

Some Reflections on the Making of the *Progressive English Collocations Dictionary*

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Abstract

我が国の勝俣銓吉郎『英和活用大辞典』（1939 研究社）は独力で編纂した世界で初めてのコロケーション辞典である。イギリスでは1980年代からコロケーション辞典が出版され、90年代以降はコーパスを利用した学習者向けコロケーション辞典がOxford, Macmillan, Longmanから出版された。しかし、これらは日本人学習者には必ずしも使いやすいものとはいえない。筆者はJon Blundell氏の協力を得てコーパスを利用した日本人学習者向けの『プログレッシブ英語コロケーション辞典』（2012, 小学館）を編纂した。本稿は英語学習におけるコロケーションの重要性、拙著の編集方針、日本人学習者のためのコロケーション辞典にはどのような記述が有益であるかについて簡潔にまとめたものである。

1. Introduction

For the past several years major British publishers such as Oxford University Press, Macmillan and Longman have published Collocation Dictionaries for advanced learners. English-Japanese dictionaries in recent years contain some information about collocations. However, they also include various other information. Therefore, information about collocation is limited. That is why the existence of a collocation dictionary is significant for learners. Professor Jon Blundell, who is a distinguished scholar of English education, and I published the *Progressive English Collocations*

Dictionary (2012) (hereafter *PECD*) with Shogakukan. In this article I will explain the editorial policy and describe the Collocations Dictionary. Furthermore I will consider what the ideal user-friendly collocations dictionary for Japanese English Learners is like.

2. What is collocation? Why learn collocation?

John Sinclair, one of the pioneers of Corpus Linguistics, defined collocation as follows. ‘Collocation is the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text. The usual measure of proximity is a maximum of four words intervening.’ (1991) In Corpus Linguistics collocation is generally perceived in a relatively wide span. On the other hand, in English language-pedagogy collocation is defined as a conventional combination between words. O’Dell and McCarthy (2008) focus on this point. ‘Collocation means a natural combination of words; it refers to the way English words are closely associated with each other. For example, *pay* and *attention* go together, as do *commit* and *crime*.’ When we use language naturalness is an important factor and we need to learn a natural combination of words.

Another point of collocation is that it has an important role in deciding the meaning. Let us consider the word combination ‘adverb + *private*’, which is an example of expressing different meanings depending on what adverb we use. When we use *private* with *intensely*, it means a person who likes being alone and does not talk too much. When we use *private* with *purely*, it means things belonging to or intended for use by only one person. If we use *private* with *strictly*, that means secret private feelings or information. Collocation plays a big part in deciding the meaning.

From the viewpoint of English education, EFL learners generally have less active vocabulary than passive vocabulary. According to Mochizuki *et. al.* (2003), ‘in the case of Japanese junior high school students the gap between active vocabulary and passive vocabulary is small, while high school students before university entrance examinations have a big gap between active vocabulary and passive vocabulary’.

Nowadays most English-Japanese dictionaries have much information about collocations. However, a specialised dictionary for collocations will have special significance for Japanese students to improve their productive capabilities. We would like to look at the verb *persuade* as an example. The typical pattern of the verb *persuade* is ‘persuade A to do’. When we look up *persuade* in the screen of co-occurrence with node words in the BNC, we can find that *persuade* is often used with words implying a positive attitude such as the verbs *try*, *attempt*, *manage*, *seek* and nouns of *effort* and *attempt*.

