1	**4 BE/STAY ALIVE** [I] to be alive or be able to stay alive: *Without light, plants couldn't live.* | *He is extremely ill and not expected to live.* | *The baby only lived a few hours.* | *People on average are **living** much **longer** than before.* | *I'll never forget this **for as long as** I **live**.* | **live to (be) 80/90 etc/live to the age of 80/90 etc** *My grandmother lived to 85.* | *She lived to the age of 79.* | **have two weeks/six months etc to live** *He knows he's only got a few months to live.* | *He did not **live to see*** (=live long enough to see) *the realization of his dream.*
Live 2	**1 IN A PLACE/HOME** [I always + adv/prep] if you live in a place, you have your home there: **[+in/at/near etc]** *They lived in Holland for ten years.* | *He lives just across the street from me.* | *We live only a few miles from the coast.* | *A rather odd family came to **live next door to** us.* | *As soon as I saw the place, I knew I didn't want to **live there**.* | *Does Paul still **live here**?* | *We're still looking for **somewhere to live**.* | *They've finally found **a place to live**.* | **[+with]** *My grandmother came to live with us when I was ten.* | *Most seventeen-year-olds still **live at home*** (=live with their parents). | *I'm quite happy **living alone**.* | *The house has 3,600 square feet of **living space*** (=the areas of a house you live in). | **live rough** *BrE* (=live outside because of having no home) *I ran away from home and lived rough for five months.*
Live 3	see live1
Live 4	**7 EXCITING LIFE** [I] to have an exciting life: *She wanted to get out and live a little.* | *We're beginning to live at last!*
Live 5	**6 EARN A LIVING** [I] the way that someone lives is the way that they earn money to buy food etc: *Fishing is the way their families have lived for generations.* | **live by doing sth** *They live by hunting and killing deer.*
Live 6	**10 STILL EXIST/HAVE INFLUENCE** [I] if an idea lives, it continues to exist and influence people: *Democracy still lives!* | *His name will **live forever**.* | *That day will always **live in** my **memory**.*
Live 7	**5 WAY OF LIFE** [I always + adv/prep] to have a particular type of life, or live in a particular way: **live in peace/poverty etc** *The people in this country just want to live in peace.* | *People should not live in fear of crime.* | *We live in hope that a cure will be found.* | **live peacefully/quietly/happily etc** *The two communities live peacefully alongside each other.* | *She thought that she would get married and **live happily ever after*** (=like in a children's story). | *Some people like to live dangerously.* | *Most elderly people prefer to live independently if they can.* | *They earn enough money to **live well*** (=have plenty of food, clothes etc). | *I just want to **live** my **life** in my own way.* | *He's not well enough to **live a normal life**.* | **live a quiet/active/healthy etc life** *She lives a very busy life.* | *He had chosen to **live the life of** a monk.* | *She's now in Hollywood **living a life of luxury**.* | **[+by]** *I have always tried to live by my faith* (=according to my religion). | *We struggle on, **living from day to day*** (=trying to find enough money each day to buy food etc). | *He was tired of **living out of a suitcase*** (=spending a lot of time travelling).
Live 8	see live11
Live 9	**9 BE KEPT SOMEWHERE** [I always + adv/prep] *BrE informal* the place where something lives is the place where it is kept: *Where do these cups live?* | *Those big dishes live in the cupboard next to the fridge.*
Live 10	**3 AT A PARTICULAR TIME** [I always + adv/prep] if you live at a particular time, you are alive then: **[+before/in/at]** *He lived in the eighteenth century.* | *She lived at a time when women were not expected to work.* | *Gladstone lived during a period of great social change.* | **the best/greatest etc that/who ever lived** (=the best, greatest etc who has been alive at any time) *He's probably the best journalist who ever lived.*
Live 11	**2 PLANT/ANIMAL** [I always + adv/prep] a plant or animal that lives in a particular place grows there or has its home there: **[+in/on etc]** *These particular birds live on only one island in the Pacific.*
Live 12	**8 IMAGINE STH** [I always + adv/prep] to imagine that things are happening to you: **[+in]** *He lives in a fantasy world.* | **[+through]** *She lived through her children's lives.* | *You must stop **living in the past*** (=imagining that things from the past are still happening).
Live 13a	
Live 13b	
Live 13c	
Live 13d	

