



AFRILEX 2010

**15th Annual International Conference of the African
Association for Lexicography**

**University of Botswana
Gaborone, Botswana, 19-21 July 2010**

AFRILEX 2010 – A Few Words from the President

On behalf of the Afrilex Board, I would like to welcome you to the *15th Annual International Conference of the African Association for Lexicography*, also known as 'AFRILEX 2010'. Over the past few weeks, Africa proved to the world that it can successfully organize a major international event, in casu the *19th FIFA World Cup*. This week, the flame is carried over from South Africa to Botswana, with soccer morphing into lexicography. Like soccer, lexicography is a team game, which is getting better all the time.

AFRILEX 2010 has been meticulously prepared by a local organizing team headed by Dr J.M. Lubinda, from the University of Botswana in Gaborone, to whom our heartfelt thanks are due. Dr T.J. Otlogetswe, also from the University of Botswana, was responsible for editing the abstracts in this booklet. Thanks, too, to Prof E. Taljard for organizing the adjudication process, and to the members of her adjudication panel and programme committee: Prof R.H. Gouws, Prof D.J. Prinsloo, and Dr M.V. Mojela. We also want to extend our thanks to Pharos (NB Publishers) for their continued support in sponsoring our association.

AFRILEX 2010 starts with a pre-conference workshop on 'Traditions, trends and changes in lexicography', presented by Prof D.J. Prinsloo and Mr M.S. Mogano, a workshop we all look forward to. Our international keynote speaker will be Prof Robert Lew, from the School of English at Adam Mickiewicz University, in Poznań, Poland. Over the past few years Poznań has become the world's centre of innovative lexicographic activity, and Robert is one of Poznań's most active members. This year's keynote speaker from Africa will be Dr Anderson Chebanne, from the University of Botswana, an outstanding researcher, linguist and lexicographer with an impressive track record of linguistic work and publications on African languages as well as on French.

Finally, thanks are also due to all who submitted conference papers, as well as to all participants. To all of you, welcome to Gaborone, Botswana. May Afrilex 2010 be as successful as all previous editions of our annual international conference.

Gilles-Maurice de Schryver

President: AFRILEX.

PRE-CONFERENCE WORKSHOP
Monday 19 July 2010
Theme: Traditions, trends and changes in lexicography

Information on venues were not yet available at the time of publication.

Presenters: Prof Danie J Prinsloo, Mr Makgalemele S Mogano (Department of African Languages, University of Pretoria), Prof Rufus H Gouws (University of Stellenbosch)

PROGRAMME

08:30 – 09:00: Registration:
 09:00 – 10:30: **Session 1**
 10:30 – 11:00: Tea
 11:00 – 12:30: **Session 2**
 12:30 – 13:30 Lunch
 13:30 – 15:00 **Session 3**
 15:00 – 15:30 Tea

PRE-CONFERENCE PUBLISHERS' SESSION
Monday 19 July 2010

Time: 15:30 – 16:30

COCKTAIL PARTY
Monday 19 July 2010

Time: 19:00

CONFERENCE DAY 1
Tuesday 20 July 2010

08:30 – 09:15	Registration	
09:15 – 09:30	Official Opening	
	Word from the President of Afrilex G.-M. de Schryver	
	A word of welcome to the University of Botswana	
	Keynote Address 1	
09:30 – 10:25	Robert Lew (Poland) Multimodal lexicography: advances in communicating meaning in electronic dictionaries	
10:30 – 11:00	Tea	
	Parallel Sessions	
	Venue A:	Venue B:
11:00 – 11:25	Will the Real Deaf Community Please Stand Up? Identifying and understanding the target audience for a dictionary of South African Sign Language H. Fourie	Tonal indication in African languages dictionaries - a case study of Siswati M. T. Thumbathi and B. Twala

11:30 – 11:55	The need to include Setswana idiomatic expressions originating from the Bible in the Setswana dictionary P. Rakgokong	Lexicographic text boxes with special reference to Afrikaans and African Language dictionaries R.H. Gouws and D.J. Prinsloo
12:00 – 12:25	Reduplication in Shona and the place of reduplicates in Shona lexicography: A lexical Phonology Analysis. E. Mangoya	Pedagogical lexicography: Towards a new and strict typology corresponding to the present state-of-the-art S. Tarp
12:30 – 12:55	For the People, By the People: Picture Dictionaries in the Democratic Republic of Congo A.M. Williams	The effects of Shona language change on monolingual lexicography: the need for a revised alphabet W. Zivenge, G. Mheta and M. Kadenge
13:00 – 14:00 Lunch		
Parallel Sessions		
	Venue A:	Venue B:
14:00 – 14:25	How dictionaries can get the most out of examples L. Hiles	Compiling a database of African language dictionaries with t!Database J. Klein
14:30 – 14:55	Online Bemba Dictionary Project: a general overview A. Kasonde	A comparative critical analysis of the contents of front and back matter texts in nine selected dictionaries of four Sotho-Tswana languages J.M. Lubinda
15:00 – 15:30 Tea		
Parallel Sessions		
	Venue A:	Venue B:
15:30 – 15:55	The use of social meaning in a specialized Tshivenda dictionary: a case of traditional and cultural perspectives T.Z. Ramaliba	A comparison of dictionary definitions and legal definitions T.J. Otlogetswe
16:00 – 16:25	Trends in Gabonese Modern Lexicography H.S. Ndinga-Koumba-Binza	Hyphenation in compound nouns in isiNdebele - some lexicographic challenges K.S. Mahlangu
16:30 – 16:55	Making dictionaries with little financial resources. Panel discussion T.J. Otlogetswe	Planning and performing terminology projects in the SADC region. M. Alberts
17:00 – 18:00	Annual General Meeting	
19:00 Conference Dinner		

CONFERENCE DAY 2
Wednesday 21 July 2010

Keynote Address 2		
09:00 – 09:55	Anderson Chebanne (Botswana) The role of dictionaries in the documentation and codification of African languages: The case of Khoisan	
10:00 – 10:30	Tea	
Parallel Sessions		
	Venue A:	Venue B:
10:30 – 10:55	Enriching entries in dictionaries R. H. Gouws	The treatment of polysemy and homonymy in monolingual general-purpose dictionaries: The case of Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele (ISN) 2001 E. Ndlovu and S. Sanelisiwe
11:00 – 11:25	The Importance of Lexicography for students who want to study at University L.A. Gonzalez	Northern Sotho chemistry terminology: users' preferences as standardization mechanism E. Taljard and M.J. Nchabeleng
11:30 – 11:55	Disambiguating the meaning of the term 'bantu' with reference to the South African lexicology M.V. Mojela	Foundation Phase Dictionaries Panel Discussion R.H. Gouws, M. Stark and D.J. Prinsloo
12:00 – 12:25	Learning about dictionary use in Primary school M. van der Merwe	The treatment of sense relations in the ISN: a comparison of the semasiological and onomasiological perspectives M. Maphosa
12:30 – 12:55	Seeing the Trees and Forest: Using concordances to develop definitions in the Multilingual Statistics glossary at the University of Cape Town M. Madiba	A decade of Lexicographic Rulers — reviewing the Ruler for Afrikaans D.J. Prinsloo
13:00 – 13:15	CLOSURE	
13:15	Lunch	

PLANNING AND PERFORMING TERMINOLOGY PROJECTS IN SADC COUNTRIES

Dr Mariëtta Alberts

University of the Free State

Language can be a key to meaningful communication among persons or groups, or it can be a barrier to communication. Terminology is a tool for communication between subject specialists and between subject specialists and laypeople. Terminology is a strategic resource and has an important role to play in a country – especially a multilingual society such as South Africa.

Although terminological endeavours are not always cost-effective, they are of invaluable cultural, social, historical, functional, academic and scientific importance. Modern terminology planning furthermore has to be seen in the much wider perspective of innovation, information and knowledge sharing, as well as e-content strategies.

The language policy of a country determines terminology development, i.e. Eastern Africa: Kiswahili, Namibia: One official language (English) with several national languages, and South Africa – eleven official languages with special care to South African Sign Language (SASL), the Khoe, San and Heritage languages. Language policy also determines the drive to harmonise the terminology of related languages. Individual language communities will determine the acceptance of foreign neologisms, transliterations and borrowings.

Terminology work is not done in isolation and cooperation is needed between subject specialists, language practitioners (terminologists, lexicographers, translators, editors, interpreters, journalists, academics), etc. The Terminology Coordination Section (TCS), National Language Service (NLS), Department of Arts and Culture (DAC) is the terminology coordinating body in South Africa. TCS manages terminology development in South Africa by i.a. a terminology register to register all new, ongoing and completed projects. The office also manages a term bank and multilingual polythematic terminology is available on the DAC website. The National Language Bodies (NLBs) of the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) verify and authenticate terminology and assist with the standardisation process. South Africa liaises with various terminology related national and international organisations, e.g. Infoterm, TermNet, Unesco, European Union, DanTerm, DTT, DIT, etc. There is strong association with standardising bodies such as ISO TC/37 and SABS TC 37.

In April 2005 a very successful Southern Africa Terminologists' Workshop was held in Pretoria. The workshop was organised by PRAESA, IKR, ACALAN, PanSALB and NLS. Various delegates from the SADC region attended the workshop and it transpired that the terminologists shared the same problems. The idea with the workshop was to begin a process of coordinating terminology development in the SADC region. The aims were to determine latest developments in the fields of terminology and translation in the region, to determine whether a common terminological database could be established and to explore language development activities in the region and to seek cooperation with other countries in Africa.

The workshop was a success and terminologists could share experiences. In 2009 an ACALAN conference was held in Johannesburg to discuss various language related issues, i.e. that Tswana should be developed as one of the regional languages. There were unfortunately no substantial follow-up actions on any of these initiatives.

The SADC region could cooperate regarding aspects such as the registering of terminology projects, liaison when planning and conducting similar projects, terminology training (tertiary as well as in-house), terminology management, language development, standardisation, harmonisation, etc.

The compilation of a terminology dictionary is a time-consuming and costly process. Proper planning is of the utmost importance and should be conducted with the aid of a detailed business plan outlining every conceivable aspect of the project to indicate scope, time-frames and financial implications. Copyright issues should also be taken care of.

There is an urgent need for terminology training (tertiary and in-house) and training modules should include the basic principles and practice underpinning the terminology practice. New terminology applications should be included in courses. The SADC region could share training initiatives.

Terminology management with a terminology management system should be addressed. There should be a terminology management workflow accommodating the usage of language(s) – i.e. source language and target language(s) in the working procedures. Aspects such as standardisation, harmonisation and modernisation should receive special attention. Standardisation is a process and terminology can only be standardised by frequent usage. Harmonisation entails aspects such as concept harmonisation, equivalent harmonisation and language harmonisation. In terminology work it is of importance to adhere to at least concept and equivalent harmonisation principles. Language harmonisation is a very sensitive issue.

Language changes and needs to be modernised. One should, however, not ignore the language heritage of the older members of a language community. A language community whose language has not developed scientific and technical terminologies is inevitably forced to use a more developed foreign language for specialised and professional communication. Effective scientific and technical communication skills of the citizens of a country are developed through the use of correct (standardised) terminology.

A national terminology office serves the whole community – language and subject field. The terminology management of such office should adhere to sound terminological and terminographical principles and procedures. The terminology practice of any country will enhance communication in various subject fields and will develop official, national and regional languages into functional languages. National, regional and international liaison and cooperation will benefit the terminology practice.

**WILL THE REAL DEAF COMMUNITY PLEASE STAND UP? IDENTIFYING AND
UNDERSTANDING THE TARGET AUDIENCE FOR A DICTIONARY OF SOUTH AFRICAN
SIGN LANGUAGE**

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Lexicographers know how important it is to gain a very clear understanding of the intended target audience of their dictionary project. In this particular instance, the extremely heterogeneous Deaf community of South Africa is the one which needs to be scrutinised – the dictionaries and word lists which have been compiled to date seem to aim exclusively at hearing individuals and their interaction with Deaf people, and are not used by the Deaf themselves and therefore serve no purpose to them. It is high time that South African Sign Language becomes the subject of a theoretically sound lexicographic study, an endeavour which could go a long way to help the language gain the status it deserves, particularly because the current lack of a standardised form remains such a burning issue. It's important, then, to get it right from the start – and the lexicographer has to start at the target audience.