Figure 1 Picture output for *persuade* in the BNC

be	346	try	384	to	1711	persuade	the	902	to	1231	to	850
,	277	,	257	be	783	5011	to	536	that	300	the	197
the	206	have	176	have	243	he	375	the	108	that	182	
have	128	be	161	and	205	they	246	of	98	of	115	
to	119	he	116	in	147	she	190	,	82	,	103	
and	104	could	111	,	145	that	136	government	73	be	80	
he	91	attempt	108	he	120	by	126	.	61	a	66	
i	71	to	98	not	87	i	119	not	51	and	59	
of	66	and	97	of	86	a	117	and	44	it	54	
a	65	can	94	can	72	people	99	people	32	do	53	
they	64	i	84	could	66	you	94	court	27	go	49	
that	58	able	67	i	59	his	86	it	26	in	48	
but	49	manage	64	by	47	,	69	public	24	take	47	
you	47	fail	54	who	35	other	52	take	21	come	47	
in	45	not	53	they	31	.	51	"	20	.	46	
not	42	seek	51	would	31	we	47	a	20	"	44	
we	40	she	50	finally	30	her	37	be	20	stay	44	
it	39	they	48	will	30	their	34	other	20	they	43	
could	38	we	47	she	29	himself	30	give	19	change	38	
"	37	effort	45	which	29	it	27	's	18	their	37	

Figure 2 Concordance lines of *try [manage/ attempt/ effort] to persuade*

> hours of my life were spent trying to persuade	David Nelson to take up his appeals .
Her mother tried to persuade	the woman who had received the lett
A film producer tries to persuade	a famous actress back to the screen
r several years BR had been trying to persuade	the government to authorise the East
Please try to persuade	anyone contemplating using this meth
n full of confidence and managed to persuade	myself , for a while , that I was wel
een to take hers , but I managed to persuade	her , pointing out that since I had i
She 's managed to persuade	her partner , James Allen , 28 , to
g Kong government has managed to persuade	the Vietnamese to quietly accept :
course , but we have n't managed to persuade	the group to let Liam speak . &equ
I 've managed to persuade	the CO to let me chuck Assistant
He managed to persuade	the central council to accept the ;
; by customers than in any attempt to persuade	them to buy the beer in preference t
lume is all about — his vain attempt to persuade	government and Civil Service to impl
: was doing very well in her attempt to persuade	herself that her life was full of joys a
n paying large sums in I did attempt to persuade	him to open one , the rate of interes:
There was no attempt to persuade	and the result was that I blew up .
We are in fact attempting to persuade	a high-powered calculating machine t
: success , however , in his efforts to persuade	the Dutch that Sukarno was a man v
as boosted its longstanding efforts to persuade	voters that the Tories have a secret
nself hoarse in his frenzied efforts to persuade	the vociferous gathering of several t
I shall not abandon the effort to persuade	you otherwise .
530s had led to strenuous efforts to persuade	his nephew James V to do likewise ,
In his efforts to persuade	the Grand Junction in favour of the

Although this kind of information is useful for using *persuade* naturally, it has not been described in English-Japanese dictionaries for the lack of space. That is the reason why the importance of collocation dictionaries for EFL learners will increase.

persuade /pə'sweɪd/ 動 説得する

easily	persuade	簡単に説得する
finally	persuade	最終的に説得する
eventually	persuade	
successfully	persuade	うまく説得する

▷ I'm sure she can be **easily persuaded** to change her mind. 彼女を説得して考えを変えさせるのは簡単だと思ふ

▷ After months of negotiations we **finally persuaded** them to sign the contract. 数か月の交渉を経てついに彼らを説得して契約書へのサインにこぎつけた

persuade	A to do	A(人)に…するよう説得する
persuade	A of B	A(人)にBを納得させる
persuade	A (that)...	A(人)に…だと納得させる

▷ Finally she **persuaded** him to give up smoking. ついに彼女は彼を説得してたばこをやめさせた

▷ It was difficult to **persuade** him of the impor-

tance of making a quick decision. すぐ決断するのが大事だと彼に納得させるのは難しかった

▷ I tried to **persuade** him that he should stop working so hard. 働きすぎはやめるよう彼に説得を試みた

try to	persuade	説得を試みる
attempt to	persuade	
seek to	persuade	
hope to	persuade	説得したいと思ふ
manage to	persuade	何とか説得する
fail to	persuade	説得に失敗する

