

AFRICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LEXICOGRAPHY

25th International Conference

29-30 June 2021



Virtual conference



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Abstracts

- Hosted by:** AFRILEX via the AFRILEX website
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MESSAGE FROM THE AFRILEX PRESIDENT

On behalf of the Board of the African Association for Lexicography (AFRILEX), it is my honour and privilege to welcome you to the 25th Annual International AFRILEX Conference. A special word of welcome is due to all honorary members of AFRILEX in attendance, and to our keynote speakers, Dr Miloš Jakubíček from Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic, and Prof. Rufus Gouws, one of our esteemed honorary members, from Stellenbosch University. It being our silver jubilee conference, we would have much preferred to meet in person to celebrate this achievement with the appropriate festivities. Instead, we celebrate a new way of coming together to deliberate on our work – a way that will certainly not replace our traditional conferences (at least not in the foreseeable future, for as far as one can see), but one that will undoubtedly continue to add value to scholarly communication beyond our current circumstances.

It would not have been possible for AFRILEX to have this year's conference without the hard work of the AFRILEX Board, on which the following members have served for the past term: Prof. Langa Khumalo (Vice-President), Prof. Elsabé Taljard (Treasurer), Prof. Dion Nkomo (Secretary), Prof. Sonja Bosch, Mr André du Plessis, Dr Phillip Louw, Dr Steve Ndinga-Koumba-Binza and Dr Michele van der Merwe (co-opted as Organiser). I would like to extend a very special word of appreciation to Mr André du Plessis, who, as our webmaster, has put in countless hours of work to set up the infrastructure for our conference. I am confident you will agree that he has acquitted himself brilliantly in this task. Thank you also to Ms Marissa Griesel, our independent technical consultant, for her professional services to make this conference a reality.

As usual, a look at the programme reveals a broad spectrum of interesting topics to be addressed at this conference. Thank you to every local and international paper and session presenter for putting in the time, effort and cost to share your valuable research with us, and for choosing

AFRILEX as forum. I would like to take this opportunity to encourage presenters who have not yet done so to develop their papers into article manuscripts and submit these for peer review to our journal *Lexikos* for possible Gold Open Access publication (Go to: <http://lexikos.journals.ac.za>). Thanks to the hard work of the Editor, Prof. Elsabé Taljard, and the Bureau of the WAT as publisher, *Lexikos* is now also a publish-as-you-go journal.

We are grateful to the abstract reviewers credited on the title page of this booklet for their valued service in academic quality assurance.

For ensuring that AFRILEX remains in a financial position to hold its annual conference and sustain its other activities, we thank our Treasurer, Prof. Elsabé Taljard. Prof. Sonja Bosch and Mr André du Plessis again seamlessly managed the process of abstract reviewing and the editing of this fine booklet, as well as setting up the conference programme – thank you!

Finally, I would like to thank the Board and the Association for trusting me to serve on the Board and as President for the past two terms. I can only hope that they have not regretted their choice.

I wish one and all a successful and stimulating 25th Annual International AFRILEX Conference!

Herman L. Beyer
President: AFRILEX



KEYNOTE PRESENTATION 1

Automating Dictionary Production

Miloš JAKUBÍČEK

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Short biography: Miloš Jakubíček is the CEO of Lexical Computing, a research company working in the area of language technologies, primarily at the intersection of corpus and computational linguistics and computer lexicography. By profession he is an NLP researcher and software engineer. His research interests are devoted mainly to two fields: effective processing of very large text corpora for lexicographic purposes and parsing of morphologically rich languages. Since 2008 he has been involved in the development of Lexical Computing's flagship product, the Sketch Engine corpus management suite. Since 2011 he has been director of the Czech branch of Lexical Computing leading the local development team of Sketch Engine and I became CEO of Lexical Computing in 2014. He is also a fellow of the NLP Centre at Masaryk University, where his interests lie mainly in morphosyntactic analysis and its practical applications.

Abstract:

In the talk I will present recent efforts in automatic dictionary drafting and production. I will briefly summarize some historical aspects of the topic, its relatedness to corpus linguistics and corpus building, state of the art in terms of technology used and outstanding challenges. The main portion of the presentation focuses however on the impact of such a post-editing lexicography on the overall lexicographic workflow and editorial management.

This post-editing workflow will be exemplified on a set of three projects in bilingual lexicography that we recently carried out.

In these projects, we applied the post-editing workflow to create a Lao, Urdu and Tagalog dictionary, with translations into Korean and English, entirely from scratch, each comprising 50,000 entries.

I will detail the workflow used as well as bottlenecks and issues we discovered, and lessons learnt from the project.

KEYNOTE PRESENTATION 2

Lexicographic Deixis

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Short biography: Rufus Gouws is professor in Afrikaans linguistics in the Department of Afrikaans and Dutch at Stellenbosch University where he also coordinates the postgraduate programme in lexicography. His research, teaching and supervision primarily deal with metalexicography – a field in which he has published extensively, among others as co-editor of the comprehensive Dictionaries. An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography. He

complements his theoretical work with practical lexicography and is co-editor of a number of dictionaries, including the leading monolingual Afrikaans dictionary *Handwoordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal* (HAT), the innovative Dutch-Afrikaans dictionary *Prisma groot woordenboek Afrikaans en Nederlands* and the multilingual specialised dictionary *Wörterbuch zur Lexikographie und Wörterbuchforschung/Dictionary of Lexicography and Dictionary Research*. Gouws is editor of the journal *Lexicographica* and the book series *Lexicographica Series Maior*. He represents his university as full member in the consortium of EMLex (European Master in Lexicography). Gouws is member of various scientific associations and was the first president of Afrilex, the African Association for Lexicography, of which he currently is an honorary member. He is the recipient of various grants, rewards and prizes.

Abstract:

In its interaction with linguistics lexicography often employs linguistic terms and concepts. The use of the same term in both fields does not necessarily imply that they share the exact same meaning. In lexicography a term from the field of linguistics might be used in a different way and even acquire a different sense or meaning.

In linguistics the term *deixis* is used to refer to the orientational features of language. Deictic words relate an utterance to the temporal and spatial situation in which it is made. Deictic words anchor a linguistic expression in the extra-linguistic reality. The speaker, the time and the place of utterance can be regarded as the zero point of reference for that utterance – its deictic centre. The inclusion and treatment of lexical items in general language dictionaries reflect the language and culture of a specific speech community. In its macrostructural coverage a dictionary includes lexical items taken from their typical contexts and ordered according to a lexicographic principle. The lexicographic treatment often requires a re-contextualisation of these forms. Depending on their typological category, their function and their genuine purpose general language dictionaries primarily have the standard variety of the treated language, a neutral style and register and the time of compilation as reference point – constituting the lexicographic deictic centre.

All lemmata and sublemmata included in a dictionary and all items presented as part of the lexicographic treatment do not always fall within the scope of the deictic centre. Most items are neutral regarding their style, dialect or chronolect whereas others can be classified as obsolete, colloquial, rude, obscene, vulgar, formal, et cetera. Lexicographers employ different procedures and types of items to identify items that deviate from the realm of the deictic centre and to anchor such an item in the dictionary-external reality. This process is known as lexicographic *deixis*.

In this paper various aspects of procedures of lexicographic *deixis* are discussed. The focus is on the marking of spatial and temporal deictic relations in comprehensive monolingual dictionaries and the treatment of social *deixis* in bilingual dictionaries.

It is shown how lexicographic labels and item symbols are used to mark deviations from the deictic centre. It is then argued that successful spatial and temporal deictic anchoring cannot always be achieved by these items alone. They often must be complemented by other items with which they function in tandem to ensure a deictic anchoring that will equip dictionary users with the necessary knowledge and text reception and text production confidence. To achieve this success the notion of double-layered deictic anchoring is introduced as a procedure to assist lexicographers. Referring to real dictionary data, different forms of this procedure are discussed, and proposals are made to improve the lexicographic practice.

With regard to social lexicographic *deixis* in bilingual dictionaries the importance of a taboo hierarchy is emphasised, and it is shown that both lemmatic and non-lemmatic addressing procedures are needed to achieve the required deictic anchoring. Looking at existing dictionaries suggestions are made for a better treatment of social deictic expressions.

PRESENTATIONS

A Case for a Specialised Ndebele Legal Terms Dictionary

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Building on the arguments of scholars such as Newmark (1998), Hartmann (1989) and Rigual & Calvi (2014) among others, specialised legal terms dictionaries are some of the most important aids for court interpreters. An interpreter who does not consult one when in doubt is arrogant or ignorant or both (Rigual & Calvi, 2014). Currently, in Zimbabwean Ndebele there are no specialised legal terms dictionaries which can be useful aids for court interpreters despite the long history of court interpreting and lexicography as professions and disciplines in Zimbabwe. There is one monolingual general purpose dictionary, *Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele*, one specialised musical terms dictionary, *Isichazamazwi SezoMculo* and one bilingual dictionary, *A Practical Ndebele Dictionary*. The limited number of reference works make clear the gap which must be attended to, especially in the wake of the somewhat enabling language provisions of the *Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (No.20) Act* which champion the right to access to justice in one's preferred language. These provisions have also stimulated advocacy and lobbying activities for the right to an interpreter right from the point of arrest and the need to amend Section 50 of the Constitution in order to guarantee the right to an interpreter during arrest, investigation and detention. Against this background, it is therefore not out of line to argue and lobby for the compilation of a specialised Ndebele legal terms dictionary which will be a useful aid for court interpreters. The user-needs paradigm stresses that the compilation of dictionaries should be inspired and guided by user-needs; however, I argue that in addition to this, it is also important to factor in policy developments as possible guides/reasons for arguing for a particular dictionary project, especially given the symbiotic and dialectic relationship between language policy, lexicography, translation and interpreting.

In cases where dictionary culture is poor, users can be ignorant or arrogant or both in as far as the value of a dictionary is concerned, and yet policy developments in these settings present a compelling reason for investing in a particular dictionary project (Rigual & Calvi, 2014). Consequently, at a theoretical level, in terms of contribution I therefore argue that policy developments are also useful justifications for arguing for specific dictionary types. In this regard, there is therefore a need to re-look the user-needs paradigm and ensure that it factors in the policy dimension in its variables or tenets as another important reason for investing in a particular dictionary type project, especially where dictionary culture is poor. A Critical Discourse Analysis of the provisions of the policy documents regulating language use in the Zimbabwean justice system reveal an urgent need to compile a specialised Ndebele legal terms dictionary for court interpreters, police officers, legal translators, students, legal practitioners, court officials among others. Interviews with Honours and Diploma in Translation and Interpretation Studies students on and from industrial attachment also make clear this dire need for such a reference work. The proposed dictionary will be in Ndebele because Ndebele is one of the major languages of Zimbabwe and is an officially recognised language which is used in courts mainly in the following provinces; Bulawayo, Midlands, Matabeleland South and North. Ndebele is generally considered the lingua franca of the afore-mentioned provinces, and as such there is a large number of potential target users of this proposed dictionary. Moreover, Ndebele already has a sizeable corpus developed by the African Languages Research Institute

and a general purpose monolingual dictionary which constitute a useful starting point for the compilation of other dictionary types and there are readily available experts. The proposed dictionary will employ the mixed approach where the intuitive and corpus based approaches will complement each other. It will be in print form because preliminary research findings of this study show that the current target users seem not yet ready for e-dictionaries due to low dictionary culture. Moreover, the preference for a print dictionary stems from the realisation that there is lack of resources and experts for e-lexicography in the country.