	Macmillan
Live 1	4 be/stay alive [I] to be alive, or to stay alive: She's not expected to live long ♦ Who wants to live forever? ♦ live to the age of.../live to be... Despite her unhealthy lifestyle, Aunt Joan lived to be 86. ♦ live to do sth (=live long enough to do it) He lived to see the first talking pictures.
Live 2	**1** have a home in place [I] to have your home in a particular place: *Paris is a nice place to live.*♦ **+in/near/on/at etc** *They lived in a basement flat in South London.* ♦ *I think he lives somewhere near Bath.* ♦ **live at home** (=in your parents' home) *Do you still live at home?*
Live 3	see live1
Live 4	**6** have interesting life [I] to have an interesting and exciting life: *Come on, you have to live a little!*
Live 5	**3** keep alive certain way [I] to keep yourself alive in a particular way: **live by doing sth** *The Aymaras live by hunting and fishing in the Desaguadero river.* ♦ **live on/off sth** *Millions of families are living on benefits.*
Live 6	**5** continue to exist [I] to continue to exist and have influence: *The spirit of revolution still lives.* ♦ **live in sb's memory** *The events of that day have always lived in my memory.*

	Oxford
Live 1	BE ALIVE **3** [I] to be alive, especially at a particular time: *When did Handel live? ◊ He's the greatest player who ever lived.*
Live 2	IN A PLACE **1** [I] **+ adv./prep**. To have your home in a particular place: *to live in a house ◊ Where do you live? ◊ She needs to find **somewhere to live.** ◊ We used to live in London. ◊ Both her children still live at home. ◊* (*BrE*, *informal*) *Where do these plates live* (= where are they usually kept)*?*
Live 3	BE ALIVE **2** [I] to remain alive: *The doctors said he only had six months to live. ◊ Spiders can live for several days without food. ◊* **~ to do sth** *She lived to see her first grandchild.*
Live 4	HAVE EXCITEMENT **6** [I] to have a full and exciting life: I *don't want to be stuck in an office all my life–I want to live!*
Live 5	
Live 6	BE REMEMBERED **5** [I] to continue to exist or be remembered **SYN remain**: *This moment will live in our memory for many years to come. ◊ Her words have lived with me all my life.*
Live 7	TYPE OF LIFE **4** [I, T] to spend your life in a particular way: *He lived in poverty most of his life. ◊* **~ sth** *She lived a very peaceful life. ◊* **+ noun** *She lived and died a single woman.*
Live 8	
Live 9	see live 2
Live 10	see live 1
Live 11	
Live 12	
Live 13a	
Live 13b	
Live 13c	
Live 13d	

Appendix 4: Phrasal verbs and idioms

1 Phrasal verbs

1.1 *live by (sth)*

- meaning: to follow or order one's life according to a particular belief, rule, set of principles, or ideal
- examples: That's a philosophy I could live by. He argued that even criminals have a code of ethics that they live by.

The phrasal verb *live by* is mentioned by eight of the nine dictionaries consulted. Four of them give it headword status, placing it in a list of phrasal verbs. The meaning of the phrasal verb is close to that of live$_5$ 'conform to religion etc.' - indeed, Collins and Bloomsbury mention this construction under the entry for live$_5$. On the other hand, Cambridge and LoCo place this construction under their entries for live$_{11}$ 'spend your life in a particular way'. These semantic connections seem plausible, but the different ways of presenting this phrasal verb, especially in the context of dictionaries, raises the question of user-friendliness: which of these provides the reader with the most adequate information, but is also easy to find? As a dictionary user, it would appear to me that the most convenient way is to place all phrasal verbs in alphabetical order in a separate list – after all, the dictionary user can hardly be assumed to know in advance what kind of association the makers have made.

1.2 *live by (doing sth)*

- meaning: to earn money, get the things you need by doing a particular thing
- Finnish: elättää itseään (elää) jllk
- examples: The Aymaras live by hunting and fishing in the Desaguadero river.

This phrasal verb has the same form as the above, but is complemented by a present participle, and has a clear difference in meaning. The construction is mentioned by eight dictionaries, but seven out of them only mention it under live$_{10}$ 'maintain oneself' – Oxford alone gives it headword status as a phrasal verb.

