

# Course: English-V (6472)

## Semester: Autumn 2021

### ASSIGNMENT No. 2

#### Q. 1 Differentiate Phonetic symbols in English.

International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), an alphabet developed in the 19th century to accurately represent the pronunciation of languages. One aim of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was to provide a unique symbol for each distinctive sound in a language—that is, every sound, or phoneme, that serves to distinguish one word from another. The concept of the IPA was first broached by Otto Jespersen in a letter to Paul Passy of the International Phonetic Association and was developed by A.J. Ellis, Henry Sweet, Daniel Jones, and Passy in the late 19th century. Its creators' intent was to standardize the representation of spoken language, thereby sidestepping the confusion caused by the inconsistent conventional spellings used in every language. The IPA was also intended to supersede the existing multitude of individual transcription systems. It was first published in 1888 and was revised several times in the 20th and 21st centuries. The International Phonetic Association is responsible for the alphabet and publishes a chart summarizing it.

The IPA primarily uses Roman characters. Other letters are borrowed from different scripts (e.g., Greek) and are modified to conform to Roman style. Diacritics are used for fine distinctions in sounds and to show nasalization of vowels, length, stress, and tones.

The IPA can be used for broad and narrow transcription. For example, in English there is only one t sound distinguished by native speakers. Therefore, only one symbol is needed in a broad transcription to indicate every t sound. If there is a need to transcribe narrowly in English, diacritical marks can be added to indicate that the t's in the words tap, pat, and stem differ slightly in pronunciation.

The IPA did not become the universal system for phonetic transcription that its designers had intended, and it is used less commonly in America than in Europe. Despite its acknowledged shortcomings, it is widely employed by linguists and in dictionaries, though often with some modifications. The IPA is also used by singers.

The basic idea of the IPA is that every sound used contrastively in language should have one symbol associated with it. This makes sense and is quite true until we come upon a phonetics textbook which has something like the following for descriptions of the different English vowels:

/ʌ/: Used in words like “cut”, “mutt”, “butter”, “nun” or “luck”

/ə/: Used in words like “sofa”, “photograph”, or “adore”

For every other English vowel, we choose the proper symbol based on how the vowel sounds. The vowel in “look” sounds a lot like the vowel in “put” (/put/), so it too must be an /u/. The vowel in “free” sounds like the vowel in “me” (/mi/), so clearly, that's an /i/ vowel. But what do you do with the vowel in “trust”, which sounds like both the “uh” in “cut” (/ʌ/) and the final “uh” in “sofa” (/ə/)?

The very first step is to stop trying to hear a difference between /ə/ and /ʌ/. Acoustically, for speakers of General American English, there's little to no difference between the two, and trying to listen to one will only bring you pain.

In fact, /ə/ is a vowel unlike any other in the English vowel inventory. It's not described (and differentiated from /ʌ/) phonetically, based on its sound or production, but instead, /ə/ is a phonological beast, arising from the sound structure of the word, the type of speech, and the speaker's desire to minimize time spent on unimportant sounds.

### Vocalic Identity Crises

To examine this idea, let's do a little experiment: Say the word "photograph" as slowly and carefully as you possibly can, paying attention to that middle vowel (before the "graph").

Some of you likely still pronounced the middle vowel as an "uh" (/ə/, giving you /'fotəgɹæf/ or /'foʊrəgɹæf/), even when speaking very slowly and carefully. However, I bet there is a large number of you who drew out that middle vowel and said "foe-toe-graph" (/'foʊtoʊgɹæf/) even though in actual speech, you'd be very unlikely to say it that way. Either way, you likely didn't feel very confident about what that middle vowel was and how it was pronounced. The vowel in question here is a Schwa (/ə/ 'foʊrəgɹæf/).

Now a similar experiment: Say the word "fluctuate" as slowly and carefully as you possibly can, paying attention to that first vowel (before the "tuate").

Here, if you're a native English speaker, it's unlikely that you said anything other than "fluck-chu-ate" (/ˈflʌktʃueɪt/), the first vowel matching that in "duck". There's no "other" pronunciation that comes to mind, and where you might have paused for a second with "photograph" to ponder that middle vowel, you likely had no such concern here. The first "uh" vowel in "fluctuate" is a great example of wedge (/ʌ/).<sup>1</sup>

So, somehow, the identity of that first vowel in "fluctuate" is beyond question, but the "proper" vowel in the middle of "photograph" is more open to interpretation, even though in connected speech they may sound the same. This ambiguity, one vowel which seems to be able to have two different identities, is why we need schwa.