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A Critical Analysis of Cross-Referencing in Electronic Dictionaries

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The aim of the presentation is to analyse the utilisation of cross-reference strategies in French, English and African language dictionaries. The methodology used is a literature study of a number of French, English and African language electronic dictionaries and of prominent sources on cross-referencing.

The principles and practice of cross-referencing strategies used in electronic dictionaries will be briefly outlined in reference to sources such as Gouws and Prinsloo (2005). This will be followed by a critical analysis of cross-referencing in *Le Grand Robert de la langue française* (GRF), the *Macmillan online dictionary* (MED) and *isiZulu.net*.

Connecting different aspects of lexical items found in a dictionary, and doing so coherently and correctly, is the core function of cross-references in dictionaries. The analysis is done from a user-perspective, i.e. to what extent a user will find more information by following up on the cross-references or will be distracted by practices which are detrimental to this core function such as dead references, misleading references, missing references, etc.

Key characteristics such as reference address, reference marker, reference position, and implicit and explicit cross-referencing are applicable for electronic dictionaries. The computer era has enabled lexicographers to utilize a number of what could be called 'true electronic features' according to Gouws & Tarp (2017:391) for the purposes of cross-referencing. These features mostly revolve around hyperlinking and cursor activities rendering pop-up information to perform a cross-reference. Furthermore, the user is not burdened by information overload, i.e., being burdened by the presentation of cross-references which they might not be interested in. Cross-references in electronic dictionaries also support the principle of information on

demand (Prinsloo 2020: 280), i.e., to cater for casual users who only want to know the meaning of a word for decoding purposes.

The focus will be on two mouse activities interconnected with hyperlinking, i.e., mouse-over hovering and mouse-clicking. Consider figure 1, an extract from the article of *table* in MED.

1 a **piece** of furniture that consists of a flat surface held above the floor, pieceally by legs

https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/piece_1

Figure 1: *Piece* as cross-reference position in MED

When hovering over the word ‘piece’ in figure 1, (a) the font colour changes to red, (b) a boxed reference address “piece” appears, (c) the cursor changes to the image of a hand and (d) a link appears at the bottom of the screen indicating the exact location of the reference address.

Consider cross-references in a suggested model entry for *monna* in an English–Sepedi dictionary.

monna *** noun Class 1/2

1. a man *Monna yo o re thušitše go rwala diphahlo tše boima*. This man helped us to carry the heavy parcels.
2. a husband *Monna wa Naledi ke morutiši*. Naledi’s husband is a teacher.

The pop-up cross-reference addresses in this article of *monna* are the following:

1. ***: calls up frequency of use information on a scale of frequently (*), more frequently (**) and **most frequently (***)** used words in Sepedi.
2. **noun**: calls up the anchor table for nouns containing information on all classes and their concords and pronouns.
3. **Class 1/2**: calls up an extract of class 1/2 nouns and their concords and pronouns from the anchor table.
4. **man**: calls up a cross-reference to the full article of *man* in the reverse side of the dictionary.
5. **monna**: calls up a note on range of application, i.e. do not greet a male person as “**dumela monna*”, use *morena* and help to make a sentence, click here: sepedihelper.co.za.
6. **husband**: cross-referenced to the full articles of *man* and *husband* in the reverse side of the dictionary.
7. **yo, o, re, tše** and **wa**: each calls up the anchor table for nouns containing information on all classes and their concords and pronouns.
8. **thušitše** and **rwala**: call up the full anchor table for verbal moods and tenses as well as a link to the Sepedi Helper.
9. **ke**: calls up a decision tree for copulatives.
10. **helped, us, lot, carry, heavy, parcels** and **teacher**: all call up their respective full-articles in the dictionary.

It will be concluded that cross-reference strategies enabled by computational electronic features as implemented in, e.g., the dictionaries studied for English and French, reveal a high level of

sophistication. The user can obtain a wealth of information from multiple cross-reference opportunities.

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An Application of Keiran J. Dunne’s Concept of Defective Terminology to the Analysis of COVID-19 Terminologies in Chichewa

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The COVID-19 pandemic presents a unique global challenge that has affected every country in the world. The global community, is, therefore, expected to respond with unprecedented unity of purpose, with the multiple languages communicating a univocal message to the people. But as Fidura (2007:39) asks, “is it really possible to achieve [this]?” This study attempts to respond to this question by examining how COVID-19 terminologies are being handled during the communication of the pandemic in Chichewa in Malawi.

COVID-19 is a novel disease. A lot of specialised terminologies, including the term ‘COVID-19’ itself, have been created to ease communication. However, since such standardisation occurs at a very high level, and in international languages, communicating such information into terminologically under-resourced languages, like Chichewa, is hard. There is always the risk of diluting the terms’ conceptual content during translation. In such circumstances, citizen compliance to prevention and other measures that are being promoted cannot be guaranteed because compliance emanates directly from the citizens’ understanding of the messages (Seytre, 2020).

With regard to Malawi, technical terminology is hardly handled satisfactorily in Chichewa technical or scientific materials (See Kishindo, 1987; Jiyajiya, 2016; Lwara, 2021) due to a lack of an efficient national terminological infrastructure. The use of defective terminology when communicating COVID-19 concepts in Chichewa is, thus, highly anticipated. According to Dunne (2007), defective terminology is characterised by a trio of attributes - incorrectness, inconsistency, and/or ambiguity.

A total of 40 Chichewa COVID-19 technical terms were purposively harvested from radio adverts, news bulletins, and newspaper articles. Each term underwent a conceptual test using a 5-point scale to ascertain it’s correctness, consistency, and precision. A term was adjudged to be non-defective upon attaining an overall score of 7.5 or more.

Consistency is a process of using standardised terms or always naming the same things the same way (Ratz, 2016). The study found that practitioners utilised many defective terminologies when communicating COVID-19 information. For example, ‘mask’ was multiply translated as *masiki* (a simple naturalisation), *zotchinga pakamwa ndi mphuno* (oral and nasal coverings), *zodzitezera zotchinga pamphuno ndi pakamwa* (protectives covering nose and mouth) and as ‘mask’, which is a case of direct borrowing.

With regard to factual accuracy, the study found a number of terminological defects. For example, in some instances, communicators were unable to distinguish between ‘the virus’ and ‘the disease’. One radio advert used *mulili wa corona* (corona pandemic) in reference to the COVID-19 pandemic and *zizindikiro za corona virus* (symptoms of corona virus). This is erroneous because the virus is neither a disease to be called ‘a pandemic’ nor can it induce some symptoms as claimed by the second example.

Lastly, some terms lacked precise translation, thereby rendering them susceptible to multiple, and mostly wrong, interpretations. In one radio advert, listeners were advised a follows: *dzolani sanitiser* (apply sanitizer). The verb *dzolani* (apply/grease), may be used with ‘body lotions,’ which can be applied to any part of the body. By not specifying the body part on which to apply the sanitizer, the communicator is leaving it open for the listener to choose where to apply it. As we are aware, if applied in some body regions, the face, for example, the results would be a health disaster.

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the communication of COVID-19 information in Chichewa has, in some instances, been compromised by the use of defective terminologies. Although this is predictably emanating from the lack of national terminological infrastructure, modest steps, such as developing simple multilingual glossaries, could have been taken to alleviate the impact of various terminological errors.

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Are OALD and LDOCE Online (Comparably) Useful? A Case of English Articles

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Introduction

Catering for foreign learners' encoding needs is a defining characteristic of monolingual English learners' dictionaries (MLDs, Cowie 1990: 685). Yet, little is known about whether online MLDs help users correct errors in articles and learn article usage. It would also be interesting to see if two major online MLDs, OALD and LDOCE, differ in their usefulness in these respects. Paper versions of CALD3, COBUILD6 and LDOCE5, for example, proved comparably useful in production and reception (Chan 2012). However, the electronic medium may be hoped to have made up for the loss of MLD individuality (Yamada 2009: 97).

Aim

The aim is to investigate the usefulness of online OALD and LDOCE for correcting errors in articles and learning article usage. An attempt is also made to see if the dictionaries affect error correction time. Five research questions are posed:

RQ1. Do online OALD and LDOCE help correct errors in articles? RQ2. Is either dictionary more useful for error correction?

RQ3. Do the dictionaries affect learning the use of articles? RQ4. Is either dictionary a better learning tool?

RQ5. Does the time of dictionary-based error correction depend on the dictionary?

Method

A pre-test, a main test and a post-test were conducted online. They were built around 10 English sentences with errors in articles. In the pre-test, participants corrected the errors without access to any resources, in the main test – with the help of either OALD or LDOCE online, and in the post-test the errors were corrected from memory.

292 learners of English (B1+/B2 in CEFR) took part in the study. 154 of them were assigned to work with OALD in the main test, and the other 138 – with LDOCE. Prior to the experiment, the groups had had comparable experience of using both dictionaries ($\chi^2_{\text{obs}}=0.166$, $df=1$, $p=0.683$).

Results

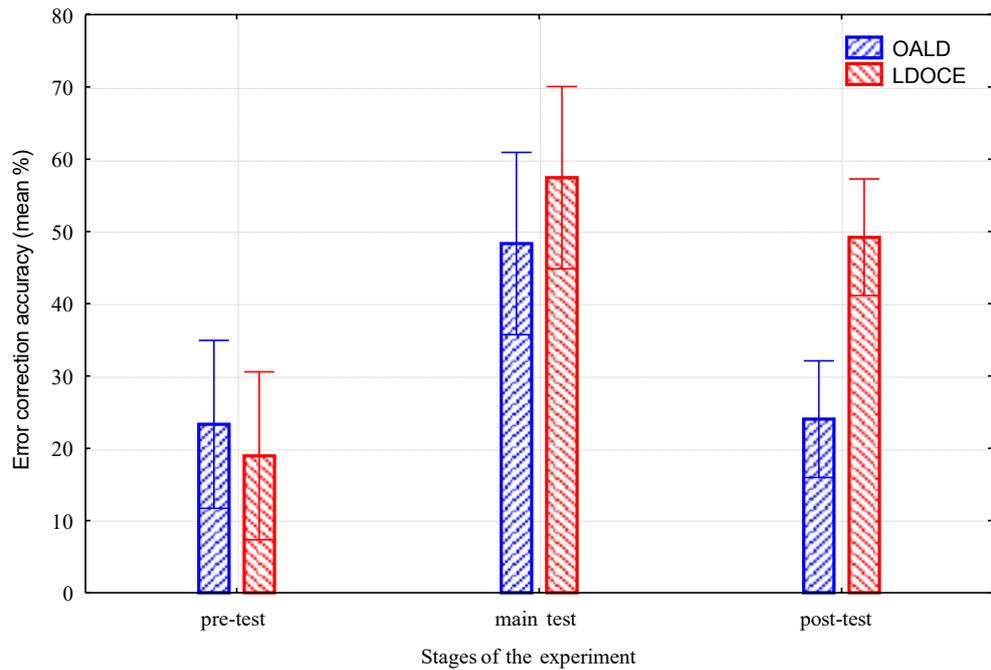
Error correction accuracy

Dictionary was a between-groups factor with two levels (OALD/LDOCE). *Error correction accuracy* results in the pre-test, the main test and the post-test were three dependent variables representing measurements on the same subjects. A 2x3 MANOVA was conducted. The Bonferroni test was computed for significant multivariate test results.

