

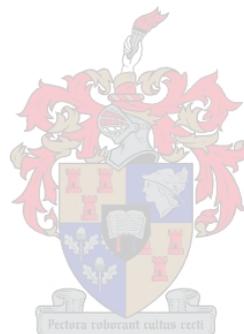
**A Critical Evaluation of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH with Regard
to Source- and Target-Language Forms**

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Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of
Philosophy at the University of Stellenbosch

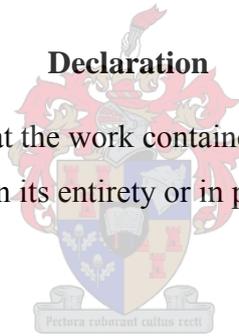
Supervisor: Prof. RH Gouws

December 2006



Declaration

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.



Signature:

Stenar

Date: 4 April 2006

Abstract

In its Preface the WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH claims to be suitable for both native and foreign speakers of Afrikaans and German. This study presents an evaluation of WOORDEBOEK/ WÖRTERBUCH to determine to what extent the dictionary can be regarded as a helpful and up-to-date tool for the user, whether he or she is a native or foreign speaker of the language pair treated in this dictionary. This ultimate aim is to determine to what degree WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH can serve as a helpful tool in translation.

Theoretically and methodically the study is based on the dictionary usage research by HE Wiegand, with the genuine purpose of the dictionary as the main principle. The genuine purpose of the dictionary forms the basis of the theoretical and practical analysis. The study contains a short overview of the development of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH from when it was first published as a monolingual dictionary for native speakers of Afrikaans who wanted to learn German in 1925 to the publication of the eighth edition in 1983, which claims to be a new and more effective source of information for both languages, to enable closer relations between South Africa and Germany. This is followed by a lexicographic discussion on the concepts underlying the planning of a dictionary, with the emphasis on lexicographic processes and lexicographic functions. The problematic issue of active and passive dictionaries is discussed, concluding with the preference for a dictionary orientated towards text production in the case of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, which would enable translation from Afrikaans into German and *vice versa*. The problematic nature of equivalent relations is discussed in detail and forms the main focus of the empirical study and the practical study.

The evaluation of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is continued in the practical study, where the genuine purpose of the dictionary and the lexicographic functions are the main criteria. The empirical study analyses the actual problems target users have when consulting the dictionary in the context of the genuine purpose of the dictionary.

The study is concluded with the statement that WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH should be revised thoroughly and that this revision can only be successful if it is based on an up-to-date, representative corpus of both Afrikaans and German; and when the lexicographer is steered by the lexicographic functions and the needs of the target user, which determine the genuine purpose of the dictionary.

Opsomming

In die Voorwoord van WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH beweer die uitgewers van die woordeboek dat hierdie woordeboek vir moedertaal- en nie-moedertaalsprekers van Afrikaans en Duits geskik is. Hierdie ondersoek evalueer tot watter mate WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH 'n nuttige en moderne hulpmiddel vir die teikengebruiker is, ongeag daarvan of hy of sy 'n moedertaal- of nie-moedertaalspreker is van die tale wat in die woordeboek behandel word. Die uiteindelige doel is om te bepaal tot watter mate WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH 'n nuttige bron vir vertaling is.

Die ondersoek is teoreties en metodies gebaseer op die woordeboekgebruiksnavorsing van HE Wiegand, met die werklike doel van die woordeboek as die hoofbeginsel. Die werklike doel van 'n woordeboek vorm die basis van die teoretiese en praktiese ontleding. Die studie bevat 'n kort oorsig oor die ontwikkeling van WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH sedert sy eerste publikasie in 1925 as 'n eenrigtingwoordeboek vir Afrikaanse moedertaalsprekers wat Duits wou leer tot en met die verskyning van die agtste uitgawe in 1983, wat beweer dat dit bedoel is om “in handige formaat te dien as 'n nuwe en meer doeltreffende bron van inligting ten opsigte van albei tale, om sodoende by te dra tot 'n verdieping van betrekkinge tussen ons land en Duitsland”. Hierdie samevatting word gevolg deur 'n leksikografiese bespreking van die konsepte onderliggend aan die beplanning van 'n woordeboek, met die hoofklem op die leksikografiese prosesse en funksies. Die problematiese kwessie van aktiewe en passiewe woordeboeke word aangebied, met duidelike voorkeur vir 'n woordeboek wat die gebruiker in staat stel om sy/haar eie tekste te produseer in die geval van WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH. Die tipe woordeboek sal die vertaling van Afrikaans na Duits en omgekeerd moontlik maak. Die problematiese aard van ekwivalentverhoudinge word uitvoerig bespreek en vorm die klem van die empiriese en praktiese studie.

Die evaluering van WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH word voortgesit in die praktiese studie, waar die werklike doel van die woordeboek en die leksikografiese funksies weer eens die klem kry. Die empiriese studie ontleed die werklike probleme waarmee gebruikers te doen het wanneer hulle die woordeboek konsulteer, in die konteks van die werklike doel van die woordeboek.

Die studie word afgesluit met die gevolgtrekking dat WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH grondig hersien moet word en dat hierdie proses slegs suksesvol kan verloop wanneer die hersiening op 'n gebalanseerde, representatiewe korpus van Afrikaans en Duits berus, en onder die voorwaarde dat die leksikografiese funksies en die gebruikers se behoeftes – wat die werklike doel van die woordeboek bepaal – in gedagte gehou word.

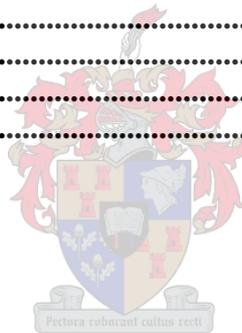
My opregte dank aan prof Rufus Gouws en prof Ilse Feinauer vir hulle ondersteuning en oneindige geduld en ook aan my ouers vir hulle liefde en aansporing in moeilike tye.



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1 Chapter 1

Introduction

According to Haas, the ideal bilingual dictionary should anticipate every possible need of its user (1967: 45-46). It would provide exactly the right target-language translation for each word or expression in the source language; it should contain all the words and idioms with their target-language translations the user might come across. It should contain all the “inflectional, derivational, syntactical and semantic information” the user might need (Haas, 1967: 45); it should contain information on all levels of usage - it should also indicate pejorative language or slang; it should contain all personal names and the names of historical and present personages, place names, names of famous books and plays (nowadays the names of popular films should be included as well), the characters that appear in such books, plays and films, and any other name the user might wish to look up. The ideal bilingual dictionary should also contain all the specialised vocabulary items of all sciences, professions, manufacturing industries and trades, each carefully and appropriately labelled to indicate to which field it belongs. It would contain all necessary information on correct spelling forms, as well as information on alternative or commonly encountered incorrect spelling forms, especially where languages underwent recent spelling reforms (for example, the *Neue deutsche Rechtschreibung* initiated in 1998 in German, which introduced a new orthography); it would contain all the information needed to instruct the user on the correct pronunciation of each word. These aspects are important not only for the average target user, but also for translators, as they constantly occupy themselves with these issues.

Haas states that these are not the only requirements, in order to be truly ideal the bilingual dictionary would have to pass three more tests (1967: 145-146). For the scope of this study only two of these requirements are of interest: firstly, the dictionary should be orientated towards both native and foreign speakers of language A as well as towards both native and foreign speakers of language B; and secondly, in order to be comfortable to use, it should be as compact as possible (with the exception of electronic dictionaries). She continues by saying that in order to be able to produce a compact dictionary certain limitations have to be introduced; however, the extent and nature of such limitations should be determined anew for each pair of languages, because different languages have different features which would

influence these limitations (Haas, 1967: 48). In general, compactness should be achieved by providing fewer entries rather than compromising on any of the expectations mentioned above. This statement by Haas is mirrored by a statement by the editor of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH in the preface:

Kein Werk ist so schnell der Gefahr des Veraltens ausgesetzt wie ein Wörterbuch. Jedes bietet stets nur eine Auswahl des gängigen Wortschatzes und bedarf daher einer ständigen Umarbeitung, um der sich fortwährend wandelnden sprachlichen Wirklichkeit gerecht zu werden.

1.1 The genuine purpose of a dictionary

Wiegand describes dictionaries as utility articles – dictionaries are produced with the purpose of aiding their potential user in reaching a certain goal in certain contexts (1998: 298). Regarding the genuine purpose of a dictionary, Wiegand mentions two aspects, namely the “usueller Gebrauchskontext” (intended usage context) and the “genuinen Zweck eines Gebrauchsgegenstandes” (the genuine purpose of a utility article) (1998: 298). The “usueller Gebrauchskontext” of a certain utility article is the context of action in which this specific utility article is used according to its genuine purpose. The “genuinen Zweck” implies that the article can be used on the basis of specific characteristics to reach those goals for which it was designed or created. Wiegand describes the genuine purpose of the dictionary as follows (1998: 299):

Der genuine Zweck eines Wörterbuches besteht darin, daß es benutzt wird, um anhand lexikographischer Daten in den Textteilen mit äußerer Zugriffsstruktur (vor allem solchen im Wörterverzeichnis oder in den Wörterverzeichnissen) Information zu denjenigen Eigenschaftsausprägungen bei sprachlichen Ausdrücken zu erschließen, die zum jeweiligen Wörterbuchgegenstand gehören.

Gouws states that dictionaries are practical instruments and that they are compiled with a specific target user group in mind (2001: 64). Dictionaries have to fulfil a specific purpose in order to be a functional tool. This purpose has to be identified and formulated before the compilation process can begin, since the compilation process must proceed in such a way that its ultimate aim is the purpose of the specific dictionary project.

Gouws states that the genuine purpose of a dictionary “is co-determined by, among others, its typological nature and its intended target user group” (2001: 64).

WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is a standard bilingual dictionary, which forms part of the category of linguistic dictionaries. Therefore its genuine purpose is to transfer by means of lexical data information regarding the lexical items treated in the dictionary, in order to enable the linguistic empowerment of the target user. Gouws concludes: “The genuine purpose of a dictionary implies that a dictionary is produced so that the target user who uses the dictionary in a typical usage context will have an instrument to assist him in achieving a successful dictionary consultation procedure by reaching the goals that motivated the search” (64: 7). The genuine purpose of a dictionary should therefore be to enable the target user to find a fitting answer to his/her question, i.e. to enable successful consultation procedures. A successful dictionary consultation procedure depends on the way in which the needed linguistic information can be retrieved by the target user. Wiegand states that the dictionary should enable the target user to constitute the required answer with the aid of lexicographic information (1998: 300).

In an evaluation of a dictionary the analysis should focus on whether the dictionary succeeds in its genuine purpose, i.e. whether such a dictionary is capable of being a useful tool for its users.

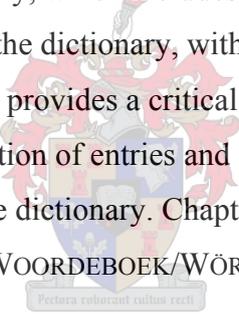
1.2 Purpose of the study

This study evaluates whether WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is a reliable and effective source of information for the target user, especially with regard to the source and target-language forms listed in this dictionary. The genuine purpose of a dictionary is to enable the target user to find the information he or she requires when consulting the dictionary. The purpose of this study is to determine if WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is in a position to fulfil its genuine purpose, by focusing on source- and target-language forms. This is done against the background of translation studies. Hatim states: “the majority of translation practitioners, now more and more conversant with theories and models of translation, have developed a sensitivity to issues raised not only in the science of language, but also further afield - [...] the study of culture and society... (2001: 9). For most translators this could also mean an interest in making better use of dictionaries by getting to know the basic principles of lexicography, which determine the structure and content of dictionaries, in order for them to make optimal use of these useful translation tools.

According to the *Skopostheorie* – which applies the notion of *Skopos* to translation – the prime principle determining any translation process is the purpose of the translation (<http://www.sprog.asb.dk/la/WrittenComBA02/TASkoposIntro.ppt>). The purpose of most translations is to be a suitable target language equivalent to the source language text. Dictionaries are the most helpful tools available to translators to produce such a translation. Translators not only consult dictionaries to find the best suited translation equivalent, they often also consult dictionaries to find out about cultural phenomena, albeit the culture of the source or target language. The genuine purpose of a dictionary plays an important role for the translator; the dictionary can only succeed in its genuine purpose if it can provide the translator with the best possible translation equivalents.

1.2.1 Structure

In the introduction, the genuine purpose of the dictionary is defined. Chapter 2 describes the first processes in compiling a dictionary, which includes the lexicographic processes. Chapter 3 discusses the actual compilation of the dictionary, with the focus on the selection of entries and translation equivalents. Chapter 4 provides a critical evaluation of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH. It focuses on the selection of entries and source language forms and target-language translation equivalents in the dictionary. Chapter 5 contains the empirical study of source and target-language forms in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH in practice and its results.

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2 Chapter 2

First phases of the lexicographic process

In order to compile a dictionary that fulfils its genuine purpose, the lexicographer has to plan the needed lexicographic process. This process provides a solid base for decisions that will ultimately determine the form and usefulness of the dictionary. One of the first tasks facing a lexicographer when compiling a dictionary is deciding who the target user will be.

2.1 Lexicographic processes

According to Gouws, a dictionary should be based on a comprehensive lexicographic process – this process forms an integral element of the compilation of a dictionary (2001: 62). Gouws continues by stating that this process is “part of a comprehensive historical process which coincides with the development of a language” (2001: 62). Wiegand states that the lexicographic process is established by all the activities leading to the publication of a dictionary as a text – which includes the actual compilation, planning and data collection (in Gouws, 2001: 62). Gouws states that when the lexicographic process has been applied successfully, the result will be a dictionary characterised by specific features, for example predictability, calculability, analysability and controllability (2001:62). The establishment of a lexicographic process leads to the formulation of a dictionary plan, which forms the basis of all the decisions regarding the compilation of the dictionary. According to Gouws, the dictionary plan consists of two main elements, i.e. the organisation plan and the dictionary conceptualisation plan (2001: 62). The former concerns mainly management and logistics, whereas the latter is concerned with lexicographic issues, and determines the dictionary typology, target user, the structure of the dictionary and the lexicographical presentation, to mention some examples (Gouws, 2001: 62).