When one starts to look for background information to develop an understanding of the circumstances, education, skills, sociolinguistic profile, etc. of the 'typical' or 'average' Deaf

person, certain ‘universal’ tendencies or similarities seem to emerge. So we find, for example, the following quotation from an American website:

“The average deaf person reads at or below the fifth-grade level. Many deaf people have a linguistic handicap when it comes to the English language”.
(<http://www.hypnotherapyarticles.com/ArtP/articlep00019.htm>)

This point is echoed in other places, and in South Africa the situation does not appear any better, unfortunately, with information which suggests that the average Deaf school leaver has the reading skills of an eight-year old. The Deaf Federation of South Africa, DEAFSA, sketches a fairly grim picture of the situation of the local Deaf population regarding their education and language skills, and suggest a variety of measures to remedy the situation. These will be discussed in further detail.

But one cannot view the Deaf community from a ‘deficit’ point of view alone. An important distinction is made between people who are audiologically deaf and culturally Deaf. A relatively small portion of the South African population has a degree of hearing loss, but not everybody who is deaf is also Deaf, and even vice versa – there is a small number of hearing people who feel at home in the Deaf community to such an extent that they see themselves as culturally Deaf, a phenomenon which is known as attitudinal deafness (Baker & Padden 1978: 4, Baker & Cokely 1980, Markowicz & Woodward 1978) and which is an important deciding characteristic of members of the Deaf community, along with the use of a sign language.

People with early-onset deafness usually see themselves not as people with a ‘disability’ or ‘lack’, but simply as people with a different – and positive – type of identity and culture. Typically, they are also the ones who form the core of the signing deaf community, a tightly-knit group of which the members spend a large portion of their leisure time and social life in the Deaf community, but who work in the hearing community. This is a situation very similar to that of various ethnic communities in other parts of the country or world.

So, what are the factors which effect sociolinguistic variation in the Deaf community? What types of variation do we find, and why, and what do we do with it? These are just some of the questions the paper hopes to explore in a little more detail.

References

- Baker, C. & Padden, C.A. 1978. ASL: A Look at its History, Structure and Community. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers, Inc.
- Baker, C. & Cokely, D. 1980. American Sign Language: a teacher’s resource text on grammar and culture. Silver Spring, MD: TJ Publishers, Inc.
- Markowicz, H. & Woodward, J.C. 1978. Language and Maintenance of Ethnic Boundaries in the Deaf Community. *Communication and Cognition* 11 (1): 29-38

THE IMPORTANCE OF LEXICOGRAPHY TO STUDENTS WHO WISH TO STUDY AT UNIVERSITY

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Quite frequently teachers are surprised that their students do not know how to read a text, or do not understand what they are reading. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to establish a relationship between the academic performance of students and lexicography. Even when some specialists on this theme establish a difference between the understanding of texts, of sentences and words, since they consider that different mechanisms work in all

of them, most of them agree that the identification and acknowledgment of the vocabulary is a fundamental component for reading comprehension.

Lexical competence is not as simple as the ability or capacity to interpret words and their application to the real world. There are however two other aspects to be taken into account: (1) the inferential aspect of the meaning and (2) the referential cognitive capacity of the human mind. Additionally, the lexical competence is related to other linguistic competences such as semantics, syntax, reference, etc.

In light of the difficulties presented by comprehensive reading at all levels of education, and the importance of the acquisition of knowledge in all the learning fields, it was considered important to work with the development of the vocabulary of primary and secondary school students. The argument is that the students' mastery of the vocabulary found in their text books will facilitate their reading comprehension as well as their writing exercises. When entering university the students have a limited vocabulary that is not sufficient for their understanding of university material. The vocabulary is the tool with specific characteristics of each discipline whose knowledge is demanded by the academic-scientific tests.

To understand as well as to produce different types of academic texts the colloquial and general vocabulary must be replaced by an *active* specialized vocabulary that facilitates understand and knowledge.

When students understand a text, they tap on meaning at different levels and their new vocabulary is incorporated in the mental lexicon. This paper argues that there is a direct relation between the passive vocabulary and the access to knowledge, with consistent academic performance.

During the last years my colleague and I did a series of research studies at different public schools and at different levels (primary and secondary schools) on lexical availability. The aim was to identify the difficulties caused by the lack of vocabulary, diagnose the strengths and weaknesses caused by such deficiency and the attempt to develop and update the vocabulary and create a source of information to contribute to the improvement and performance of the students in higher education. Therefore, by using the TEVI (Test of Evaluation of Vocabulary my means of Images) we were able to reveal realities which were hitherto unknown and have suggested new solutions to the identified problems.

In 2005 we began to poll students who were beginning careers in Spanish and English with the objective of presenting the studies and analysing them in depth. In many instances the polled students showed a lack of critical vocabulary, a reality which was unknown to their teachers. So, it was found out that learners should read widely in their early university experience.

We have considered the need to promote the creation of a powerful net of access to reading. For the integration of this important system, and as a consequence, it is hoped that university students of the different careers will start their studies with improved vocabulary.

ENRICHING ENTRIES IN DICTIONARIES

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When planning and compiling a dictionary the intended target user, the needs and the reference skills of this user as well as the typical situation of use should play a determining role in the decisions made by the lexicographer. Therefore, new ways and means to enhance

the extent and quality of information retrieval need to be investigated. This should have a definitive influence on the way in which the formulation of lexicographic theory develops. In many instances, theoretical lexicographers have restricted their theoretical contributions to a contemplative approach. This was done by merely looking at existing dictionaries and then by describing the contents, structures and functions of these dictionaries. Albeit that such an approach ensured an improvement in the quality of the lexicographic theory theoretical lexicographers gave themselves very little room for innovative ideas in the development of lexicographic theory. Practical lexicographers applying the guidelines and models formulated by theoretical lexicographers compiled dictionaries that did not really differ that much from earlier generation dictionaries. Contrary to the contemplative approach in lexicography, a transformative approach looks forward and plans and formulates in terms of the user and the emerging needs of the target users. The point of departure is not existing dictionaries but target users. A transformative approach should also contain a reflexive component that allows the lexicographer to look over his/her shoulder and take from existing dictionaries that what is good and should be re-employed. Not every new dictionary should be an attempt to re-invent the lexicographic wheel. However, the compilation of better dictionaries demands innovative theoretical approaches with practical application possibilities.

This paper focuses on one way to improve the quality of new dictionaries. The suggestions made in this paper emphasise the need to supplement the standard set of entries, both items and indicators, prevailing in the default dictionary articles of a wide-ranging spectrum of dictionary types with entries that are characterised by their enriching function, i.e. a function where an entry is included to support a given item by putting a clearer emphasis on one of the values the lexicographer wants to convey to the user. Enriching entries do not have a restriction in terms of the article slot or the data type where they are entered. In any search zone and within any given item they may occur to ensure an improved data transfer. Some enriching entries may be given as separate items, e.g. glosses or labels that mark a specific pragmatic value. Enriching entries may also be integrated into a given item, e.g. within an item giving a paraphrase of meaning an enriching entry may be inserted to achieve a specific pragmatic anchoring of the address of the paraphrase of meaning. Enriching entries can occur in any comment of a dictionary article and they may represent a data type not typically occurring in that comment. Within the comment on semantics, a morphological or pronunciation enriching item may be given and the comment on form may be supplemented by a pragmatic enriching item.

The use of enriching entries is discussed in this paper as a way to enhance the lexicographic treatment in general dictionaries. A variety of enriching procedures and a variety of types of entries that can ensure an enriched presentation will be discussed.

LEXICOGRAPHIC TEXT BOXES WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO AFRIKAANS AND AFRICAN LANGUAGE DICTIONARIES

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In the planning and compilation of dictionaries lexicographers should find ways and means to present data that can ensure an optimal retrieval of information by the users. This will lead to successful dictionary use. To achieve this, the use of a device like the text box needs to be considered and current strategies need to be reconsidered and put to use in innovative ways to focus the attention of users on data that needs special attention. The idea of using both micro- and macrostructural text boxes offers exciting possibilities. In modern-day printed dictionaries lexicographers are hesitant to label a word as being a neologism

because the track record of actual usage it needs to qualify for inclusion in a dictionary makes it hardly a neologism. However, dictionary users are often interested to know which “new” words have been included in a new revision of a dictionary. In this regard macrostructural text boxes could be used to inform users of the “flavour of the edition” words. Popular words making their lexicographic debut could be introduced in this way. Text boxes could also be used to achieve specific lexicographic functions of a given dictionary. The strong semantic focus still prevailing in many monolingual dictionaries does not allow the lexicographer to include some encyclopedic data, regarded as important to the user, within the default microstructure. Text boxes could be employed to accommodate data typically regarded as too encyclopedic in nature for a given dictionary. This approach can also be applied in bilingual dictionaries to include cultural data that might be relevant for the user of that dictionary. Where dictionaries have a text production function data could be included in a text box to emphasise the use or non-use of certain combinations and collocations as well as proscriptive guidance.

Of real importance is that lexicographers should realise that text boxes are lexicographic devices that can really enhance the data transfer in dictionaries.

Text boxes are currently presented in a diverse way. The default presentation seems to be as article-internal microstructural entries within a typical relation of lemmatic addressing. This procedure can be employed to position the text box in various article slots. However, the positioning of a text box must be done in accordance with the type of microstructure prevailing in the dictionary and with cognizance to the scope of the text box in its addressing relation to the rest of the article. Quite often text boxes are not positioned at the end of an article but at the end of a well-identifiable component of the article. As an example, where a word can be used in more than one part of speech form a text box, directed at the occurrence of the word in one specific part of speech, can immediately follow the treatment allocated to that part of speech occurrence of the word. Where procedures of lemma nesting and niching are employed to present horizontally ordered lemmata the data in the text box is part of the treatment directed at the main lemma and the nested/niched lemmata presented in a partial article stretch. The text box falls within the microstructural scope of all these articles. This leads to a text box that is positioned as an article-external micro structural item with the nested or niched lemmata as well as the preceding vertically ordered main lemma in its scope. Text boxes can also be allocated a position as immediate constituents of article stretches. Text boxes can also be employed as articles in the secondary macrostructure of a dictionary. The Reader’s Digest Dictionary (RD) displays two central columns on each page, flanked by columns in which, among other, text boxes, directed at articles in the central columns, are included.

sondoffer – sosiaal

WORDS IN ACTION
sonne-, sons-, son-
 The word *son* (sun) has three alternative forms when it appears as the first element of a compound word: either *son-*, *sons-* or *sonne-*. It is best to use *son-* wherever you can and to learn the few exceptions for which you have to use either *sonne-* or *sons-*. With *sonne-* the obligatory uses are *sonneblom* (sunflower), *sonnedag* (solar day), *sonneklar* (crystal-clear), *sonneveg* (solar plexus) and *sonnewende* (solstice). With *sons-* the obligatory uses are those listed in the main text, the most important of which are *sonsondergang* (sundown, sunset) and *sonspogang* (sunrise).