▷ We **tried to persuade** her to change her mind. われわれは彼女が考えを変えるよう説得しようとした

▷ We **managed to persuade** her to come with us on holiday to Guam. 彼女を何とか説得してグアムにいっしょに遊びに行く気にさせた

an attempt to	persuade	説得の試み
an effort to	persuade	説得する努力

▷ We should have made more of an **effort to persuade** her to apply to university. 彼女が大学受験をするようもっと説得の努力をすべきだった

—*Progressive English Collocations Dictionary* (2012)

3. Editorial policy of *the Progressive English Collocations Dictionary*

Now I will mention the editorial policy of *PECD*. The reliable main data used for investigating frequency of collocations was the British National Corpus. Regarding the selection of about 2,500 headwords, I used the criteria of selecting vocabulary in junior high school and high school textbooks approved for use in screening by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. Also, 'JACET 8000', which is a list of words edited by the Japan Association of College English Teachers, and high frequency words of the BNC are used. The total number of collocations in *PECD* is about 19,000 and about 10,000 example sentences are employed. Target users are Japanese EFL learners at the intermediate level.

Collocations in *PECD* were divided into two main categories, word collocations and grammatical collocations. Conventional collocation dictionaries have been described with emphasis on word collocations. However, it is important for Japanese students, who have not so much knowledge of active vocabulary, to increase their knowledge of grammatical collocations such as 'remind that...', 'remind wh-...', 'remind A to do',

‘remind A of B’, ‘remind A about B’. Main collocational patterns in each category are as follows;

Word Collocations;

Noun headwords···Verb + Noun, Noun + Verb, Adjective + Noun + Noun

Adjective headwords···Verb + Adjective, Adverb + Adjective

Verb Headwords···Adverb + Verb, Verb + Adverb

Grammatical Collocations;

Verb headwords···Verb + Preposition + Noun, Verb + Noun + Preposition + Noun, Verb + to do/ doing, Verb + that...

Adjective headwords···Adjective + Preposition, Adjective + doing / to do, Adjective + that / wh-

Noun headwords···Noun + to do, Noun + that..., Preposition + Noun, Noun + Preposition

Besides these collocation patterns fixed expressions which are frequently used in everyday spoken language are shown in the phrase section (e.g. I’m afraid so./ I’m afraid not. / Guess what?) to improve students’ communicative competence.

In *PECD* I proposed some new perspectives for Japanese EFL learners such as article information, usage information, location of adverb, and so on. These are considered in more detail in Chapter 5.

4. The span of collocations

When lexicographers compile a collocation dictionary it is difficult to decide how wide is the scope of collocation and how to describe the collocate words. According to Sinclair (1991), ‘the usual measure of proximity is a maximum of four words intervening’, that means four words to the left of the node word and four words to the right. However, even within the range of 4:4, when we describe a certain collocation from concordance lines, lexicographers need to decide the exact range of that collocation. Let us look at the example of noun *regret*?. In *PECD* the following collocation patterns are shown: ‘Verb + ~’ (e.g. *express regret*), ‘Adjective + ~’ (e.g. *deep regret / great regret / biggest regret*), Noun + of + ~’ (e.g. *expression of regret / a pang of regret*), ‘~ + Preposition’ (e.g. *regret about A / regret at A*). In the collocation with adjectives there is a description of ‘great [deep] regret’. From the concordance lines in the BNC, we can see that this collocation is often used in the phrase: ‘it is with great [deep] regret that...?’.