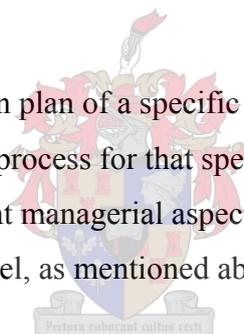
A comprehensive lexicographic process consists of two sub-processes, namely the primary comprehensive lexicographic process, which involves the coordinating of lexicographic activities in a specific country, i.e. cooperation and feedback between the different projects. The second level of the lexicographic process is the secondary comprehensive lexicographic process, where each dictionary project has to be the focus of a separate lexicographic process, presenting the dictionary conceptualisation plan for that dictionary (Gouws, 2001: 62).

Gouws mentions that the notion of lexicographic planning is not a new concept (2001: 63). Samuel Johnson's dictionary (1755) was preceded by his PLAN OF A DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. The fact that Johnson's dictionary was properly planned is one of the main reasons why this dictionary is still important today, both as a reference work and as a milestone in lexicography. Therefore one would have expected that the original compilers of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH also employed at least the secondary comprehensive lexicographic process. Since this dictionary was compiled during the very early stages of South African lexicography, applying the primary lexicographic process would have been rather difficult. However, it can be expected that those who revised later editions of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH should have paid attention to the primary process.

2.1.1 The dictionary plan

2.1.1.1 The organisation plan

According to Gouws, the organisation plan of a specific dictionary can also be regarded as a model for the primary lexicographic process for that specific dictionary (2001: 63). This involves the logistics and the different managerial aspects of a specific dictionary within lexicographic activity on national level, as mentioned above.



An important aspect in the organisation plan of the dictionary is the genuine purpose of the dictionary, which is decisive in ensuring a sound theoretical point of departure for the compilation process.

2.1.1.2 The dictionary conceptualisation plan

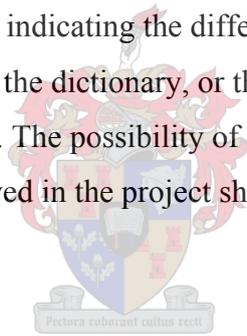
Gouws states that the dictionary conceptualisation plan represents a model for the secondary process of a specific dictionary (2001: 63). In the planning of a dictionary project this plan has a direct influence on the compilation process.

Wiegand divides the dictionary conceptualisation plan into five subdivisions (1998: 151; cf. Gouws, 2001: 65). These are the general preparation phase, the material acquisition phase, the material preparation phase, the material processing phase and the publishing preparation phase.

a. The general preparation phase

This phase forms the basis for the structure, contents and presentation of the dictionary. One of the first tasks of the project members when starting with the general preparation phase is to compile a lexicographic instruction book or lexicographic style guide. This book should include a detailed description of the system to be followed in the compilation of the dictionary. This book or guide is the most important instrument available to ensure a consistent and systematic presentation and treatment in the compilation process. If no such guide is available, the result would be a dictionary that has no logical structure, especially where more than one person is responsible for the lexicographic treatment.

Gouws provides some examples of issues mentioned by Bergenholtz (1990) to be dealt with in an instruction book, such as the lemmatisation process (the influence of initial capital letters, diacritics, the order of word and stem forms), the use of typographical and non-typographical markers in the articles, indicating the different meanings of a lemma, the use of abbreviations in the metalanguage of the dictionary, or the positioning and marking of new search zones in the article (2001: 66). The possibility of enlisting the aid of experts (e.g. in the field of metalexigraphy) not involved in the project should be considered to ensure a dictionary of high quality.



During this general preparation phase the microstructural programme of the dictionary should be developed. The microstructural programme determines the different data categories to be included in the treatment of the lemmata and the typical article slots allocated to these categories. It also determines the size of the dictionary, resulting in a functional use of the space available in the dictionary. The early identification of the microstructural programme enables the lexicographer to focus on those data categories that will be included in the dictionary during the early phases of the compilation process (Gouws, 2001: 66).

A third step in the general preparation phase is the identification, establishment, nature, extent and description of a dictionary basis, which suits the relevant dictionary project in the best possible way. Wiegand describes the dictionary basis as follows(1998: 139):

das gesamte sprachliche Ausgangsmaterial für einen lexikographischen Prozeß, also die Menge aller primären, sekundären und tertiären, sowie gegebenenfalls weiteren Quellen. Hinzu kommen bei einigen Wörterbuchtypen die Sprachkompetenzen der prozesszugehörigen

Lexikographen sowie gegebenenfalls die von Informanten und Muttersprachlern, so dass die Wörterbuchbasis nicht in allen Fällen mit der Materialbasis gleichgesetzt werden kann. The dictionary basis will differ for each dictionary project and is determined by the typological nature of the dictionary.

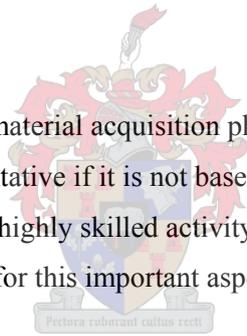
Gouws states that an early identification of the dictionary basis enables the lexicographer to apply a well-directed material collection policy which, in turn, leads to a quicker macrostructural collection (2001: 67).

b. The material acquisition phase

During this phase the lexicographer collects speech material from the sources which form the dictionary basis. When this phase has been completed, the lexicographer has a data basis or lexicographic corpus, i.e. a collection of items gathered from the primary, secondary and tertiary sources of the dictionary basis (cf. Gouws, 2001: 67).

Gouws states (2001: 67):

In modern-day lexicography, the material acquisition phase will inevitably lead to a corpus. No modern dictionary can be representative if it is not based on a reliable corpus. The compilation of corpora has to be regarded as a highly skilled activity and dictionary units have to make ample provision in their planning for this important aspect of their lexicographic endeavour.



Provost states: “[a] corpus serves above all to provide the lexical documentation which enables one to pinpoint good examples and, at the same time, possible new meanings and neologisms” (Provost, 2004, <http://kictionaries.com/kdn/kdn12-2.html>)

Gouws continues that a model for the compilation of a dictionary determines the need for a dictionary plan that focuses on much more than the compilation process (2001: 68).

c. The material preparation phase

During this phase the collected material is prepared so that it can be processed in the remaining phases of the lexicographic process. If oral material is involved it must be prepared so that it can be added to the corpus. By the end of this phase, the corpus should be in good condition and should present a solid base from which the lexicographer can select examples or citations to be used in the dictionary. According to Gouws, this already forms the beginning of the compilation process, because some of the activities are aimed at filling

specific article slots (2001: 68). When the corpus is complete the lexicographer can proceed with the macrostructural selection, i.e. to select the items to be included as lemmata in the dictionary. This takes place according to the typological criteria of the specific dictionary. The lemma functions as the guiding element for its article – this enables the lexicographer to apply the lexicographic treatment by activating the microstructural programme.

d. The material processing phase

This phase involves the application of the data distribution structure and the writing of dictionary texts. The data distribution structure (cf. Gouws, 2001: 68) determines the specific position of each data type in the dictionary as a so-called carrier of text types. Some data will be included in the texts accommodated in the front and back matter, whereas other data will be included in the articles.

The microstructural programme orders the entries in such a way that they can be divided into two major article components, i.e. the comment on form and the comment on semantics (Gouws, 2001: 69). Every data category included in the microstructural programme belongs to one of these components.

The comment on form includes the orthographic representation (including spelling variants) of the lemma and conveys morphological and grammatical information as well as information on the pronunciation of the lemma. The way in which the entries are presented in the comment on form should be determined by the reference skills of the intended target user (Gouws, 2001: 69).

The comment on semantics forms a separate component of the article and displays a high density of data. The nature and extent of the comment on semantics are determined by the type of dictionary. Gouws states that the comment on semantics contains all the entries reflecting all the various aspects of the meaning of the lemma as well as pragmatic values of the lemma (2001: 70). In a bilingual dictionary the translation equivalents are usually the most important entries in the comment on semantics – the supporting examples function as cotext entries to illustrate typical use and are also part of the comment on semantics. Since the supporting examples play an important role in bilingual dictionaries the lexicographer has to select examples that best indicate the sense and typical usage of the translation equivalent.

The only way in which this can be achieved consistently is by using a representative lexicographic corpus.

e. The publishing preparation phase

This is the last phase of the dictionary conceptualisation plan, which involves the various stages of proofreading and final adjustments (Gouws, 2001: 70).

2.2 The target user

2.2.1 The target users and his or her characteristics

According to Tarp, two concepts are essential when dictionaries are to be considered as a utility product, namely the user and his or her needs (2000: 194). When a lexicographer conceives, produces or reviews a dictionary, he or she must always determine the corresponding or expected group of users and their needs. If this is not done, lexicographic work cannot be conducted on a scientific basis. A specific group of users can be homogenous or heterogeneous. But whatever the case may be, the lexicographer must determine the characteristics of the target users, and first of all their language competence. This can be done with the aid of the following questions (Tarp, 2000: 194-195):

- Which language is their mother tongue?
- At what level have they mastered their mother tongue?
- At what level have they mastered a foreign language?

In the case of bilingual dictionaries, especially in the case of dictionaries treating languages spoken in different countries or by two very different cultures, it is also important to determine the general cultural and encyclopaedic knowledge of the target user group.

Therefore the lexicographer should ask a fourth question (Tarp 2000, 195):

- What is the level of their general cultural and encyclopaedic knowledge?

Tarp refers to these competencies as the basic or primary characteristics of the user group (2000: 195). To be able to produce a dictionary of high quality that is user-friendly at the same time, the lexicographer must also determine the secondary characteristics – the general experience of dictionary use – of the target users. Whereas translators could be expected to have a good knowledge of the cultures of the source and target languages, they often translate texts that are very culture specific and therefore might need information on the foreign culture

that was deemed to be specific for inclusion in the dictionary. It is crucial that the lexicographer decides well in advance who his target user will be, so that he or she can structure the dictionary accordingly.

2.2.2 User situations

Tarp warns that these characteristics form only one aspect of what should be taken into account when conceiving a modern dictionary. The situations in which the user will be using the dictionary and for what purpose have a decisive influence on the work of the lexicographer. Tarp states that there are two different kinds of general user situations (2000: 195). Firstly, the user consults the dictionary in order to enable or improve existing or future communication. Secondly, the user consults the dictionary in order to obtain knowledge on a special subject, or in very rare cases, according to Tarp, in order to learn and study a foreign language (2000: 195). According to Tarp, these two types of user situations are communication-orientated and knowledge-orientated (2000: 195).

2.2.3 User needs

When a user consults a dictionary, he or she does so to gain information that allows him or her to solve a specific problem. The dictionary must be able to meet the needs that arise in such a situation. Often the needs are very simple and can be satisfied with only one or a few lexicographic data. In other situations user needs might be very complex and can only be met with a combination of different kinds of lexicographic data. The user might need (Tarp, 2000: 195-196):

- information on the native language;
- information on a foreign language;
- a comparison between the native and a foreign language;
- information on culture and the world in general.

These needs identified by Tarp are primary user needs, because they are the needs that impel the user to consult the dictionary (2000: 196). There are, however, other kinds of lexicographic user needs, which constitute secondary user needs. These are the needs that arise when a user is in the process of consulting the dictionary in order to satisfy a primary need (Tarp, 2000: 196):

- general information on lexicography and dictionary use;
and
- information on the specific dictionary and how to use it.

In order to meet all these primary and secondary user needs, the lexicographer, when planning a dictionary, must be aware of both the primary and the secondary characteristics of the user group. It is, of course, not the same to meet the needs of a novice (e.g. a school pupil learning a foreign language) and the needs of someone with a solid knowledge of the languages treated in the dictionary (e.g. a translator). The same applies to meeting the needs of an experienced dictionary user and someone who consults a dictionary for the first time.

2.2.4 The source and target language

It should be the lexicographer's aim to try and accommodate the needs of all users. Especially in the case of a dictionary such as WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, which is almost unique in treating the language combination of Afrikaans and German, this is essential. As a result of its unique language combination, this dictionary is used by a large and diverse group of users, which means that the lexicographer should try and satisfy the needs of all of the potential users. The publishers of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH claim that this dictionary is suitable for a diverse group of users, both Afrikaans and German mother-tongue speakers, in various contexts.

Haas's requirement that an ideal bilingual dictionary should anticipate every possible need of the prospective user (Haas, 1967: 45) has merit, but it is important to define a target user, because his specific needs will determine the content and structure (macrostructure, microstructure, front and back matter) of the dictionary (cf. Gouws, 1989: 43). Haas states that in the case of a bilingual dictionary this decision becomes even more complicated, since the lexicographer not only has to decide on a specific group of target users, but also which of the two languages to be treated in the dictionary the focus will be on (1967: 47). A French-German dictionary would be useful for native speakers of German when learning or translating French, but one cannot assume that this same dictionary will be equally useful for the French native speaker when translating into German (for example, if the dictionary does not indicate to the German native speaker that the French equivalent for *zwei Wochen* is *quinze jours*, he would have no way of knowing this).

Haas suggests that the intended user group should be indicated in the dictionary title, for example, German-French dictionary for Germans (1967: 47). However, here one might prefer to include German native speakers from Austria and Switzerland by changing the title to German-French dictionary for native speakers of German. Haas continues that dictionary compilers are sometimes not even aware of this problem – thinking that they are preparing a dictionary suitable to the needs of native speakers of both languages; it could easily happen that this dictionary will not be truly suitable for either group of native speakers (1967: 47).

Gouws is of the opinion that a bilingual dictionary is more suited to native speakers of one of the languages treated in the dictionary than the other (1997: 43); his opinion is shared by Al-Kasimi, (1977: 21) and Harrel (1967: 51), who has the following to say:

A primary problem in the composition of a bilingual dictionary is to decide whether the work is intended principally for the speakers of the X-language or the speakers of the Y-language. It is clearly impossible to pay equal attention to both X-speakers and Y-speakers in one and the same work.