The interaction between *dictionary* and *error correction accuracy* was statistically significant (Wilks' $\Lambda=0.46$, $p=0.00$, multivariate partial $\eta^2=0.324$). The OALD group corrected over twice as many errors with the dictionary (48.32%) as before (23.31%, $p=0.03$) or after consultation (24.03%, $p=0.04$). Yet, OALD did not make the subjects learn article usage (24.03%) in comparison with their initial knowledge (23.31%, $p=1.00$).

On the other hand, over three times as many errors (57.43%) were corrected with the help of LDOCE as at the beginning of the experiment (18.95%, $p=0.00$). The LDOCE group corrected two and a half times as many errors in the post-test (49.19%) as in the pre-test (18.95%, $p=0.00$). The retention rate (49.19%) was as good as the success rate when LDOCE was accessed (57.43%, $p=1.00$).

Figure 1. The accuracy of error correction by dictionary and experimental stage.
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals

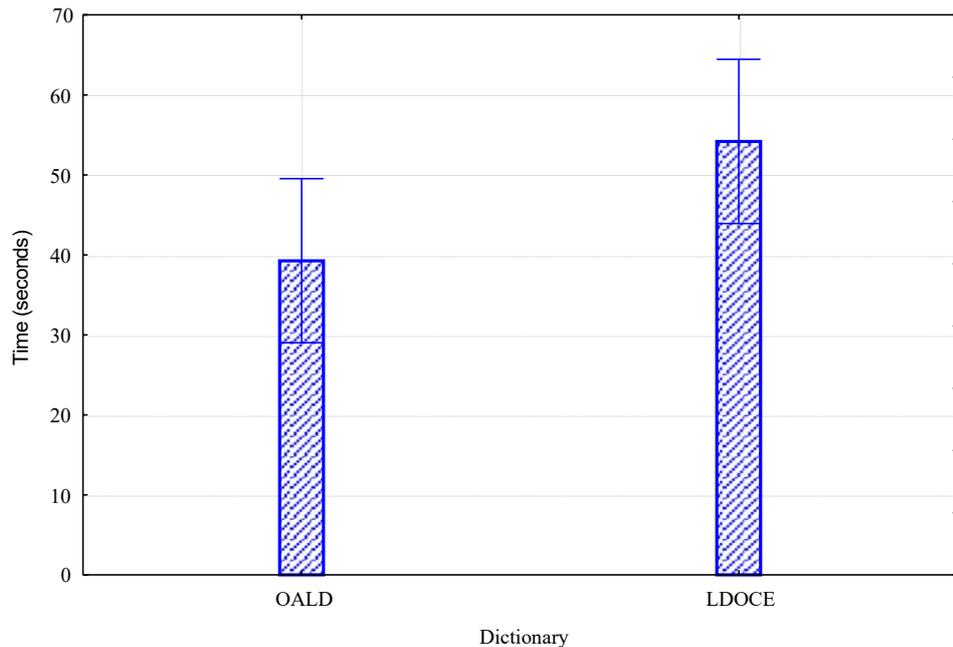


Both groups corrected comparably many errors in the pre-test (OALD: 23.31%, LDOCE: 18.95%, $p > 0.05$) and in the main test (OALD: 48.32%, LDOCE: 57.43%, $p > 0.05$). Yet, LDOCE helped remember over 100% more corrections (49.19%) than OALD (24.02%, $p = 0.03$).

Time

In the main test, the OALD group needed on average 39s to correct a sentence, and the LDOCE group – 54s, which was a statistically significant difference ($F = 4.66$, $p = 0.04$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.205$, one-way ANOVA).

Figure 2. Mean time of error correction in a sentence by dictionary.
Vertical bars denote 0.95 confidence intervals



Conclusions

OALD and LDOCE helped to correct errors in articles (RQ1) in comparison with the pre-test. Error correction assisted by both dictionaries was comparably successful (RQ2). Yet, OALD did not stimulate learning article usage, but LDOCE did (RQ3). In fact, LDOCE proved to be a significantly better learning tool (RQ4). However, LDOCE-based error correction took significantly longer (RQ5).

Limitations and implications of the study are discussed in the full paper. Specific OALD and LDOCE design features, the Involvement Load Hypothesis (Hulstijn & Laufer 2001) and the Cognitive Load Theory (Sweller 1994) are considered to explain the results.

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Development of a Digital Dictionary for N!uu

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The #Khomani are an indigenous community of the southern Kalahari, found predominantly in the Northern Cape, South Africa, but also in the southern regions of Namibia and Botswana (Crawhall, 2001). Today they are the speakers of the last living South African !Ui-Taa language, N!uu (Sands et al. 2007). Currently, N!uu has only two, elderly, living speakers remaining (Jones, 2019). In an attempt to document and preserve the language and to freely share this information, we aim to develop a dictionary featuring the N!uu language.

The data that forms the basis of this dictionary stems from a project that started about 20 years ago. At that time, 26 fluent speakers of N!uu were identified, who were asked to provide information about their mother tongue. As a result, recordings of over 1,500 lexical items were collected as well as their accompanying translations in Afrikaans, Khoekhoegowab and

English. For the Nluu entries, IPA transcriptions were created based on the audio recordings of multiple speakers. Furthermore, a wide range of audio recordings by Nluu speakers is available. Of these, 1,561 audio files are labeled and referenced as “Dictionary Recording”. They contain one sample recording per lexical entry. Another 4,860 audio files are labeled and referenced as “Recordings” in which the lexical entries are used in context (in the form of a sentence). Finally, approximately 20,000 additional audio files are present in various categories, e.g., diphthong recordings, primer recordings, and targeted lists.

Within the “Digital Dictionary Resources for Nluu” project, we will develop two main resources: a physical dictionary as well as a digital dictionary that can be accessed online (through a dictionary portal) as well as on mobile phones (in the form of a mobile app). For this to happen, several steps are essential. Firstly, the existing dataset will need to be cleaned up, making sure that transcriptions are consistent and uniform, and translations are appropriate. Also, descriptive metadata, which describes the dictionary itself (e.g., title, authors, unique identifier); structural metadata, which denotes how the information is represented within the electronic files; administrative metadata, which provides information on file types, access rights, etc., should be properly assigned. Secondly, the clean dataset will be made available in a repository, making sure it adheres to FAIR principles (Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, and Reusable) (Wilkinson et al., 2016). Finally, the content of the dataset will be converted to a format that allows for the incorporation in a database that forms the backend of both a dictionary app (usable on mobile phones) and a dictionary portal (usable using a web browser).

Several specific challenges, mostly related to the accessibility and user-friendliness of the mobile dictionary app and dictionary portal, are currently being worked on. For instance, we need to facilitate users to properly search for lexical items that include symbols that represent the click sounds, as typical (mobile phone) keyboards do not provide these symbols. Given these difficulties in textual input, the electronic dictionary should be able to create a list of suggestions for lexical items when click symbols are either missing or incorrect in the search query. Additional browse options will also need to be developed, for instance allowing to identify semantically related words, so people can browse through the dictionary, not only alphabetically, but based on words with similar meaning. On a more practical note, we would like to know how we can make audio recordings available through the mobile app while keeping the data usage to a minimum.

Finally, the project plans to provide an educational component. The limited-edition print versions of the physical dictionaries will be made available for elderly community members and those without computer and internet access. Additionally, several demonstration workshops are planned, illustrating the use of the mobile dictionary app, with a priority to mother tongue speakers of Nluu or Khoekhoe varieties and their descendants in both the Northern and Western Cape. With this educational component, we hope to bridge the information gap between academics, speakers of endangered languages, and the South African public, which hopefully creates a better environment for understanding of our historical and contemporary context.

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Dictionary Characteristics, Functionality and Usability: An Analysis of Two Minority Language Dictionaries of Gabon

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The current paper focuses on dictionaries that have been produced in the Gabonese minority languages in the course of Gabon's modern era of dictionary production. A minority language in the particular context of Gabon is a language used within a single town and in less than five villages in the country. To date only two dictionaries have been produced in Gabonese minority languages: the *Gedandedi sa Geviya/Dictionnaire Geviya-français* by Van der Veen & Bodinga-bwa-Bodinga (2002) and the *Lexique Pove-Français Français-Pove* by Mickala Manfoumbi (2004). These two dictionaries are also the first two dictionaries produced in Gabon's modern era of dictionary production. In addition, Geviya and Pove are cognate languages within the Tsogo-Kande language group in the B zone of Bantu languages. Both dictionaries also have in common the fact that "*dictionary production took place outside a general framework or strategic planning*" (Ndinga-Koumba-Binza 2005: 138) and that the compilers have no formal lexicography training.

The studied dictionaries have previously been the subject of successive review studies (Mavoungou 2004 & 2005, and Ndinga-Koumba-Binza 2006), which paid little attention to the dictionary usability and functionality. The use assessment of these dictionaries comes within the user perspective, a trend in modern lexicography, which places the dictionary user as the central figure of dictionary compilation. The central question of this paper is outlined as follows: how do dictionary characteristics and quality determine dictionary functionality and usability? This question is significant in the situation where target users were not thoroughly pre-determined in the process of the dictionary compilation apart from the existing or non-existing indications in the pre-texts of the dictionaries. This is the case with the two dictionaries currently observed in this paper.

In fact, nowadays dictionaries are compiled according to the needs of the intended users. Thus, target users determine the purpose of a dictionary, the features, and the material presented in it. This paper is bound to seek these characteristics in the studied dictionaries through the user perspective, the approach in dictionary production that binds the dictionary compiler to identify not only the target users of the planned dictionary, but also the needs of those target users.

Four subsequent questions constitute the scope of the present paper:

- (i) What are the major features linked to user identification and targeting?
- (ii) What are the prospects that may deem a dictionary as acceptable in the linguistic community?
- (iii) Do dictionary features allow it to respond to specific needs in the linguistic community?