sond'offer, *sond'vloed* *vid.* *sonde* (1).
so'ne *ss* zone. *soneer'* *ge* zone. *~bou* zoning. *~inde-*ling zoning. *sone'ring* zoning. *~struktuur* zoning. *~tyd* zonal time, zone time.
so'nle sonny (*as form of address*); *vid.* *seunie*.
so'nies *se* sonic.
sonkief'ljie *ss* jonquil.
son'kwasriet Sonqua-reeds, -thatch.
son'ne; *vid.* *son*... *~(ne)baan* *vid.* *son(ne)weg*. *~besie* *vid.* *sonbesie*. *~blom* sunflower, helianthus, turnsole. *~blomolie* sunflower oil. *~dag* solar day. *~(ne)diens* sun-worship. *~(ne)dou* sundew. *~(ne)hitte* solar heat. *~(ne)jaar* solar year, tropical year. *~klaar* as clear as the day; as plain as a pikestaff, crystal-clear. *S~(ne)-koning*; *die* *~* the Sun King, le Roi Soleil. *~(ne)krag* solar energy. *~kyker* helioscope. *~(ne)sirkel* solar cycle. *~(ne)stand* sun's altitude. *~(ne)stelsel* solar system, planetary system. *~(ne)stilsland* solstice, solstium. *~(ne)tyd* sun time, solar time. *~vleg* solar or coeliac plexus. *~(ne)wa* chariot of the sun-(god). *~warmte* warmth of sun. *~(ne)weg* ecliptic, sun's (apparent) orbit. *~wende* solstice. *~(ne)wyser* sundial. *~(ne)wyserpen* gnomon.
sonnet' *ste* sonnet. *~digter* sonneteer. *sonnet'ljie* *ss* little sonnet, sonnet of sorts. *~skrywer* sonneteer. *sonnet'letranks*, *-siklus* sonnet cycle, sonnet sequence.

papnat. sop'perig *se* juicy; succulent; sloppy, wishy-washy, watery; *vid.* *sapp(er)ig*. *sop'perigheid* juiciness; wateriness, sloppiness; *vid.* *sapp(er)igheid*. *sop'pies*, *sap'pies* juice, slipslop.
sop'pe, *n.* (2). *soep* *se* soup; *hy sit (is) in die sop* he is in the cart or soup; *vid.* *soep*. *~vinhaaf* soupfin (shark).
Sophi'a, *Sophie'* Sophia.
So phokles Sophocles. *Sophokle'ties* *se* Sophoclean.
so'pie *ss* drink, tot, peg, mouthful (*of drink*), spot, dram, drop, snifter, nip. *~glas* tot measure glass. *~maat* tot measure.
soporatief' *siewe*, *n.* & *a.* soporific.
sopraan' *-ane* soprano, treble. *~party* soprano part. *~sangeres* soprano (singer). *~sleutel* treble clef. *~stem* soprano (voice), treble.
Sorb *se*, *n.* Sorb(ian), Wend. *Sor'bies* *n.* Sorb(ian) (*language*), Wendish (Wendic). *Sor'bies* *se*, *a.* Sorbian, Wendish (Wendic).
so'beboom sorb, service (tree).
so'rbet *ss* sherbet; sherbet powder. *~lekkers* Edinburgh rock or fancies.
sordi'no *ss* sordino, sordine.
so're *ge*, *vid.* *sorg* *v.*
sorg *se*, *n.* care; trouble, worry; anxiety, concern, solicitude; charge, custody; nurture; cure (*of souls*); *vid.* *sie-lie(s)org*; *~baar* (*wek*) cause anxiety, give cause for

WORDS IN ACTION
sorg, sôre
Sorg *en sôre* (to care, to mind, to provide, to manage) are free variants, but *sôre* is old-fashioned and obsolescent. We suggest that you always use *sorg*, both as a noun and as a verb. For instance: 'n *Lewe val sorge* (A life full of trouble/sorrows/anxieties); *Jan sorg vir sy weduweemoeder* (Jan looks after his widowed mother).

The secondary macrostructure, presented in the two outer columns, contains articles with lemmata from the primary macrostructure as guiding elements and the treatment focuses on a back translation of the translation equivalents presented in the articles of the primary macrostructure. In addition the secondary macrostructure contains alphabetically ordered text boxes that are immediate constituents of the relevant article stretches.

Consider also the following examples from the Macmillan English Dictionary (MED), the Oxford Northern Sotho Dictionary (ONSD) and RD.

ONSD

yowe /yôwê/ demonstrative pos. Iib cl. 1
 c yo¹ ■ that person ♦ Monna yowe ga se lephodisa. *That person is not a police officer.*

This demonstrative indicates that the speaker and the addressee are some distance apart, and that the object referred to is very close to the addressee.

MED

ago /ə'gəʊ/ adv ★★★

Ago follows a word or expression referring to a period of time. It is usually used with a past tense, not with a perfect tense

used for saying how much time has passed since something happened: *Your wife phoned a few minutes ago.* ♦ *The Vietnam War ended over 30 years ago.* ♦ *How long ago did this happen?* ♦ *I don't know where he is – he was here a minute ago.* ♦ *It was ages ago that I saw Mick.* ♦ **long ago** *Long ago in a far-off land, there was a king called Midas.*

Use **ago** to say how long before the present time something happened: *He died two years ago.*

Use **before** to say how long before a time in the past something had happened: *I remembered that I had met her ten years before.*

Use **for** to say how long something in the past continued: *Their marriage lasted for fifteen years.*

RD

WORDS IN ACTION

maanlig, maanskyn/maneskyn

Maanlig (moonlight) is the ordinary word; maanskyn (moonlight, moonshine) has acquired romantic overtones.

...

WORDS IN ACTION

mag; kan

Under the influence of English the verb mag (may; is allowed to) is wrongly used instead of kan (may; can, is able to) ...

The added value of text boxes may never be undermined by an over exposure of this device. Using both micro- and macrostructural text boxes offers exciting possibilities. Where dictionaries have a text production function data could be included in a text box to emphasise the use or non-use of certain combinations and collocations as well as proscriptive guidance. Of real importance is that lexicographers should realise that text boxes are lexicographic devices that can really enhance the data transfer in dictionaries.

Dictionaries offer a variety of data types in text boxes. The data types offered by means of text boxes in the RD, MED and ONSD were studied and the nature and number of these text boxes will be discussed in more detail in the presentation. It will be indicated that for the English sample, (the alphabetical stretch M in the Afrikaans-English side of RD) the top categories for treatment by means of text boxes are contrast related words, e.g. maag 'stomach' versus buik 'stomach, abdomen, belly' versus pens 'stomach, belly'; guidance in terms of communication and range of application, e.g. mama 'mama', mamma 'mommy, mummy', mammie 'mom', ma 'mother' and moeder 'mother'; grammar data and register including written versus spoken language. For M in the reverse side of RD, contrast related words and guidance in terms of communication and range of application, although reversed in order of frequency, still occupy the top positions followed by contrast between British

and American English and guidance on register. In ONSD guidance in the meaning and use of demonstratives in terms of special relation between speaker, hearer and object referred to, top the list followed by guidance in terms of contrast, correct versus incorrect use of words, the range of application of related words and correct pronunciation.

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(ONSD) Oxford Bilingual School Dictionary: Northern Sotho and English. (First edition.) De Schryver, G-M. (Ed.). Cape Town: OUP Southern Africa. 2007
(RD) Reader's Digest Afrikaans-Engelse Woordeboek / English-Afrikaans Dictionary. Cape Town. The Reader's Digest Association, South Africa (Pty) Ltd. 1987.

HOW DICTIONARIES CAN GET THE MOST OUT OF EXAMPLES

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It has been established that illustrative examples are a valuable part of dictionary entries – specifically in school dictionaries and learners' dictionaries (dictionaries for learners of a language). However, as with all elements of a commercial dictionary entry, the benefits of an example need to be weighed up against the space it uses. In this paper, how lexicographers can make the most of examples, in the most efficient amount of space is discussed.

As part of my thesis, I developed a *Table of Categories* for example sentences. This table was used to evaluate and compare example sentences in South African school dictionaries. In this paper the results of this study are presented and what can be done with the information taken from the *Table of Categories* is discussed.

The categories in the table are:

- whether the example is a sentence or phrase;
- whether the example is a definition, contains support for the definition, or whether it provides no context;
- what grammatical support (if any) the example provides;
- whether the headword is simple or inflected in the example;
- whether the example provides additional support not covered by the previous sections.

In a related table, the vocabulary of the examples is examined. I also discuss whether examples contain words not in the dictionary's defining vocabulary, or a defining vocabulary appropriate for a certain age group. The aim is to determine whether dictionary examples are more complex when put against definitions. Such complexity may require more effort on the part of the user to understand the examples as well as the definitions.

The results of the table are compared with existing literature to evaluate the example sentences and to determine the validity of my evaluation. The results of this study are also compared with results from a preliminary study. In that study learners were given a questionnaire that asked questions about example sentences, how they used them and what they needed in example sentences.

In this paper, I demonstrate how I evaluated the examples using the Table of Categories, and discuss how some of the criteria can be used differently for different purposes. I present the results of the South African school dictionaries that I studied: three monolingual and two bilingual dictionaries, and draw statistics from these results.

I use specific examples to show how a lexicographer can get the most value out of an example that does not take up excessive space in a dictionary.

To conclude, I discuss how these results can be used with existing and planned dictionaries. Existing dictionaries can be reviewed and compared, or improved using this table, and future dictionaries can be planned to get the best use out of example sentences, whether corpus based or made up. I will also discuss how the table can be adjusted to suit other users' needs.

ONLINE BEMBA DICTIONARY PROJECT: A GENERAL OVERVIEW

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The paper discusses results of lexical research leading to the conception and execution of Online Bemba Dictionary Project. The language Bemba belongs to Bantu Group of the Benue-Congo Branch of Niger Congo Family identified by Greenberg (1963). The language is designated M42 in the classification of Bantu languages published by Guthrie (1948). Bemba dialectology includes Biisa, Luunda and Taabwa. According to the *Ethnologue*, the Bemba language is spoken in Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania and Zambia by 3,602,000 people (Lewis 2009). Other sources mention the figure of 5,000,000 or 6,000,000 speakers of Bemba. In Zambia the language is treated as one of seven national languages (Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga, Lozi, Kaonde, Lunda, Luvale). Its coverage extends to the following administrative regions: Northern Province, Lwapula Province, Central Province, Copper Belt Province, North-Western Province and Lusaka Province. Three administrative regions tend to deny Bemba implantation. These are, Eastern Province, Southern Province, and Western Province. Scholars such as Chanda (1996) and Kashoki (1978) regard Bemba as the *de facto* official national language although both the existing Constitution and the Draft Constitution of the country Zambia state that English is the sole official language.

The project justification puts Bantu lexical research and Bemba lexical research, in particular, within the African development paradigm. The African development paradigm argues that fifty years after political independence, economic independence and prosperity continue to elude the African continent because African governance systems do not take into account indigenous African social, cultural and linguistic resources. It also argues that African languages, literature, arts and music have great potential to contribute positively to responsible social and cultural identity discourse.

Aims and objectives deal with the project goals to guide project conception, execution and evaluation. These goals include: To publish a new Bemba dictionary; To utilize online resources to disseminate lexical research findings; To test different computer lexical software programs; To compare TshwaneLex with ShoeBox and Oracle.

In the paper existing Bemba language dictionaries, lexicons and vocabularies (Hoch 1960; Kasonde 2002; Lammond 1926; Mann 1995; Parker 2010; White Fathers 1954) are critically examined. It argues that considerable progress has been registered from the first lexical publications of the Christian missionary of the colonial era to the Western-educated university researcher of postcolonial times but certain distortions still persist. For instance, the derogatory use of the colonial word "native" has disappeared but the ethnocentric rivalry still persists as a language of silence. With availability of internet and email messaging a high degree of convergence and harmonization in theoretical analysis and practical application through language associations, language committees and language groups ought to have emerged. Hence, the case for strengthening AfriLex can not be better argued.

The paper also deals with the selection of computer software for computerized lexicography. It is argued that for documentation and corpus analysis TshwaneLex Ruler and TshwaneLex Statistics features offer certain structural advantages for lexicographers that are complemented by Oracle and ShoeBox.

The current state of the Online Bemba Dictionary Project is also discussed. The project has gone through various stages of development. The first stage was the assembling of a team of researchers interested in lexicography generally and Bantu languages in particular. The second stage focused on identifying lexicography software programs. The last stage is the consolidation phase and deals with the realities of teamwork and networking and technical backup and support. Consolidation also addresses issues of publication and copyright.