### Vowel Reduction 101

The difference between /ə/ and /ʌ/, at a fundamental level, is that /ə/ is a reduced vowel, whereas /ʌ/ is a full vowel. Vowel reduction is a phenomenon that happens around the world, according to different rules for each language, but the basic idea is that we simply don't need to fully articulate which aren't stressed in the word, so we do something there which requires less effort. Put differently, If we have a choice between fully articulating an unimportant vowel and just producing something which requires relatively little articulatory targeting but gets the job done, we're going to take the easy way, and that easy way is /ə/.

We don't particularly care what each /ə/ sounds like, and as such, we just make something vaguely in the center of the mouth, sometimes a bit higher<sup>2</sup>, sometimes a bit lower. A schwa is a vowel that we produce just to have produced a vowel, the vowel we produce so we can move on to a part of the word which is more important to establishing and communicating the identity of the word. We make a /ə/ because we've got better things to do than pronounce the middle vowel in "photograph".

Compare this to /ʌ/. In words like “cut”, “nun”, “functional” or “sputter”, the “uh” vowels are full vowels, living in stressed syllables, and their identity is integral to the word itself. Fast speech, slow speech, really slow speech, that vowel is still just an “uh”. In General American English, there is simply no way to say the word “cut” without an /ʌ/ (still having it recognizable to listeners as “cut”).

The /ʌ/ is absolutely essential to the word’s identity, whereas /ə/ is the surface result of a phonological phenomenon which reduces some vowels in unstressed syllables. That, right there, is the fundamental difference between these two sounds. It’s not the sound, but the origin of the sound.

### **Differentiating /ə/ vs. /ʌ/ in transcription**

We’ve already established that these two sounds both sound alike. But chances are, if you’ve googled your way to this post, you’re doing an IPA transcription of a word, you’ve heard a vowel that sounds like “uh”, and you’re trying to figure out if it’s a schwa or a wedge. Here’s how:

First, you have to find the stress in the word. The stressed syllable in a word is the syllable which is most emphasized and least reduced. Think of the sentence “the musician wants to record a record”. In the act of recording (re-CORD), the second syllable is stressed, whereas in “REcord” (the physical item), the first syllable is stressed. Here, the primary difference is stress, and the vowels in the unstressed syllable of each are reduced.

Every word has at least one primary stress (which we mark in the IPA using /’/), and finding it is relatively easy once you get the hang of it. We know that every word has a stressed syllable, so for a monosyllabic word (a word with only one syllable), we know that the only syllable has to be stressed. For multisyllabic words, you have more options. One easy way to find the stress of a multisyllabic (containing more than one syllable) word is to try every possible stress pattern. Let’s take the word “mahogany” (/məhəgəni/). First, put the stress on the first syllable, really emphasizing it, “MAhogany”. Then try the second, “maHOGany”, then “mahogAny”, then finally “mahogaNY”. Only stressing the second syllable (/mə’həgəni/) sounds acceptable, everything else sounds strange or somehow “wrong”, so we know that the primary stress is on the second syllable.

Once you’ve figured out where the stress is, figuring out whether the vowel is /ə/ or /ʌ/ is easy.

In English, vowel reduction only occurs in unstressed syllables. So, if your “uh” sound is occurring in a stressed syllable, it can’t be a reduced vowel, so it’s /ʌ/. If your “uh” sound is in an unstressed syllable, it’s likely a result of vowel reduction, so it’s a /ə/.

### **Q. 2 How can you make multilingualism effective for classroom communication?**

As a writer, it is important not only to think about what you say, but how you say it. To communicate effectively, it is not enough to have well organized ideas expressed in complete and coherent sentences and paragraphs. One must also think about the style, tone and clarity of his/her writing, and adapt these elements to the reading audience. Again, analyzing one's audience and purpose is the key to writing effectiveness. In order to choose the most effective language, the writer must consider the objective of the document, the context in which it is being written, and who will be reading it.

## Characteristics of Effective Language

There are six main characteristics of effective language. Effective language is: (1) concrete and specific, not vague and abstract; (2) concise, not verbose; (3) familiar, not obscure; (4) precise and clear, not inaccurate or ambiguous; (5) constructive, not destructive; and (6) appropriately formal.

### Concrete and Specific Language

Concrete language includes descriptions which create tangible images with details the reader can visualize. Abstract language is vague and obscure, and does not bring to mind specific visual images. Consider the two sets of statements below. The statement at the top is abstract, but the statements become increasingly concrete and specific toward the bottom.