And in Martin's words (1967: 154):

Now it is too much to expect [a bilingual] dictionary to work two ways at once. The native speaker of a language is in a position to supply much information that must be made explicit for [...] the foreigner. Only after the lexicographer has determined who his target user will be, can he carry on with the actual planning of his dictionary.

Al-Kasimi says that one of the lexicographer's most important initial decisions should be whether speakers of language X or language Y will be using his dictionary, because a bilingual dictionary for source-language speakers should be put together differently from a bilingual dictionary intended for the speakers of the target language (1977: 21). Singh (1982: 192) states:

If the dictionary is meant for the speaker of the source language, the introduction and direction should be in the source language, but if it is meant for the target language speaker, it should be in the target language.

2.2.4.1 WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH as a bidirectional dictionary

WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH started out as a monofunctional dictionary for Afrikaans speakers who wanted to learn German, but it also had a secondary function as an aid for a

German user group (cf. Gouws, 1997: 45). The publisher states in the preface of the eighth edition:

[Das Wörterbuch] entstand kurz nachdem Afrikaans als amtliche Sprache anerkannt, und Deutsch als Lehrfach auf unseren Schulen und Universitäten eingeführt worden war. Es trug daher anfangs das Gepräge eines Elementarbuches für den Fremdsprachigen Unterricht.

By the eighth edition WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH had already evolved into a bidirectional (also bifunctional) dictionary (cf. Gouws, 1997: 45):

In der Nachkriegszeit erfolgte eine stärkere Zuwanderung aus Deutschland und wurden höhere Ansprüche an das Wörterbuch gestellt. Diesen suchten [...] in bedeutend verbesserten und vermehrten Auflagen gerecht zu werden.

It is clear from this statement that the compilers of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH intended this edition, the eighth edition (1983), to be aimed at native speakers of both Afrikaans and German.

2.3 Lexicographic functions

Tarp states that once the lexicographer has determined who the target users will be, what their characteristics are and which user situations and which user needs will play a role, he or she can determine the so-called lexicographic functions of the planned dictionary (2000: 196). A lexicographic function is “the endeavour and ability of the dictionary to cover the complex of needs that arise in the user in a particular user situation” Tarp (2000: 196).

Tarp subdivides the functions of a dictionary into communication-orientated and knowledge-orientated functions in correspondence with the respective user situations (2000: 196).

According to Tarp the most important communication-orientated functions are (2000: 196-197):

- to assist the reception of texts in the native language;
- to assist the production of texts in the native language;
- to assist the reception of texts in a foreign language;
- to assist the production of texts in a foreign language;
- to assist the translation of texts from the language into a foreign language; and
- to assist the translation of texts from a foreign language into the native language.

He lists the following as the most important knowledge-orientated functions (Tarp, 2000: 197):

- to provide general cultural and encyclopaedic information;
- to provide special information on the subject field or the discipline;
- and
- to provide information on the language (for example, when studying a foreign language.)

Tarp cautions that these aspects should be structured in a more detailed manner when dealing with an actual dictionary (2000: 197). Dictionaries should, for instance, include functions in order to give the target user information on cultural differences in the same subject field. It is to be expected that translators with a linguistic background should be highly competent in the foreign language. However, in the case of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH this dictionary is intended for a larger and diverse target group – which means that the lexicographer (both the original compiler and later revisers, since the target user group evolved with every edition) should have included functions to serve the needs of the entire target user group.

2.4 Text production and comprehension

A further important factor when compiling a bilingual dictionary is to consider whether it is intended to be used in text production or text comprehension.

Al-Kasimi states that the traditional approach to foreign language teaching emphasised reading for comprehension rather than speaking or writing for communication (1977: 25). This has changed over the last few decades and nowadays the focus has shifted to speaking and producing one's own text. Therefore modern dictionaries should enable their users to produce texts and not only to understand them; this naturally means that the dictionary should undergo some changes to be able to adhere to new demands. According to Al-Kasimi, the distinction between a dictionary for comprehension and one for production can be observed in the very first stages of compiling the dictionary – in the choice of the source and target languages (1977: 25). To use his example: if one compiles a dictionary for Americans and intends this dictionary to be an aid in text production, English should be the source language and Arabic the target language (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 25). However, if the dictionary is intended as an aid in text comprehension, Arabic should become the source language and English the

target language. Once again a question arises: can a dictionary intended for language comprehension be transformed into a dictionary that is suitable for text production as well?

Al-Kasimi mentions that another difference between a dictionary for text comprehension and text production lies in the content and structure of the entries (1977: 25). If a lexicographer were to compile two dictionaries – one for production and one for comprehension – he or she would have to include more entries with more senses in the dictionary intended for comprehension, whereas the entry words in a dictionary for production should be of a general nature and its articles should provide the user with more information on the morphological and syntactical character of those words.

According to Singh, a dictionary for comprehension aims at the understanding of a foreign language text – it would then be a standard bilingual dictionary (1982: 193). Such a dictionary has a large word list, which includes not only words of a general nature, but also “argotisms, archaisms, the necessary special terms to some extent and neologisms”. Every lemma should be given with all its possible meanings. The description of the entry is in general quite short – its only purpose is to provide the meanings of the source language words. Usually no collocations and illustrative examples are given – only the literal translation equivalents are given. From the representative example of the following article in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, it becomes clear that it still tends to be an aid in text comprehension, for example:

bestuurder, (-s), der Führer, der Leiter, der Verwalter, der Lenker, der Geschäftsführer.

This article will enable the German native speaker to select the fitting equivalent when reading an Afrikaans text on, for example, business management of a restaurant as opposed to that of an international corporation; whereas it will not be of much use to the native Afrikaans speaker who has to write a text on the same subject. Unfortunately one of the polysemous senses of the source language is not listed: the translation equivalent *der Fahrer* (in the sense of a driver of a vehicle) is not given listed.

According to Singh, a dictionary for production might contain a smaller word list in comparison with a dictionary for comprehension, but a much more detailed description of the

entries (1982: 193). For each article there are more details of usage and collocations as well as morphological and syntactical features.

2.5 Dictionary structure and data in the dictionary

Tarp states that the lexicographic functions form the essence of lexicography – they constitute the leading principle of all dictionaries (2000: 198). The entire content of the dictionary is influenced to a greater or lesser extent by its respective functions. Neither the form nor the contents of a dictionary can be conceived without taking the functions into account.

According to Tarp, it is possible to outline an integrated model of a lexicographic reference work on the basis of the functions (2000: 198).

Tarp states that, from the standpoint of user-orientated lexicography, the optimal dictionary would always have only one function and would be dedicated to only one type of user (2000: 199). This will result in the most accurate quality product designed to solve the special problems of a homogenous group of users. However, in practice, one dictionary usually has several functions. Therefore the lexicographer has to combine various functions and a heterogeneous group of users. Tarp states that in order for such a dictionary to be a success, the lexicographer has to do a detailed analysis of the categories of lexicographic data needed to cover each function for each type of user (2000: 199). It is possible to combine all these categories in one dictionary, but this frequently leads to problems and contradictions that make the dictionary less user-friendly, i.e. of lesser quality. Tarp emphasises that this should certainly not be the objective of modern user-orientated lexicography (2000: 199).

Tarp states that the lexicographer could avoid this problem by omitting certain data every time they create contradictions (2000: 199). However, such a solution could also give rise to new problems, because it would result in a heterogeneous dictionary with a fluctuating quality, where each type of user will sometimes be able to find what he or she is looking for and sometimes not. Tarp prefers a less pragmatic solution, which is to establish a ranking of functions and user types, giving priority to some of them, second priority to others and third priority to still others (2000: 199). This means that the lexicographer is at least sure that he or she is producing a product of homogeneous quality that meets the functions and serves the user types he or she regards as most important for the particular dictionary. For the second and third categories of functions and user types, the dictionary may not be perfect, but it provides at least some kind of assistance to the users.

Tarp is of the opinion that it is not always possible to avoid pragmatism (2000: 199). Often the lexicographer has to reduce the requirements of the planned dictionary due to financial limitations or the policy of the publisher. He warns that pragmatism must be guided by theory to obtain optimal results (Tarp, 2000: 199). It is acceptable to claim that it is impossible to meet all the demands of a linguistic translator (e.g. collocations), but that such a user is better off with a dictionary that at least provides equivalents than with no dictionary at all. Tarp provides an example of a dictionary that would, however, be unacceptable (2000: 200):

analyst analytiker, konsulent, planlægger

Such an article would most likely not be of any use to the native English-speaking translator, unless he already knows to what extent these equivalents differ. If one compares this article with the entries in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, it is clear that many of its articles take this form, for example:

die **Administration'**, (-,-en), bestuur, administrasie

2.5.1 Article structure

Wiegand (in Baunebjerg Hansen, 1990: 96) describes a dictionary article as a specific text type that comprises of an organised group of lexicographical text elements. According to Baunebjerg Hansen, this means that in practice an article can have many different forms and that the way in which the data in such an article is organised often leaves much to be desired, which may be linked to the different types of dictionaries (active or passive) as well as the purpose of the information and/or the assumed user needs (1990: 96). According to Baunebjerg Hansen, there is a tendency towards the condensation of information in lexicography; however, in order to be explicit this condensation needs to be loosened, so she proposes the following (1990: 97-8):

- determining the target user group and its needs and dictionary skills constitute an essential part of the dictionary preparation;
- user needs and dictionary skills should determine the selection of the information offered in the dictionary;
- the purpose of the dictionary (production or reception, translation into the native language or into the foreign language) should determine which specific information is provided;

- if information on the native language is radically omitted in passive dictionaries, the lexicographer assumes that every native speaker has perfect command of his mother tongue, which is not realistic;
- the order and way in which the equivalents are presented must be determined by the equivalence relation between the lemma and the equivalent and not by the meaning structure of the head word, as in monolingual dictionaries;
- all meaning distinction should be explained in the user's native language;
- the arrangement of the microstructural information should be based on instructions or rules determined by the editorial staff;
- the principles determining the arrangement of the microstructural information must be explained (with examples) in the introduction;
- the information offered in the dictionary must be as explicit as possible.

According to Baunebjerg Hansen, an article in a bilingual dictionary usually consists of an A part and a B part, where the A part presents the lemma and the general translation equivalents and the B part indicates the combinational properties of the lemma, for example, collocations and idioms (1990: 102). The article in a bilingual dictionary differs from that of a monolingual dictionary in that the dictionary user should be able to form a global overview of the meaning structure of a certain lemma through the cohesion of separate, successively listed points and subpoints in the article (Baunebjerg Hansen, 1990: 107). Baunebjerg Hansen states that dividing the article into an A part and a B part allows for a far more consistent consideration of the dichotomy of the active-passive principle (1990: 108). Depending on whether the source language in the dictionary is the native or foreign language of the dictionary user, different criteria determining the microstructural arrangement are needed in the A part, whereas this plays no role for the arrangement in the B part. Baunebjerg Hansen provides the following diagram which illustrates the typical structure of an article in a bilingual dictionary (1990: 103):

Formal construction of a dictionary article

Formal parts of an article	A part			B part		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Positions in the dictionary	Lemma	Equivalents	Examples	Lemma	Equivalents	Examples

This diagram indicates the information categories of an article. The main information categories are lemma, translation equivalents (both compulsory) and examples. These three categories should contain technical, syntagmatic, semantic and pragmatic information, which could be represented as follows (Baunebjerg Hansen 1990: 103-104):

Textual elements of the microstructure

Microstructural information categories	Lemma	Equivalent	Example
	Syntagmatic information		
	Semantic and pragmatic information		

According to Baunebjerg Hansen, the A part and the B part of the article are constructed identically (1990: 104). Apart from the obligatory information category *Lemma*, the lemma position contains the part of speech as obligatory information. Often optional information is indicated, for example, gender, inflection, the case governed by the verb, valency, syntactic function and frequency. These information categories concern only the lemma. Baunebjerg Hansen provides the following diagram to illustrate the information categories (1990: 106):

The lemma position in the dictionary article

Information categories	
Lemma	+
Part of speech	+
Gender	+*
Inflection	+*
Valency	(+)
Case governing by the verb	(+)
Syntactical function	(+)
Frequency	(+)

+ Obligatory

* Obligatory only in passive dictionaries

(+) Optional

The second position, i.e. the equivalence position, contains the translation equivalents as the most important obligatory information category in both passive and active dictionaries and as supplementary information they can contain a number obligatory and optional information categories, for example (Baunebjerg Hansen, 1990: 107):

The equivalence position in the dictionary article

Information categories	
Lemma	+
Part of speech	+
Gender	+*
Inflection	+*
Valency	(+)
Case governed by the verb	(+)
Syntactical function	(+)
Frequency	(+)

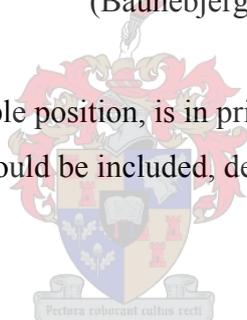
+ Obligatory

* Obligatory only in passive dictionaries

(+) Optional

(Baunebjerg Hansen, 1990: 107)

The third position, namely the example position, is in principle optional, but Baunebjerg Hansen suggests that this position should be included, depending on the type of dictionary.



2.5.1.1 The A part of an article

In both types of dictionaries (passive and active) the most important criterion for qualifying as a translation equivalent in the A part is (Baunebjerg Hansen, 1990: 108):

- The criterion of generalisation, i.e. can the translational equivalent generally be used in different contexts?

In general it should be possible to use the translation equivalents presented in the A part in different contexts as those indicated. This main criterion is specified by three more criteria (Baunebjerg Hansen, 1990: 108):

- Translation equivalents restricted through explicit grammatical, semantic or pragmatic limitations fulfil the criterion of generalisation, as long as they can generally be used, considering the restrictions indicated.
- Translation equivalents that can only be used in very specific collocations are not generalisable and should not appear in the A part, but under the sublemmatised source language collocation. Idioms, i.e. translation equivalents that belong in fixed collocation which form one lexical unit should also only be provided in the B part

According to Baunebjerg Hansen, collocations should be sublemmatised in the microstructure, because the lexicographer cannot assume that the user will already know the collocation or that he or she will know what the basis of the collocation is (1990: 109). This will serve the purpose of the dictionary, i.e. aiding the user to find the information he or she is looking for as quickly as possible. However, Baunebjerg Hansen states that such collocations should be included in the B part of the article (1990: 109).