We conclude by summarizing the paper and identifying certain external and internal challenges. The external challenges identified include lack of adequate research funding, viable peer review mechanisms and security of tenure. The internal challenges identified include a standard orthography, selection of lemma signs, definition of lemma elements, finding translation equivalent, conceptualizing word classes.

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ON THE LEXICAL SEMANTICS OF "SHARP"

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The English adjective *sharp* is adapted in Setswana colloquial discourse as *shapo*, *shap* or *sharpo*. The usage of the word maintains its English syntactic function as an adjective. *Sharp* is one of the most commonly used adjectives in everyday Setswana conversations. It is used to describe almost everything – from personal emotions to the weather. As a matter of fact, it is this widespread trend in usage that prompted the current study. For instance, upon being asked how they are, many a people say ‘sharp’ without even thinking about it, to later deflect you with how they really are. Despite this widespread usage, no detailed study has been carried out to investigate how this word is used, what senses it reflects in Setswana and how it came to be in such extensive usage.

This study treats the lexical item as a polyseme. Firstly, the study endeavoured to investigate the multiple senses of the adapted polyseme as read out from the corpus. It sets out to

establish how the representation of *sharp* assumes different senses, that is, sense extensions, in diverse contexts in usage in Setswana discourse. Secondly, the study sets out to investigate whether the term is used as a borrowed word or if its usage is a case of code switching – and the implications for Setswana dictionaries. Currently, despite the widespread usage of the word, Setswana dictionaries do not include this word. This thereby does not reflect the extensive usage of the term in Setswana discourse.

To classify the senses of *sharp*, a concordance search for *sharp* was run in the Setswana corpus database. This was achieved by generating concordance lines. A concordance reveals the collocates kept by a word, thereby revealing meanings and usages which are hard to call to mind. The researcher then observes the actual usage of the senses of the adjective employed in the Setswana corpus. A number of tasks were devised for the study subjects, such as the translation task, equivalence task, and sense grouping task. Each task was administered to 20 Setswana native speakers at the University of Botswana studying English. Results show an awareness by speakers of the varied meanings of the word *sharp*, as shown by usage in the Setswana corpus.

COMPILING A DATABASE OF AFRICAN LANGUAGE DICTIONARIES WITH TLDATABASE

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This presentation describes the compilation of a database of African language dictionaries. This database is not a mere booklist, it is a collection of organised information about African language dictionaries. It is structured in such a way that the information can easily be managed, accessed and updated.

The compiling of the database can roughly be divided into three main phases: 1. planning the structure of the database; 2. setting up the software and 3. entering actual data.

During the first phase, the structure of the database was designed and the software to compile this database was selected. The basic structure of this database is a tree-structure, i.e. every entry has several elements attached to the entry. Those elements are the same for every entry and can be compared with empty boxes that will be filled with information during the data-entry stage.

Every entry includes the following elements: dictionary title, publishing information (author, publisher, and year), the languages of each dictionary, dictionary range (monolingual, bilingual, multilingual), dictionary type (e.g. general or specialised etc), translation direction (mono directional, bidirectional or multidirectional), publication form (paper, electronic, online or cell phone). Other categories include the size of the dictionary and the dictionary structure, as well as the entry structure of the dictionary. The categories (entries) were chosen in order to provide detailed information about every dictionary. The database was compiled with the new tIDatabase software. “tIDatabase is a software program for creating (XML-like) structured databases in a user-friendly way“ (Joffe 2010: 1). This software was chosen because it fulfilled the requirements of the database compiler. Some of the requirements were: 1. the software had to be compatible with the resources that were available, i.e. it had to run under Windows and should not require a lot of fancy and expensive programmes in order to run. 2. It should be a robust software program, i.e. a software program that runs smoothly and does not crash. 3. The software must be customisable, i.e. the database structure must be feasible with the software. 4. It should be user-friendly, i.e. entering data should be easy and the output should be coherent.

During the second phase, the software was set-up. Setting up the database means that an empty database template was customised in order to provide the desired structure for every entry.

Using software like tDatabase instead of compiling the database in a word processor like Word or a spreadsheet application, like for example, Excel had several advantages. As you have the same categories for every entry you add, the database is inherently consistent and all entries contain the same sort of information, which makes the final database user-friendly and saves a lot of time during the compilation process. If information on one or more categories for a specific dictionary is missing, this entry can internally be labelled as 'incomplete'. The filter function then allows the compiler to select all incomplete entries, which enormously reduce the risk of having incomplete entries in the final database, as this function can be used to choose the entries that still need some work. The filter function also allows the user to select a certain group of dictionaries, for example all that are bilingual, as all categories can be searched with this function. Having such a filtering function makes it easy to select several sub-datasets from the original one, for example a selection of all monolingual dictionaries or of all Zulu dictionaries.

The third phase consists of entering the actual data and is split in two phases. In the first phase, only dictionaries of the South African official languages were entered but the long-term objective is to open the database for all African languages and make it available online. During the first phase the output of the database is available by request via e-mail.

In a later stage, this database will be available online, as such a database should be available to everyone who wants to get an overview on African language dictionaries. One of the advantages of having an online database is that new dictionaries can be added frequently, which means that the datasets (the dictionary lists) will be updated frequently. The database was set up in such a way that entering new dictionaries is very easy and can be done by everybody who has a new dictionary. In order to prevent spam entries, all entries will be checked before they are added to the output.

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A COMPARATIVE CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE CONTENTS OF FRONT AND BACK MATTER TEXTS IN NINE SELECTED DICTIONARIES OF FOUR SOTHO-TSWANA LANGUAGES

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Every well-structured dictionary, constructed in accordance with sound lexicographical principles, will comprise three distinct parts: the front matter, the central list (or nomenclature) and the back matter. If there is general agreement on the contents and layout of the central list, there seems, however, to be a great deal of variation in lexicographic practice when it comes to the design features and contents of external texts: the front and back matter. Meta-lexicographers usually state, in general terms, what ought to go into each of these two constituent parts of a dictionary. However, a quick comparison of the front and back matter of existing dictionaries reveals interesting discrepancies in the amount and type of information supplied by dictionary compilers in these two peripheral parts of the dictionary. The pertinent questions that arise, right from the outset, are therefore as follows:

- Is there a standard list of information categories that ought to be included in each of these two component parts or is the list supposed to be language-specific or even “group of languages specific”?
- Does dictionary education include proper and effective use of front and back matter material?
- What are target users’ dictionary consultation habits and reference skills with regard to these outer texts?

This paper attempts to draw attention to some of the observed salient differences and inconsistencies with regard to what is (or is not) included in the front or back matter of a dictionary in four languages of the Sotho-Tswana group. To this end, nine dictionaries have been selected to be compared in terms of the content and scope of their front and back matter.

These are as follows:

1. R. A. Paroz’s *Southern Sotho-English Dictionary* (1988)
2. Thabo Pitso’s *Khetsi ea Sesotho* (1997)
3. Adolphe Jalla’s *Silozi-English Dictionary* (1982), as revised by the Literature Committee of the UCZ.
4. Owen O’Sullivan’s *English-Silozi Dictionary* (1993)
5. M.L.A. Kgasa and J. Tsonope’s *Thanodi ya Setswana* (1998)
6. Thapelo Otlogetswe’s *English-Setswana Dictionary* (2007)
7. G.B. Mareme et al.’s *Thanodi ya Setswana* (2008)
8. V. Mojela et al.’s *Pukuntsutlhalosi ya Sesotho sa Leboa* (2007)
9. G-M. de Schryver et al.’s *Pukuntšu ya Sekolo/School Dictionary* (2007)

From one dictionary to the other, one notices some striking differences in terms of the treatment of material consigned to these peripheral texts, especially what constitutes the back matter. Some do not even have any back matter at all. The differences are observable even in dictionaries dealing with the same language. The paper sets out to point out some of the critical information that is lacking in the front and back matter of some of these dictionaries of Southern Bantu languages. It goes on to suggest a kind of checklist of front and back matter material for inclusion in dictionaries of languages in this cluster.

SEEING THE TREES AND FOREST: USING CONCORDANCES TO DEVELOP DEFINITIONS IN THE MULTILINGUAL STATISTICS GLOSSARY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

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The past decade has seen increased attention given to the development of glossaries in different universities in South Africa. This reaction is due to government policy requirement (e.g. Language Policy for Higher Education, 2002) and the need to improve learning and teaching in higher education with a view to increase throughput rate among students for whom English is not the first language. However, as several studies have pointed out (Mesthrie 2008), most of these glossaries, though necessary, are not sufficient to meet students’ learning needs, partly because of the way they have been compiled. Most of the glossaries that are being developed are mainly focussed on providing definitions and translation equivalents, and yet the main problem of students at university level is to master special subject registers or discourse. In their book entitled *Working with specialized language: A practical guide to using corpora*, Bowker and Pearson (2002) convincingly show that the traditional approach to glossary compilation is not only limited, but also fails to provide contextual examples of terms which are essential to understand the meaning of

terms and their definitions. Accordingly, they argued for a corpus-based approach to the development of glossaries which enable users or learners to see trees and their forest.

The aim of this paper is to discuss how the corpus-based approach has been used in the compilation of the Multilingual Statistics glossary. The Statistic Glossary was based on a small corpus of about 118000 running words made up of prescribed books, tutorials and theses abstracts. Although the size of this corpus is small, its value cannot be undermined (Sinclair 2001). It is the contention of this paper that a corpus-based approach is more suitable for glossary development at university level than a traditional approach. What distinguishes our corpus-based multilingual glossaries from the traditional ones is that they make use of contextual examples of terms. Literature abounds with studies that emphasise the importance of contextual examples in concepts and vocabulary instruction (cf. Nagy 1987, 1988, 2005). As Stahl and Fairbanks (1986:76), rightly observes, "a method that gives multiple exposures to a word would have a greater effect on vocabulary learning than one that gives the student one or two mentions of the word paired with a definition or used in a sentence". Thus, our corpus-based glossaries are not only aimed to serve as reference tools, but also to function as pedagogic tools that facilitate teaching and learning. The use of contextual examples does not only enable students to understand the meaning of the terms in contexts, but also help them to develop high thinking order skills such as decontextualization and generation (cf. Snow 1990). The translation equivalents, on the other hand, assist students to access concepts in their own primary languages and to commit them to memory and recall them with ease.

The paper will begin by describing the Glossary was developed and then show how concordances were used to generate definitions or explanations of the terms. As the Glossary is now uploaded on Vula Hypermedia, a demonstration will be made to show how students can always recall concordances of the different terms to identify their meanings.

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HYPHENATION IN COMPOUND NOUNS IN ISINDEBELE - SOME LEXICOGRAPHIC CHALLENGES

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IsiNdebele is a relatively young language in terms of official recognition – its status as an official language was only recognized in 1996. Language standardization, which includes standardization of spelling rules, is an ongoing process, and even more so for a young language. The focus of this paper is the rule(s) determining the writing of compound nouns, since a number of inconsistencies are apparent when the spelling of these nouns is perused, the main issue being the use (or non-use) of the hyphen. This is a particularly pressing problem for lexicographers, since internal consistency with regard to spelling is one of the main prerequisites for solid lexicography. Within the South African context, the lexicographer is often also an agent of language management and standardization, and as such, has to intervene in the development of a language.