1.3 *live down*

- meaning: to cause, be able to make people forget about something embarrassing, silly, shameful, bad, a crime, mistake you have done by waiting long enough, until others forget or

forgive it, esp by good, blameless, commendable behaviour; eventually to stop feeling uncomfortable about, withstand the effects of, rehabilitate oneself in people's eyes after something, something people laugh at them for
- Finnish: päästä jnk yli; päästä yli, jättää taakseen
- examples: She felt so stupid. She'd never be able to live it down.

The construction *live down* can be found in all nine dictionaries consulted, and all of them give it its own entry. However, not all of the dictionaries indicate in any way that this construction is a phrasal verb. Oxford, Longman and Cambridge give instructions of use: the object of the verb can be placed either before or after the preposition, other dictionaries not mentioning this issue at all.

1.4 *live for*
- meaning: to attach great importance to, think that sb/sth is the main purpose of or the most important thing in your life; have sth to live for = to have a reason to want to stay alive
- Finnish: elää jtk [tarkoitusta] varten
- examples: She lives for her work. After his wife died, he had nothing to live for.
- characteristics: intransitive (Cambridge) but transitive (Macmillan); V + PREP (Cobuild)

Seven dictionaries mention this construction, and according to five of them it is a phrasal verb construction. Cambridge mentions it under live$_{11}$ 'spend your life in a particular way', Chambers leaves the status of the construction undefined, and in Longman it can be found only in an example phrase for its meaning category “to conduct or pass one's life *lived only for his work*”, which is most likely an example of live$_{11}$. The only dictionary to give further submeanings is Macmillan, though only the first one, *live for sth/sb* is in fact an example of the phrasal verb, the second entry (*have sth to live for*, *live for the day when*) giving examples of what can be seen as idiomatic constructions.

1.5 *live in*
- meaning: to live, be resident at the place where you work or study, especially a servant or student
- Finnish: (henkilökunnasta) asua talossa
- examples: They have an au pair living in.

Eight dictionaries mention the structure *live in*, and seven of them give it in a separate entry. Cambridge gives it in an example sentence under the head word for the meaning live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home'.

1.6 *live off (sb/sth)*

- meaning: to be financially supported by, to receive the food or money you need to live, to buy necessary things, from sb/sth because you do not have any yourself; sponge off; to depend on someone or something for the money or food that you need
- Finnish: olla jkn elätettävänä, elää jkn kustannuksella; elää jllk t. jstk=live on
- examples: She's still living off her parents. Dad lost his job and we had to live off welfare.

Seven dictionaries mention this meaning of the construction *live off*. Six of them give it head word status, and Cambridge places it under the entry for live$_{10}$ 'maintain oneself'. Macmillan seems to mention this meaning twice: it includes the structure *live on/off sth* under its meaning category KEEP ALIVE CERTAIN WAY, and under its section for phrasal verbs. LoCo mentions the idiomatic construction *live off the land* under its entry for the phrasal verb.

1.7 *live off (sth)*

- meaning: to only, mainly eat, feed oneself on one/some particular type(s) of food in order to live; live on
- Finnish: elää jllak, syödä
- examples: He seems to live off junk food.

Three dictionaries separately mention this meaning from the above. Some dictionaries most likely include this meaning within the above, as the meanings are closely related.

1.8 *live on*

- meaning: to eat, subsist on, stay alive by eating only, a lot of a certain type of food to survive, thrive, live off
- Finnish: elää jllak, syödä pelkästään; elää jllk t. jstk=live off
- examples: He practically lives on fish and chips! These fish live on small sea creatures such as shrimp (Macmillan).
- characteristics: often disapproving (Oxford)

The different meanings of the construction *live on* cause confusion among the dictionaries consulted. Only Macmillan covers all three meanings in separate entries, albeit one of them is only mentioned under live$_{10}$ 'maintain oneself'. Most dictionaries only mention two of the meanings, and some combine them under one entry. An interesting peculiarity can be found in Oxford: one of the entries for *live on* has two submeanings, defined by the neutral or disapproving nature of the use. Cambridge mentions this phrasal verb under the entry STAY ALIVE.