(iv) For which purpose and in which context can these dictionaries be used?

The paper has three main sections. Section 1 deals with a detailed examination of the features of each dictionary. This section intends to highlight the major characteristics that the user approach would require from a well-planned dictionary. The examination mainly focuses on both macro- and microstructural features. The methodology used for this evaluation is that of dictionary review as outlined by Bergenholtz & Gouws (2015 & 2016).

Section 2 is an assessment of the user-friendliness of each dictionary through their general features. The main aim of this assessment is the determination of the functionality of the dictionaries and usability. Thus, the methodology adopted for this assessment is the evaluation approach of the functional quality of dictionaries outlined in Swanepoel (2001 & 2008). Section 3 deals with usability determination. It discusses the assessment findings and highlights the usability prospects for both studied dictionaries. This paper contributes to the strategic planning of Gabonese lexicography, which considers, as one of its important phases, the metalexigraphic assessment of major non-theoretically-compiled Gabonese dictionaries.

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Embracing the New to Stay Faithful to the Old: Using Smart Lexicography to Enable Preservation of !Xam in its Archival Form, While Reflecting Modern Analysis of its Phoneme Inventory

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Any modern lexicographer of !Xam (!Ui sub-group of Southern Khoisan, or Tuu) faces the dilemma that the phoneme inventory was never definitively established while the language was still extant. The concept of the phoneme did not exist in the nineteenth century, and the manuscript notebooks of Wilhelm Bleek and Lucy Lloyd¹ reflect not only initial experiments with notation but an abundance of phonetically narrow diacritic markings, while numerous variant spellings are found for the same word. It is impossible to embark on making a dictionary for the language without first working out a linguistically accurate inventory – yet the

¹ Bleek and Lloyd's manuscript notebooks are available at: <http://lloydbleekcollection.cs.uct.ac.za/>

lexicographer is also bound by a requirement for historical faithfulness, since !Xam is an archive language that now exists only in the forms in which Bleek and Lloyd rendered it.

It is argued that smart lexicography offers a solution, insofar as lemma signs can be presented in semi-standardised ('regularised') forms that mesh with our modern understanding of Khoisan phonetics and phonology and permit an organised ordering of entries – while the indeterminate status of certain symbols can be preserved, and variant spellings accommodated.

The method used to establish the phoneme inventory has involved a combination of 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' approaches, with attention given firstly to:

- Bleek's notes, correspondence and published writings; Lloyd's notes; and the finalised symbols used in the published texts (Bleek and Lloyd 1911);
- the phonetic analysis contributed by Dorothea Bleek (1923);
- phonetic analyses of related !Ui languages such as #Khomani (Doke 1937) and Nlhuki (Westphal c.1960-1970).

Advantage has been taken, secondly, of:

- modern advances in our theoretical understanding of Khoisan phonetics and phonology, with particular reference to Traill (1995) and Güldemann (2004, 2013), plus recent work on Nluu (Miller et al. 2009).

Among the provisional findings, it has been determined that, of the numerous diacritics employed by Bleek and Lloyd, most are redundant, since properties such as vowel length, reduction and openness are predictable from the phonetic environment. Indeed, only vowel nasalisation and pharyngealisation turn out to be phonemic. Bleek and Lloyd also marked tones with grave and acute accents, but inconsistently.

For variant spellings in the case of vowels, these typically reflect anticipatory assimilations. As for clicks, it appears that !Xam had at least the seven types of releases found in Kora, for all clicks except the bilabial – while a few others appear likely. The provisional set of !Xam click phonemes is shown in Table 1. The Table shows that while some transcriptional variants reflect a single phoneme, in other cases, a single convention probably encompassed more than one phoneme. Lastly, some of Lloyd's conventions remain indeterminate, with comparison of cognate lexical items in !Xam and Nluu having so far uncovered only a limited number of regular correlations.²

With these provisional findings taken into account, a draft dictionary has been prepared using the TLex Lexicography Software, where all 2,862 entries include a standardised lemma sign and a sub-field listing transcriptional variants. Where available, cognate items from other !Ui languages are also provided. In the electronic version, a letter-picker menu will enable users to enter any word encountered in the manuscripts, while the search algorithm will be sufficiently fuzzy to return 'close-enough' matches, with links to the standardised forms.

² Access to the unpublished lexical database for Nluu was kindly provided by Bonny Sands.

Click with simultaneous release of both closures		
	<i>MS conventions</i>	<i>Phonetic approximation</i>
1. Plain	!, !k ⁱ	[!]
2. Voiced	!g	[g!] (Alternates cross-!Ui with [!]) ⁱⁱ
3. Aspirated > Fricated	!k, !h, !kh, !x	[!h > !x] ⁱⁱⁱ
4. Nasalised	!n	[n!]
5. Prenasalised Aspirated	!h	[n! ^o h] (Can alternate cross-!Ui with [n!])
6. Prenasalised Ejected	!	[n! ^o] (Can alternate cross-!Ui with [n!])
Click with audible release of uvular closure		
	<i>MS conventions</i>	<i>Phonetic approximation</i>
7. Plain Uvular	!k	[!q] ^{iv}
8. Voiced Uvular (?)	!k ^v	[!g ^h > !γ]
9. Aspirated > Fricated Uvular	!x	[!q ^h > !γ] (Nos 8 and 9 tending to merge?)
10. Ejected > Fric. Ejected Uvular	!k', !γ ^{vi}	[!q' > !q'γ]
11. Nasalised (Voiced) Uvular	g!n ^{vii}	[n!g] (Alternates cross-!Ui with [n!n])
<i>Notes</i>		
i. Dorothea Bleek (1923) insisted on the occurrence of a click with audible velar release. (See no. 7)		
ii. Probably 'short-lag' onset of voicing. Identified in N uu, but status in Xam unclear. (See no. 11)		
iii. Both Lloyd (1911) and Dorothea Bleek insisted on a contrast between !kh and !x. (See no. 9)		
iv. Identified in N uu, but status in Xam unclear.		
v. Whereas Wilhelm Bleek used the Arabic <i>ain</i> and Hebrew <i>ayin</i> interchangeably for the fricated uvular ejective, Lloyd maintained that a phonetic distinction was involved. The phonetic form is a suggestion only.		
vi. Dorothea Bleek considered Lloyd's !k' identical with her !γ and also !k. In the 'regularisation' adopted for purposes of the dictionary, all three are represented by !k', but variant spellings are noted.		
vii. This appears to have been the more usual form of voiced clicks in Xam.		

Table 1. Proposed inventory of phonemic click types in |Xam, using ! as example, and showing some of the variable conventions found in the Bleek and Lloyd manuscripts.

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From Concept to Design: An Electronic School Dictionary

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In South Africa, less than 10% of the population has English as a first language, but from Grade 4, English is used as the language of learning and teaching in over 80% of schools (New language changes planned for South African Schools, 2020:1). This means that the vast majority of learners in South Africa are being taught in a language that is not their mother tongue. Their textbooks and other resources are in English and they are assessed and expected to achieve in English exams. But these learners are often not equipped to achieve because their fluency in English is not at first-language level. The “need to become fluent in a second language is essential for gaining meaningful access to education, the labour market and broader social functioning” (Taylor & Coetzee, 2013:2). As a result, these learners are disadvantaged if they are unable to become fluent in English.

As dictionaries are tools that are used in the classroom to support language production and reception in one’s home language or additional language, it was felt that a dictionary would be a good place to start with a solution to this problem, if an innovative dictionary could be designed to meet the needs of these learners.

The objective of this study was to develop the design for a model for an electronic school dictionary that would contain cross-references, simple definitions and illustrations that would best support learners who are not being taught in their home language. The design would also need to be appealing to learners and encourage the use of the dictionary in order to become familiar with it, and thus take advantage of the features.

The process began with a comprehensive study of the prevailing literature and interviews with primary school teachers who teach English to second-language learners. Grades 5 and 6 teachers from two schools in the Western Cape were interviewed. The majority of learners at these two schools have Afrikaans or Xhosa as a home language. The literature and the teacher interviews determined current lexicographic best practice and the needs of learners. Establishing the needs of the user is a fundamental first step in the design of any dictionary, and it was felt that the teachers were in the best position to have insight in the needs of the primary users: the learners. Teachers are the secondary users of a school dictionary and thus the teacher interviews could give insight into their needs as well.

This was followed by a process of analysing and comparing entries from online dictionaries as well as printed school dictionaries. This analysis gave a good indication of what data dictionary publishers present and how it is displayed.

Based on these processes, an initial design of seven dictionary articles was developed. These articles were then taken to schools, along with a questionnaire, and tested on learners in Grades 5 and 6. The articles were also shown to experts who specialise in different areas of lexicography. The areas represented by the experts are electronic lexicography, pedagogical lexicography, lexicography for southern Africa, and lexicographic design.

Based on the learner tests and the expert consultations, a final design was developed. This design fulfils the objective of making the design of an electronic school dictionary that would be able to support learners who are not being taught in their home language. Definitions are simple and accessible, learners have access to many example sentences, senses are clearly distinct and unambiguous, there are illustrations at every sense, and there are signposts directing learners to the homonym they need. There is a translation equivalent in the user’s home language at each sense so that the learner can confirm the meaning understood by the definition.

Other features include a word bank at each sense, cross-references to related words, synonyms, opposites, and word usage notes which help learners to avoid common mistakes in

their use of English. There is an option for audio to hear the pronunciation of the word as well as the definition(s) and the example sentences.

It is believed that a dictionary with this design would make a noticeable and positive difference to primary school learners who are not learning in their home language. The model is also designed to be adapted for other grades.

While this paper focuses on the design of the entries of an electronic school dictionary, it is worth briefly discussing the ultimate goal of such a dictionary. One would need to take into consideration that the learners who need this kind of dictionary most are likely to be users who have little access to computers, the internet, and electricity. The idea is that this would not be an online dictionary, but rather an electronic dictionary that could be accessed on a device that would not need access to the internet.

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How Great is Thy Dictionary: Cultural Articles in *The Greater Dictionary of (isi)Xhosa*

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The Greater Dictionary of (isi)Xhosa, henceforth the GDX, is a three-volume trilingual dictionary with isiXhosa as the target language of lexicographic treatment while Afrikaans and English comments, including translation equivalents are provided. Volume 3, edited by H. W. Pahl *et al.*, was the first to be published in 1989 covering Q-Z letters. It was followed by Volume 2 (letters K-P) in 2003 under the editorship of B. M. Mini *et al.* and the Volume 1 (letters A-J) edited by S. L. Tshabe and F. Shoba in 2006. In total, these volumes amount to over 3 000 A4 pages of dense text. In terms of stature, it is arguably the greatest isiXhosa, or even African language dictionary yet to be published.