For active dictionaries Baunebjerg Hansen states the microstructural arrangement should be organised according to meaning, then frequency, followed by degree of specification (1990: 113). The last two categories are often related; if not, frequency should have priority. Baunebjerg Hansen states that examples in the active A part depend on the user needs and skills as well as the purpose of the dictionary (1990: 117). She comments that general construction and sentence examples should be provided in the A part, but that these only need to be given in the target language; source-language examples and their corresponding translation equivalents should be listed in the B part (Baunebjerg Hansen, 1990: 118).

Cop states that collocations consist of a base and a collocator which are not on the same hierarchical level and therefore they fulfil differing functions in dictionaries (1989-1991: 2776). She provides the following example in German: “*den Termin einhalten*” (1989-1991: 2777). She states that a German user translating a German text would know this collocation and would have the choice of looking under either terms, meaning that the collocation should ideally be accessible under both base and collocator entries (1989-1991: 2777). Providing the base (*Termin*) in the collocator entry (*einhalten*) serves meaning discrimination in the active dictionary. Collocators in a base entry do not contribute so much to the meaning of the base, but they show how the equivalent is characteristically contextualised (1989-1991: 2777).

2.5.1.2 The B part in active and passive dictionaries

According to Baunebjerg Hansen, collocations that do not represent general examples that can be linked to the equivalent examples in the A part and cannot through their meaning be linked to the equivalent examples in the A part, should be provided in the B part (1990: 125). Fixed collocations and idioms belong to this category. Once again the outer texts play an important role; the criteria the lexicographer has chosen to structure the dictionary article and whether

he provides specific information in the A or B part should be explained in detail in the dictionary's introduction (Baunebjerg Hansen, 1990: 125).

Baunebjerg Hansen provides the following principles according to which the B part should be structured (1990: 127-128):

- When a collocation contains a noun, it should be categorised according to the noun.
- If it does not contain a noun, but an adjective, it should be categorised according to the adjective.
- If it contains no noun and no adjective, but a verb, it should be categorised according to the verb.
- If it contains no noun, no adjective, no verb, but a preposition or an adverb, it should be categorised according to the preposition or adverb.
- If the collocation contains no noun, no adjective, no verb, no preposition or adverb, but it does contain a pronoun or a numeral, these should determine the categorisation. If the collocation contains both a pronoun and a numeral, the part of speech closest to the keyword determines the categorisation.
- If a collocation contains several nouns, adjectives or verbs, the part of speech closest to the keyword should determine the categorisation.
- In each category (1-5) the information should be arranged alphabetically.
- The collocations should be printed in bold as source language sublemmas. The element determining the categorisation should be in italics if it appears for the first time.
- Polysemous sublemmas that have several target-language equivalents should be subcategorised according to semantic or also syntactic principles.
- Examples can be provided for the equivalents. The same principles should be followed in both the A and the B part.
- Syntagmatic, semantic or pragmatic data could be provided for the sublemmas, the equivalents and the examples.

2.5.1.3 Baunebjerg's proposed article structure

A part of the article

Information categories:						
Main categories	Lemma		Equivalent		Example	
Subcategories	AD	PD	AD	PD	AD	PD
<i>Morpho-syntactic data</i>						
Part of speech	+	+	+	+	-	-
Gender	(+)	+	+	(+)	-	-
Inflection	(+)	+	+	(+)	-	-
Valency	(+)	+	+	(+)	-	-
Case governed by a verb	(+)	+	+	(+)	-	-
Syntactic function	(+)	+	+	(+)	-	-
<i>Semantic data</i>						
Equivalence relation	(+) (+)		(+) (+)		(+) (+)	
<i>Pragmatic data</i>						
Style	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+) (+)	
Communication area	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+) (+)	
Sender's standpoint	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+) (+)	
Timewise limited use	-	(+)	-	(+)	(+) (+)	
Regional use	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+) (+)	
Frequency	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	-	
Reference	(+)	(+)	(+)	(+)	(-)	

+ Obligatory

* Obligatory only in passive dictionaries

(+) Optional

(Baunebjerg Hansen, 1990: 136)

B part of the article

Information categories:			
Main categories	Sublemma	Equivalent	Example
Subcategories			
<i>Morpho-syntactic data</i>			
Part of speech	-	-	-
Gender	-	-	-
Inflection	-	-	-
Valency	(+)	(+)	-
Case governed by a verb	(+)	(+)	-
Syntactic function	(+)	(+)	-
<i>Semantic data</i>			
Equivalence relation	(+)	(+)	(+)
<i>Pragmatic data</i>			
Style	(+)	(+)	(+)
Communication area	(+)	(+)	(+)
Sender's standpoint	(+)	(+)	(+)
Timewise limited use	(+)*	(+)*	(+)*
Regional use	(+)	(+)	(+)
Frequency	(+)	(+)	(+)
Reference	(+)	(+)	(+)

+ Obligatory

* Obligatory only in passive dictionaries

(+) Optional

(Baunbjerg Hansen, 1990: 136)

Once the lexicographer has determined his target user group and has planned the structure of the dictionary accordingly, he or she can continue with the next step, namely selecting the lemmas he or she wishes to treat in his dictionary.

2.6 Planning the selection of entries

Because a printed dictionary such as WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH needs to be compact, the lexicographer has to give preference to some lemmas above others. These entries should be determined by the purpose of the dictionary (cf. Al-Kasimi, 1977: 21; Singh, 1982: 192). For example, a learners' dictionary should provide fewer entries, but treat them in more detail. Harrel illustrates this point with the example of *circumnavigate* (1967: 51). He states that a word such as *circumnavigate* need not be included in a bilingual dictionary intended for the native English speaker wanting to learn a foreign language, because a native English speaker will have the knowledge to search for an equivalent in the foreign language by looking up alternative forms such as 'to sail around' or 'to go around'. At the same time it does no damage to the native English speaker if *circumnavigate* is listed in the dictionary. However, if *circumnavigate* is listed at the expense of another term with a higher frequency, it would represent a weakness in the dictionary. Al-Kasimi states that if an English-Arabic dictionary is intended for Americans, there is no point in including the sporting terms of American football, since these are unknown in the Arab world (1977: 22). Therefore one could ask why words such as *penkop* (very young soldier in the Anglo Boer War) are listed in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, but not *disket*. The word *penkop* might have been important for cultural reasons in 1925, when this dictionary was published for the first time, since the Anglo-Boer War was still fresh in people's memories, but by the eighth, and most up-to-date, edition of 1983 this word has lost its former importance. It is recommendable that such words should be replaced with more current and frequent word such as *disket* (computer disk). It is possible that the word *disket* did not yet exist in 1983, but in an edition of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH still sold and reprinted by its publishers as an up-to-date dictionary; this represents a weakness in the dictionary. Since this dictionary claims to be aimed at native and foreign speakers of both Afrikaans and German, one cannot state that including *penkop* is a mistake, because a native speaker of German is unlikely to know what *penkop* means (cf. Malone, 1977: 111). It is rather a question of judgement.

Swanson provides a list of criteria to be used in "realistic" selection of entries (1967: 65-70). These criteria are based on the "four properties of form, syntax, meaning and relative frequency, and two incidental bilingual by-products: feedback and cultural items":

- **Relative frequency:** These are the words and morphemes with the highest frequency in a language.

- **Function words:** These are particle words (prepositions, conjunctions and adverbs) which constitute “the syntactic cement of discourse”(Swanson, 1967: 65). Such words must be completely entered and treated in full.
- **Word formation:** A bilingual dictionary should contain a detailed essay – either as part of the preface or as an appendix – on how words are generally formed in the target language. Such a guide reduces the need for extensive lists of derivative forms such as the diminutive form, for example, *Büchlein* and *Männchen* in German. However, he also warns:

While word-formation patterns will give us rules and obviate the necessity of including vast numbers of derived words, we must watch out for those which have to be included because of morphophonemic peculiarities or unexpected meanings.

To illustrate his point he provides the example of the German word *Hochzeit*, which seems to be a composition of two simple words, but whose meaning has nothing directly to do with those two words.

- **Semantic criteria:** Here Swanson suggests two techniques for handling a large number of words: after they have been isolated and classified on a morphological basis, one can attempt (1967: 65):
 - a) a classification by contrasts, for example, what is the antonym of _ ?

light	rain snow dumbbell	heavy	rain snow dumbbell
light	complexion colour red	dark	complexion colour red

or

wide door	narrow door
wide array	small array
wide difference (of opinion)	slight difference (of opinion)

or

dry	towel street	wet	towel street
dry	wine martini	sweet	wine –
dry	skin	oily	skin

b) a classification by substitution: for example, the sentence “He walked up to the bar.” From this sentence (the inner context) one can only determine that *bar* is a noun. When consulting the outer context (the paragraph or situation), one can determine by substitution that bar is a ‘counter for serving drinks, etc.’

- **Feedback from the foreign to native part:** in the search for target-language equivalents of source language sentences, phrases and words in a variety of simple contexts, one would occasionally encounter target-language items not anticipated in the source language part. Swanson provides the following example: if one finds only the Spanish *remoto* as an equivalent to English *remote* one may get, in another context, Spanish *rincón* ‘inner angle’, but also ‘remote locality, out of the way place’ (1967: 69). The English entries then become an index to unexpected foreign items or ones that are not easily discovered.
- **Cultural items:** Swanson defines culture as a “more-or-less unified linguistic area” and states that such a culture is not aware that it is different, strange or characteristic unless informed by another, or suddenly confronted with a different culture (1967: 70). One of the tasks of the bilingual dictionary is to recognise lexical items that reflect these differences and to treat them accordingly. Swanson stresses that this does not mean cultural items should be minimised by seeking an exact (often artificial) equivalent in the target language (1967: 70).

Singh suggests that cultural items in the source language are influenced by geographical surroundings, the cultural milieu and social institutions in the source culture (1982: 192). It is important that the lexicographer should consider this when selecting entries and providing target-language equivalents.

When keeping in mind that article selection should be done to fulfil the needs of the target user and ultimately to enable the dictionary to fulfil its purpose, it becomes clear that WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH has set itself a difficult task:

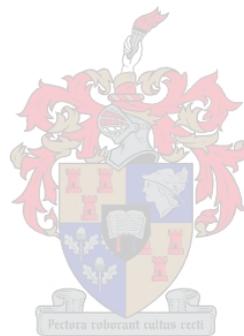
Die [...] Ausgabe soll in handlichem Format als neue und ergiebige Quelle zur schnellen, beide Sprachen umfassenden Information dienen und so zur Vertiefung der Beziehungen zwischen unserem Land und Deutschland beitragen.

As mentioned in 2.2.4.1 WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH developed from a monodirectional to a bidirectional dictionary. When considering the claim that the dictionary is bidirectional, the question arises whether the compilers and later revisers of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH succeeded in transforming it into a bidirectional dictionary. Taking into account that the target user and the purpose of this dictionary should have determined its entry selection, on the macrostructural level – and on microstructural level the treatment of each article – WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH should be able to succeed in fulfilling the needs of varied groups – from school pupils to academics, these being Afrikaans or German native speakers (cf. Singh, 1982: 192). The problem is that this dictionary claims to be of use to a large and diverse user group, and that it is indeed used by a large and diverse group, because it is the only dictionary of its kind.

Another point to be noted on the purpose of a bilingual dictionary is whether it was compiled for the use of scholars, students, or for those with a good knowledge of the target language, for example, translators. Since WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH states in its preface that it started out as having “das Gepräge eines Elementarbuches für den Fremdsprachigen Unterricht” and evolved to a dictionary that has been given a new character: “um der sich fortwährend wandelnden sprachlichen Wirklichkeit gerecht zu werden” which can be used as a source “zur schnellen, beide Sprachen umfassenden Informationen [...] und so zur Vertiefung der Beziehungen zwischen unserem Land und Deutschland beitragen[d]”, one can assume that this dictionary could be used by a varied group of users, from school pupils to those active in trade between Germany and South Africa, implying that it is much more advanced than the average school dictionary. Zgusta comments that the usual situation when it comes to bilingual dictionaries is that the dictionary is planned to be helpful in more than one respect – the lexicographer should, however, during the entire process of compiling the dictionary, keep his or her target user and the aim of the dictionary in mind (1971: 304).

2.7 Summary

The genuine purpose of the dictionary is to provide the user with an answer to a specific problem. To be able to fulfil this purpose the lexicographer must be aware of lexicographic functions and apply lexicographic processes. This will result in a carefully planned dictionary which provides information to the user in a consistent manner and will be a helpful tool for the user.



3 Chapter 3

The actual compilation of the dictionary

The distribution and structuring of the lexicographic data within a specific component part and between various component parts are determined by the data distribution structure (Tarp: <http://www.aelfe.org/documents/02-Ib10-Tarp.pdf>). This aspect should be planned carefully to ensure that the dictionary as a whole contains as much as possible of the data the target user might need; if the data distribution structure is well planned the user will know what type of data he or she will find in the article, front matter, back matter, etc. The data distribution structure also plays a decisive role in the selection of lemmata and how they will be presented, for example, in the case of collocations.

3.1 Selection of lemmata

Singh states that entry selection in a bilingual dictionary is determined by the type and size of the dictionary and its intended user (1982: 194). If a dictionary is intended for native to foreign use, i.e. when its aim is to enable the source language speaker to express him- or herself in the target language or to enable him or her to translate words typical of the source language into the target language, cultural items do not need to be included in the dictionary, because the speaker knows these terms. However, in a dictionary intended for foreign to native use, i.e. for a target-language speaker to understand the source language, such words should be included with their meaning, because the target-language speaker may come across these words when confronted with source language texts.