1.9 *live on*

- meaning: to have enough, a particular amount of money to spend on the basic things you need in life, and it is enough to buy you food and other necessary things you need to live
- Finnish: elättää itsensä jllak, saada toimeentulonsa jstak
- examples: You can't live on forty pounds a week.

1.10 *live on*

- meaning: (someone, a memory, historical event, etc) to last, continue to live or exist or be alive for a long time after a particular point in time; be remembered for a long time; =go on; =last, survive
- Finnish: *kuv* elää, pysyä muistissa
- examples: She lived on until 1832, when she died aged 85. She died ten years ago but her memory lives on.
- characteristics: V + ADV, USU + A (Cambridge)

Eight dictionaries mention the construction *live on* in this meaning. Five give it a separate entry, whereas the remaining three place it under their entries for live$_6$ 'continue to exist in memory'. This is the kind of thing that will cause discrepancies among dictionaries, especially related to the transitivity issue. One of the former is Cobuild, which in fact gives a single head word entry for the construction *live on*, and lists four meanings under it – even separating meanings on the basis of human/non-human subjects. The first two cover the above, and the last two divide this meaning in two, based on the subject: "3 If someone **lives on**, they continue to be alive for a long time after a particular point in time. EG *Charles de Gaulle lived on, to retire in peace*... 4 If something such as a memory or historical event **lives on**, it is remembered for ever or for a long time because it is important. EG *The Marilyn Monroe legend lives on in Hollywood*."

1.11 *live out*

- meaning: to live away from the place where you work or study, esp of a servant, student, hotel worker, hospital doctor, etc.
- Finnish: (henkilökunnasta) asua muualla
- examples: Universities are short of accommodation, so some students have to live out.
- characteristics: adverb (Collins); V + ADV (Cobuild)

Eight dictionaries mention this rather clear meaning of the structure *live out*. Only Cambridge places it under its entry for live$_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home', the others either giving it head word status or

mentioning it as one of the meanings for the head word *live out*. According to LoCo, this meaning is used in British English.

1.12 *live out (until; one's life)*
- meaning: to live (one's life) entirely in a particular way or place; to live till the end of
- Finnish: elää (koko elämänsä)
- examples: He lived out his days alone. We all lived out our lives entirely on the farm. He lived out the remaining 56 years of his life in London.
- characteristics: V + O + ADV, USU + A (Cobuild)

This meaning of *live out* was mentioned by seven dictionaries. All of them mentioned it in a separate head word for *live out*, either giving this meaning its own entry or listing the meaning under different senses of the construction *live out*. An example of the latter is Macmillan, though the entry is rather peculiar: the third subsection of the phrasal verb *live out* only gives the phrase *live out your life*, which seems to be an idiom rather than a phrasal verb. Along with the description of this meaning ("to live till the end of"), Longman also gives a further meaning "to live longer than".

1.13 *live out*
- meaning: to actually do, realize, experience, fulfil in reality something that you have (previously) imagined, dreamed, fantasized of doing, planned or hoped for, a particular set of things that you are fated or intended to do (eg the destiny reserved for one)
- Finnish: toteuttaa
- examples: The inheritance would allow her to live out her fantasies. Each of us lives out our destiny. She lived out to the extreme the teachings of our faith.
- characteristics: ORDER V + ADV + O (Cobuild)

Seven dictionaries mention this meaning of the construction *live out*. Six of them give it headword status, and Cambridge mentions it under its entry for live$_{11}$ 'spend your life in a particular way'. Cobuild combines the phrasal verb with the meaning live$_{5}$ 'conform to religion etc.'

1.14 *live out (sb)*
- meaning: live longer than
- Finnish: elää kauemmin kuin, jäädä eloon jnk jälkeen
- examples: will communism live capitalism out?