Apart from the cultural terms that are included and explained in its macrostructure, the GDX contains rich extra-linguistic data especially in the back matter texts referred to as anthropological articles. For example, Vol. 3 of the dictionary contains thirty-one comprehensive anthropological articles. The articles are presented in all the three languages. Some topics covered in those articles or essays include *tikoloshe*, *circumcision*, *ukuthwala*, *isihlonipho*, *the sacrifice of the cleansing of a home*, *the brewing of traditional beer*, *female puberty rites*, etc. However, some of these topics, for example, *ukuthwala*, *isihlonipho*, *circumcision (ulwaluko)* and *female puberty rites* are highly contentious in modern times.

Across the three volumes, the anthropological texts of the GDX amount to sixty-six pages, which demonstrates the encyclopaedic nature of the GDX in this respect. However,

these texts have not received scholarly appraisal from any disciplinary perspective. It is yet to be established whether dictionary users have put the texts to optimal use, given the general linguistic bias through which manifests itself in many users focusing on the macrostructure of dictionaries (Gouws 2004; Chabata and Nkomo 2010). Furthermore, the validity of the data contained in the texts years after the publication of the dictionary needs to be tested.

Accordingly, this paper interrogates how great this 'greater' dictionary is in terms of its provision and presentation of cultural data. This appraisal is timely as the isiXhosa National Lexicography Unit is engaged in the digitization of the GDX. Thus, this paper seeks to make recommendations regarding some of the cultural data texts. Firstly, the type, amount and presentation of cultural data included in the GDX is examined. Secondly, the users' general awareness and prior consultation of the GDX anthropological essays is investigated. Lastly, the paper proceeds to examine the authoritativeness and currency of the GDX anthropological essays considering new perspectives of looking at culture across languages (given that cultural concepts are translated from isiXhosa to Afrikaans and English) and also across time (given that the dictionary project started in 1968 and Vol. 3 was published thirty years ago). In other words, the presentation seeks to interrogate the extent to which the dictionary continues to express the world sense of amaXhosa from the time of first publication going into the future.

In order to test the users' familiarity with the GDX anthropological essays and authoritativeness of these essays, an online workshop with a focus-group consisting of amaXhosa cultural scholars and activists was organised. The focus-group members were requested to read selected articles and indicate any issues they considered problematic for discussion at the workshop. The researchers prepared for the workshop by also identifying such issues based on their cultural experiences and information gathered through books, newspapers and other media platforms.

While this study recommends the efforts of the GDX editors for their creativity in the inclusion and treatment of cultural data beyond the inclusion of cultural terms in the dictionary macrostructure, it highlights the general lack of awareness of this type of data among amaXhosa cultural activists. Connected to this, some of the activists have never used the GDX. Observations from the focus-group discussion also indicate that the GDX has the potential to court controversy with respect to the representation of cultural practices of amaXhosa, in particular *ulwaluko*, female circumcision, *isihlonipho* and *ukukhapha*, among others. Generalizations that seem to project cultural homogeneity among amaXhosa, the gendering of certain practices and the obsolescence of certain cultural views were identified as the main problems. While the inclusion of cultural data in the GDX remains one of its great lexicographic procedures, it is recommended that these articles are revised based on up-to-date research that is mindful and sensitive to cultural stereotypes, especially with respect to women and children, and also with respect to internal cultural diversity among amaXhosa.

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***Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele* at Twenty: Reflections on its Role and the Future of Zimbabwean Lexicography**

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It is twenty years since the publication of *Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele*, henceforth the ISN. Its publication in 2001 was historic for isiNdebele of Zimbabwe as the first monolingual general-purpose dictionary. Hitherto, the only dictionary of note in the language was Rev. J.N. Pelling's *A Practical Ndebele Dictionary* published in 1971, apart from which existed a few other less illustrious works produced for the use of settler missionaries, prospectors, farmers and colonial administrators. These earlier works were compiled mainly for non-mother-tongue target users. For them, the development of the language for use in high function domains was not a primary goal. However, the ISN is clearly linked with the intellectualisation of African languages (Kaschula and Nkomo 2019). In terms of context, intent and anticipated impact, parallels could be drawn between the ISN and the first monolingual dictionaries in the world's more developed languages such as English, French and Italian (Nkomo 2018).

As the first monolingual dictionary in the language, the ISN addressed several issues related to the standardisation of the language at the level of orthography, vocabulary and terminology (Hadebe 2002). Having grappled with those issues, the ISN therefore emerged as an authoritative reference that could be used for guidance, especially for written language use in formal settings. It was expected that textbooks, literature and other types of texts could be produced with less challenges in this language as it cemented its position as a major indigenous language in the country.

However, upon its publication, one immediate challenge that confronted the ISN was a poor, if not a non-existent dictionary culture. The generality of isiNdebele speakers, language mediators and isiNdebele students at all levels of education had never seen a dictionary that they could use in exclusively monolingual situations involving isiNdebele. A number of studies confirmed that a general myth that prevails in African speech communities, that dictionary assistance is not required in one's mother tongue, also exists among isiNdebele speakers (Nkomo 2020; Taljard, Prinsloo & Fricke 2011). Without dedicated dictionary pedagogy in schools, teachers' colleges and universities, the dictionary faced a risk of having a limited functional impact of addressing the lexicographic needs of the target users and developing a dictionary culture.

One major development after the publication of the ISN was the affirmation of isiNdebele as one of the sixteen officially-recognised languages in the 2013 Constitution. While this is in no way attributable to the dictionary, the expanded functional space of the language requires the production of more texts in this language. Government and the private sectors now find it necessary to include isiNdebele in their public notices, making the language more visible than before. However, this visibility has been characterised by orthographic violations that are typical of a language in its pre-standardisation stage. While the competences of the text producers are questionable, the quality of texts, including school textbooks, translations and interpretation, would be much better with dictionary use.

Using a multi-method approach to data collection, this presentation examines the role of the ISN in the formal use of isiNdebele in key domains such as education, the media, publishing industry and the parliament. It also examines the development of a dictionary culture among isiNdebele speakers. IsiNdebele curriculum documents for schools, teachers'

colleges and universities were studied to examine the space of the dictionary in the study of isiNdebele. Two short questionnaire surveys were conducted: (1) a more general questionnaire targeting isiNdebele book publishers, media producers, court and parliamentary interpreters, isiNdebele academics and school curriculum developers; and (2) another questionnaire for lecturers at teachers' colleges specifically dealing with the ISN and dictionary pedagogy for isiNdebele pre-service teachers. These methods were complemented by observations of dictionary use patterns among the said participants and sells records of ISN. The findings of this study show that apart from having a central place in the lexicography, translation and interpreting curricula of universities as part of bachelor's degrees, the ISN continues to be peripheral from the professional and educational activities of isiNdebele speakers in their formal use of the language. Thus, the prospects of developing a dictionary culture in the isiNdebele speech community remain bleak twenty years after the publication of the ISN. In the context of the recent closure of the African Languages Research Institute, which produced the ISN and other dictionaries in ChiShona, this spells an uncertain future for isiNdebele lexicography and Zimbabwean lexicography in general.

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Lexicographic Perspectives for the Revitalization of Endangered Languages of Gabon

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With a population size of 1.8 million, Gabon is remarkably one of the most diverse nations in terms of spoken languages. A distinction is made between native languages and foreign languages in the Gabonese language landscape (Ndinga-Koumba-Binza 2007). In terms of native languages, most language inventories mention between 40 and 62 varieties of languages (Simons & Fennig 2017, Kwenzi Mikala 1998). These figures show that Gabon has a very high language density for such a small population size. In addition, none of these languages has more than 500 000 native speakers.

The limited number of speakers, coupled with an inexistent national language policy and the lack of viable processes for native language promotion and sustainability, puts the Bantu languages of Gabon in an endangered status. A number of these languages are actually near extinction (Idiata 2009). Despite a very long tradition of linguistic research, the extinction trend of Gabonese languages seems irreversible. In fact, in the absence of language planning at the government level, linguistic research outcomes have failed to provide tools that may empower the people in the use of their native languages or that may enhance a process of revitalization of near-extinct languages.

Meanwhile, Gabon has been experiencing a reawakening of dictionary production and the emergence of lexicographic research activities since the beginning of the 21st century. Since 2002, more and more dictionaries are produced. Metalexicographical research activities include a fast-growing publication trend and the hosting of conferences and colloquia. In 2019, the Gabonese lexicography community welcomed the integration of a new PhD graduate; the first lexicographer fully and exclusively trained in Gabon at Omar Bongo University. This is the modern era of Gabonese dictionary production as opposed to the early era, which contains the lexicographic works inherited from colonial administrators and religious missionaries of Gabon's pre-independence period.

However, important questions remain for lexicographic research and dictionary production in Gabon. First, how can Gabonese lexicography avoid the shortcomings of Gabonese linguistic research that has had no impact on language revitalization and development despite a very productive and valuable research outputs delivery? Second, what processes should Gabonese lexicographic research implement in view of enhancing language revitalization realistically and rapidly? The present study focuses on the latter question within the qualitative methodological approach, "*in which new insights are obtained from critical hermeneutical work, i.e. by the process of comprehension and interpretation*" (Schierholtz 2015: 326).

The prime goal of this paper is twofold. First, it intends to review the contribution of lexicographic research and dictionary production in enhancing language revitalization in Gabon. This paper is structured into three main sections. In section 1, the paper will assess the impact of lexicographic activities on language promotion and African language literacy in Gabon for the past two decades. Although lexicography is still an emerging research discipline in Gabon, it has produced a crop of literature and reference products that are being used for igniting language revitalization through language teaching, language re-appropriation, dictionary culture, and a sense of native language pride.

In section 2, the paper provides an assessment of the strategic planning for Gabonese lexicography whose inception was primarily aimed at developing Gabonese languages. The findings of this assessment help to determine reliable perspectives that may set Gabonese lexicography for different new foci in terms of research development, strategic research planning, organisational planning as well as training. These perspectives are outlined in section 3.

Finally, the results of this study contribute to the current prospects of defining a multidisciplinary as well as a transdisciplinary approach – which sees lexicography as one of the key research disciplines – towards developing the endangered languages of Gabon. The study is also a plea towards the determination of lexicographic principles and practices at a national level.

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Lexicographical Treatment of -ic/-ical Adjectives: Critical Comments and Suggestions for Improvement

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One of the challenges that non-native speakers are facing when writing in English is the use of the suffixes *-ic* and *-ical* in connection with a relatively big number of adjectives. L2 learners sometimes have doubts about the form they should use in a concrete context. Other times they are simply not aware that they have a problem. This holds true even for learners at an advanced proficiency level, among them those who aspire to practice academic writing. Examples of *-ic/-ical* adjective pairs that may create problems for non-native speakers are *academic-academical*, *classic-classical*, *economic-economical*, *historic-historical*, and *technologic-technological*. When L2 learners consult some of the many web-based language fora, they may get recommendations for *specific* pairs of *-ic/-ical* adjectives, for instance, that they should avoid *specifical*. But they are also told that there is no general rule to guide them. In case of doubt, they are referred to dictionaries for more information. But do these reference tools actually provide the required assistance? And how can this assistance be improved?