Compounding can be defined as the joining together of two independent words to form a new word. The components of such a compound can represent different word categories. Compare the following examples:

Noun + noun

inomboro + (u)mutjho > inomboromutjho ‘number line’

Verb + noun

-veza + indlebe > ivezandlebe ‘illegitimate child’

Verb + adverb

-hlala + phasi > umhlalaphasi ‘pension’

Verb + verb

-dla + -lala > uDlawulale ‘place name’

Cluver (1989:274) states that compounding is “by far the most productive word-forming process in the Germanic languages”. It is difficult to ascertain whether compounding is indeed the most productive word formation process in the African languages, or for that matter in isiNdebele, but compounding is indeed used, especially as a term formation strategy. However, even a preliminary perusal of these compounds reveals many uncertainties and inconsistencies with regard to the spelling of these items, particularly as regards the use of the hyphen in compounds consisting of three or more components. Compare the following examples:

Hyphenated:

isivekela-malwele ‘antibody’ (noun + noun)

ikomba-mphande-mitati ‘directory’ (noun + noun + noun)

Non-hyphenated:

ilungamdlhegi ‘alternate member’ (noun + noun)

ithungelelwanohlanganiso ‘internet’ (noun + noun)

The spelling rule regarding the use of the hyphen as stated in the revised spelling rules of isiNdebele, is that it is used amongst other things to separate the different components in compound nouns signifying linguistic concepts (2008:27). This rule is clearly inadequate. Compounds do not only occur in linguistic terminology; as was pointed out, it represents a very productive term formation strategy which is not restricted to the field of linguistics. The spelling rules furthermore give no guidance whatsoever as to the spelling of compounds, regardless of whether these forms are used as LSP terms or as LGP words.

The aim of this paper is to minimize the inconsistencies that are found in the spelling of compound nouns formed by more than three linguistic units and to come up with an acceptable strategy with regard to the use of hyphen in compounds. Hopefully, this paper will contribute towards solving these problems by offering a practical approach within the context of the standard written language. It will also assist lexicographers in being consistent in their entries of compounds.

REDUPLICATION IN SHONA AND THE PLACE OF REDUPLICATES IN SHONA LEXICOGRAPHY: A LEXICAL PHONOLOGY ANALYSIS

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Reduplication is a common phenomenon in many languages. It has however not received much attention as a creative word formation process despite the fact that it produces various words with meanings that are not entirely obtainable from the base forms. Shona lexicography has tended to discard the reduplicated words under the assumption that it is the base forms that constitute the majority of the entries. Reduplication is reported as being a process where part of the base or the entire base is used more than once in a word. This means to say, reduplication is not limited to only double repetition. The reduplicated part is suffixed to the base. When it is suffixation of the whole base form, it is called compounding. Duplication may indicate plurality, intensity and repetition. The proposed paper seeks to look at the duplication in Shona. It seeks to check if it is a direct reincarnation of the original form. It seeks to explore the morphological and phonological processes that take place in order to accommodate the reduplication process. It applies the lexical phonological theory which recognises the relationship between morphology and phonology. The theory prescribes that a word is a phonological entity. We recognise words because of their phonological properties. Those properties are altered once there are some suffixes added indicating a relationship between morphology and phonology. So the proposed research seeks to check what morphological and phonological processes are allowed when duplication takes place. It also seeks to account for the functional meanings of the words that we end up with and to discuss the position of these reduplicates in Shona lexicography.

THE TREATMENT OF SENSE RELATIONS IN THE ISN: A COMPARISON OF THE SEMASIOLOGICAL AND ONOMASIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

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This paper is predicated on one of the key questions that confront any lexicographer when dealing with semantic information in dictionaries. This key question is one proffered by Geeraerts (2003) who notes that the lexicographer has to ask himself/herself whether s/he will “focus on the senses of individual words [or sense relations amongst different words]?” (Note: emphasis mine). In view of this key question, this paper interrogates the treatment of senses of words denoting general implements and utensils on one hand and days of the week and months of the year on the other in the Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele. The study analyses how the definitions of these words reflect or do not reflect sense relations. The analysis is made within the context of the sociolinguistic environs that govern the development of the Ndebele language. The paper seeks to show how the marginalization of Ndebele over the years has brought about challenges for the lexicographer when confronting the question highlighted in the foregoing. It will show that when lexicographers operate from a semasiological persuasion when confronted with this question the answer is

“no” and the evidence is there in the dictionary. Definitions of words relating to days of the week and months of the year display a regular pattern of hyponym-hypernym, whereas when operating from an onomasiological perspective, whilst the will (to show sense relations) might be there, the operating constraints in the language might prevent the fulfilment of that objective. It will become apparent in the development of the paper that the concept of sense relations (hyponym-hypernym relations) is haphazardly reflected in the ISN, albeit implicitly when dealing with “borrowed concepts”; in these cases words denoting general implements and utensils. Our argument is that because we are dealing with “non-existent words” when working from an onomasiological persuasion, it becomes next to impossible for a lexicographer to produce definitions reflecting a language carrying a well knit set of words that are semantically related.

DISAMBIGUATING THE MEANING OF THE TERM ‘BANTU’ WITH REFERENCE TO THE SOUTH AFRICAN LEXICOLOGY

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Introduction

The term, Bantu, is an internationally recognized lexical item referring to one of the five major language families spoken in the African continent. These five families include the following: the Sudanic Language Family, the Semitic Language Family, the Hamitic Language Family and the Khoisan Language Family. These language classifications resulted from the researches made by various accredited philologists and linguistic scholars, such as Joseph Greenberg, Alice Werner, Malcolm Guthrie, OAJ Westphal, WHI Bleek, Carl Meinhof, Maurice Delafosse, etc. and the language groupings were based on affinities with regard to etymology, common features, common vocabularies, etc.

The Bantu Language Family

This is a group of some 500 languages belonging to the [Benue-Congo language](#) branch of the [Niger-Congo language family](#). They are spoken by more than 200 million people in a very large area, including most of Africa from southern Cameroon eastward to Kenya and southward to the southernmost tip of the continent. This Language Family contains hundreds of languages which are spoken by almost 120 million Africans in the Congo Basin, Angola, the Republic of South Africa, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi, Tanzania, and Kenya. According to the Encyclopedia Britannica, the word *Bantu* means "the people" and is made up of the stem *-ntu* ("person") and the plural prefix *ba-*

The stigmatization of the term ‘Bantu’ in the South African context

As a result of apartheid policies in South Africa, this internationally accredited classificatory term has come to be associated with several negative connotations which initially did not form part of its meaning. The fact that it was the whites (especially the White rulers) who frequently used this term to distinguish themselves from the black communities led to the black communities associating the term ‘Bantu’ with negative connotations such as the following:

- The Apartheid Regime or the segregation policy
- Colonialism
- Oppression
- Sufferings
- Second hand citizenships
- The Bantustan Governments

- The Group Areas Act, etc.

As a result, this term which was previously acceptable among the African communities or the 'Bantu' communities, became one of the most notorious terms among the South African Black nation. The initial importance of the term is mostly observed among the Xhosa communities where it was usually used as one of the important names for many young men, as it is seen in some of the names of high profile individuals such as General 'Bantu' Holomisa, Mr Steven 'Bantu(bonke)' Biko, etc. The Bantu Encyclopedia says:

Black South Africans were at times officially called "Bantus" by the apartheid regime. Nowadays in South Africa, the term "Bantu" is no longer used to refer to a people. The more common and polite term is "Black" and in fact legislation and documents from the South African government replaced "Bantu" with "Black"

The significances for the meaning shift

This semantic shift which occurred to the term 'Bantu' led to the following consequences:

Meaning of the term

As a result of the politicization of the term in the South African context, the meaning of the term 'Bantu' became ambiguous. This term initially referred to a group of people whose languages have distinguishing features such as the following:

- Agglutinative features
- Basically polysyllabic
- Lack of grammatically gender
- High frequency of alliterative concords, etc.

As a result of the meaning shifts emanating from the application of the term in the South African context, the term which was basically used to refer to a group of people both inside and outside the borders of the Republic of South Africa acquired several negative connotations which rendered it unusable within the borders of South Africa. The term no longer meant what it was intended for.

The classification of the languages

The accurate classification system made by the abovementioned philologists became negatively affected, and ultimately ambiguous. This is due to the fact that the term Bantu, in South Africa, is often replaced by the term 'African', which in itself is contradictory because all the above mentioned language families are African Languages, and are spoken in Africa.

Lexicography

The lexicographic significances which affect the lemmatization of the term, Bantu, amount to the differences between the dictionary definitions of the term by the lexicographers within South Africa and that of the lexicographers outside the South African context. In the South African context, most lexicographers are still not certain whether the term is taboo or just not allowed to be used as a classificatory term for the languages.

TRENDS IN GABONESE MODERN LEXICOGRAPHY

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Ndinga-Koumba-Binza (2005:138) indicates that there are two major eras of Gabonese lexicography: the earlier era and the modern era. This paper focuses on aspects of Gabonese modern lexicography. According to Ndinga-Koumba-Binza (2005:138), the earlier era includes reference works from missionaries and colonial administrators. Mavoungou (2001 and 2002), Mihindou (2001) and Nyangone Assam and Mavoungou (2000) show that the majority of lexicographic reference works available in Gabonese languages are bilingual dictionaries, lexicons and glossaries compiled by Catholic and Protestant missionaries and colonial administrators from 1800 to 1960, when Gabon gained its independence from France. As for the modern era, Ndinga-Koumba-Binza (2005:138) indicates that it actually starts with the publication of *Gedandedi sa Geviya/Dictionnaire Geviya-Francais* (henceforth DGF) in 2002 by Van der Veen and Bodinga-bwa-Bodinga. Mavoungou (2004: 440) points out that the appearance of this dictionary opened a new era of dictionary publication in Gabon. The DGF was followed in 2004 by the *Lexique Pove-Francais/Francais-Pove* (henceforth LPFFP) by Mickala Manfoumbi. Ndinga-Koumba-Binza (2005:138) notes that this period coincides with the completion of the first doctoral theses on metalexigraphical planning of dictionaries in the Gabonese languages (Mavoungou 2002; Afane Otsaga 2004). Eight other doctoral theses on metalexigraphical planning of dictionaries for Gabonese languages have been completed since 2006 (Ekwa Ebanega 2007; Ella 2007; Mabika Mbokou 2006, Mihindou 2006; Nyangone Assam 2006, Saphou-Bivigat 2010, Soami 2010 and Tomba Moussavou 2007).

After a decade, starting from the publication of the article by Nyangone Assam and Mavoungou in (2000) of extensive metalexigraphic research on the compilation of dictionaries for Gabonese languages, plus an important number of university-trained lexicographers and the current supportive trend of dictionary publication, it is important to review the development process of this research discipline in Gabon.

It is acknowledged that Gabonese lexicography is no longer as “embryonic” as Ndinga-Koumba-Binza (2005:136; 2006:302) presented it some time ago. In fact, Gabonese metalexigraphic has been experiencing “a fast-growing crop of literature” (Ndinga-Koumba-Binza 2005:136) and various dictionaries are being planned and published.

This paper aims to identify and analyze the existing trends in current Gabonese lexicography. New trends in the modern era of Gabonese lexicography are emphasized with a theoretical conception, (i.e. a metalexigraphical design) of reference works. However, all recent published dictionaries and reference works in this era (Van der Veen & Bodinga-bwa-Bodinga 2002, Mickala Manfoumbi 2004, Medjo-Mve and Moussavou 2006, ILALOK 2008, Dodo-Bounguenza 2008, Ditougou 2009) did not experience any theoretical conceptions according to modern lexicographic theories (Mavoungou 2008).

Recent trends of Gabonese lexicography are also observed in terms of the strategic lexicographic plan for Gabon, the theoretical models, the research objectives and the languages involved. Various components of Gabonese modern lexicography can be identified, such as (i) Monolingual lexicography, (ii) Multilingual lexicography, (iii) Corpus lexicography, (iv) Gabonese-French lexicography and (v) Encyclopedic lexicography. The lexicographic training as the first phase of the strategic lexicographic plan for Gabon has managed to produce at least a grounded specialist for each domain.

Finally, this paper introduces current activities and published dictionaries in each domain and explains how these activities and dictionaries are applicable within the framework of the lexicographic plan for Gabon. This paper contributes to the formulation of a coherent general framework for Gabonese lexicography.