1.15 *live through*
- meaning: to withstand, endure, experience (at first hand) and survive something difficult, dangerous, unpleasant (an event, change, disaster)

- Finnish: kestää, kokea; elää, kokea; selviytyä, selvitä
- examples: There are people who have lived through two world wars. It was hard to describe the nightmare she had lived through.
- characteristics: V+PREP, HAS PASS (Cobuild)

The construction *live through* was mentioned by seven dictionaries. Collins did not mention it in its list of phrasal verbs, but in a separate meaning of the verb *live*. Cambridge has this phrasal verb under its entry SPEND LIFE, mentioning it together with *live with*. Bloomsbury gives the construction in a separate entry in a list of phrasal verbs, indicating the use is transitive, but under the entry for the verb *live* and its meaning "STAY ALIVE to remain alive" gives the example phrase "*lived through a serious illness*", indicating that this meaning is intransitive.

1.16 *live together*

- meaning: to cohabit, live in, share the same house, flat, home and have a sexual relationship without being married to one another
- examples: My parents don't approve of us living together.
- characteristics: intransitive, adverb (Collins); V + ADV (Cobuild)

This construction is mentioned by all nine dictionaries, two of which place it under $live_2$ 'dwell, reside, have a home'. In Cambridge, this phrasal verb is mentioned under the meaning HAVE A HOME Oxford gives the construction two submeanings: "1 to live in the same house 2 to share a home and have a sexual relationship without being married".

1.17 *live under*

- meaning: to be tenant to
- characteristics: archaic (Chambers)

1.18 *live up to*

- meaning: to fulfil, meet, satisfy, reach, realise sb's expectations, desires, an obligation, a principle, a promise; match sb's good example; to do as well or be as good as other people expect you to, to achieve (what is expected, esp. high standards), to behave in a manner worthy of, to act or be in accordance with
- Finnish: elää periaatteidensa mukaan; täyttää toiveita, lunastaa odotuksia
- examples: The breathtakingly beautiful scenery certainly lived up to expectations.
- characteristics: intransitive, adverb (Collins); V + ADV + PREP (Cobuild)

All nine dictionaries mention the construction *live up to*, all giving it as a separate head word, but only

six mentioning that it is a phrasal verb construction. Collins has a distinct way of presenting it: the head word it gives is *live up*, and there are two submeanings: “1 (*intr*, *adverb*; foll by *to*) to fulfil (an expectation, obligation, principle, etc) 2 **live it up** (*informal*) to enjoy oneself, esp flamboyantly”.

1.19 *live with*

- meaning: to put up with, bear, accept and tolerate/adapt to sth difficult, unpleasant, unwelcome, inescapable that you cannot change (and that is likely to continue for a long time), endure the effects of (a crime, mistake) and carry on with your life or work
- Finnish: pystyä hyväksymään, tulla toimeen (jnk asian) kanssa; hyväksyä; tulla toimeen, selviytyä
- examples: How does she live with the guilt? He has lived with his illness for most of his life.
- characteristics: transitive (Macmillan), intransitive (Cambridge); V + PREP, HAS PASS (Cobuild)

This meaning is mentioned by eight dictionaries consulted. *Collins* has it under the verb *live* in its own meaning category, and *Cambridge* mentions it under its entry for live$_{11}$ 'spend your life in a particular way'.

1.19 *live with*

- meaning: to cohabit, dwell with, live in the same house as someone and have a sexual relationship with them without being married to them, =live together; SHARE LIFE WITH SOMEBODY
- Finnish: asua jnk luona; elää yhdessä jnk kanssa
- examples: She's living with her boyfriend now.
- characteristics: transitive, preposition (Collins); V + PREP (Cobuild)

ESSS has two separate meanings for the phrasal verb *live with*: one for 'cohabit', and another for 'sexual relationship'.

1.20 *live with*

- meaning: to keep remembering or thinking about something; it stays in your mind
- examples: The memory of that day would live with her for ever.

Macmillan also lists the construction *live with yourself*: [usually in negatives or questions] to continue to believe that you are a good person after doing something bad: I could never live with myself if I hit a child with my car.

2 Idioms

2.1 *as I live!*
- Finnish: niin totta kuin elän!

2.2 *as I live and breathe*
- meaning: used for expressing surprise
- Finnish: (*vanh*) ei voi olla totta

2.3 *be living on borrowed time*
- meaning: to be still alive after the time that you were expected to die
- examples: She's been living on borrowed time for the last year.

2.4 *if I live to be a hundred*
- meaning: used for emphasizing that you will never do, know, or understand something
- examples: If I live to be a hundred I'll never understand why he did that.