He is a bad roommate

He is lazy and discourteous

He is untidy and unclean

He doesn't clean up his own messes

He leaves his dirty dishes on the kitchen counter

Your relationship with John is unacceptable

You do not get along well with John

You and John have a lot of arguments

You and John insult each other too much

You and John call each other derogatory names

Notice how much more effective the statements become as the language becomes more specific and concrete. The statements at the top, which are more abstract, can be interpreted in many possible ways, and leave many questions unanswered. The statements at the bottom, which are more concrete, are less open to multiple interpretations.

### Concise Language

A hallmark of effective writers is the ability to express the desired message in as few words as possible. Good writers, in other words, use language which is straightforward and to-the-point. Consider the following examples.

(1) It is widely discussed by employees that many of them will be forced to change jobs and take on new responsibilities when the merger takes place between the two companies.

(2) Before making a decision about whether the person on trial is guilty or innocent in this case, the members of the jury should be sure to carefully think about, ponder and reflect on all of the important and relevant testimony in the case.

Notice how long-winded these sentences are, and how easily they could be shortened and simplified. An important part of revising and editing involves re-phrasing sentences to eliminate excessive wordiness. One way to reduce wordiness is to eliminate redundant words or phrases. Consider example one above. The phrases "to

change jobs" and "take on new responsibilities" are redundant, and could be combined into one short phrase to be expressed more concisely.

Consider example two above. The phrase "...should be sure to carefully think about, ponder and reflect on..." contains three ways of saying the same thing. This sentence could be improved by using only one of the key phrases: "...to reflect on..."

A second way to reduce wordiness is to eliminate "filler" words which serve no purpose in the sentence. Consider example one above. Replace the phrase "...when the merger takes place between the two companies" with "...when the two companies merge." Consider example two above. Notice the excessive wordiness in the following phrase: "Before making a decision about whether the person on trial is guilty or innocent in this case ..." This sentence could simply read: "Before determining the defendant's guilt or innocence..."

### **Familiar Language**

Familiar language is that which the readers easily recognize and understand because they use it on a regular basis. One of the most important functions of language is to build "homophily" or a sense of commonality with one's readers. Language which is foreign and unfamiliar to the reader tends to emphasize the differences between writer and reader, and makes the message difficult to understand. By using language that is familiar to the reader, the message is likely to have more impact.

Consider the following examples.

An assignment given to a class of business students by their philosophy professor: "The presently assigned paper necessitates an eloquently articulated analysis of the Existentialist perspective as it pertains to contemporary living. You should adumbrate the points which represent the sine qua non of your analysis."

A letter sent to high school students warning them of the risks of an unhealthy diet: "Individuals who maintain a diet of high fat content are exposed to an increased risk of developing atherosclerosis, which is a buildup of fat deposits on the inner walls of the arteries. This condition can reduce or cut off the flow of blood in the arteries serving the major organs of the body. This can lead to poor health."

In both examples above, the language that is used is unfamiliar to the readers. As a result, the message loses its impact.

### **Precise and Clear Language**

The use of appropriate language is a tricky matter because the meaning of words is relative and situational. In other words, words can be interpreted in different ways by different people in different situations. For this reason, it is important to choose language which is as precise and clear as possible. The more precise and clear one's use of language becomes, the fewer the number of possible interpretations for a message. Consider the following words. What numerical value would you assign to each of them? If something is "probable what percentage of the time does it occur? P>

- |             |           |
|-------------|-----------|
| (1)         | probable  |
| (2)         | doubtful  |
| (3)         | certainly |
| (4)         | unlikely  |
| (5) perhaps |           |

Would other people assign the same value to these words as you did? In actuality, the range of values varies greatly because these terms are relative: they can mean different things to different people in different situations. How could one be more precise in his/her use of these terms?

Consider the examples below. Notice that these terms can vary widely in the meaning to different people. The best way to use such relative terms, then, is to compare them to something concrete and "known" to the reader. For example: "Is that Acura an expensive car?" is best answered with a comparison: "Compared to that Honda, the Acura is expensive. Compared to that Lexus, it is inexpensive."

expensive

hot

intelligent

good

spicy

Consider the following examples. Note the potential confusion or ambiguity in these phrases.