The paper will initially analyze and classify adjectives ending in *-ic* and *-ical* and try to detect some trends that may be relevant for learners at different levels. It will then look at the assistance they can get in traditional dictionaries as well as some of the new digital writing assistants which, in one way or another, are connected with lexicographical databases. Finally, it will come up with some suggestions for improvement.

The derivational suffixes *-ic* and *-ical* are highly productive in the English language and have been widely treated in the academic literature; see, e.g. Gries (2003), Kaunisto (2007), Ma and Tarp (2020), Xu (2010), and Zhang (1999). A Google search presented by (Aronoff/Lindsay 2014) “yielded 11,966 unique stems that take *-ic*, *-ical*, or both suffixes”. Of these, 10,613 favored the *-ic* form and 1,353 the *-ical* form. This is a considerable number of words. Some *-ic/-ical* adjectives are among the most frequent English words. The *Longman Communication 3000* lists 29 *-ic* and *-ical* adjectives among the 3000 most frequent words in both spoken and written English. This suggests that around one percent of the most frequent English words are adjectives ending in the derivational suffixes *-ic* or *-ical*. This fact alone justifies special attention to the challenge.

Each of these adjective pairs is a potential source of doubts and mistakes when non-native speakers intend to write English texts. In some cases, the two variants may have different meanings or frequencies, and in other cases, one of them may be the preferred one in specific collocations and terms. In this respect, it does not matter whether one of the two variants is almost non-existing or only has a very low frequency in comparison to its counterpart. How should the learners know? They need some kind of guidance.

The paper will then analyze five of the most prestigious English online dictionaries and briefly describe how they treat the *-ic* and *-ical* adjectives. The analysis will show a great variation of approaches with both problematic and very convincing solutions going hand in hand.

The paper will continue with a brief test of four very different writing assistants. As was the case with the dictionaries, the test will show a great variation of performances and solutions, but with none of the tools providing a consistent assistance to their user. Finally, the paper presents a proposal for a multidimensional lexicographical treatment of *-ic/-ical* adjectives that can be incorporated into a digital writing assistant. The proposal establishes new requirements to lexicographical databases and includes various types of user assistance, even to writers who are not aware of any problem, thus making it particularly relevant to non-native learners of English.

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Reference Skills or Human-Centered Design: Towards a New Lexicographical Culture

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This paper is based on an article written by Tarp and Gouws (2020). It deals with the design of digital lexicographical products. The paper will contrast the traditional claim for users' *reference skills* with the philosophy of *human-centered design*, as explained in the work of the American engineer and cognitive scientist Don Norman (2013).

The notion of *reference skills* should be seen from a historical perspective. Hausmann (1989) observes that the history of lexicography shows a strained relationship between the discipline and society. According to him, the terms *dictionary culture* and *user-friendliness* are used to describe this friction. User-friendliness implies that lexicography adapts to society whereas dictionary culture means that society adapts to lexicography. User-friendliness prevails when dictionaries are made from which the intended target users can retrieve the kind of lexicographical information they require. By contrast, a dictionary culture prevails when lexicographers know the target users have acquired the necessary reference skills to successfully consult their dictionaries.

The conflict described by Hausmann implies a complementary relation where users have to complement the efforts of the lexicographers to ensure successful dictionary usage. The lexicographers make the dictionaries, and the users have the responsibility to enable themselves to find and retrieve the required information from the condensed and often strongly codified items. From this perspective, the successful use of traditional dictionaries often relied on the envisaged target user group's presumed *reference skills*. Especially in printed dictionaries with their space restrictions, lexicographers used condensed entries, abbreviations, and different types of structural indicators to save space. This often was to the detriment of the users who struggled to retrieve the required information from the data on offer.

The digital environment has created new opportunities for lexicographers to assist their users in a far better way. The digital techniques, when fully and intelligently applied, make allowance for intuitive use (Rundell 2015) and contextualized data presentation (Tarp and Gouws 2019) while, at the same time, avoiding information overload (Gouws and Tarp 2017). Using principles of human-centered design as outlined by Norman (2013), the paper will discuss the application of some of these approaches in existing digital lexicographical products. It will explain central design concepts like *affordances*, *signifiers*, *feedback*, and other forms of *good communication* from lexicographer to user. The paper will illustrate these concepts with examples taken not only from "traditional" online dictionaries, but also from integrated e-reading dictionaries as well as lexicography-assisted writing assistants and learning apps (see Bothma and Prinsloo 2013, Tarp et al. 2017, Bothma and Gouws 2020, Huang and Tarp 2021).

Where the original concept of a *dictionary culture* was primarily based on the reference skills of the user, the paper will suggest a *new lexicographical culture* that adheres to human-centered design principles. In this culture, it is the lexicographers' sole responsibility that their products can be used successfully by the target group. No special reference skills should be required. All this implies that the lexicographical products can be used intuitively by their users. In this respect, the concept of *intuitive use* is considered to be even more advanced than that of traditional *user-friendliness*.

It goes without saying that the new lexicographical culture places more responsibility on the shoulders of lexicographers in terms of needs detection as well as data preparation and presentation. As recommended by Norman (2013), lexicographers should refine their observational skills to detect real user needs as well as user behavior, as users themselves may not be aware of their needs.

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Selection and Treatment of Negative Morphemes in Sepedi Dictionaries

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The lexicographic treatment of negation in a major international language such as English is relatively non-problematic and does not require lemmatisation of a complex variety of negation words and strategies — English dictionaries mainly focus on different senses and usage in their treatment in respect of negation of the word *not*.

Bosch and Faaß (2018) and Prinsloo and Gouws (1996), however, emphasize the importance of lexicographic treatment of negation which is a complicated issue in African languages. They suggest a number of best practices for the lexicographer. Unlike English, Sepedi does not have a generic single word for *not* — a variety of negation morphemes such as *ga*, *sa*, *ga se*, *se*, and *ka se* are used. These different morphemes are not interchangeable and the user needs to be guided to correct usage. Lexicographers should realise that full comprehension of this complicated negation system is a prerequisite to abstraction of the essential negation strategies as input to lemmatisation and lexicographic treatment in paper and electronic dictionaries for Sepedi. The discussion of negation is often presented in a haphazard way in Sepedi grammars, and Sepedi dictionaries selectively treat negative morphemes in an uncoordinated way, often barely suitable for text reception purposes.

In this paper an overview of negation in Sepedi is given, enabling an example driven extraction of the negation rules and morphemes that should be treated in Sepedi dictionaries. This will be followed by a brief critical evaluation of the treatment of negation in Sepedi dictionaries and the frequency of use of negative morphemes in a Sepedi corpus. Finally, some model entries for paper and electronic Sepedi dictionaries will be suggested.

A number of Sepedi dictionaries GNSW, KDS, NEN, NAAN, ONSD, POP, PUKU, PUKU'89, SEPD, etc. (full references given in the bibliography below) were evaluated. With a few exceptions, inadequate treatment of *not* in the English to Sepedi sides of the dictionaries as listed in table 1 is clear: negative morphemes are listed as translation equivalents in a haphazard and incomplete way with no examples of usage or guidance as to which negative morpheme is to be used in a specific mood.

Table 1

	Not / nie	NEN	not, adv. se, ga, ga se
PUKU'89	No entry	POP	not se, ga, ga se

SEPD	not <i>neg</i> ga; e sego
WANS	nie ga-, se-, ga se-
NAAN	nie , ga

PUKU	nie ga, sa, se, ga se
KDS	nie e sego not

The treatment of *not* in table 1 can at best give some guidance in text reception. Consider an extract from a proposed model entry for *ga se*:

ga se ***[neg. cop. part. of *ké*] it/he/she is not, they are not, ***ga se molato wo mogolo*** *it is not a big problem*, SEE negation table in BM

Sepedi negative morphemes such as *ga*, *sa* and *se* are often not lemmatised, or treated in a random way in what Prinsloo et al. (2018) call “impoverished dictionary articles marred by mistakes and shortcomings” — treatment which is not suitable for text production guidance.

It will be concluded that the way forward for Sepedi lexicographers is to lemmatise all negative morphemes in a user-friendly way and to treat them sufficiently for text reception as well as text production purposes. They should be informed of user needs in respect of the creation of correct negative phrases. User studies on negation such as Prinsloo and Taljard (2019) and Prinsloo (2020) could be considered as guidelines for the treatment of negation. Compilers of Sepedi grammars should also present negation in verbal, and especially copulative constructions in a more systematic way.

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Some Suggestions to Improve Dictionaries Integrated into English Learning Apps

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Lexicographical products are increasingly integrated into other tools like e-readers, writing assistants, and L2-learning apps (see Bothma and Prinsloo 2013, Tarp et al. 2017, Bothma and Gouws 2020, and Huang and Tarp 2021). This paper is based on the reflections by the two last authors and will deal with dictionaries integrated into L2-learning apps. As a case study, it focusses on the Kaiyan OpenLanguage app that provides assistance for Chinese learners of English as a second language.

Digital applications to assist language learning are becoming increasingly popular. They typically incorporate one or two dictionaries to improve the service so that users avoid leaving the app to consult external resources. When studying the course material, learners frequently encounter difficulties related to words or word forms, which they either don't know, are uncertain about, or just want to confirm. In such cases, they can immediately resort to the integrated dictionary by simply touching or clicking on the word they want to consult. Integrated dictionaries are handier and more practical than the common dictionary apps because their users do not need to close the running learning app and start a separate dictionary app to look up words for more details. In this way, learners can easily get access to the relevant lexicographical data. By reducing the time spent on consultation, they can focus more on the workflow and learning process without being interrupted by the constant switch between different apps. Thus, the whole learning process can be more efficient with the help of integrated dictionaries.

From this perspective, the paper will look at the two dictionaries used in Kaiyan OpenLanguage app. Initially, it describes the functioning of the app as well as the two dictionaries that have different roles in the app. It then focuses on the one that is integrated into the course texts and can be activated by clicking on a word or a multiword unit. A number of deficiencies are discussed such as inconsistent treatment of words and senses, data overload, difficult access, and inconvenient location of the pop-up window that displays the lexicographical items. These deficiencies may impact negatively on the learners' motivation and the learning process in general.

The paper traces the detected problems to the database that sustains the dictionary as well as to the underlying programming and design of the user interfaces that filter the data offered to the users in the pop-up window. Three main types of problems have been found. First, the database does not contain all the words, multiword units, and senses that appear in the course texts, thus occasionally leaving the users with no response to their queries. Second, even when these items are stored in the database, they sometimes are not uploaded to the user interface when users click on them in the course texts. And third, all senses and parts of speech

assigned to a specific word are visualized simultaneously in the user interface, thus creating the adverse phenomenon of data overload (see Gouws and Tarp 2017).