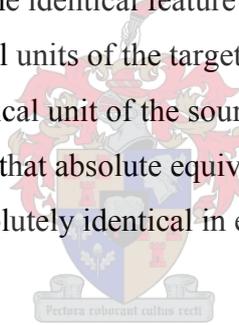
Singh agrees with Al-Kasimi (see 2.6): “If the dictionary is small and is meant for the native to foreign use uncommon words of lower frequency may not be given” (1982: 195). For example, the German word “kauzig” is not widely used and does not necessarily have to be included in a smaller learner’s dictionary; for example, it is not listed in COLLINS POCKET GERMAN DICTIONARY.

Nida (in Al-Kasimi, 1977: 58) argues that the semantic problems involved in a bilingual dictionary are different and more complicated than those in monolingual dictionaries, because monolingual dictionaries are compiled for people who are either part of or understand the culture which is being described, whereas bilingual dictionaries describe two different

cultures. This is one of the reasons why a bilingual dictionary should, ideally, be monodirectional, i.e. one of the languages should be the source language and the other the target language. Singh has the following to say on this matter. “Languages have their own systems of organising form and meaning, so lexical units are organised differently” (1982: 200). Nida (in Singh, 1982: 200) explains that “there are no exact correspondences between related words in different languages.”

3.2 The equivalent

Zgusta emphasises that the bilingual lexicographer’s “most important duty is to find in the target language such lexical units as are equivalent to the lexical units as of the source language, and to coordinate the two sets” (1971: 312). Wiegand states that equivalence means that a unit in the source language has the same value as a target-language unit, however, this does not mean that they are identical (2002: 241). Two units have the same value when they have the same purpose and at least one identical feature in the context of a thought or an action. Zgusta states that those lexical units of the target languages which have the same lexical meaning as the respective lexical unit of the source languages can be called equivalent (1971: 312). He continues by stating that absolute equivalence exists where the lexical meaning of two lexical units are absolutely identical in every aspect (designation, connotation, range of application).



Zgusta explains that the basic purpose of a bilingual dictionary is to coordinate the lexical units of the one language with those lexical units of another language which are equivalent in their lexical meaning (1971: 294). The first language, to whose lexical units the lexical units of the other language are co-ordinated, is the source language and the order of the entries in bilingual dictionaries is given by the source language. The other language, whose lexical units are coordinated to the source language units, is the target language.

3.2.1 Different types of equivalence

Gouws states that equivalence is a semantic relation between individual meaning differentiations of a lemma and a source language unit that also has those same specific meaning differentiations (1989: 163). Equivalence can be established in three different forms (cf. Svensén, 1993: 142-153; Kromann *et al.*, 1984, in: Gouws, 1989); for example:

1. Absolute equivalence

Gouws defines an absolute equivalent as one equivalent having the identical semantic extent as the source language unit (1989: 163). Equivalence of this kind indicates absolute correspondence between words and expressions regarding content and register. Svensén provides the following examples in his summary of Kromann *et al.* (1993: 144):

The first is an example of a pair of equivalents unmarked as to register.

leap year – Schaltjahr

In WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH skrikkeljaar – Schaltjahr

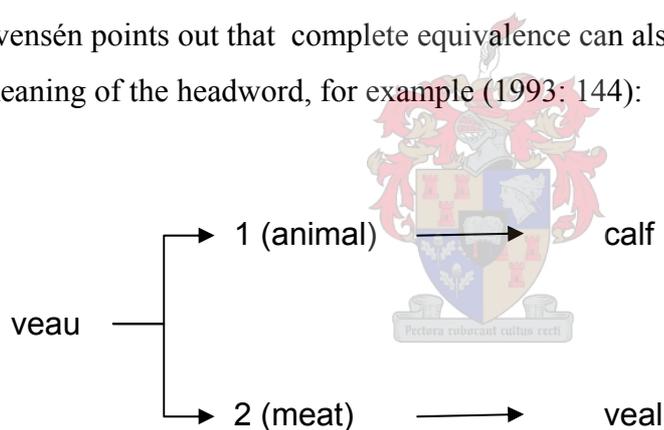
His next pair are marked as to register:

goggle-box – Glotze

Another pair marked as to register, namely as being technical terms:

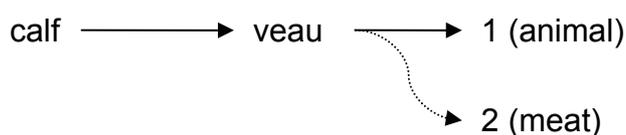
myalgia – Myalgie

Svensén points out that complete equivalence can also occur for more than one meaning of the headword, for example (1993: 144):



(Svensén, 1997: 144)

The same can also apply to one of several meanings of the equivalent:



(Svensén, 1993: 144)

2. Partial equivalence

Gouws defines partial equivalence as a situation where the meaning of the source language unit cannot be fully coordinated with the meaning of the target-language unit

(1989: 163). According to Svensén, partial equivalence describes the situation where there is incomplete agreement of the content and register of the words in the source and target language (1993: 143). The difference may be that the concept underlying the target-language word has fewer distinctive features (3.2.2) than that underlying the source language and so can be regarded as a superordinate concept, for instance, the following examples from Svensén (1993: 144):

boyhood – Kindheit

ape – singe

fressen – eat

In order to be able to equate the pairs, it is necessary to include the additional features on the target-language side:

boyhood – Kindheit (eines Junges)

ape – singe (sans queue)

fressen – eat (of an animal)

The equivalent may also be less marked than the headword with regard to register:

Glotze – television set

Myalgie – muscle pain

mailbox – Briefkasten

In order to be able to equate the pairs of items, it is necessary to add the additional features on the target-language side:

Glotze – (colloquial) television set

Myalgie – (medical) muscle pain

mailbox – (amerikanisch) Briefkasten

The opposite situation occurs when the concept underlying the source language word has fewer distinctive features than that underlying the target-language word – therefore it can be regarded as a superordinate concept. In order to be able to equate the pairs, it is necessary to add at the source language, for each equivalent in the target language, the features that are ‘missing’ in the headwords:

Kindheit 1 (eines Jungen) – boyhood
 2 (eines Mädchen) - girlhood

singe 1 (avec queue) – monkey
 2 (sans queue) – ape

eat 1 (of a person) – essen
 2 (of an animal) – fressen



The headword may also be less marked than the equivalent regarding register. In order to be able to equate the pairs of items, it is necessary to add here the ‘missing’ feature on the source language side:

television set	1 – Fernsehgerät
	2 – (colloquial) – Glotze
Briefkasten	1 – letterbox
	2 – (amerikanisch) mailbox

In the first example the equivalent which has the same style level as the headword *Fernsehgerät* is not marked to indicate this; in the second example the equivalent belonging to British English is not marked as such, as is usual for bilingual dictionaries with English as one of its languages.

According to Wiegand, partial equivalence applies when the polysemous structure of a source language lexical item does not correspond with that of the target language on the systemic level (2002: 243). Secondly, the expression partial equivalence is used when there is either a hyperonym void or a hyponym void in one of the contrasting partner languages. For example, in Russian there is no word which corresponds to the German word ‘Kirschbaum’ – Russian only has lexicalised matches for the German ‘Süßkirschenbaum’ and ‘Sauerkirschenbaum’ (Wiegand, 2002: 244). ‘Kirschbaum’ is then a partial equivalent to both the Russian *čerešnja* and *višnja*. Wiegand claims that the reason for this type of partial equivalence on the systemic level is based incorrectly on factors that have to do with parole, because one argues that a hyperonym expression could refer to the same referential object as one of the hyponym expressions in the text (2002: 244; cf. Sterneman, 1983:44).

The third instance where one uses the expression partial equivalence is when the set of classes of items referring to a collective noun in the source language (for example, German *Vieh*) either do not totally correspond with a collective noun in the target language, or, if there is no correspondence of at least one class, it only occurs in one set in both languages. In German, for example, pigs are included in *Vieh*, but not in Mongolian; whereas in Mongolian, camels, amongst others, also belong to the class denoted by *Vieh* in German (Wiegand, 2002: 244)

Zgusta also advocates that the logical starting point in the search for equivalents is a comparative analysis of the structures of the two languages (1971: 313). In his words: “The lexicographer must ascertain what categories of lexical units (i.e., traditionally, what parts of speech) are present in both the languages, and must decide which pairs of categories will be considered equivalent.” He states that this is easy if there are “observably similar or identical categories” in the two languages involved, as is the case with German and Afrikaans – for example, an Afrikaans noun will be considered equivalent to a German noun:

noun → noun

verb → verb

ontslagbrief, das Entlassungsschreiben

ontslaan, (-), entlassen etc.

(Examples from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH)

However, even if languages are fairly similar, there are differences which make this coordination of meanings difficult. Zgusta mentions the following example: the English equivalent of the German noun *Handarbeit* (as a label on goods) will be *handmade*, an adjective, because the noun *handwork* is used only in reference to the process of the work itself, not in reference to its result (1971: 313).



Zgusta states that it is very important that the lexicographer should observe the troublesome points at the very beginning and decide upon a unified treatment of them (1971: 313). So, for example, for the lexicographer compiling an Afrikaans-German/German-Afrikaans dictionary such as WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, the diminutive form in Afrikaans might present a problem, whereas in German the suffixes *-chen* or *-lein*, as well as an Umlaut, are added to the stem of the word, for example,

Mann → *Männchen*; in Afrikaans the diminutive is formed by adding one of the following suffixes.

-tjie

-kie

-pie

-etjie

-ie

Sometimes the spelling of such words changes in a way which is not predictable for the foreign speaker, for example:

man → mannetjie

Since WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is intended for native speakers of both Afrikaans and German, and claims to be suitable for both text production and comprehension, the forming of the diminutive would have to be explained in both the Afrikaans-German part as well as the German-Afrikaans section, especially as there are words in Afrikaans which seem to be a diminutive form of a noun, for example *frokkie* and *mandjie*. These words in fact only exist in the seemingly diminutive form. A second problem is that the diminutive form in Afrikaans is used with a much higher frequency than in German.

Zgusta suggests that if such forms were not included as lemmas in the dictionary, this type of equivalence should be noted either in the foreword or a grammatical appendix (1971: 314). If they are listed it is important to treat them similarly throughout the dictionary, unless there are, in some cases, specific reasons for treating them otherwise, for example, words such as *mandjie* or *frokkie*. The dictionary should naturally point this out to the user.

Zgusta states that if there is no “categorical equivalence” of the parts of speech recognisable, the lexicographer has to continue by relying on equivalence on lexical meaning (1971: 314). The lexicographer should, at the beginning of the dictionary, prepare as complete as possible instructions on how to treat the single cases of categorical identity or diversity of the individual morphological categories of both the languages.

3. No equivalence

According to Svensén, no equivalence often occurs when the lexicographer searches for a target-language lexical item for source-language terms denoting culture specific concepts (1993: 153). The following examples from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH are culture specific foods:

biltong, (-e), das Biltong (getrocknetes Fleisch)

bobo'tie, gehacktes Fleisch mit Curry zubereitet

die Spätzle, Pl. (-), klein koekies, soort noedel

However, according to the DUDEN, the explanatory equivalent *klein koekies* is incorrect:

Spätzle <Pl.> [mundartl. Vkl. von Spatz] (bes. schwäb.): *kleine, längliche Stücke aus Nudelteig, die in siedendem Salzwasser gekocht werden.*

Svensén suggests two ways of dealing with lacking equivalents: if there is a word in the target language, which as a last resort, can act as a counterpart, the lexicographer can provide this word, but he or she should add some explanatory comment, or point out that the counterpart provided is only approximately equivalent (1993: 153). The second option is to provide an explanatory equivalent.

3.2.1.1 A subcategorisation of partial equivalence

Gouws states that the lexicographer must make provision for different types of equivalent relations that exist between source and target language. He suggests some equivalent relations that could be used in a model of equivalent relations to be used in bilingual lexicography (1989: 164-174).

3.2.1.1.1 Congruence

This term describes a situation of absolute equivalence between lexical items of the source and target language. Gouws states that congruence has a high frequency in jargon, but it can also be found in the general language, for example, in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH (1989: 164):

der Spötter, (-s, -) spotter
die Stein'zeit, (-), Steentydperk.
karringmelk, die Buttermilch

1. Congruence and absolute equivalence

Gouws states that the term congruence and absolute equivalence overlap to a large degree, but that these terms cannot be described as synonyms (1989: 164). Absolute equivalence occurs where an equivalent has exactly the same semantic dimensions as the source language lexical item; such an equivalent may have absolute synonyms in the target language that could also be given as translation equivalents of the lemmas. In such cases, the lemma has more than one absolute equivalent, for instance (from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH):

die Gefräßigkeit, (-), gulsigheid, vraatsugtigheid

Congruence is a limited form of absolute equivalence; apart from the requirement of semantic equivalence between source and target language, another requirement is that neither the

source-language unit nor the target-language unit may have any synonyms. Gouws explains that congruence requires a true one-to-one relation on semantic and lexical level; however, this does not mean that a lemma and its congruent translation equivalent have to be the same type of lexical item (1989: 164). According to Gouws, a lexical lemma can be in a relation of equivalence with a sub-lexical or a multi-lexical item translation equivalent (1989: 165), from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH the following example:

der Realwert, (-e)s, -e), werklike waarde.

In such cases, context plays no role and the translation equivalent is also the semantic equivalent (cf. Gouws, 1997: 75).

2. One-way congruence

Congruence presupposes a reciprocal semantic and lexical equivalence. Where a congruent relation exists between lexical items, applying the reversibility principle will lead to an equal treatment in both parts of the dictionary, for example,

pypdoppie, (-s), der Pfeifendeckel.

der Pfei'fendeckel, (-s, -), pypdoppie.

However, congruence does not mean that a single translation equivalent is the only target-language information an article could provide, apart from the translation equivalent the article can give additional information on the meaning, in the form of a short descriptive explanation. The following articles from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH are examples of one-way congruence:

suurtjie, (-s), Pickles (scharfes, gewürztes, eingemachtes Gemüse).

bikromaat, das Bichromat, doppelchromsaurer Salz

According to Gouws, this additional information does not disqualify these sources and target-language units from an equivalence relation, since both the lemma and its translation equivalent are still monosemous lexical items without synonyms, and the translation equivalent is merely presented with supplemental semantic information. In such cases two-way congruence is possible, because a similar explanation could be given in the German-Afrikaans part (Gouws, 1989: 165).