- (1) Why the student body should continue in this state of apathy is not really understandable.
- (2) Our student body is dull and slack-minded.
- (3) The practice and theory of politics are studied in the classroom but political habits on campus do not seem to benefit from such labor.
- (4) He's an interesting individual.
- (5) It is difficult to estimate the number of people affected by AIDS.

Each of the following are actual headlines printed in newspapers. Notice their double meaning.

- (1) Include your children when Baking Cookies
- (2) Safety Experts Say School Buss Passengers should be Belted
- (3) Bank Drive-in Window Blocked by Board
- (4) Killer Sentenced to Die for Second Time in Ten Years
- (5) Eye Drops Off Shelf

In short, it is wise to think carefully about your choice of words and their potential interpretations. To communicate effectively, precise and clear language is essential.

## Constructive Language

Constructive language phrases a potentially negative message in a positive way, whereas destructive language directs blame and criticism toward the reader, creating defensiveness. Readers are likely to become defensive when the writer's language expresses any or all of the following:

- Superiority over the reader
- Indifference or apathy about an issue of importance to the reader
- Negative evaluation or judgment of the reader (as opposed to neutral descriptions or observations)
- Command or control over the reader
- Skepticism or doubt about the reader's credibility or the legitimacy of their claims

Consider the following examples.

(1) Boss to employee: "Your job performance recently has been unacceptable and there are no excuses for it. You have claimed that you are having some serious personal problems, but even if this is true, you cannot allow it to affect the quality of your work. If your work doesn't improve, I'll have to replace you with someone else."

(2) Student to instructor: "You have confused me so badly with your lectures that I don't know what to do. I am considering dropping out and taking the class next quarter from Dr. Johnstone, who can explain the information much more clearly. I don't want to drop out, but I have never been so frustrated with an instructor in my whole life."

(3) Instructor to student: "I have never had a student who was so confused with this material. Perhaps you should take an easier course from an easier professor. It makes no difference to me."

### Q. 3 Discuss rewards as a tools of motivation for development writing skills.

Fostering student motivation is a difficult but necessary aspect of teaching that instructors must consider. Many may have led classes where students are engaged, motivated, and excited to learn, but have also led classes where students are distracted, disinterested, and reluctant to engage—and, probably, have led classes that are a mix. What factors influence students' motivation? How can instructors promote students' engagement and motivation to learn? While there are nuances that change from student to student, there are also models of motivation that serve as tools for thinking through and enhancing motivation in our classrooms. This guide will look at three frameworks: the expectancy-value-cost model of motivation, the ARCS model of instructional design, and self-determination theory. These three models highlight some of the major factors that influence student motivation, often drawing from and demonstrating overlap among their frameworks. The aim of this guide is to explore some of the literature on motivation and offer practical solutions for understanding and enhancing student motivation.

The purpose of the original expectancy-value model was to predict students' achievement behaviors within an educational context. The model has since been refined to include cost as one of the three major factors that

influence student motivation. Below is a description of the three factors, according to the model, that influence motivation.

- **Expectancy** refers to a student’s expectation that they can actually succeed in the assigned task. It energizes students because they feel empowered to meet the learning objectives of the course.
- **Value** involves a student’s ability to perceive the importance of engaging in a particular task. This gives meaning to the assignment or activity because students are clear on why the task or behavior is valuable.
- **Cost** points to the barriers that impede a student’s ability to be successful on an assignment, activity and/or the course at large. Therefore, students might have success expectancies and perceive high task value, however, they might also be aware of obstacles to their engagement or a potential negative affect resulting in performance of the task, which could decrease their motivation.
- It’s important to note that expectancy, value and cost are not shaped only when a student enters your classroom. These have been shaped over time by both individual and contextual factors. Each of your students comes in with an initial response, however there are strategies for encouraging student success, clarifying subject meaning and finding ways to mitigate costs that will increase your students’ motivation. Everyone may not end up at the same level of motivation, but if you can increase each student’s motivation, it will help the overall atmosphere and productivity of the course that you are teaching.