The paper then addresses the three types of problems mentioned and suggests alternative solutions. It starts with the user interface where the lexicographical data required to meet user needs are presented. Inspired by the classical Chinese Xun Gu tradition (see Yong and Peng 2007) and applying the principle of lexicographical contextualization as formulated by Tarp and Gouws (2019), it proposes the “ideal” pop-up window. This ideal is context-aware and breaks with traditional features of the dictionary article. The content of the pop-up window is reduced to an absolute minimum that merely consists of a short definition of only one sense (i.e. the one that is relevant in the concrete context), as well as a speaker icon, and a signifier (see Tarp and Gouws 2020). The inclusion of each of these items will be explained and justified. In the proposed pop-up window, even the lemma has disappeared. This classical item “seems to be completely redundant as the user perfectly well knows from which word the article has been accessed” (Tarp 2019). The minimization of the default lexicographical data presented to the users and the exclusion of irrelevant items prevent data overload and collateral consequences like user anxiety, frustration, and abortive consultation. The idea is to avoid a consultation process that interrupts the learners’ reading flow and focus on learning.

The paper will then explain how to achieve this carefully metered dosification of lexicographical data to the users. It requires a combination of programming and manual work which, in this case, is facilitated by a unique characteristic of the course texts, namely that they consist of a limited and controlled number of words.

Finally, the paper will discuss how the problems detected in the lexicographical database can be solved by means of interdisciplinary collaboration between app developers and lexicographers.

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The Role Lexicographers Can Play in Helping to Vanquish Insensitivity, Brutality, Othering, and Wilful Ignorance

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No one is born a patriarch, sexist, racist, xenophobe, or otherwise hate-filled and othering person. Fearing, hating, demonising, oppressing, brutalising, and exploiting “others” is learned through society, culture, and language. This is accomplished mostly through social and cultural constructions including races, genders, gender roles, religions, and whatever is uncritically believed to be “normal.” Since language, culture, and society are inextricably intertwined, if a language is not inclusive, then how could the society that uses it be? Similarly to the way that people learn to discriminate, denigrate, and other through language, they can learn to accept, affirm, and cherish through it as well.

Since most people trust what dictionaries have to say, lexicographers who understand their role in a society that is dependent on reliable information have an enormous responsibility to their users. Many words and phrases have bias and exclusion incorporated into them, yet regular general dictionaries are not doing an adequate job of alerting users to this usage. These lexicons are generally ignoring or mischaracterizing such usage, which essentially legitimises biased expression. Consequently, regular dictionaries do not give their users insight into how inequality, othering, and victimization work through language.

This paper will explore some of the ways in which lexicographers can meaningfully help eradicate insensitivity, brutality, othering, and wilful ignorance, so that we can hopefully all benefit through living in a safer, more inviting, perhaps even nurturing environment. There will be suggestions on ways to improve the paraphrases of meaning, from the bias and exclusion standpoints. In addition, there will be recommendations on how to make users better aware of usage notes, such as alerts to them right in the paraphrase of meaning. Another idea is to rename the part of the article usually referred to generically as “usage notes” or “usage,” to something like “insight into the bias,” or “insight into the othering,” to name a couple. Usage notes in dictionaries should address the needs of the victims by being written from a bias-free and egalitarian perspective, and *not* to serve as a “social apology.”

The following six examples will be explored: *anthropocentrism*, *bitch*, *nigger*, *spic*, *squaw*, and *third world*. Each will illustrate how the incorporated othering and oppression can be much more fully explained in dictionary articles. For instance, the Merriam-Webster online dictionary has the following for *sense 1*, when defining *squaw*: “*now usually offensive*: an American Indian woman.” In reality, it has been extremely offensive to Native American women (and to informed non-sexist and non-racist people) for centuries, since it also refers to a female’s genitalia, and to women considered to be “disposable.” Locations with this name serve as daily reminders as to how colonialist, sexist, and racist white people see these women. Although there have been many efforts to remove the word *squaw* from location names, a search for “*squaw*” using the Geographic Names Information System (a service of the U.S. Geological Survey) on 1 February 2021 provided 1,178 locations with the word *squaw* in it.

The label “*now usually offensive*” may be referring to how a person can perhaps *now* get in trouble, maybe, if they are caught using the expression publicly, since for many it has been extremely offensive from its first use centuries ago.

The regular general English dictionaries by and large continue to promote and defend traditions and beliefs which encourage and uphold sexism, racism, xenophobia, heterosexism, colonialism, and speciesism, among other forms of oppression and othering. In their indispensable and highly influential work, the lexicographers preparing these dictionaries are making a lot of decisions for all of us, but not taking into account the needs of many of us. This paper makes some suggestions on how to improve matters.

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The Treatment of Lexical Gaps in IsiZulu – English Dictionaries

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In an ideal world, the compiler of a bilingual dictionary could expect that suitable translation equivalents for each lemma in the source language should be available in the target language. Such an expectation is strengthened by Adamska-Sałaciak's (2006:117) view that "zero equivalence ... is relatively rare".

Dagut (1981), however, states that equivalence between languages is in principle characterised by a degree of incompatibility. He refers to the difficulty, if not impossibility to find translation equivalents in all cases. According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:158) the reason for such incompatibility is that the lexicon of a language "does not necessarily develop parallel to the lexicon of any other language" and that when a language acquires a word for a given concept it does not necessarily imply that other languages will do the same. This could result in a situation of zero-equivalence between the source and target languages.

If it is not possible for lexicographers to find translation equivalents, i.e. a situation of zero-equivalence, they have to revert to surrogate equivalents, e.g. paraphrases of meaning, to make up for the lack of full or partial equivalents. Consider the following example from the bi-directional bilingual English – isiZulu / isiZulu – English Dictionary (henceforth referred to as EID):

misinform ... dukisa, tshela okungeyilo iqiniso.

Although a translation equivalent *dukisa* exists, the lexicographer also added the surrogate equivalent *tshela okungeyilo iqiniso* 'tell / inform as to what is not the truth / a fact'.

The aim of this paper is to determine to what extent suitable translation equivalents are available for English and isiZulu lemmas and what the nature, extent and treatment strategies are in cases where translation equivalents are not available. In order to achieve this objective, the results of an intensive study of equivalence in both sides of the EID will be presented preceded by a brief theoretical conspectus of zero-equivalence. In cases of zero-equivalence in EID, i.e. where suitable translation equivalents are not available, the aim is to determine the nature, extent and treatment strategies of such lexical gaps.

Dagut (1981:64) distinguishes two types of lexical gaps, namely (a) linguistic gaps resulting from linguistic factors and (b) referential gaps caused by linguistic-external factors. A linguistic gap occurs when the concept is known in both the source and target languages, but the target language does not have a specific word for it. A referential gap occurs when a source language concept is unknown in the target language. The strategies employed in the case of

zero-equivalence include the use of glosses, paraphrase of meaning, pictures and illustrations and information boxes.

A typical strategy utilised in instances of zero-equivalence is the use of paraphrases, in which a variety of grammatical constructions such as adverbs, relative, possessive and negation strategies are utilised.

Preliminary results indicate that lexical gaps are very frequent in the language pair isiZulu/English and subsequently pose a big challenge to the lexicographer to treat them in a satisfactory way. In the English – isiZulu side of the dictionary surrogate equivalents accounted for 60.8% and in the isiZulu – English side 64.3% of all equivalents used. Instances where the compilers had surrogate equivalents as the only option for treatment were much more frequent in the isiZulu – English side than in the English – isiZulu side of the dictionary.

Lexicographers should, however, not uncritically include surrogate equivalents in their dictionaries. Firstly they should not overlook suitable translation equivalents simply because they might be polysemous or homonymous but rather use such equivalents with indication of the applicable sense in order to avoid ambiguities. So, for example, EID offers the following translation equivalents for *-duka* from which the causative form *-dukisa* in the entry for misinform above is derived, ‘go astray; leave the right way; get off the patch; be wrong (as in argument); take the wrong course (in word, act or thought)’. The final equivalent given above is in line with the surrogate equivalent *tshela okungeyilo iqiniso* ‘tell untruth’. So, the question could be asked whether the compiler used the surrogate equivalent (also) to disambiguate the translation equivalent paradigm of *-dukisa*? A user study should be undertaken as future work for different target users in order to determine user-preferences in this regard.

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The Writing Process of Encyclopaedic Definitions for a Frame-Based Specialized Dictionary: Findings and Perspectives from the Analysis of *Dicionário Olímpico*

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The present work reports on an analysis focused on the frame descriptions of a Brazilian frame-based dictionary, the *Dicionário Olímpico* (Olympic Dictionary) (Chishman *et al.* 2016), aiming to develop a standardization strategy for the writing of frame definitions. In general, the planning of the *Dicionário Olímpico* owes its inspiration to the FrameNet Project (Fillmore & Atkins, 1998; Fillmore & Baker, 2001; Fontenelle, 2003), the pioneer enterprise in applying the notion of semantic frame to language description; however, many structural aspects were adapted due to the differences between the target audience of each tool.

In contrast to the FrameNet Project, in *Dicionário Olímpico* the frame description characterizes the events and entities related to the sports without using the frame elements as a starting point. Each editor was responsible for a group of sports, and although following a general orientation about the information and the level of complexity, they had the possibility to determine which information was relevant to describe the frames based on the study of the sport. Such possibility resulted in a lack of standardization regarding the type of information and how this information is presented to the resource's user, demonstrating the need for further discussions.

Dicionário Olímpico presents two types of frames: frames of events, which refer to the set of actions that make up the competitions and are to some extent specific to a given sport; and ontological frames, which refer to the description of objects and participants (cf. Souza, 2015) and are recurrent in many if not all sports. Since our study seeks to propose the standardization of frame definitions, our analysis focuses on the ontological frames, which are recurrent in more than one sport and whose definitions allow for such a discussion.

For the first stage of our study, we carried out the analysis of the ontological frames (i.e., competition officials, athletes, competition location, equipment, and technical team) of all sports in order to identify the type of information presented in each of them. The next step consisted of grouping the sports based on similar shared features in order to identify standardization within these groups. This task was grounded in González's (2004) sports classification, from which it was possible to establish six different groups.

On the one hand, our analysis allowed us to identify a certain degree of standardization on a general level, as well as on sport-group level, which could be used as a starting point for a proposal of the standardization of the ontological frame definitions. On the other hand, some information is presented only in the frame definition of a single sport. In these cases, this could reflect an editor's decision based on subjective criteria and not on the sport structure OR could be important information that reflects the sport structure and should thus be presented in other sports of the same type as well. These represent quite encouraging preliminary findings as they provide the ground to develop a proposal for modelling the frame-definition writing, while respecting each sports' specificities and without each editor having to decide which information should be presented based on subjective criteria.