Let us look at the concordance lines of ‘great regret’ below.

r Germany. One of my **great regrets** will be that you and Lecourt will not be
 ingly accepted. It is a **great regret** to me that they have not done so. I, too
 it of sorrow And even **great regret** My arms become more coaxing You snuggle
 ing. </p><p>(It is with **great regret** **that**) the department announces that Professor
 y longer. So, it is with **great regret** , I write to inform you of the unfortunate
 ether and explain her **greatest regrets** : “Putting my kids what I put them through
 :ll her pastor that the **greatest regret** of her life was that she had raised her
 NJ State Police, with **great regret** and sincere apologies, I have to add, would
 to others. </p><p>My **greatest regret** regarding The Watch has been the very few
 r - who all pretended **great regret** at his loss, though the robbery must have
 . We also know to our **great regret** that these aberrations are becoming increasingly
 y returned, but to my **great regret** and disappointment, without the men. The
 at exception leads to **great regrets** , that is what leading gadget review site
 move on. So (it is with **great regret** **that**) we must inform you that Jumpgate Classic
 fulfilled, and (it is with **great regret** **that**) I have decided to shut down twiggit
 ? To risk? </p><p>The **greatest regret** past racers say that they have is not choosing
 </p><p>What is your **greatest regret** ? </p><p>I'm very very lucky...I have none
 o start did to express **great regret** at wasting their afternoon, when they could
 EMPORARILY (It is with **great regret** **that**) we have to bring the news that the

—enTenTen12

In *PECD* I showed that phrase as an example sentence of ‘great [deep] regret’. Another important factor of collocation in that phrase is the connection with the preposition *with*, for example, *with (great / deep) regret*. Therefore *with* is shown in italics.

deep	regret	深い後悔, 強い遺憾
great	regret	の意
biggest	regret	最大の後悔
only	regret	唯一の後悔

▷ It is *with* **great regret** that I announce my resignation from the board of directors. 誠に残念ですが、取締役を退任することを私はここに発表します

—*Progressive English Collocations Dictionary* (2012)

However, in the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (2009) (hereafter *OCD*) *with great [deep] regret* is only described in the collocation with a Preposition, not with an Adjective. As an example of ‘with regret’ in the *OCD* the following example sentence is shown: ‘It is with deep regret that we announce the death of Mr Fred Fisher.’

regret *noun*

ADJ. **big, bitter, deep, genuine, great, profound, real, sincere** ◊ Her biggest ~ was that she had never had children.
◊ She expressed deep ~ at the incident.

... OF REGRET **pang, stab, tinge** (esp. BrE), **twinge** (esp. AmE)
VERB + REGRET **feel, have** ◊ I have absolutely no ~s about resigning. | **express, show** | **send** ◊ He sends his ~s about missing our 45th reunion.

PREP. **to your ~** ◊ To my ~, I lost touch with her years ago. | **with ~** ◊ It is with deep ~ that we announce the death of Mr Fred Fisher. | **without ~** ◊ She thought of them without ~. | **~ about, ~ over** ◊ She showed no ~ about leaving her country. | **~ at** ◊ my sincere ~ at what has happened | **~ for** ◊ She enjoyed living alone, but felt a tiny pang of ~ for her mother's cooking.

PHRASES **expression of ~** ◊ The police offered no expression of ~ at his wrongful arrest. | **a matter for ~** (BrE), **a matter of ~** (esp. BrE) ◊ I never learned to play an instrument and that's a matter of some ~. (BrE)

—*Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (2009)

In *The Wisdom English-Japanese Dictionary* (2013) the whole part of 'It is with (great [deep]) regret that ...' is shown in boldface like '**It is with (great [deep]) regret that** I announce my resignation.'

— 国 (㊦) ~s /-ts/) 1 ㊦ ◊ 「...に対する」後悔, 悔い; 残念, 遺憾 «about, for, over, at» ▶ He **had** [felt] **no regrets about** what he'd done. 彼は自分のやったことに悔いはなかった/**express regrets for** the accident 事故について遺憾の意を表明する/**It is with (great [deep]) regret that** I announce my resignation. (誠に)遺憾ながら自らの辞任をご報告いたします。

—*The Wisdom English-Japanese Dictionary* (2013)

As mentioned above, the analysis of the collocations is different depending on the dictionaries. The major point is how lexicographers interpret concordance lines and how they reflect that interpretation in the description of the dictionary.