‘Spaten’ is a monosemous lexical item; it has only one meaning, namely a gardening implement. Since WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH provides only one translation equivalent, namely *graaf*, it seems as if there is a congruent relation between *Spaten* and *graaf*.

However, according to VERKLARENDE HANDWOORDEBOEK VAN DIE AFRIKAANSE TAAL (HAT) the Afrikaans translation equivalent *graaf* is a member of a homonym pair:

graaf¹ s.nw. (grawe) Adellike titel; ook, persoon met dié titel: *In Nederland is graaf die hoogste adellike titel. Die Graaf van Hogendorp.*

graaf² s.nw. (grawe; grafie) **1** Werktuig bestaande uit 'n staalblad onder aan 'n steel, en gebruik om mee te spit, te delf of grond te verplaas: *'n Lekker ligte graaf.* **2** Hoeveelheid wat op 'n slag met graaf afgeskep kan word: *Bring twee grawe grond.* **3** Lengte van 'n graafblad; spit: *Hy dolwe die grond twee grawe diep om.* ww. (gegraaf) Minder gewoon vir *grawe*.

and in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH:

graaf, (w), *sie* **grawe**; (s), (**grawe**), der Spaten; der Graf.

Here *Spaten* and *graaf* are non-congruent, since *graaf* as a translation equivalent for *Spaten* is not a monosemous lexical item, therefore congruence exists only in one direction.

3.2.1.1.2 Divergence

Divergence represents a one-to-more-than-one equivalence relation, i.e. a divergent equivalent relation implies that for a specific lemma more than one translation equivalent can be given, but does not necessarily imply that either the lemma or the translation equivalent is polysemous. As in the case of congruence, divergence also applies on lexical and semantic level. The difference between semantic and lexical divergence lies in the difference between the different translation equivalents of a polysemous lemma and the synonymous translation equivalent of either a monosemous or polysemous lemma.

1. Lexical divergence

Divergence between source and target language exists when the target language has different synonymous lexical items for a single form in the source language. As is the case with congruence, the lemma and the translation equivalent with lexical divergence are also monosemous lexical items. This type of divergence has a one-way application and only applies on lexical item level, i.e. on the form level, but none on semantic level (Gouws, 1989: 167), for instance the following article from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH:

seeskilpad, die See-, Meerschildkröte.

Seeskilpad has two translation equivalents in German, where as *Seeschildkröte* and *Meerschildkröte* both have only one translation equivalent, *seeskilpad*.

Gouws states that lexical divergence only applies in cases where the different translation equivalents of a monosemous lemma are absolute synonyms (1989: 167). Unspecified target-language synonyms as such are not a criterion for lexical divergence. Style and register differences quite often lead to increased synonyms of the source language lemma, therefore style and register have a direct influence on the number of translation equivalents (cf. Zgusta, 1987: 25). However, synonyms with similar levels of style and register are absolute synonyms and therefore give rise to lexical divergence. Gouws emphasises that the lexicographer must indicate these style and register differences by way of glosses and lexical labels (1989: 167).

2. Semantic divergence

Semantic divergence occurs when a lemma has more than one translation equivalent, because that lemma is a polysemous lexical item. Gouws mentions that, from a semantic perspective, polysemous lemmas are one of the lexicographer's biggest problems (1989: 168; cf. Al-Kasimi, 1977: 65).

a. Semantic divergence with monosemous lemmas

Sometimes the semantic nature of the translation equivalent can also play an important role in semantic divergence; whereas lexical divergence occurs when the translation equivalents of a monosemous lemma are absolute synonyms, a polysemous lemma results in semantic divergence, but no correlation in meaning between the translation equivalents is required. Semantic divergence is not defined in terms of the meaning relation between translation equivalents. Semantic divergence is present in the article of a monosemous lemma where the translation equivalents are partial synonyms. According to Gouws, in such cases at least one of the translation equivalents is polysemous, and this leads to semantic divergence between the lemma and translation equivalent (1989: 168), for example:

vermaering, die Abmagerung, die Abzehrung, die Entfettung.

The DUDEN DEUTSCHES UNIVERSALWÖRTERBUCH (DUDEN) defines the translation equivalents provided by WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTEREBUCH as follows:

Ab|ma|ge|rung, die; -, -en: *das Abmagern*.

ab|ma|gern <sw.□V.>:

1. *mager werden* <ist>: sie ist [bis auf die Knochen, zu einem Skelett] abgemagert.
2. *das Volumen, den Gehalt von etwas verringern* <hat>: eine abgemagerte Ausstattung.

Ab|zeh|rung, die; - (veraltet): *Abmagerung, Kräfteverfall*.

Ent|fet|tung, die; -, -en: *das Entfetten*.

ent|fet|ten <sw.□V.; hat>: *Fett aus etw. entfernen*: Wolle, Milch e.

Abzehrung and *Abmagern* are absolute synonyms, and *entfetten* a partial synonym, therefore semantic divergence is present because there is no one-to-one relation between the lemma and all of the translation equivalents. Gouws explains that in order to avoid ambiguity, the lexicographer should mark the polysemous translation equivalent to indicate the specific differences in meaning (1989: 169). A short note on the meaning of *Entfetten* should be given to indicate its limited semantic extent.

b. Semantic diversion with polysemic lemmas

In this equivalent relation the lemma is polysemous. According to Gouws, the lexicographer usually provides more extensive context information for polysemous lemmas than for monosemous lemmas; this should be preceded by semantic analysis of the lemma to determine the nature and extent of its polysemous paradigm (1989: 169). The following entry is an example from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH:

ste'cken, s, (h), steek, insteek, plant; vassit; **Erbesen –**, ertjies plant; **ein Ziel –**, 'n doel stel; **einen Ring an den Finger –**, 'n ring aan die vinger steek; **eine Blume ans Kleid –**, 'n blom aan die rok vassteek; **Geld ins Geschäft –**, geld in 'n onderneming steek; **in Brand –**, aan die brand steek; **in Schulden –**, in die skuld wees; **einen Brief in den Briefkasten –**, 'n brief in die briewebus gooi; **jemanden ins Gefängnis –**, iemand in die tronk steek; **den Degen in die Scheide –**, die swaard in die skede steek; **den Schlüssel ins Schloß –**, die sleutel in die slot steek; **jemanden in eine Uniform –**, iemand dwing om soldaat te word; **der Saal war gesteckt vol**, die Saal was propvol; **da steck was dahinter**, daar sit iets daaragter; **da steckt mehr dahinter als man glaubt**, daar sit meer agter as 'n mens dink; **in ihm steck etwas**, daar sit iets in hom; **wir – mitten in der Arbeit**, ons het baie werk; **jemandem etwas –**, iemand in die geheim iets meedeel, iemand 'n wenk gee; **ihm werde ich es –**, hom sal ek onverbloemd die waarheid sê; **wo steckst du?** waar bly jy (so lank)?

Form the definition in the DUDEN DEUTSCHES UNIVERSALWÖRTERBUCH (DUDEN) it is clear that *stecken* has polysemous values:

5. <Imperfekt: steckte, geh.: stak; hat; südd., österr., schweiz. auch: ist> a) *sich an einer bestimmten Stelle, an die etw. getan (geschoben, gestellt, gelegt) worden ist, befinden*: er hat immer die Hände in den Taschen s.; der Pfahl steckt [fest] in der Erde; Gräten können leicht im Hals s. bleiben; die Radfahrer sind im Schlamm s. geblieben;

Ü wo hast du denn gesteckt? (ugs.; *wo warst du denn?*); ich habe eine Erkältung in mir s. (ugs.; *ich habe eine noch nicht richtig zum Ausbruch gekommene Erkältung*); mein Freund steckt (ugs.; *befindet sich*) in Schwierigkeiten; erst in den Anfängen s., s. geblieben sein (*noch nicht weit gediehen sein*); die Verhandlungen sind s. geblieben; in jmdm. steckt etwas (ugs.; *jmd. ist begabt, befähigt*); der Schreck stak ihm noch in den Gliedern; ***hinter etw. s.** (ugs.; *die Triebfeder, der Veranlasser von etw., einer bestimmten Handlung o. Ä. sein*);

b) *an einer bestimmten [dafür vorgesehenen] Stelle eingepasst, auf etw. aufgesteckt, an etw. festgesteckt sein*: der Schlüssel steckt im Schloss; <auch ohne Raumergänzung:> der Schlüssel steckt, wurde stecken gelassen (ugs.; *ist nicht abgezogen*); lassen Sie [Ihr Geld] s. (ugs.; *ich lade Sie ein, bezahle für Sie mit*).

6. <Imperfekt: steckte, geh.: stak; hat; südd., österr., schweiz. auch: ist> *an, auf, in etw. befestigt, [mithilfe von Nadeln] angeheftet, angesteckt sein*: ein Abzeichen steckt an seinem Revers.

7. <Imperfekt: steckte, geh.: stak; hat; südd., österr., schweiz. auch: ist> *viel, eine Menge, ein großes Maß von etw. aufweisen*: er steckt voller Einfälle.

8. (ugs.) *aufgeben* (7): die Reise können wir s.

The entry in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH reflects many of the senses of the polysemous lemma *stecken* and can serve as an example of the above-mentioned statement by Gouws.

3.2.1.1.3 Convergence

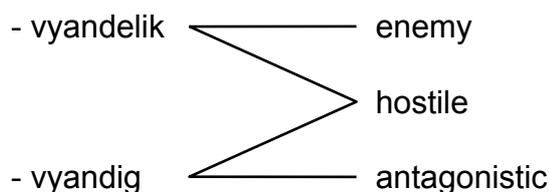
Convergence is a more-than-one-to-one equivalent relation. It is a reversed divergent relation.

Convergence cannot be indicated on microstructural level alone. Gouws explains that convergence cannot be present in only one article as is the case with divergence and congruence, but depends on more than one lemma (1989: 172). Whereas divergence and congruence imply different microstructural relations within one article, convergence is a relation between different macrostructural elements and the same microstructural element.

Different lemmas have the same translation equivalent. The following lemmas *Seeschildkröte* and *Meerschildkröte* both have the same translation equivalent *seeskilpad*; therefore the macrostructural elements are in a relation of convergence with microstructural element *seeskilpad*. Gouws states that convergent equivalent relations are closely linked with the application of the reversibility principle; the reversibility principle leads to a convergent relation on the German-Afrikaans side between the lemmas *Seeschildkröte* and *Meerschildkröte* and the translation equivalent *seeskilpad*, whereas there is a divergent relation between the lemma *seeskilpad* and the translation equivalents *Seeschildkröte* and *Meerschildkröte* (1989: 173).

3.2.1.1.4 Multivergence

This term indicates the typical equivalence relation between two languages, i.e. a combination of convergence and divergence. Gouws uses and an example from TWEETALIGE WOORDEBOEK/BILINGUAL DICTIONARY (1989: 173):



There is a divergent equivalence relation between the Afrikaans lemmas and the English translation equivalents. In both cases there is a convergent equivalence relation between the Afrikaans lemmas and the translation equivalent *hostile*.

3.2.1.1.5 Surrogate equivalence

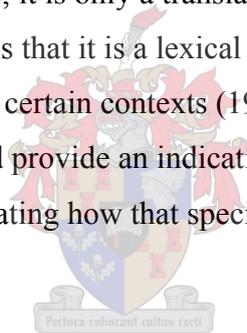
According to Kromann (in Gouws, 1989: 174), surrogate equivalence is present when there is neither an absolute nor a partial synonym in the target language for a specific lemma of the source language. The lexicographer then has to create a replacement for the translation equivalent. This means that there is a lexical gap in the target language. The type of target-language replacement depends on the type of lexical gap, for example, it can take the form of one word, or it can be covered with an explanatory equivalent. See 3.2.

Zgusta (cf. Al-Kasimi, 1977: 65) says that in order to ensure that the translation equivalents provided by the lexicographer are true lexical units of the target language, he or she should collect contexts which illustrate the entire range of multiple meaning of the lexical unit (i.e. all its senses) in the source language to the extent the dictionary is meant to cover (e.g. a learner's dictionary would have fewer senses, an advanced learner's dictionary would provide more contexts with subtler semantic differences) (1971: 314). The lexicographer then translates these contexts into the target language and determines whether the prospective shortest possible equivalent can be used in all the translations or only some of them. This is done by producing a sentence in the target language, using the equivalent, which conforms fully to the target language rules, or only some of them, or none. If the equivalent can be

inserted in all contexts and only those contexts, Zgusta regards it as an absolute equivalent (1971: 314). If it can be inserted only into some of the translated contexts, it is a partial equivalent; therefore the lexicographer must find another equivalent or more equivalents for the rest of translated contexts. If the equivalent cannot be inserted into any context, it is no equivalent at all.

3.2.1.2 Translation and explanatory equivalents

Gouws states that the coordination of a lexical item of the source language with suitable lexical items in the target language should be done in such a way that the user has enough guidance on which item he or she can use to ensure the transference of the same lexical meaning (1989: 160). A bilingual dictionary coordinates meaning by providing one or more translation equivalents. This does not mean that the coordination of semantic equivalents implies that a translation equivalent is a target-language reproduction of the meaning of the specific lemma in the target language; it is only a translation equivalent. In Gouws's opinion the status of a translation equivalent is that it is a lexical item from the source language which can be used to translate the lemma in certain contexts (1989: 160). The semantic function of a translation equivalent is that it should provide an indication of the lexical meaning of a given lemma in a specific context, by indicating how that specific lexical meaning should be lexicalised in the target language.



According to Zgusta, the bilingual dictionary's function is not to provide explanatory paraphrases or definitions, but to equip the user with real lexical units of the target language that would produce a natural, fluent translation if they were to be inserted into the context (1987: 1).

It follows that an equivalent indicated in a bilingual dictionary has two different properties, which we can call translationality (or insertibility) and explanatory power. It is most propitious if both these properties are present in the entry; they can be distributed in various ways, depending on the possibilities at the lexicographer's disposal (an equivalent which is translational and explanatory at the same time; two or more equivalents, some of them translational, some explanatory; equivalent *cum* explanation, etc.)