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Towards (Re)defining Lexicography – A Communicative Perspective

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It could be considered ironic that the discipline of lexicography appears to have some trouble with defining two terms which are central to its very existence, namely *lexicography* and *dictionary*. Compare in this regard the titles and contents of articles like “What is lexicography?” (Bergenholtz & Gouws 2012), “What is a dictionary?” (Bergenholtz 2012) and “Who can really be called a lexicographer?” (Gouws 2012), which appeared relatively recently in the journal *Lexikos*. Yet another new definition of the term *dictionary* was proposed most recently by Tarp (2018). It should be added, of course, that this type of discourse also reflects a healthy practice of critical self-reflection, which is necessary for the evolution of a scientific (or scientifically based) discipline in the fast-changing world of the Fourth and Fifth Industrial Revolutions. In fact, some scholars have recently warned that lexicography as a discipline is under existential threat and that innovation is urgently needed, exactly because of its apparent slow or no response to the rapidly evolving information and communication technology environment (cf. Tarp 2019).

This paper aims to contribute to the discourse by addressing the terms *lexicography* and *dictionary* from a communicative perspective, more specifically, from the framework of a developing theory of lexicographical communication (TLC). This perspective originates from the two basic tenets of the TLC, i.e. (i) In essence, lexicography is an exercise in human communication; and (ii) This communication is indirect and mediated by text. These principles suggest that the concept *lexicography* could be approached from a broader communicative standpoint, one which views it as part of a process of *lexicographical communication*. The indispensable role of the *text* as medium of lexicographical communication further informs this approach, which benefits from existing disciplines dealing with communication and text, such as communication theory, text linguistics and document design.

The general definition of *lexicography* in the literature (and in dictionaries) is that it is the discipline that deals with the study, planning and compilation of dictionaries. From a TLC perspective, it is argued that this conception of lexicography limits the entire discipline to a single type of artefact as product, while lexicographical communication can in fact occur via a host of media, of which dictionaries represent only one type. A comprehensive definition of

lexicography should rather capture the core communicative activity associated with the discipline. Considering the etymology and actual use of the terms *lexicography* and especially *lexicographic(al)* (as in “lexicographic guidance, data”, etc.) in the scientific literature, as well as the origins of the discipline, *lexicography* is (re)defined as the *study, planning and compilation of lexical commentary*. The term *lexical commentary*, then, is defined as *consisting of one or more lexicographic messages that state a particular sign (e.g., a lexical item) and identifies it as an element of a particular set of signs (or lexicon) belonging to a particular sign system (e.g., English), and/or convey communicative aspects of that sign (like formal, paradigmatic, syntagmatic and pragmatic properties)*.

The compilation of lexical commentary necessarily results in the production of text. From the discipline of text linguistics, a working definition of the term *text* is adapted to apply to a broader range of communication modes than only linguistic sign systems, e.g., visual communication by means of diagrams or pictures. As such, a *text* is defined as *a series of expressions experienced, presented and accepted as a communicative unit by the participants involved*, where *communicative unit* refers to the product of the formal, syntagmatic, semantic and pragmatic relations between the constituting signs, their meanings and their users respectively. Consequently, a *lexicographic text* can be defined as *any text with the primary objective to communicate lexical commentary*.

Having clarified the terms *lexicography* and *lexicographic text*, the term *dictionary* is defined as *a lexicographic reference work*, with *lexicographic* denoting “consisting primarily of lexicographic texts”.

The paper elaborates on and motivates the above argumentation.

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Towards Lexicographic Resources on African Traditional Food Science with Specific Reference to Ndebele Culinary Traditions

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African Food Revolution (AFR) is an international organization with an ambitious vision of “feeding Africa from the villages” (AFR homepage). It comprises over 50 Science, Engineering and Economics graduates students who seek “to disruptively increase food

production on the African continent, through amplifying the production and efficiency of traditional food systems” (AFR homepage). AFR’s major achievements include:

- producing videos and podcasts promoting African traditional dishes on social media platforms;
- organising traditional food expos in various African countries like Zimbabwe and the DRC;
- the documentation of traditional African foods across Africa;
- publishing the book *Our Food Our Heritage Our Future* (Mahlangu *et al.* 2020).

In pursuit of knowledge on traditional food production and based on the reception of its work, AFR realizes a need for accessible information resources for various user-groups. This paper considers the AFR’s proposed lexicographic project which seeks to focus on the culinary traditions of the Zimbabwean Ndebele and other related Nguni communities. The project is conceived in collaboration with, among others, Amagugu International Heritage Centre, agricultural experts and experts on the material culture of amaNdebele. It seeks to identify, collect, document, explain and illustrate relevant concepts, cookware, as well as food production and preservation processes. It endeavors to address needs of users falling into three different categories:

- primary school children studying isiNdebele and Heritage studies as subjects
- secondary school learners and teachers of isiNdebele and Heritage studies as subjects
- a more diverse adult user group comprising native and non-native speakers of isiNdebele.

According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 9), a dictionary is a culmination of complex activities that constitute a lexicographic process. This paper deals with aspects of secondary lexicographic and dictionary-specific lexicographic processes (Gouws & Prinsloo 2005). It situates the project in the context of African lexicography and Zimbabwean Ndebele lexicography in particular, noting the gap that the project will fill. The prospective user-groups are then profiled to determine their information needs and conceptualize appropriate lexicographic products. Considerations are made regarding dictionary-specific issues in order to ensure that user-friendly products are produced. The effort is to consider content, structural and design features of the relevant products that will address user needs in a user-friendly way. This paper follows the principle that every lexicographic decision, be it about inclusion or exclusion of data and its presentation, should be informed by potential user-needs (Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003). While the cognitive function will prevail for the dictionary products targeting the different user-groups, the user-needs will vary according to user-profiles, particularly their existing knowledge and their potential knowledge gaps.

An elementary dictionary is considered for primary school learners. Such a dictionary could be aligned to the primary school curriculum with respect to the cultural dimension of isiNdebele as a subject and Heritage Studies. The dictionary would adopt typical features of children’s dictionaries, particularly the use of colorful font and visuals, making use of visual artists from collaborating art galleries across Africa. The dictionary would also adopt a hybrid arrangement of lemmata, balancing between alphabetic and thematic ordering.

Another dictionary would target secondary schools for the use of students and teachers of isiNdebele, Heritage Studies, Food and Nutrition subjects. While *Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele*

is available and contains some of the words dealing with Ndebele culinary traditions, its conceptualization as a general dictionary implies that its lexicographic description is not comprehensive. As monolingual dictionary, it is not considered a major reference for subjects that are taught in English. The bilingual dimension of the proposed dictionary is hoped to yield a one-stop shop for students and teachers of various school subjects which include aspects of Ndebele traditional food science.

Finally, a more comprehensive and encyclopedic dictionary, which is intended for print and electronic publication, is proposed for a more advanced and diverse group of Ndebele traditional culinary knowledge seekers. Such a resource would be useful for both Ndebele and non-Ndebele people. It would make connections between Ndebele traditions and those of other related groups. The electronic version hopes to exploit optimally the affordances of digital technologies in order to offer audio-visual information on traditional Ndebele and African food science.

The foregoing is a broad preliminary framework within which dictionary-specific lexicographic processes will be elaborated for the prospective dictionaries, the intention being to make available and accessible knowledge that is in danger of extinction.

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W(h)AT to do about Kaaps? The inclusion of Cape Afrikaans in the *Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal*

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As Afrikaans increasingly became a symbol of the Afrikaners' struggle for recognition as a nation at the beginning of the 19th century, the ideology of Afrikaner Nationalism, that was ultimately a racist nationalist movement, was tightly interwoven with an Afrikaans language movement that sought to appropriate Afrikaans as the language of the Afrikaner (cf. Webb & Kriel 2000:21-22, 30-42; McCormick 2006:98-103). Instead of focusing on the diverse range of varieties within the Afrikaans language, many linguists participated in what Ponelis (1999:11) calls the Afrikaner Nationalist white-washing of Afrikaans. Although about fifty percent of the native Afrikaans speaking population consisted of non-white speakers, the language varieties of white speakers of Afrikaans were over-emphasized while the language varieties mostly spoken by coloured speakers of Afrikaans were stigmatized. One way in which this was done, was by compiling dictionaries from an exclusively "white perspective" (Webb

& Kriel 2000:22-23). This entailed that dictionaries often did not reflect the varietal diversity of Afrikaans, but focused mainly on Standard Afrikaans – a variety which has as its basis Eastern Cape Afrikaans or “Eastern Afrikaans”, which was mostly spoken by the white speakers of Afrikaans (Webb & Kriel 2000:22; McCormick 2006:92, 96). Since the 1980s, however, there has been increasing consensus among linguists that Afrikaans is more than its standard variety and that Standard Afrikaans is but one of many varieties of Afrikaans that all enjoy equal status (Ponelis, 1994:107; 1998:13).

As a comprehensive descriptive dictionary, the *Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal* (Dictionary of the Afrikaans Language; henceforth WAT) concerns itself since its inception in 1926 with recording the Afrikaans language in its widest sense. This means that both spoken and written materials from all Afrikaans varieties are included in the dictionary (Van Schalkwyk, 1994:i; 1996:i). The Bureau of the WAT also took special care over the years to collect as many as possible examples of regional varieties for its database in order to give more comprehensive and representative coverage to these varieties in the dictionary, according to Van Schalkwyk (1994:iii). Since its inception the WAT has thus been ideally positioned to reflect the equal status of all the varieties of Afrikaans. Nevertheless, the WAT has been accused as recently as 2019, after the publication of its fifteenth volume, of showing great gaps with regard to the language use of a more inclusive language community (Loots, 2019).

The first question that I would like to address in this paper, is to what extent the WAT reflects the equal status of the other varieties of Afrikaans in relation to Standard Afrikaans by focusing primarily on the inclusion of Cape Afrikaans, including Muslim Afrikaans, lemmas, meanings en expressions up and to Volume 15 of the dictionary. Does the WAT also give a sense of “Afrikaner Nationalist white-washing”, as it is called by Ponelis? Or is it, in fact, representative of the wider Afrikaans speech community by including especially those variety primarily associated with speakers of colour? The second part of the paper will be focussed on a project that was started by the WAT in July of 2020 that aims to bridge the gaps that have developed over the years with regard to the inclusion of Kaaps and Muslim Afrikaans and in the process reflect the equal status of all varieties of Afrikaans. Attention will be given to the way in which the WAT’s corpus was expanded in order to ensure that more Kaaps and Muslim Afrikaans lemmas, meanings and expressions are included. Furthermore, a breakdown will be given of decisions regarding criteria for inclusion and the use of lexicographic labels and the lexicographic theory that underpins those decisions, as well as the approach to paraphrasing of meaning and the inclusion of context guidance.

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