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THE TREATMENT OF POLYSEMY AND HOMONYMY IN MONOLINGUAL GENERAL-PURPOSE DICTIONARIES: THE CASE OF *ISICHAZAMAZWI SESINDEBELE* (ISN) 2001

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This paper focuses on the treatment of polysemy and homonymy in monolingual general-purpose dictionaries with special reference to *Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele*, the first monolingual general-purpose Ndebele dictionary. It looks at the inherent challenges of handling polysemy and homonymy in monolingual general-purpose dictionaries in order to censor and rectify faulty usage and treatment of these sense relations in monolingual general-purpose dictionaries and in the Ordinary Level Ndebele textbooks, *Ihawu Labafundi 3* and *4* and *Nyathela Ngolutsha- Ugwalo Lwabafundi 3* and *4*, among others. This paper results from the two researchers' observations and learning experiences as BA Honours students in Ndebele while following the course "Elements of Ndebele Linguistic Structure". The main observation and experience relate to the confusion of polysemous and homonymous words in class when asked to illustrate these concepts. Part of the source of this confusion seems to have been acquired from the above-mentioned Ndebele textbooks. The paper shows that the overreliance on one criterion, in particular etymology, to distinguish polysemy and homonymy is often misleading and unreliable. Palmer (1981: 102) notes that the history of a language does not always accurately reflect its present state. It can be very misleading, especially in cases where the prime source of information in this case is oral tradition. Even in languages which have written records going back hundreds of years there are words whose historical derivation remains controversial (Lyons, 1977:550-551). It is therefore against this background that the researchers propose a holistic approach in distinguishing polysemy and homonymy. When this approach is used, the results of each criterion must be ascertained by employing other criteria in order to arrive at the final position on whether a lemma in question is polysemous or homonymous. This holistic approach entails the use of the following criteria: etymology, relatedness vs unrelatedness of meaning, identification of the core meaning, intuitive knowledge and introspective judgements. Lexicographers and linguists have also used the test of ambiguity to delimit polysemy and homonymy. However the problem with this criterion is that both polysemy and homonymy involve lexical ambiguity (Lyons, 1977:550). Because of this criterion's major weakness, the researchers exclude it from the holistic approach. The criterion of relatedness vs unrelatedness of meaning correlates very well with the native speaker's linguistic

competence or intuitive knowledge that certain meanings are connected and others are not. In combination with other criteria, this criterion proves to be very useful, especially when dealing with polysemy in Ndebele, a language rich in metaphors which native speakers often interpret as cases of polysemy and not homonymy because they easily identify the core meaning on account of their linguistic competence. Use of componential analysis to explicate the notion of relatedness of meaning has also further enhanced the reliability of this criterion (Lyons, 1977:552-553). Componential analysis of the senses of lexemes is useful in that it further ascertains the accuracy of the results of the criterion of relatedness vs unrelatedness of meaning which correlates with the speakers' intuitive knowledge. Lakoff and Johnson (2003:3) observe that metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language, but also in thought and action and that metaphorical thought is normal and ubiquitous in our mental life, both conscious and unconscious. They further note that fundamentally metaphors are mechanisms of the mind and that our conceptual system is metaphorical in nature. Proceeding from this observation, reliance on intuitive knowledge and introspection when dealing with polysemy and homonymy is indispensable in the holistic approach. It is envisaged that the use of a holistic approach will go a long way in delimiting polysemy and homonymy. Whatever results one obtains from a particular criterion, it is necessary that one compares one's findings with other criteria and finally check if the results coincide with one's intuitive knowledge. It is found that there are some inconsistencies in the treatment of polysemous and homonymous entries in *Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele*. In some instances, polysemous entries are treated as homonymous entries or the other way round. Polysemy alone also has its own inherent complexities, among these being the problems of determining the exact number of meanings of a polysemous lemma. In listing the meaning of a polysemous entry, the primary meaning should come first. However, it is not always easy to ascertain which of the meanings is the central or primary meaning of the entry; hence the need to rely on a holistic approach.

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A COMPARISON OF DICTIONARY DEFINITIONS AND LEGAL DEFINITIONS

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In February 2009, the UK Telegraph reported that a High Court Judge in the United Kingdom, Mr. Justice Cranston, used 12,000 words to define the word "tree". Such a definition cannot be reproduced here for the obvious reasons of length. The judge is Australian and he was educated at Harvard and Oxford and is a former Professor of Commercial Law at the London School of Economics. On a different matter, the state of Florida, in an ordinance aimed at reducing the amount of exposed flesh in public places required dancers to cover their behinds. A legal definition of buttocks was crafted thus:

the area at the rear of the human body (sometimes referred to as the gluteus maximus) which lies between two imaginary lines running parallel to the ground when a person is standing, the first or top of such lines being one-half inch below

the top of the vertical cleavage of the nates (i.e., the prominence formed by the muscles running from the back of the hip to the back of the leg) and the second or bottom line being one-half inch above the lowest point of the curvature of the fleshy protuberance (sometimes referred to as the gluteal fold), and between two imaginary lines, one on each side of the body ... (Tiersma, 1999)

On the lexicographic front there have been some interesting dictionary definitions. One contributor of some of the more memorable English definitions is the English lexicographer, Samuel Johnson. He defined oats as “A grain which in England is generally given to horses, but in Scotland supports the people” and *Christian* as “a professor of the religion of Christ” and a *tree* as “a large vegetable rising, with one woody stem to a considerable height”. He also defines *shabby* “A word that has crept into conversation and low writing; but ought not to be admitted into the language.”

In this paper we look at the style adopted by legal drafters as well definitions drawn from a variety of dictionaries. We argue that the province of defining is not only a reserve for lexicographers; legal drafters also occupy that space. It is also argued in this paper that the style of the legal definition is a consequence of the language of law in general. Tiersma (1999) has demonstrated that the legal language is marked by lengthy and complex sentences, wordiness and redundancy (such as *at slow speed* instead of *slowly* or *subsequent to* instead of *after*), conjoined phrases (e.g. *I give, devise and bequeath the rest, residue and remainder...*), unusual sentence structures (e.g. *a proposal to effect with the Society an assurance,*), negation, impersonal constructions (as in *Sex offenders shall register with the police...*).

Lexicographic textbooks such as Zgusta (1971), Landau (1989) and Svendsen (1993) on the other hand have developed principles of defining to guide practising lexicographers and engage theoretical lexicography. Zgusta for instance identifies the following as critical to the crafting of a definition: (a) all words within a definition must be explained (b) the lexical definition should not contain words “more difficult to understand” than the word defined (c) The defined word may not be used in its definitions or combinations of the defined word unless they are separately defined. But one part of the speech may be used to define another, as “to use a crib” if the noun sense of crib (in the sense of a secreted copy of notes, etc.) has been defined (d) the definition must correspond to the part of speech of the word. Landau (1989) on the other hand identifies the following principles of defining in their order of importance: (a) avoid circularity (b) define every word used in a definition (c) define the entry word. He also identifies what he calls the ‘good defining practice’ which includes (a) priority of essence (b) substitutability (c) reflection of grammatical function (d) simplicity (e) brevity and (f) avoidance of ambiguity.

It is evident that the defining principles used by both the legal and the lexicographic domains are particular to their disciplines and they function to serve different demands of the profession. For the lexicographer is brevity and linguistic accuracy while for the lawyer is broad specificity with multiple loopholes attended to. The paper therefore explores these two areas and how they have fed on each other.

A DECADE OF LEXICOGRAPHIC RULERS — REVIEWING THE RULER FOR AFRIKAANS

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Lexicographic rulers designed by Prinsloo and De Schryver are a decade in existence. They were presented for the first time at Euralex 2002 by Prinsloo and De Schryver (2002). Rulers for all the 11 official languages of South Africa were designed and given in Prinsloo and De

Schryver (2005). Other publications on the lexicographic rulers include Prinsloo and De Schryver (2003), Prinsloo (2004) and De Schryver (2005).

The need for the design of lexicographic rulers was sparked by observations by De Schryver and Prinsloo of apparent unbalanced treatment in alphabetical stretches e.g. where the compilers would enthusiastically and exhaustively treat the first few alphabetical stretches but seem 'to get tired' towards the end, cf. Kriel (1983) as a typical example in this regard, or the opposite (Atkins personal communication) where lexicographers make a slow start and gain steam as they progress through the alphabetical categories.

Lexicographic rulers can briefly be described as practical instruments of measurement for the relative length of alphabetical stretches in alphabetically ordered dictionaries. They are designed according to the generally accepted principle/fact that alphabetical categories in any given language do not contain an equal number of words. In Sepedi, Sesotho and Setswana, for example, the alphabetical stretch M contains almost 15% of the lemmas while C, Q, U, V, X, Y and Z each account for less than 1%.

These lexicographic rulers are currently in use in the compilation of a number of dictionaries for the official South African languages.

De Schryver and Prinsloo based the design of their rulers on the alphabetical breakdown of tokens in corpora of the different languages as well as on the breakdown in terms of pages utilized per alphabetical category and the number of lemmas treated per alphabetical stretch in existing dictionaries. Limited variation in the compilation, for example considering different sets of dictionaries' breakdown was performed, cf. De Schryver (2005) but the designers of the lexicographic rulers did not deem it necessary to defend the validity/consistency/accuracy of the different rulers or to refine them. Botha (2005) however, in reply to De Schryver (2005), queries the accuracy of the ruler for Afrikaans:

I do not believe that the inclusion of the desk dictionaries in the ruler is warranted, owing to their inherent deficiencies. I therefore have some doubt whether the data resources on which the ruler is based, can be considered as balanced and can *give frequency counts that accurately reflect Afrikaans* (Botha 2005: 78).

The aim of this paper is to refine the ruler for Afrikaans through further studies and to exclude the presumed potentially flawed dictionaries from the study by considering only corpora of Afrikaans as the basis for the refined design.

It could be argued that the average of the percentage breakdown per alphabetical stretch of a number of newly-compiled corpora would provide a more accurate ruler or in Botha's terms 'more accurately reflect Afrikaans'. Although such a 'stacking of sub-rulers' has merit, a much more challenging approach was adopted namely to *stress-test* the current (Prinsloo and De Schryver, 2002 and 2005) ruler for Afrikaans. This was done through comparison with thirteen different corpora which were designed/chosen in such a way that they constitute the *most unfavorable* basis in terms of balance and representativeness for the calculation of a lexicographic ruler. The following negative criteria in terms of corpus creation were used to render such 'unfriendly rulers'.

- (a) Extremity in corpus size: e.g. from as little as 2,000 tokens to 125,000,000 tokens,
- (b) Extreme diversity in topics: e.g. a corpus of religious texts versus a pornography corpus, versus a media-corpus,
- (c) Extreme diversity in register: e.g. very formal academic language versus informal e-mail chats,

- (d) Recent versus archaic Afrikaans: i.e. current sources of Afrikaans versus Afrikaans of 80-100 years ago,
- (e) Spoken versus written: e.g. a transcription of a phone-in television programme,
- (f) Compulsory inclusion of *all* these 'unfriendly' corpora and their resulting rulers: i.e. no rejection of a ruler nor any sub-selection from the rulers was permitted.

The resultant rulers are given in Figure 1:

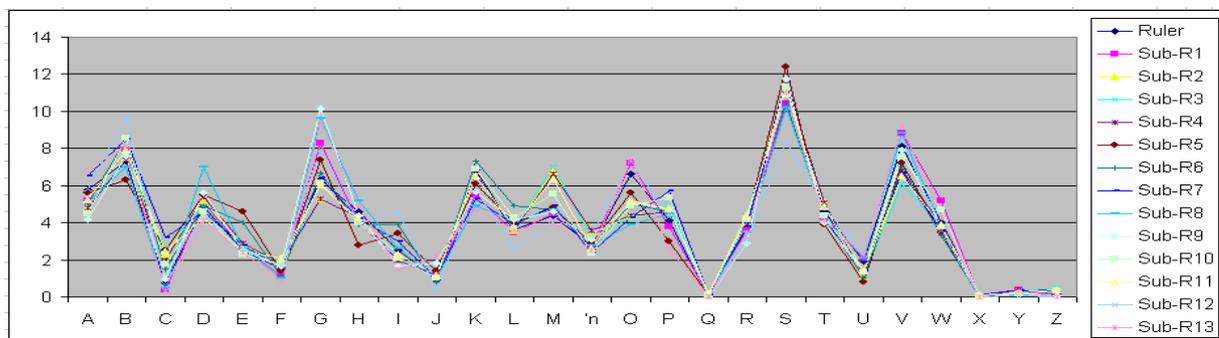


Figure 1: Afrikaans Ruler versus 13 'unfriendly' Afrikaans sub-rulers

From Figure 1 it should be clear that all of these 'unfriendly' rulers are nevertheless relatively close to the original Afrikaans Ruler — they each returned a high correlation coefficient value in excess of 0.9 with an average of 0.94 compared to the original Afrikaans Ruler.