(Zgusta, 1987: 4)

However, he warns that the lexicographer should not succumb to the widespread malpractice of providing several "approximate 'equivalents'" when there is no exact equivalent, in the

hope that the user will be able to deduce the meaning of the source language unit (Zgusta, 1987: 6). Al-Kasimi says that the difference between an explanatory equivalent and an explanation is that the explanation is usually similar to a definition or description, whereas the translation equivalent tends to take the form of a translation unit and so it might become a standard form as a result of acceptance and use in the target language (1977:60).

Zgusta notes that one of the dangers of the translation equivalent is that it might be necessary to use several different expressions of the target language to obtain a truly smooth translation in different contexts (1987: 24-25). He adds: “[t]he number of equivalents increases in direct proportion to the number of register and the variety of possible, potential text to be created in the future by the user of the dictionary in as smooth a form as possible” (Zgusta, 1987: 25).

As mentioned above, the advantage of a translation equivalent is that it can produce a smooth, good translation. Zgusta warns that if a translation equivalent has no explanatory power, “its value is limited to the context or collocation(s) for which it applies. Also, the search for a really natural-sounding translation in the target language can result in a movement away from the central meaning of the entry word” (1987: 28).

Zgusta mentions a last disadvantage of the translation equivalent: “There is no doubt that the translation principle has its limitation, of which the lexicographer should be aware; one of the greatest ones is that a dictionary based on it can be used practically for two purposes only: either to translate texts into one’s mother tongue, or to produce texts in a foreign language of which one already has quite a good knowledge” (1987: 31). Therefore, in a learner’s dictionary combining translation and explanatory equivalents could be an effective way of indicating meaning and use.

3.2.2 Equivalents in bilingual dictionaries

According to Zgusta, the fundamental difficulty in coordinating lexical units is caused by the anisomorphism of languages, that is to say “by the difference in the organization of designate in the individual languages and by other differences between languages” (1971: 294). Zgusta notes that culture bound words cause the most obvious problems in this respect: if an object exists only in the culture of the source language it will have no equivalent lexical unit in the target language (1971: 294). He warns that this is also common when two cultures do not differ to a large degree, as is the case with Afrikaans and German (when compared to, for

example, Afrikaans and Chinese) (Zgusta, 1971: 294). The following example is a cultural difference in the sense of Singh, see 2.6 (the source language is influenced by geographical surroundings, the cultural milieu and social institutions), from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH: **donga, (-s)**, die Donga (vom Regen gerissene Erdrinne in S.A.)

The lexicographer has to make a decision on how he will treat such items. This has to be done in such a way that the entry provides useful information to the user.

Zgusta says that if there is no equivalent lexical unit in the target language other means than the coordination of lexical units mentioned above must be used (1971: 295). In this case the lexicographer uses an explanation to describe the meaning of the respective lexical units of the source language. This explanation takes on the form of a definition in a monolingual dictionary, but the definition is given in the target language.

Svensén, among others (cf. Gouws, 1989: 191 and Zgusta, 1987: 30), additionally mentions the dimension of the appropriate style level (1993: 140). Similar style levels between the source- and target-language units enables functional equivalence, i.e. when coordinating source language and target-language lexical units the lexicographer should ensure that these items match semantically and have the same style level (register). Zgusta explains that, in order to achieve functional equivalence in a translation, one must sometimes use different means from those used in the source language text; if these different means produce a text with the same effect, the texts are functionally equivalent (1987: 30). Svensén states that complete equivalence of this kind between words and expressions in any given two languages is quite unusual, in the same way as it is unusual to find exact synonyms in one language (1993: 140). This lack of equivalence originates from the fact that the conceptual world evolves differently in different languages as a result of, for example, historical, geographical, social, cultural and economic differences between countries where the source language and target language are used (cf. Singh, 1982: 192).

Svensén mentions that the number of concepts does not need to be the same – the Eskimos have a great number of concepts relating to snow, whereas there are many concepts for camels in the Arabic world (1993: 140). These conceptual systems may differ in structure. In English when one refers to a horse's legs, it implies either the front or hind legs, or of all of them, whereas some Oriental languages do not have this superordinate concept of a camel's

or horse's legs – they have separate words for front and hind legs:



Different conceptual structures

(Svensén, 1993: 140)

As a result there are often differences between the ranges of meaning of possible counterparts in different languages. For example, 'Holz' and 'Wald' are both corresponding lexical units for wood, but 'Wald' cannot replace wood in all contexts in English, as they only partly overlap (Svensén, 1993: 141).

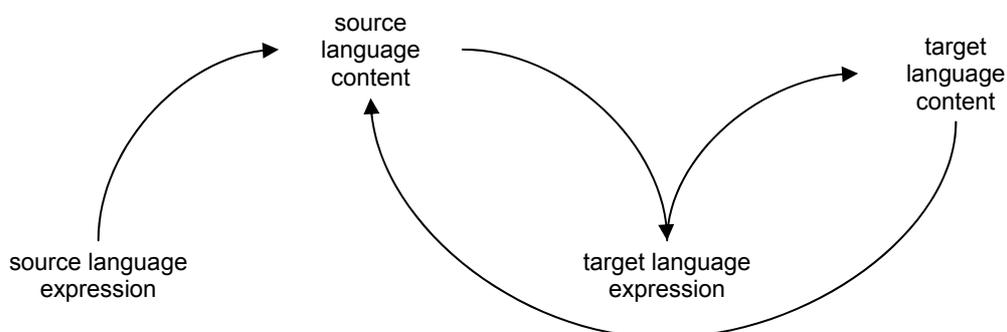
Svensén claims that these differences between languages are an obstacle to communication and translation, especially since speakers are rarely aware of their existence (1993: 141). Such differences are obstacles the translator might not even be aware of. Although they are supposed to have a greater knowledge of the foreign culture, very few translators can claim that they have equal knowledge of all the concepts of the native and foreign language. Eliminating these obstacles is therefore an important task of the bilingual dictionary. The best way to do this is by providing glosses, labels, i.e. context information and examples of typical use, which would serve to illustrate finer differences in meaning.

According to Svensén, the lexicographer's first task is to find the equivalent or equivalents in the target language that correspond most closely to a specific lexical unit in the source language (1993: 142). His or her second task is to ascertain to what degree equivalence is present for each of these equivalents. Only seldom will the lexicographer be able to provide exact matches – one of the most important tasks of the lexicographer is to determine where the difference lies.

3.2.3 Finding possible equivalents

Svensén states that searching for a possible equivalent is similar to the search for a suitable paraphrase in a monolingual dictionary (1993: 142). In principle, this would entail that the

lemma's content is determined – for example, from a monolingual dictionary in the source language – and from there one searches for the unit or units in the target language which best represent the source language word. The content in the target language is then compared with that of the source language. The lexicographer should then compare the content of the corresponding lexical item or items of the target language with that of the source language.



Procedure in identifying possible equivalents

(Svensén, 1997: 142)

Svensén states that in practical lexicography, this laborious process is usually not necessary, since dictionaries are based on sources which, in general, provide one or more possible equivalents (1997: 142). However, he warns that the second step, namely to ensure that they agree in “content and register” with the word or expression in the source language should not be ignored or forgotten (Svensén, 1993: 142).

WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH claims to be a dictionary suitable for both Afrikaans and German as source and target languages. It means that its compilers should not only have coordinated source-language Afrikaans lemmas with target-language German units equivalent in meaning, they had to repeat this process for German source-language lexical units and coordinate their meaning with Afrikaans target-language lexical units equivalent in meaning. If the lexicographer has a set of German target-language equivalents for an Afrikaans source-language lexical unit, it does not imply that he can switch around source- and target-language forms and he then automatically has a set of Afrikaans target-language equivalents for the German source-language units – he has to keep in mind that words have homonymous and polysemous values.

For example:

vee, das Vieh

vee(g), **(ge-)** fegen, wischen, kehren

The DUDEN provides the following definition of *Vieh*:

Vieh, das; -[e]s [mhd. vihe, ahd. fihu = Vieh, eigtl. = Rupftier, Wolltier (= Schaf)]:

- 1. a)** *Gesamtheit der Nutztiere, die in einem landwirtschaftlichen Betrieb gehalten werden*: das V. füttern, versorgen, schlachten; wie das liebe V.! (iron.; *nicht so, wie es einem Menschen eigentlich entspräche*); jmdn. wie ein Stück V. (*rücksichtslos, roh*) behandeln;
- b)** *Rindvieh* (1): das V. auf die Weide treiben, zur Tränke führen.
- 2. a)** (ugs.) *Tier* (1): das arme, kleine V. sieht ja halb verhungert aus!
- b)** (derb abwertend) *roher, brutaler Mensch*.

and the HAT the following definition of *vee*:

vee¹ s.nw. (*koll*) Mak diere deur die mens aangehou omdat hulle melk, vleis, wol, ens. lewer: *Die boer sorg vir sy vee. Twintig stuks vee verkoop.* ∇ *Al die wilde diere en al die vee wat met (Noag) in die ark was (Gen. 8:1). Groot-, kleinvee.* **vee**: ~handel(aar), ~kamp, ~kraal.

vee² ww. (gevee) **1** Met 'n besem, borsel, stoffer, stoflap, ens. skoonmaak, stof en vuiligheid verwyder: *Voor die deur vee. Die skoorsteen moet gevee word, die roet moet verwyder word. Gemorste melk van die tafel vee.* **2** 'n Strykbeweging maak oor iets: **Met sy mou oor sy neus vee.** UITDR.: *Voor (jou) eie deur vee*, op jou eie tekortkomings let.

When comparing these excerpts it becomes clear that there is no correlation for *roher, brutaler Mensch* in Afrikaans. DAS DUDEN SYNONYMWÖRTERBUCH lists *Biest* as a synonym for *Vieh*, in the sense of *roher, brutaler Mensch*. If the lexicographer were to switch around the corresponding source-language and target-language units, the dictionary would provide its user with the following entry:

das **Biest**, vee

Such an entry could mislead the German native speaker into thinking that *vee* is a translation equivalent for *Vieh* in the sense of *roher, brutaler Mensch*.

Al-Kasimi regards the choice of equivalents as one of the main problems in bilingual lexicography (1977: 58). Zgusta advises that the lexicographer can find and indicate good translation equivalents by interpreting examples – a contrastive comparison of contexts in the source and target language is an efficient way of doing this (1987: 30). He or she also needs the help of a native speaker of the target language to ensure that these contexts are correct.

The next step is to determine what degree of equivalence is present and how this should be indicated.

3.3 Meaning discrimination in the bilingual dictionary

Svensén's (see 2.2.7) examples indicate that, in order to describe the lack of agreement between the source and target languages, the lexicographer must add certain distinctive features on the side where the meaning range is wider or the degree of stylistic or other marking is less. Such information plays an important role in the discrimination of meaning, i.e. in indicating to the user which equivalent is the one he should use (cf. Zgusta, 1971: 329; Iannuci, 1967: 201-214).

As mentioned in 3.3.2, although the equivalents themselves are an integral part of the dictionary article, it is not enough to indicate them alone; they have multiple meanings of their own and they are only partial equivalents of the lemma. Zgusta advises the lexicographer to add labels and glosses to ensure that the user can differentiate between the different meanings of the translation equivalents (1971: 329-336). Svensén points out that informing dictionary users of the differences between partial equivalence by means of glosses, labels and context information is one of the lexicographer's main tasks (1993: 142). According to Svensén, the user must be appropriately informed of these differences in order to avoid misunderstandings when a word or expression in the source language is replaced by a counterpart in the target language (1993: 142). In Vermeer's words (1989-1991: 171):

Je weniger ein Wörterbuch nur „Wörterbuch“ ist, desto hilfreicher ist es für den
Translator [...] Je kontextsensitiver die Anordnung, je mehr Querverweise (auf
Synonyme, Hyperonyme usw.) enthalten sind, desto geeigneter ist ein Wörterbuch für
eine Translatfindung.

Al-Kasimi suggests the following methods to indicate the differences in meaning of the translation equivalents (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 70-71).

- punctuation
- definitions
- synonyms
- illustrative examples
- parts of speech
- usage labels

- context words or phrases.

Although there are different opinions as to whether the lexicographer must provide meaning discrimination for all polysemous equivalents (for example, only for few equivalents in the case of text production, or possibly more in the case of text comprehension), Al-Kasimi argues that the lexicographer has no way of knowing in what context the dictionary will find or would want to use a translation equivalent – he advises that the lexicographer must provide meaning discrimination consistently (1977: 68). He notes that meaning discrimination should be presented in the native language of the users for whom the dictionary is prepared (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 73).