Expectancy source	Definition
<b>Perceptions of ability/skill</b>	When students perceive they have a high level of ability and/or skill at an activity, they are more likely to experience high expectancy (Bandura, 1997; Wigfield & Eccles, 2002).
<b>Effort attributions</b>	When students believe that their effort will lead to learning, they are more likely to experience high expectancy (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 1999; Weiner, 1972).
<b>Success experiences</b>	When students are successful at an activity, or watch others have success, they are more likely to experience high expectancy (Bandura, 1997; Eccles et al., 1983).
<b>Support and scaffolding</b>	When students are appropriately supported in completing an activity (e.g., through encouragement and having the resources necessary to complete the task), they are more likely to experience high expectancy (Bandura, 1997).
<b>Clear expectations</b>	When students know what is expected of them on an activity, and have



	clearly defined goals, they are more likely to experience high expectancy (Pajares, 1996).
<b>Appropriate challenge</b>	When the difficulty of the task or activity matches students' skill levels, they are more likely to experience high expectancy (Eccles et al., 1983).
<b>Feedback</b>	When students receive feedback that effort matters and skills are amenable to change and are task focused (rather than ability focused), they are more likely to experience high expectancy (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 1999).
<b>Growth experiences</b>	When students engage in learning activities that challenge them to grow and learn, and experience growth in their skills and performance improvements, they are more likely to experience both high expectancy and value (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 1999; Hong et al., 1999).
<b>Perceptions of others' expectations</b>	Parents' and teachers' expectancies and attitudes shape children's/students' expectancies; for instance, if teachers have high expectations for their students, these students in turn develop high expectancies (Bandura, 1997; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 1999; Eccles et al., 1983).
<b>Perceived task difficulty</b>	When students perceive a subject or task as being not difficult, they develop higher estimates of their own abilities for the subject or task (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996; Wigfield & Eccles, 2002).
<b>Stability attributions</b>	When students attribute success to a stable factor (ability), then they will have higher expectations for future success; if they attribute it to an unstable factor (good luck), they will be uncertain about future success (Weiner, 2010).

#### **Q. 4 What are the main audio aids while teaching thinking skills in English?**

Audio aids function as learning facilitators and teaching machines, and motivate the learner and arrest his/her attention during the instructional process. It is sometimes time-consuming and/or exhausting to make second/foreign language materials (either newly constructed or adapted) suitable and acceptable to the learner because he/she may feel uninterested in and even disappointed with them as he/she finds them unfamiliar, difficult, problematic, mechanical, unattractive and so forth. Besides, the teaching methods and techniques the teacher employs may not be in consonance with the learner's needs, interests, level and aptitude. Hence, as opposed to the traditional approach to L2 teaching including the chalk and talk method, the communicative language teaching approach encourages the teacher to act as a facilitator by helping the learner become an

interested, active and efficient participant in the whole learning process (Richards and Rodgers 2002). To carry out his/her job successfully and ensure the learner's maximal benefit, the teacher has to use his/her teaching methods, techniques as well as materials in a manner that is consistent with the learner's needs and interest. And the appropriate use of audio aids can be substantially helpful in this respect (Kamal and Aftab 1993) since such learning aids and teaching machines stimulate, motivate and arrest the learner's attention during the instructional process.

Audio-aids can be defined as models and devices that can be heard and give an image of something, somebody and some situations. They include recorded materials, radios, cassette players, cassettes and the like which are relatively cheap and available and which the language teacher with a little training can use in the L2 class so as to make the teaching methods, techniques and materials considerably effective and interesting, and to help the learner have maximum benefit (Akanbi 1988). Unlike most other types of aids and means used in the language class, on the one hand, this type of aid enables the teacher to modify the teaching method and technique, and change the classroom situation quickly and immediately as necessary; and on the other, it attracts the learner's attention, stirs his/her imagination, reduces his/her exhaustion, motivates him/her to be engaged in the learning process, and thus helps him/her to acquire expected proficiency in the language skills especially listening and speaking.

Different teaching aids devised and recommended by language experts are intended to make the learner interested and motivated. The native speaker's voice and accent through the audio tape make the learner enthusiastic and excited. This greatly facilitates the learner's understanding of the linguistic as well as the communicative aspects. Audio aids add a life-like effect to the text book and other printed materials used to teach the target language. For example, as soon as a cassette player is played and the material is presented, the learner is immediately drawn to it. He/she feels the presence of another teacher in the classroom. With the help of audio aids, the teacher can, moreover, successfully deal with the weak and indifferent learner. These aids are seen to reduce the teacher talk and the chalk method, and reversely increase the learner's interaction and active participation. The teacher can also provide as much practice as is necessary by using audio tapes; but it is to be remembered that audio aids should be purpose oriented as well. **Pike (1997)** identifies some significant reasons for carefully designing and using audio aids: motivating the learner, attracting and maintaining the learner's attention, reinforcing the main ideas of the lesson, illustrating and supporting the spoken literature, minimizing misunderstanding of the learner, increasing retention, adding a touch of realism, saving both class time and expenses, helping the teacher to communicate more dearly and quickly so that the learner can understand the content clearly and easily, and helping the teacher clarify the thinking and provide a logical path for communication.