2.5 *live a lie*
- meaning: to spend, conduct your life hiding, denying, concealing something important, usually shameful about yourself, the truth about yourself or your feelings, what you really think, know, are, some essential circumstance or aspect of your character, keeping it a secret from other people; continually act, pretend, behave in a way that hides the kind of person you really are, what you are doing
- examples: I knew that I could not continue to live a lie.

2.6 *live a(n) [adj] life*
- meaning: to live a full/quiet/busy life, etc.
- examples: Now they have retired and want to live a quiet life.

2.7 *live a life of [noun]*
- meaning: to live a life of crime/luxury/hardship etc.
- examples: She was destined from birth to live a life of hardship.

2.8 *live and breathe*
- meaning: to be very, passionately enthusiastic about sth (a particular subject or activity), so that you hardly think about anything else and spend all the time you can doing it or talking about it
- Finnish: olla jklle henki ja elämä
- examples: Some people live and breathe football.

2.9 *live and learn*
- meaning: used to express surprise at a fact, sth new, unexpected you have just been told, become aware of; to keep learning new and surprising things
- Finnish: oppia ikä kaikki
- examples: “Did you know that 98% of American households have a television?” “Well, you live and learn.”

2.10 *live and let live*

- meaning: used for saying that you should accept, be tolerant of, give and expect toleration or forbearance regarding other people's beliefs, behaviour and way of life, let other people behave in the way they want to and not criticize them, even if they are very different from you or seem strange; to refrain from interfering in other's lives
- Finnish: antaa kaikkien kukkien kukkia; elää ja antaa toistenkin elää
- examples: You can't criticize someone for not liking sport just because you do – you have to live and let live.

2.11 *live beyond/within one's means*

- meaning: to have a way of life in which you spend more money than you earn/less money than you earn
- examples: The US is living beyond its means.

2.12 *live by/on your wits*

- meaning: to earn money, make the money that you need by clever or sometimes dishonest means, by deceiving people rather than by working honestly, doing an ordinary job, having a real job
- examples: I knew a fellow who lived for years on his wits.

According to Cobuild, this construction is a phrasal verb.

2.13 *live for/in the moment*

- meaning: to enjoy the present time and not worry about the future

2.14 *live for the day/time (when)*

- meaning: to look forward to something with great enthusiasm, to want something to happen very much, look forward longingly to
- examples: I live for the day when I retire.

This construction is mentioned under the phrasal verb *live for* in Cobuild and Macmillan.

2.14 *live from day to day*

- meaning: to deal with things as they happen without thinking about the future
- Finnish: elää päivä kerrallaan

2.15 *live (from) hand to mouth*

- meaning: to spend all they money you can earn on basic needs such as food without being able to save any money, to have just enough food or money to buy food to stay alive
- examples: We lived from hand to mouth, never knowing where the next meal was coming from

2.16 *live happily ever after*

- Finnish: elää onnellisena elämänsä loppuun saakka
- examples: So the prince and princess got married, and lived happily ever after.

2.17 *live high on the hog*

- meaning: used to say that someone has a nice life because they have a lot of money and buy expensive things

2.18 *live in clover*
- meaning: to have enough money to be able to live a very comfortable life

2.19 *live in each others' pockets*
- meaning: if two people are in each others' pockets, they are too close to each other or spend too much time with each other

2.20 *live in fear (of)*
- meaning: to be afraid of something or someone all the time

2.21 *live in hope*
- meaning: to be hopeful that something will happen
- examples: They haven't paid back any of the money yet, but we live in hope.

2.22 *live in sin (with sb)*
- meaning: to live together, share a home and have a sexual relationship without being married, =live together; cohabit
- examples: I had always wondered what living in sin would be like.

In Cambridge, this idiom is mentioned under the meaning HAVE A HOME. According to Cobuild, it is a

phrasal verb construction.

2.23 *live in the past*
- meaning: to behave as though society, etc. has not changed, when in fact it has; to have old-fashioned attitudes; to be always thinking or talking about past events

2.24 *live it up*
- meaning: to do enjoyable and exciting things that involve spending a lot of money; to enjoy an exciting or extravagant social life or social occasion, have an exciting and very enjoyable time with parties, good food and drink; to cram one's life with excitement and pleasure; to enjoy oneself, esp flamboyantly; to go on a spree
- Finnish: (ark) elää täysin siemauksin, nauttia elämästä; elää täysillä
- examples: Sam was living it up in London.