5. Perspective for Japanese English learners

Collocation studies in linguistics are considered to start in 1950s with the British linguist J. R. Firth. However, in Japan S. Katsumata published an English collocations dictionary before the rest of the world in 1939. Furthermore, H. R. Palmer came to Japan as an English education adviser for the Ministry of Education. He read his paper on collocations at the Institute for Research in English Teaching and published *A Grammar of English Words* (1938). Although it is not a dictionary specializing in

collocations, it includes many collocations. Since 1980s, collocation dictionaries have been published in Europe. *Selected English Collocations* (1982), *The BBI Combinatory Dictionary for students of English* (1986, 1997, 2010), *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (2002, 2009), *Macmillan Collocations Dictionary* (2010) and *Longman Collocations Dictionary and Thesaurus* (2013) (hereafter *LCDT*) are the representative collocation dictionaries. These collocation dictionaries are useful for advanced Japanese English learners. In these dictionaries except *LCDT*, only combination words under headwords are described. (e.g. advice ADJ. constructive, excellent, good, helpful, practical, sensible ... VERB+ADVICE give (sb), offer (sb), pass on, provide (sb with), |get, obtain, receive, take...) Intermediate students do not understand when they use a certain collocation whether they should add an article before the noun or not. And they cannot grasp the nuance of the collocation because there are not so many examples. The *PECD* adds information with intermediate Japanese English learners in mind. Let us now consider some perspectives for Japanese English learners.

5.1 Article information is one example. For Japanese students it is difficult to know whether they should add an article or not in noun collocations. In *PECD* collocations of ‘credit card’ are described as follows.

credit card /krédit kà:rd/		
📄 クレジットカード		
pay by	credit card	クレジットカードで
use	a credit card	払う
accept	credit cards	カードでの支払い
take	credit cards	に応じる

—*Progressive English Collocations Dictionary* (2012)

When we say ‘pay by credit card’ credit card is used as a means. In this situation the noun is usually used with no article. In the case of ‘use a credit card’, we are choosing one method of payment as opposed to another. That is why we have to add the indefinite article. In ‘accept credit cards’ and ‘take credit cards’ most shops can accept several kinds of credit cards from customers. Therefore plural forms are normally used in these collocations. Conventional collocation dictionaries refer to only word combinations. The usage of articles is a sense of language acquired naturally for native speakers, however for EFL learners it is difficult to acquire the usage of articles and it will be useful for Japanese English learners to add that information.

Relatedly, the usage of prepositions is also useful information when we describe collocations in the dictionary. In the following sentence ‘I forgot to **attach** a **label** to my suitcase.’ If we use *put* instead of *attach*, the meaning of the collocation is the same

but we have to change the preposition *to* to *on*.

carry	a label	ラベルがついている
bear	a label	
put	a label	ラベルを張る
attach	a label	

▷ This sweater doesn't **carry** any **label** about how to wash it. このセーターには洗濯方法についてのラベルがついていない

▷ I forgot to **attach** a **label** *to* my suitcase. スーツケースにラベルを張り忘れた(★ put なら put a label *on*)

—*ibid.*

5.2 Another important requirement for collocational information is to highlight meanings. Words sometimes collocate with specific semantic groups as well as with individual words. The existence of specific semantic groups was popularized by Louw (1993) and it is called semantic prosody. For example, the word *hair* may collocate with semantic groups of colour such as *blonde*, *red* and *black*. In the following example of grammatical collocation *do in regret to do* can be replaced by verbs meaning 'communicate something' such as *say*, *inform*, *advise*, *report* etc. We can use as follows: 'I *regret to say* that there's nothing more I can do to help.' or 'I *regret to inform* you that we are unable to offer you a position.'