#### **Q. 5 How do you use software for English lexicography?**

Lexicography is the practice of creating dictionaries and other types of reference texts. Learn the history behind this practice, and important figures involved in compiling the collections we have today.

## Introducing Lexicography

Have you ever wondered whose job it is to sit down and create the dictionary? Every word you can think of has to appear in the dictionary. Think of how many words there are in the English language alone - one million at the very least. The person responsible for recording all of these words is called a lexicographer, and a lexicographers' job is very important.

## Defining Lexicography

**Lexicography** is the practice of making and editing dictionaries and other reference texts. The **lexicographer** is the one who must research, organize, define, and compile the words in a dictionary. This takes a lot of time and a lot of detail. For each dictionary entry, there is a definition, a pronunciation, a list of synonyms, an example of the word being used, and even sometimes its **etymology** (or history of the word's origin). For instance, the word 'lexicography' was created in the late 17th century, from the Greek *lexikos* meaning 'of words' and *grapho* meaning 'to inscribe, to write'. The **dictionary** is extremely vital to the literacy of speakers of a specific language. It is used to look up definitions, spelling, and pronunciation. The dictionary is considered the most accurate and ample resource for information about words.

## History of Lexicography

The practice of lexicography is as old as, if not older than, many religions. The first model of a dictionary dates back to the BCE in West Asia. In its early stages, these lexicographic works were more like lists. These lists were used to cultivate bilingualism by recording the similar words of two languages, after land conquests began mixing different cultures. It took thousands of years however, for the creation of the alphabet ordering system, before the dictionary became organized in the way we know it to be today.

While many other continents were well underway with the concept of 'lists' as a language reference, it took Europe a little longer. Beginning in the 15th century, the first popular dictionaries were lists of Latin words with English entries. These were written to encourage the study of Latin, especially for those who could not read it. These English-Latin dictionaries are the first example of lexicography in the English language. Within a century of their publications, lexicography became a very popular tool for learning new languages, like French.

There is a vast amount of different dictionaries available for users of the English language. All these dictionaries share the aspect that they provide information about English words and items, but they are also very different and need to be distinguished from each other. One may need a dictionary in one case and the same dictionary may be absolutely useless when one tries to solve another problem.

“Monolingual learners’, general monolingual, and bilingual dictionaries present a problem: in spite of what may be advertised on the outside cover of these texts, no single dictionary can adequately serve all users. A variety of dictionaries is required to suit the backgrounds, needs, and expectations of individual language learners”.

So different users and different questions require different dictionaries. One needs to know where to find the information asked for in a particular case, and one certainly needs more than one dictionary for different aspects

of the English language. To avoid getting lost here, it is necessary to distinguish between the different types of dictionaries that exist.

This report provides some suggestions for distinction, amongst other things established through empiric research.

First, an outline of the different types of dictionaries is given, including general dictionaries (monolingual, bilingual), learner's dictionaries, historical dictionaries and encyclopedias.

Moreover, the typical structure of an entry in a dictionary is explained, because the dictionary entries examined later are mainly checked according to these parts of an entry; it is looked what parts they in- or exclude and how the parts are realized.

After the theoretical part, the empiric research is documented. Five dictionaries (monolingual American and British, bilingual English-German, learner's dictionary, historical dictionary) and one encyclopedia are compared in the way that three different items (general, encyclopedic, and regional) are looked up and the entries are compared in order to find differences and in this way get a guideline how and when to consult what dictionary.

The use of a dictionary has different aspects: information, operations, users and purposes. The information can be the meaning of a word, its synonyms, pronunciation, or spelling, the etymology, or it can mean information about certain facts or names etc. Under operations, actions like finding meanings, finding words, translating something from one language into another language etc. are summarized. Users can be children, pupils, trainees, teachers, critics, scientists, secretaries, and so on. Their purposes can vary extremely and range from learning more about one's mothertongue to learning a foreign language, from solving crossword puzzles to decoding texts in a foreign language and of course cover writing reports as well.

As there are various kinds of dictionaries which list all sorts of things in sometimes varying ways, the information given can be extremely different in one dictionary compared to another.

First of all, this depends on the size of the dictionary. "To what extend the dictionary can answer the questions of the user about any word of the language depends upon the number of words to be covered in the dictionary", and of course on the space that each item is granted.