Cambridge mentions this meaning under INTERESTING LIFE.

2.25 *live (life) to the full*
- meaning: to enjoy doing a lot of different things, to always be doing something interesting
- examples: She believes in living life to the full.

2.26 *live like a king/lord*

- meaning: to have a luxurious style of life

2.27 *live on air*
- meaning: to have no apparent means of sustenance
- Finnish: elää tyhjästä

Hurme mentions this idiom under the phrasal verb *live on*.

2.28 *live on borrowed time*
- meaning: to be likely to fail or die very soon
- examples: The government is living on borrowed time.

2.29 *live off the fat of the land*
- meaning: to have enough money to be able to afford expensive things, food, drink, etc.; to have a comfortable and enjoyable life without doing any work

2.30 *live off the land*
- meaning: to eat plants and fruit that you find or grow yourself and animals that you hunt or keep, rather than buying things

According to Cobuild, this is a phrasal verb construction.

2.31 *live out of a suitcase/trunk*
- meaning: to spend all your time travelling and staying in hotels, usually because of your job

Again, Cobuild says this is a phrasal verb construction.

2.32 *live out of tins/cans/dustbins etc*
- meaning: to get your food from the source mentioned because you cannot afford or cannot find anything else to eat; to depend on the limited range of eg food offered by (tins) or clothes contained in (a suitcase)
- Finnish: (ark) syödä purkkiruokaa
- examples: Many people were so destitute they lived out of garbage cans.

According to Cobuild, this is a phrasal verb.

2.33 *live over again*
- Finnish: elää uudelleen
- examples: the days of one's youth

2.34 *live rough*
- meaning: to live or sleep outdoors, usually because you have no home and no money
- Finnish: elää kodittomana
- examples: young people sleeping rough on the streets

live to (do/be/see...)

- meaning: live long enough to do something
- Finnish: elää kyllin kauan ehtieäkseen olemaan (jne)
- examples: He lived to see the first talking pictures. Her granny lived to (be) the ripe old age of 94.

Macmillan mentions this idiom under BE/STAY ALIVE, and Cambridge under HAVE LIFE. Cambridge mentions that this construction is followed by a *to* infinitive. The examples in Hurme are inconsistent with this: "*live to a great age*, *live to be old* elää vanhaksi".

live to see/fight another day

- meaning: to have another chance to fight in a competition; to be ready to continue with your life or job despite a defeat, failure, after you have dealt with a difficult situation, although you have failed or had a bad experience
- Finnish: selviytyä jstak
- examples: She lost the election, but she'll live to fight another day.

live to regret

- meaning: used for saying that someone will wish in the future that they had not done something
- Finnish: saada vielä katua katkerasti jtak
- examples: If you marry him, you'll live to regret it.

live to see (the day)

- meaning: to be still alive when something happens, especially something impressive or shocking
- examples: I never thought I'd live to see the day when children could take their own parents to court!

live to tell the tale

- meaning: to deal successfully with a dangerous or unpleasant experience
- examples: You mean you spent Christmas with his family and lived to tell the tale?

live to the age of/live to be

- examples: Despite her unhealthy lifestyle, Aunt Joan lived to be 86.

live well (/comfortably/luxuriously)

- meaning: to live luxuriously, have a pleasant life with plenty of money
- examples: I had a good salary then, and we lived pretty well.

live with yourself

- meaning: to continue to believe that you are a good person after doing something bad

live your own life

- meaning: to spend your life doing what you want usually because something is no longer stopping you from doing so
- examples: Now that the children have left home I can live my own life again.

long live

- meaning: used as an expression of loyal support for a person; used to say that you hope something continues to exist for a long time.
- Finnish: eläköön
- examples: long live the Queen! Long live democracy!
- characteristics: spoken

where one lives

- meaning: in one's sensitive or defenseless position

you haven't lived (if/until)

- meaning: used to tell sb that if they have not had a particular experience their life is not complete; to tell someone that they should try something
- examples: You haven't lived until you've tasted champagne.