The adjective *curious* is also connected with certain semantic groups and used with verbs meaning 'get some information' like '*curious to know* [*see/ find out/ hear/ learn*]?'.

Furthermore, in the case of *in the event of A* negative meaning nouns like *death*, *illness*, *crisis*, *war*, *failure*, *emergency* etc. will be represented by A.

in	the event of A	Aの際には
in	the event that...	...である際には
(英) in	the event	実際は
in	any event	とにかく
★ A は death, illness, a crisis など		

▷ Most people know what to do **in the event of** an earthquake. 地震の際はどうすればいいか、たいていの人は知っている

—*ibid.*

Make a recovery is normally used with adjectives of degree and the degrees of recovery are expressed as follows:

d with very little time or height to **make** a full recovery and a safe landing .
 In such cases it is easy to **make** a correct recovery because it is so obvious that the glider is stalled .
 ff at Blackpool in midweek , has **made** a good recovery from a knee injury and may play .
 Stig **makes** a full recovery which is some compensation .
 spital , where her father **made** his miraculous recovery after his cerebral haemorrhage in 1978 , and in May 1
 " He 's **made** a remarkable recovery , " Sister Cooney said .
 ight : " He is going to **make** a complete recovery .
 : promptly retired but has **made** a remarkable recovery .
 th and wellbeing is really vital to **making** a full recovery from any eating disorder which causes your periods t
 e has been ill and though he is **making** a good recovery the doctor who you can be sure I was quick to call at
 : at the same time , it has since **made** a good recovery .
 " He has **made** a remarkable recovery and was working last night , addressing the British Mi
 Although he **made** a partial recovery in 1926 , he could only conduct the One-Year course
 " I 'm glad to say he has **made** a full recovery , sir . "
 / , sir , my father appears to have **made** a full recovery and I believe he is still a person of considerable depe
 Copper had **made** a completely recovery , he was as sound as ever although a little on the thir
 As always , the strongest **make** a steady recovery but the others either wither away because they actu:
 cess and that Paul was likely to **make** a rapid recovery It was after that call that Annette realised that she h
 rted promptly , most people **make** a complete recovery .
 Michael **made** a good recovery , and was well enough to enjoy the international confi
 o experience if she is to **make** a satisfactory recovery .
 sd on hold for 12 months while he **made** a full recovery .

When we check the frequency of each adjective in the BNC, the top ten high frequency adjectives are listed in the order: *full*, *good*, *remarkable*, *complete*, *rapid*, *miraculous*, *satisfactory*, *excellent*, *spectacular* and *uneventful*. When students learn this collocation and use it naturally, it is useful for them to remember meaning groups with adjectives.

Let us now look at the collocations lines of 'adjective + to + discover'. Concordance lines reveal three semantic patterns. Below is a print-out from the screen of adjective counts of occurrence with 'to discover' in the BNC.

検索	表記形	基本形	単語間の語数	出現位置指定
語(句)検索	to discover	-	-	なし
サブコーパス	ALL			
集計範囲	1 単語で集計	集計品詞		
-2 ~ 0	ON	AJ.* DPS DT0を含む		

#	頻度	%	語句
1	37	0.67	surprised
2	33	0.60	able
3	19	0.35	difficult
4	19	0.35	possible
5	12	0.22	shocked
6	11	0.20	delighted
7	10	0.18	horrified
8	10	0.18	surprising
9	9	0.16	easy
10	8	0.15	hard
11	8	0.15	interesting
12	8	0.15	pleased
13	7	0.13	appalled
14	7	0.13	important
15	7	0.13	impossible

The first group of adjectives contains the meaning of emotion such as *surprised*, *shocked*, *delighted*, *horrified*, *appalled* and *pleased*. The second one is the degree of difficulty such as *difficult*, *hard* and *easy*. The third group is likelihood such as *be able to*, *be unable to*, *possible* and *impossible*.