Minimum versus maximum deviations per alphabetical category with the original Afrikaans Ruler will be highlighted and briefly discussed in the presentation.

Finally, a new 2010 refined ruler for Afrikaans based upon all available electronic text resources will be presented.

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**THE NEED TO INCLUDE SETSWANA IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS
ORIGINATING FROM THE BIBLE IN THE SETSWANA DICTIONARY**

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Introduction

“The Kuruman Mission was established by the London Missionary Society (LMS) in 1820 at Maruping near Kuruman where a town of about 10 000 Batswana were resident. Robert Moffat, Scottish missionary and his wife Mary arrived in Kuruman from Scotland in 1820, and soon organized permission from Chief Mothibi to relocate to the present position at Seodin in the valley of the Kuruman River. Not content with this, he was at the same time working on what would be his greatest legacy: the Setswana Bible. He taught himself Setswana, developed the orthography and (with a broader team) translated the Bible. Once this was done, he then printed it on a hand press. It was “the first entire Bible printed in Africa” (SATSA: 1997-2010).

Other missionaries like those of the Lutheran Church, the Anglican Church, and the Methodist Church also settled among the Batswana and other black communities to spread the Word of God in what they called “the dark continent”. In almost all these communities, the Bible became one of the first if not the first reading material in their endeavor to learn the three Rs.

To showcase mastery and appreciation of the biblical language the converts assimilated and formed idiomatic expressions into their languages. It is therefore not accidental to find in Setswana expressions with a biblical influence such as the following:

- Go nna leeba la ga Noah = to be sent and never comes back to give a reply.
- Go tsamaya ka la Moshe = to walk bare footed or to be a pedestrian.
- Go nna noga = to be deceitful.
- Go itira Jesu seding = to think you are better
- Go lela sa ga Rachele = to cry bitterly and unceasingly

The central argument of the paper

Since by its nature language is dynamic and not static, it comes as no surprise that expressions mentioned above have become part and parcel of the Setswana language. Their frequency in use may have dwindled to some extent but this is not because they originate from the biblical language but because by its (language) nature again in the course of time there is a procession of some words and expressions marching into oblivion – only to be heard among elderly people. These are the people on whom the continued and permanent existence of a language mainly depends for they speak their language correctly. On the other hand, it is incumbent upon the speakers of a particular language to retrieve such words and expressions if they wish to develop, preserve and promote their language. The only way to do this correctly is to include them in a comprehensive dictionary so as to enable any one who wishes to become familiar with them to do so. To this end Cingo could not be more right in stating that:

“Nothing will destroy a language if the people who speak it do not want to see it so destroyed. Conversely nothing will preserve a language if the people who speak it do not wish to preserve it” (Duminy 1967:137).

How the study was conducted

The method used in conducting the study was mainly qualitative in the sense that in addition to observing the Setswana speaking people in their every day discourse, I interviewed two elderly people from the Serolong and Sehurutshe dialects. Being a Mokwena myself, most of my observations were among the Bakwena. Having lived amongst the Barolong for thirty years, and for the same period having occasionally been in contact with Bahurutshe, have put me in a good stead to do some comparison of the three dialects.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Our findings bear testimony to the fact that words and other expressions from the biblical text have in the course of time been assimilated into the Setswana language and have been used as idiomatic expressions thereby becoming an enriching integral part of the Setswana language. It is indeed instructive that these words and expressions have been largely used in the spoken language and not in the written language where in fact they can be preserved for our posterity. We therefore appeal to the Setswana lexicographers to find means and ways of including these linguistic treasures in their dictionaries.

THE USE OF SOCIAL MEANING IN A SPECIALIZED TSHIVENDA DICTIONARY: A CASE OF TRADITIONAL AND CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES

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In lexicography one comes across a variety of dictionaries such as monolingual, bilingual, trilingual and specialized dictionaries. A lot has already been written on the first three types of dictionaries while there is little research on the last type of dictionaries especially in African languages such as Tshivenda. Special dictionaries that are available deal mainly with technical learning areas such as Mathematics, Medicine, Nursing, and many other study areas. Currently, there is hardly any dictionary in Tshivenda that treats social meaning as a specialized field. This paper will endeavour to fill this void. As social meaning deals with “the level of meaning that we rely on when we identify certain social characteristics of speakers and situations” (Finegan, 1994:158), it thus become crucial to also undertake a study on it as part of lexicography.

In order to achieve the aim of the paper, it is of vital importance that the paper first defines specialized dictionaries and also provides the significance of social meaning as a linguistic phenomenon. Considering the fact that social meaning is vast, the paper will confine itself to the following aspects: musanda or royal language and initiation rites discourse. Examples of Musanda language are as follows:

	Musanda language	Standard Tshivenda	English equivalents
i	Voda lo dzhena vhanweni	Mukololo o hula	The princess has reached her puberty
ii	Phedza i dzhena dzivhani	Mukololo u a tamba	The princess goes to the initiation school
iii	Voda li khou fhis	Mukololo u khou imbelwa	The princess is in the initiation school

Sentence (i) refers to the princess's first menstrual cycle which makes her to qualify as a mature girl. Sentence (ii) is the stage when she is taken to the initiation school to receive appropriate lessons to prepare her for the future. In other words, it is inevitable on her part that she has to undergo training to prepare her for life as a woman, a mother and a wife. Sentence (iii) simply indicates that the girl is in the initiation school receiving her lessons, most of which have to be memorized.

It must be emphasized that such sentences are not common in ordinary dictionaries and they thus deserve attention in their own right in a specialized dictionary.

Some examples pertaining to initiation rites discourse may be listed as follows:

Initiation rites discourse

	Musanda language	Standard Tshivenda equivalents	English equivalents
i	Nyamungozwa	Murangaphanda	Leader
ii	Mudabe	Mugudisi	Teacher
iii	Mulagalu (the leader)	Makhulu	Grandparent

The lemmas pertaining to the initiation rites discourse as reflected in the above examples are nowhere to be found in dictionaries. This makes it extremely difficult for interlocutors to understand each other. Owing to the use of social meaning in such a specialized dictionary, people will communicate properly and have a better understanding of each others' wishes and desires. Moreover, a dictionary of this nature will help in documenting terminology that is fast disappearing. As Crystal (2001) avers, the loss of any language is a great disservice to humanity especially when considering that the knowledge and wisdom imbued in such a language will never be regained. It is thus incumbent on us as scholars to do our bit by documenting any type of language that exists on earth. There is no better way of doing and achieving this than compiling a dictionary that specializes in explaining lemmas that are classified according to their social meaning.

**NORTHERN SOTHO CHEMISTRY TERMINOLOGY:
USERS' PREFERENCES AS STANDARDIZATION MECHANISM**

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Translating technical texts into a lesser resourced language such as Northern Sotho requires proper and sometimes innovative terminological processing of the source text prior to the actual translation. The first step in the translation of a technical text is the (semi-automatic and manual) extraction of terminology from the source text. In order to ensure terminological consistency, translation equivalents need to be found for all source terms and standardized, even if the standardization is only done internally. Due to the lack of standardized sources of technical terminology in Northern Sotho, all possible sources of terminology need to be perused. These include existing dictionaries and terminologies, texts (electronic and otherwise) dealing with the subject field at hand, and even non-standardized lists compiled by individuals active in the particular subject field.

During such terminological processing of an English source text consisting of 50 chemistry terms and their definitions which is to be translated into Northern Sotho, a number of challenges presented themselves to the terminologist/translator. First, for 27 of the 151 source terms isolated from the source text, multiple term equivalents were sourced; for some terms as many as four equivalents were found. Compare the following excerpt by way of illustration:

Table 1 *Multiple term equivalents*

Source term	TE 1	TE 2	TE 3	TE 4
acid	sedilana	esiti		
decomposition	polo	popollo	tlharamollo	
particle	karolonyana	seripana	lerathana	sekgawana
separation	karogano	kgaogano	tlogelano	
negative	ganetšago	latolago	nekethifi	neketifi

As can be seen from the table above, the multiplicity of TEs is to be found on various levels: in some cases variation is on the lexical level (cf. TEs for decomposition, particle and separation), in other cases on the orthographical level, i.e. different spellings of the same term (cf. *nekethifi* vs. *neketifi*) and in yet other cases, the variation concerns the term formation strategy (indigenous term vs. transliteration, cf. *sedilana* vs. *esiti*). Ideally, such a list of source terms and their multiple equivalents should be submitted to an official standardization body for formal standardization, a process during which a preferred term from amongst multiple translation equivalents is identified, but in practice this is rarely feasible, due to the time pressure under which translators normally operate. Furthermore, the standardization process of terminology in SA currently rather flawed; as a result, translators use their own discretion in deciding on appropriate term equivalents for source terms. This practice does however not solve the issue of the multiplicity of term equivalents, and may even contribute to the unnecessary proliferation of terms. For this particular project, it was decided to use the preferences of the target users of the terminology as a guideline for internal standardization. Consequently, a small case study was conducted in three secondary schools in the Mpumalanga province where chemistry forms part of the curriculum. A questionnaire consisting of four sections was administered to 30 senior learners. The first section of the questionnaire concerns the attitude of learners towards the use of Northern Sotho as a language of instruction of especially chemistry. The second section concentrates on establishing the users' preference, using conceptual appropriateness as guiding principle. In the third section, users' preference with regard to the use of transliterations versus indigenous terms is investigated, and the fourth section examines users' preferences pertaining to the phonological adaptation of transliterations. In this paper, we report on the findings of sections 2 to 4. The results collected from the questionnaires were then used to internally standardize the bilingual term list to be used in the translation of the chemistry texts, thus ensuring terminological consistency in the translated text.

**PEDAGOGICAL LEXICOGRAPHY: TOWARDS A NEW AND
STRICT TYPOLOGY CORRESPONDING TO THE PRESENT STATE-OF-THE-ART**

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A frequent and well-known problem within lexicography is the use of various terms to denominate one and the same phenomenon as well as the use of one and the same term to denominate various, completely different phenomena. Such a non-systematic terminology may lead to confusion in the discipline and hamper its theoretical and practical development. The problem is especially big within the so-called pedagogical lexicography.

Welker (2008) provides the – until now – most comprehensive panorama of this important subfield of lexicography with references to almost 800 titles. From this panoramic review it becomes clear that especially the terms “pedagogical lexicography/dictionaries”, “didactic lexicography/dictionaries”, “school dictionaries” and “learners’ dictionaries” are used with a lot of different meanings that vary from author to author, from country to country, from

culture to culture. Wiegand, for instance, has edited two books on pedagogical lexicography “with German” which only deal with dictionaries for foreign-language learners, whereas other authors also include first-language learners in the concept. Welker himself insists that the terms “school dictionary” and “learners’ dictionaries” should be reserved to dictionaries designed for first-language and second-language, respectively, whereas other authors, such as Giacomini/Rovere (2009), include dictionaries for first-language learners in the concept of a learners’ dictionary; and in some countries like South Africa, school dictionaries – frequently bilingual – are produced both for first- and second-language learners, etc.

Although publishing houses could hardly be expected to use a strict terminology for their products, this should nevertheless be expected from theoretical lexicography. In order to overcome the present confusion, it is therefore urgent to establish a typology that can be used as reference by scholars dealing theoretically with the subfield of pedagogical lexicography.