5.3 Adverbs are very important to convey feelings and degree vividly. Although the usage of adverbs has not been emphasized in English education, the analysis of collocation using corpus data has revealed some interesting facts. These facts become clear when we look at collocations from the viewpoint of the adverb. *Rapidly* combines with adjectives expressing the meaning of ‘change’ like *growing*, *changing* and *expanding*. We often use it such as *rapidly growing A*, *rapidly changing world [environment / society]*, and *rapidly expanding area in the business world*.

For Japanese students it will be difficult to predict the words after the adverb *richly*. According to the BNC, *richly* is used with the meaning of gorgeous and valued. High frequency collocations are as follows: *richly decorated*, *richly deserved*, *richly ornamented*, *richly dressed*, *richly coloured*, *richly carved*, *richly embroidered*, *richly illustrated*, etc.

Widely, *variously* and *highly* are used in the passive form when they come before a verb. High frequency collocation for each adverb is ‘*be widely used [accepted/ regarded/ known/ believed]*’, ‘*be variously described [called/ known/ interpreted/ estimated/ reported]*’, *be highly regarded [trained/ recommended/ charged/ commended]*.

5.4 Finally let us consider interference from the mother tongue. A collocation in one language does not necessarily have a collocational counterpart in another language. For example, ‘pay attention to’ in English is the equivalent of ‘prestar atención a’ in Spanish, which is equal to ‘lend’ in English. According to JEFFL (Japanese EFL Learner) Corpus, Japanese junior high school students often translate ‘YUME WO MIRU’ into ‘see a dream’ instead of ‘have a dream’. They transmit the expression of Japanese directly into English. In a bilingual collocation dictionary information such as ‘In English we don’t say ~’ is useful for learners. In the interference of mother tongue (here in the difference between English and Japanese) there are some types of collocation that have to be considered. The first one is the case of different meaning of collator such as *a bright future* (AKARUI MIRAI), *answer the phone [door]* (DENNWA [GENNKAN] NI DERU). The second is collocation used in light verbs like *have*, *make*, *give*, *do* etc. Examples are *have a bath* (FURO NI HAIRU), *have a picnic* (PIKUNIKKU WO SURU), *make judgment* (HANDAN SURU) and *do research* (KENKYU SURU) etc. It is required to learn these collocations using light verbs carefully because the meaning of the collocator is not transparent. The third is the case of opposite word order between English and Japanese such as *oil and water*

(MIZU TO ABURA) and *profit and loss* (SONN EKI). In the *PECD* the interference of mother tongue is indicated as follows.

dream /dri:m/ 夢		
have	a dream	夢を見る
wake from	a dream	夢から覚める
awake from	a dream	
fulfill	one's dream	夢を実現する
realize	one's dream	
★ 「夢を見る」は× see a dream とはいわない		
▷ I had a terrible dream last night. 昨夜怖い夢を見た		

—*Progressive English Collocations Dictionary* (2012)

6. Conclusion

We have seen some features of the *Progressive English Collocations Dictionary* (2012) and considered some descriptions from the viewpoint of compiling collocation dictionaries. There are some future issues left for compilers of collocation dictionaries. Frequency of collocation is different in spoken and written English and in genre. It is important to increase register information. In the field of learner's corpus the study of error analysis by Japanese English learners has developed, however there is room for examination about how learners look up collocations when they use their dictionaries. Furthermore, in conventional collocation dictionaries 'adjective + noun' and 'adverb + verb' collocations were dealt with under noun and verb headwords. Because of this, for example, we cannot check that *total failure* has a higher frequency than *total success* as the starting point is classified under nouns. To take another example, the adverb *categorically* is often connected with negative meaning verbs such as *reject* and *deny*. This, too, cannot be checked in traditional printed collocation dictionaries (Seto 2013). To solve these kinds of issues we need to pay attention to the improvement of electronic dictionaries and the development of online dictionaries rather than a printed dictionary.

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