This paper will first show the amazing variety of meanings addressed to the various terms in the theoretical literature. It will then approach the problem along two different lines: 1) establishing a clear definition of the terms “pedagogical”, “didactic”, “school” and “learner” in a lexicographical perspective, and 2) referring to the existing practice where the terms are frequently used in a much broader sense than in the theoretical literature.

ad 1) As also proposed by Welker (2008), it will be argued that the term “didactic” should not be used as a generic term within lexicography, whereas the other terms mentioned will be redefined based upon the modern distinction between learning in the narrow sense of the word and life-long learning.

ad 2) A meticulous study of existing practice shows that pedagogical, learners’ and school dictionaries are produced, not only to assist the learning of a language (whether mother tongue or second language), but also to assist the learning of science and various disciplines such as technology, mathematics, etc. This practice must be reflected in the theoretical literature.

Based upon these considerations, a new and strict typology that corresponds to the present practice of pedagogical lexicography will be presented.

Literature:

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TONAL INDICATION IN AFRICAN LANGUAGES DICTIONARIES: A CASE STUDY OF THE SISWATI

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Tone is a distinctive pitch level of a syllable used to distinguish word meaning or to convey grammatical distinctions (Crystal, 2004:465). On the other hand, there is stress that goes hand in hand with tone. Stress is the degree of force used in producing a syllable (Crystal, 2004:435).

A good, user-friendly dictionary should clearly give the exact meaning of a word without leaving the user in doubt of the given meaning. It should carry all necessary characteristics that a dictionary must have. However, as a matter of fact, compilation of dictionaries is rule-governed. Space is one element that should be taken into account. Unlike grammar books,

dictionaries should not include detailed information. They do not analyze words and phrases but give the meaning of a word therefore, precision should be maintained. Nevertheless, there are vital characters that are mostly left out in monolingual dictionaries of indigenous African languages such as tone and stress. Some of these languages use diacritic marks to indicate the tone's peripheral status. The question is, should dictionaries of indigenous African languages leave out tone markers or not?

This paper focuses on tone on indigenous African languages, putting more emphasis on Siswati as one of the many tone languages of the world. A number of questions will be answered in the development of this paper. These include:

- Is there any remarkable difference between tone and stress? If there is, what is it?
- If tone markers are left out in our dictionaries, to what extent is the damage caused?
- On which environment of the lemma should tone be marked? If the placing of the tone marker is wrong what is the outcome?
- Examples are used where meaning is not clear or ambiguous, a good example should carry the lemma in its original tense. Is that necessary?
- What would happen if that rule is ignored?
- Do our dictionaries maintain the rule?
- If they do not, what happens to the tone marker of the lemma in question?
- What does tone do to other parts of speech such as the verb, the noun, the qualifier and copulative, etc?

It will be argued that some words do not demand tone markers due to their miscellaneous nature but demand to be used in context to give a non-ambiguous meaning, if used in isolation, the meaning is lost.

Since dictionaries are written down as documents and facial expressions are not indicated to, there is therefore no given hint to meaning unlike spoken utterances. Voice-lowering and voice-raising together with facial expressions give speakers and listeners a clue to meaning even to none-speakers of a particular language. It has been noticed then that tone alone can play a vital role in depicting word meaning. Why then should our dictionaries ignore such a useful device?

The paper will discuss possible ways of addressing problems that tone may cause and to argue and urge for the use of tone indicators in African languages dictionaries.

LEARNING ABOUT DICTIONARY USE IN PRIMARY SCHOOL: A SCHOOL DICTIONARY PROJECT

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Introduction

A School Dictionary Project was undertaken by the Multigrade Centre for Education (CPUT) in 2009. The Multigrade Centre for Education is situated in Wellington. It forms part of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology and is funded by the Dutch government. Its mission is to develop frameworks and policies for quality instruction and learning in Multigrade Education, based on research and good practices.

The Project spans over four years and is divided into different phases. During the first phase, six schools participated in the project. It is a fine example of cooperative lexicography with different role-players each participating, contributing and benefitting eventually from the project. People involved in the project were the researcher, research assistants (student teachers in training), teachers, learners, as well as a publishing company. The Multigrade

Centre entered into an informal partnership with Pearson Education who supplied dictionaries for the project.

Aim of project

The main aim of the project is to promote and develop Dictionary education in primary schools. According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 43) it is presumed that most dictionary users in South Africa lack a culture of dictionary use although the teaching of dictionary skills especially at primary, secondary and tertiary level is of vital importance. They call for well-orchestrated initiatives involving education authorities, provincial language councils and NLU's in the teaching of dictionary skills. These initiatives should not be limited to pupils and students, but should be aimed at the broader community as well, in the form of community service projects.

In the case of the School Dictionary Project, an assessment of users' skills was made. Dictionary and language skills were taught, teachers were trained and feedback on the *HAT Skoolwoordeboek* was supplied to Pearson Education.

Although dictionaries are mentioned in the national language curriculum for primary school education, no guidelines regarding teaching dictionary use are supplied. In most cases, no training of teachers in dictionary use takes place at tertiary level. At schools, primary and secondary, dictionaries are not always available. In general, only in most affluent households, dictionaries are bought and parents teach their children dictionary skills (Van der Merwe, 2009). According to a questionnaire completed by teachers involved in the project, dictionary education only takes place in the class room if the teacher sees the need for it and emphasises it. The teaching of dictionary skills differed from one individual to another and the perception of the importance of dictionaries played a decisive role in whether they were taught or not.

The focus of the research problem in the School Dictionary Project in this paper entails:

- Design a test to assess the dictionary skills of grade 4-learners
- Design learning material to develop dictionary skills of grade 4-learners
- Design guidelines for teachers teaching dictionary use
- Feedback on the *HAT Skoolwoordeboek* to the publisher.

Research Methodology

Educational Design-based research (Joubert, 2010:2) is a research approach suitable to address complex problems in educational practice for which no clear guidelines for solutions are available. It is perceived as the systematic study of designing, developing and evaluating educational interventions- such as programmes, teaching-learning strategies and materials, products and systems as solutions. These solutions aim at advancing knowledge about the characteristics of these interventions and the process to design and develop them. Wang and Hannafin (2005:6) describe a design-based research as a systematic but flexible methodology aimed at improving educational practices through iterative analysis, design, development, and implementation, based on collaboration among researchers and practitioners in real-world settings. Such an approach, it is argued, leads to contextually-sensitive design principles and theories. According to Collins et al. (2004) design-based research intends to address several needs and issues central to the study of learning, including the following:

- The need to address theoretical questions about the nature of learning in context
- The need for approaches to the study of learning phenomena in real world situations rather than the laboratory

- The need to go beyond narrow measures of learning
- The need to derive research findings from formative evaluation.

Design-based research approach was followed in the Dictionary Project and it will be illustrated in the paper.

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**FOR THE PEOPLE, BY THE PEOPLE: PICTURE DICTIONARIES
IN THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO**

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Picture dictionaries in local African languages have many advantages. First, they are a key aid to increasing skills necessary for success in formal education such as literacy and visual literacy, i.e., the ability to understand what a picture is trying to portray. These are areas where African children often fall behind because they do not have access to many books with pictures. Moreover, a picture dictionary organized by semantic domain overcomes the difficulty that the alphabetically organized dictionaries present to people who do not have much education. In addition, a dictionary makes an important contribution to a language community in terms of preserving linguistic heritage and giving the community pride in their language. Finally, many development goals are enhanced by local language literacy, which is a way of spreading information. However, a problem with dictionaries is that they can take a long time to prepare and to publish. This paper describes a successful method for producing picture dictionaries in local African languages in a relatively short amount of time, and that includes collaboration between dictionary experts and language communities. The end product includes dictionaries that engage language communities, help people learn to read, and give them pride in their mother tongue.

This method of dictionary production began with a picture dictionary modeled on two different series of bilingual dictionaries available in European languages: Oxford (Shapiro 1998) and DK Publishing (Gavira 2005). These publishers have each done a series with English as the base language; each series has the same English words and pictures, but a different second language for each book of the series. We created a Congolese series of picture dictionaries that used French as the base language and a local language as the second language. This method allowed us to create a template for Congolese languages and to use it in order to finish seven dictionaries in two years, with significant progress in dictionaries for four additional languages.

The organization of the dictionary template is by semantic domains selected through a workshop. There were two representatives from each of three language communities at the first workshop, and two from each of seven communities at the second. They worked together to create a template that would reflect common cultural domains. In this way, the dictionaries are based on semantic categories common to Congolese languages, rather than to French semantic categories. The dictionaries are thus truly African in content. The pan-Congolese semantic template adds to the richness of the dictionary and helps to preserve the linguistic and cultural heritage of the community. The average page lists the semantic domain at the top and includes nine pictures on the page, each with the local language and an equivalent French word or phrase. The layout allows for much flexibility in the number of elements may be included under each semantic domain.

The Congolese picture dictionaries also included local proverbs, as well as being accompanied by stories and other literacy materials. During the workshops mentioned above, participants found themes in which it would be possible to find a proverb in each language. For example, for the semantic domain “Mammals,” each group found at least two proverbs that named a mammal. During this time, they also worked together to write stories to be translated into the local language using words from each page of the dictionary. Following the workshops with the speakers of the Congolese languages, the dictionary specialists entered all of the data into the dictionary template to create eleven dictionaries. Later, a second series of workshops was held in different regions of the Democratic Republic of Congo in order to check the contents, formats and other elements included in the dictionaries, and to get the approval of each of the language committees to publish and distribute the dictionaries. Seven dictionaries were successfully produced, with four more to follow.

Most of the dictionaries sold out within a short amount of time, demonstrating the success of the African language picture dictionary projects. These dictionaries reflect Congolese cultures, they contribute to the preservation of cultural and linguistic heritage, and they will be instrumental in helping many Congolese people to read, write, and to have pride in their language. The project was also a success in developing documentation for this method that is appropriate for language development in Africa and around the world. During this process, we learned the importance of having a plan for informed consent. Also, more time devoted to each dictionary would have brought out more of each language’s uniqueness. However, there would not have been as many finished. In the end, there were seven dictionaries made for the people, by the people

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**THE EFFECTS OF SHONA LANGUAGE CHANGE ON MONOLINGUAL
LEXICOGRAPHY: THE NEED FOR A REVISED ALPHABET**

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In this paper the writers discuss the phenomenon of Shona language change, its effects on lexicography and the need for a revised alphabet. Lexicographers at African Languages Research Institute (ALRI) encounter problems in handling some words that are potential headwords in dictionaries which they are working on, under the ALLEX project, because of the defective Shona alphabet. The current Shona alphabet does not recognize quite a number of sounds, morphemes and lexical items that are in everyday use by the native Shona speakers because of alien sounds that make up these words. The paper was inspired by the challenges that the writers encounter during the compilation of Duramazwi reMimhanzi (Shona Musical Terms Dictionary). The paper unveils how language change accounts for the problems of headword selection and how modifying the current alphabet can enhance monolingual Shona lexicography work vis-à-vis the development of the Shona language. This paper therefore shows the urgent need for a revised alphabet so as to ease orthography problems during dictionary making. Historical linguists have shown that language change is inevitable in any language, especially Ferdinand de Saussure, as quoted by Atchison (1981:18), observes that in a world where humans grow old, tadpoles change into frogs, and milk turns into cheese, it would be strange if language alone remained unaltered. Languages always change over time and never stay the same. They change through various ways but the commonest being adopting and assimilating segmental and supra-segmental features from languages that are in contact with them. This is necessitated by the premise that languages that are in contact constantly interact as they communicate objects within their linguistic environments. Speakers of such languages mingle and may exchange linguistic items, which ultimately interferes with their mother tongues, thereby altering them. They drop some of their linguistic aspects and pick new ones and add them to their inventories. Some languages signify objects that are peculiar to themselves but because of constant interaction with other languages natural transfer occurs as speakers mingle resulting in what Chimhundu (2002) refers to as adoption. This means that change is among other outcomes, a result of borrowing linguistic features from a language into another to fill in communication gaps in the receiving language.