Svensén's suggestions for meaning discrimination

Svensén suggests three ways of making meaning discrimination of partial equivalents possible (1993: 146):

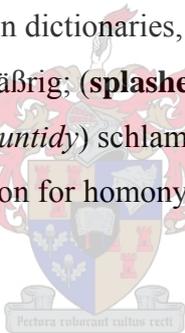
1. **By examples of usage:** He states that providing synonyms of the lemma is a common method of discriminating meaning in dictionaries, for example:

sloppy *adj.* **1** (*wet*) naß; (*watery*) wäßrig; (**splashed**) vollgeschwappt **2** (*sentimental*) rührselig **3** (*careless*) schluderig **4** (*untidy*) schlampig

This method is also the most common for homonyms:

1 Gehalt *m* (Inhalt) content

2 Gehalt *n* (Bezahlung) salary



Meaning can also be discriminated by indicating the superordinate concepts:

ménager *v tr.* **1** (*utiliser*) be sparing in the use of **2** (*organiser*) prepare carefully

The same method can be used to differentiate homophones:

1 sirène *f* (*appareil*) siren

2 sirène *f* (*femme*) mermaid

If there is no fitting superordinate concept, the lexicographer can provide examples of the various possible subordinate concepts:

driver *n.* (*car driver*) conducteur *m*; (*bus/truck driver*) chauffeur *m*; (*racing driver*) pilote *m*; (*engine driver*) mécanicien *m*

Information on collocational properties for the partial equivalents is another way for the lexicographer to differentiate the equivalents. In dictionaries for comprehension, this usually takes the form of examples in the source language:

clear *adj.* clair; transparent (*clear glass*); net (*clear profit*); dégagé (*clear road*)

In dictionaries for text production such information is usually given as semantic collocations in the source language, for example:

go down *v.i.* (*of sun*) untergehen; (*of ship*) sinken; (*of aircraft*) abstürzen; (*of wind*) nachlassen; (*of swelling*) zurückgehen

test *v.t.* (*water, brain, eyes*) untersuchen; (*pupil*) prüfen; (*hypothesis, statement, ability*) überprüfen

kläglich *Adj.* (*Miene, Stimmer, Ruf*) pitiful; (*Zustand, Anblick*) wretched; (*Ergebnis*) pathetic

2. By metalinguistic information

Svensén states that metalinguistic information in a bilingual dictionary should be given in both languages – however, for those who are of the opinion that a bilingual dictionary should be monodirectional, it follows that such comments should be given in one language only, namely the target language:

ethics *Subst. 1* (konstr. als Sg.) Ethik, Moral **2** (konstr. als Pl.) ethische Berechtigung

More commonly such information is provided in the form of labels – as to subject field or register:

vesicle *n. 1* (*Anat., Geol.*) Blase **2** (*Zool., Bot., Med.*) Bläschen

crazy *Adj. 1* verrückt **2** (*ugs.: begeistert*) wild **3** (*salopp: aufregend*) irre

3. By encyclopaedic information

This is especially the case when dealing with culture-specific items:

Advokat (*allgem.*) lawyer; (*amerik.*) attorney; (*brit.: der nicht vor höheren Gerichten auftreten kann*) solicitor; (*brit.: der auch vor höheren Gerichten auftreten und zum Richter ernannt werden kann*) barrister

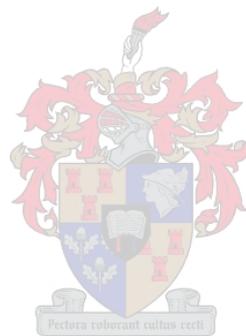
Zgusta mentions that it is not always easy to construct glosses (cf. his Chinese-German examples), especially if the lexicographer does not have the support of a good monolingual dictionary (1971: 317), as was the case with the first editions of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH (cf. Gouws, 1997: 42). However, the first edition of HAT appeared in 1965, which means that lexicographers who revised the dictionary did have a good monolingual dictionary available.

3.4 Summary

This chapter focussed on lemma selection and equivalent relations between the source-language unit and the target-language unit. The respective equivalent relations are explained.

This chapter also comments on the different ways of indicating difference in meaning in the translation equivalent paradigm.

The manner in which the different types of equivalence are applied and the way in which the differences are indicated in a dictionary should be done in such a way as to serve the genuine purpose of the dictionary. This means that the target user should be able to find the information he or she needs in a dictionary. This aspect forms the focus of Chapter 4.



4 Chapter 4

A critical evaluation of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH

Kromann *et al.* state that three aspects should be kept in mind when evaluating existing dictionaries (1991: 2713). Although these aspects differ to a great extent, they are inextricably linked in dictionaries:

- the user aspect, which involves consideration on the part of the lexicographer for the dictionary's target group, its needs and competence, as well as the types of user situations that occur;
- the linguistic aspect, which demands that the lexicographer deals with equivalence relations between fields of lexical units in the language pair as well as the other paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of these fields; and
- the empirical aspect, which, on the basis of the overall user aspect, includes the establishment of relevant text corpora and the excerpting of lexical units.

The fact that WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is the only dictionary with the languages Afrikaans and German available on the market has both advantages and disadvantages for the dictionary; because of its uniqueness, it is almost guaranteed that any Afrikaans native, German foreign speaker and vice versa will consult WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, which places a big responsibility on the dictionary in that it must be aimed at a large and diverse target group, because it is consulted by a variety of different user groups.

4.1 Lemma selection

2.6 And 3.1 provide an overview of the criteria for lemma selection in a bilingual dictionary. Another aspect which should be kept in mind when examining existing dictionaries is that changes in the society of either the source language, or the target language or both, can influence the adequateness of the lemmas in a dictionary.

4.1.1 Cultural and political change

According to Zgusta, "Cultural change within the same society can also modify these cultural connections; the usual slowness of this process adds to the lexicographer's worries" (1971:

295). Since 1925, which marks the first edition of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, such a slow culture shift has taken place in South Africa. What makes Afrikaans lexicography even more problematic is that Afrikaans is a very young language which developed from being a simplified form of Dutch to an independent language very quickly, e.g. the first Afrikaans translation of the Bible appeared in 1933; before then the Dutch Bible was still used. Therefore one can assume that much has changed; words and expressions which were common in 1925 are now outdated and archaic or their meaning has changed. Religion played a great role in the development of Afrikaans, as the Dutch settlers and the French Huguenots, who became integrated into the Cape-Dutch culture, were religiously motivated and the Bible and their religion played a large role in their private lives as well as in society. This, however, is changing, especially on political and governmental level. Whereas terms and concepts from the Bible were used in the past for political purposes, for example, i.e. in political speeches etc., this is not so common today in consideration of the religious diversity in South Africa. It is debatable whether words such as *verbondsvolk* and *doopsgesinde* belong in a dictionary of limited scope such as WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH. To place this issue into perspective; *verbondsvolk* (with the translation equivalent *chosen people*) is included in PHAROS GROOT WOORDEBOEK/MAJOR DICTIONARY, but *doopsgesinde* is not.

Another aspect which should be taken into consideration is that the political situation in South Africa has changed dramatically, which is also reflected in the languages spoken in South Africa, also Afrikaans, for example the use of the modern term *regstellende aksie*. It is quite conceivable that a translator or any other person would want to translate this term into German, since the political changes in South Africa have international significance. In this respect one should not only take recent developments in politics into consideration, but also developments further back in history, for example, the Anglo-Boer War (1899-1902). Words such as *penkop* were highly relevant during this war, and most probably also in the time that followed this war. However, this term has lost its relevance and could have been omitted from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH prior to the eighth edition.

The same applies to the German-Afrikaans side. Germany's days as colonial power are long gone; and the Federal Republic of Germany and the Democratic German Republic have been reunited for more than fifteen years now. These changes should be reflected in the entries in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, (cf. Eckardt, to appear) – the dictionary must be revised to be able to provide the user with current and up-to-date data.

Because printed dictionaries are limited in size and extent, it seems logical that words belonging to the categories mentioned above, for example *penkop* or *doopsgesinde*, should be replaced by more up-to-date and current words with a higher usage frequency, or these words should at least be labelled accordingly. However, as stated in Chapter 2, it is not wrong to include such terms, but not at the expense of terms with a higher frequency. If the user comes across an outdated term (e.g. *penkop*), he always has the option of referring to a monolingual dictionary of the language of the lemma. The professional translator would in any case have to follow a different strategy (for example by paraphrasing) than simply transferring such source language terms into the target language. Unfortunately the dictionary in question still contains many of these inappropriate terms, the following represent only a selection:

Afrikaans terms: political, historical, cultural or religious	German terms: political, historical, cultural or religious
boerevolk	Nasenwärmer (Pfeife mit kurzem Stiel)*
doopsgesinde (unusual form for, 'Baptist')	Ostfeldzug*
Engelse siekte	Reichsgericht
hen(d)sopper	Volksheer*
juffer	Wehrmacht
landjonker	Zwingherrschaft*
penkop	Mutterleib
rooitaal	* Not listed in the DUDEN
verbondsvolk	

Since the dictionary covers a limited scope, these terms can be omitted and be replaced by words that have a higher frequency and are more up-to-date. In a future edition with an extended scope, these words need not be replaced, but they need labels and context information to indicate their connotations to the user. This aspect is of crucial importance, since many words that are similar in German and Afrikaans have negative connotations in German, especially certain political terms in German, such as compound words with *National* and *Volk*, as a result of the negative image of the Third Reich and the Second World War in Germany. In Afrikaans these terms are neutral and, if the user is not warned, he or she might use these words in an unsuitable context when producing a German text, or he or she might not fully understand the connotations of such words when reading a German text. Therefore it

is important that the lexicographer adds labels to such word, or comment on the use of such terms.

Many Afrikaans translation equivalents (mostly explanatory equivalents) of German lemmas still contain the phrase *Wes-Duits(e)* (West German), for instance:

das Bun[sic]desamt, (-(e)s, -ämter), Wes-Duitse hoofadministrasie.

die Bun´desbahn, (-), Wes-Duitse spoorwegstelsel.

die Bun´desbank, (-), Wes-Duitse bank.

However, no similar entries are listed for ‘Oos-Duitse’ (East German). Translation equivalents that are applicable today are also not listed, which is logical, since Germany was not yet unified when WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH was published.

4.1.2 Relying on an unrepresentative corpus

In WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH many words that do not exist (any longer) are lemmatised, especially on the German-Afrikaans side, insofar as they are not listed in the DUDEN. For example in the German-Afrikaans section:

auslönnen	Sappe
ausheimisch	Schlunze
spreizig	Urian
Tretkufe	Wiesenknarrer
Blasengries	Windsucht
Dämel	wölbig
Jünglingsweihe	wunderhold
Marterwoche	Zettelbank
Pestluft	Zungenheld
Preller	zutäppisch
priestern	Zwingherr
Rusch	Zwinglianer
ruscheln	

In WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH some lemmas are given in an incorrect form, for instance, the word *Spickgans*, which is provided as a lemma in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, but in fact only exists in form of *die gespickte Gans*, according to the DUDEN:

spijcken <sw. V.; hat> [1: mhd. spicken, zu Speck; 4: viell. übertr. von (2) od. Intensivbildung zu spähen]:

1. (*mageres*) *Fleisch vor dem Braten mit etw., bes. mit Speckstreifen, versehen, die man mit einer Spicknadel in das Fleisch hineinbringt (damit es bes. saftig, würzig wird): den Braten s.; ein mit Trüffeln gespickter Rehrücken.*

In a possible revised edition the lexicographer should give attention to such forms and provide new entries for the words in their correct form.

Many lemmas are spelt incorrectly, for example *ontskepping* of which the correct form is *ontskeping*; *blesuur* should be *blessuur* and *hiernamals* should be *hiernamaals*. The following article contains several mistakes.

Bokveld, Teil der Karroo; – toe gaan, abkratzen, sterben.

This should be divided into two entries: the form *Bokveld* does not exist in connection with *Karroo* [sic], the correct form is ‘Bokkeveld’. Furthermore, the correct form of *Karroo* is ‘Karoo’. WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH contains a third form of this word. The article for Karoo is as follows:

Karoo, die Karru (südafrik. Trockensteppe).



Bokveld, however, is the correct form of the expression *Bokveld toe gaan*, but here the word does not take a capital letter, and it should be ‘bokveld toe wees’ e.g. Hy is bokveld toe. Therefore *sterben* is not a fitting translation equivalent, it should be ‘tot sein’, for example: He is dead. This expression is a humorous, euphemistic way of expressing that somebody has died, therefore the translation equivalent *abkratzen* is also unsuitable, compare the definition in the DUDEN:

ab|kratzen <sw. □V.> [2: urspr. mundartl. = weggehen (u. dabei einen Kratzfuß machen)]:

2. (derb) *sterben* <ist>: er wird wohl bald a.

Such differences in style and register need to be indicated to the dictionary user by non-lemmatic addressing, i.e. such issues are exclusively explained in the microstructure, for example by adding glosses or a short explanation.

As a result of new orthography rules in Afrikaans and German, many words have new or alternative spelling forms, for instance *bo-aan*, which now can also be spelt *boaan*, or *Kuβ* which is now spelt *Kuss*. These spelling reforms should be incorporated in a new edition of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH.

Words that are used in a limited regional area or stem from dialects that are not used frequently do not necessarily need to be included in a bilingual dictionary with a limited scope such as WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, for example *makoppa* (Sotho word for a type of snake) and *gallamsiekte* in the Afrikaans-German section. Because of the space limitations these lemmas could be replaced with words with a higher frequency.

Problems such as those mentioned above occur when the corpus which formed the basis of the dictionary is outdated or was not representative in the first place. It is advisable that the corpus on which WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH was based should be replaced by a representative corpus of both Afrikaans and German, in order to avoid these problems.

4.1.3 Lemmas to be incorporated into WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH:

In the general vocabulary many words have become part of the vocabulary in German and Afrikaans, for example, through closer international contact between cultures, more liberal attitudes and national and international trends and developments.

WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH does not reflect these changes. The following are examples of words that cannot be found in this dictionary:

Afrikaans	German
Rastalokke	Dreadlocks
steelfotograaf	Paparazzo
Euro	Euro
Transvestiet	Transvestit
leerder (new official term for <i>leerlinge</i>)	–
abseil	Abseilen
globalisering	Globalisierung
privatisering	Privatisierung
selfoon	Handy
bosberaad	–

In a revised edition of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH one would expect such words to be incorporated. In order for a dictionary to be a representative authority, it needs to be revised at regular intervals to ensure that it reflects the latest development in the source and target languages. Here the importance of a representative and updated corpus can be seen once again. If the corpus is of poor quality and outdated, the dictionary cannot fulfil its genuine purpose of providing the user with the data he wishes to find.

4.1.3.1 Specialised vocabulary to be incorporated in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH

Jargon which has become part of the general language and is used in communication between experts and laymen, for example a collection of medical or legal terms, is usually included in general bilingual dictionaries. When taking into account that this edition appeared in 1983, but is still being reprinted, it is only logical that many words (in some cases multi-lexical lexical items) commonly used today do not appear in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, for instance, from newer technology that developed after 1983, for example, in the auto industry or home entertainment:

Afrikaans	German
CD	CD
navigasiestelsel	Navigationsgerät
videomasjien	Viderekorder
videokamera	Videokamera
DVD	DVD
selfoon	Handy
afstandbeheer	Fernbedienung
viertrekvoertuig	Allradantrieb
sentrale sluiting	Zentralverriegelung
spaarwiel	Ersatzreifen

The preface of the second edition of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH explicitly states: “Die gebräuchlichsten Ausdrücke des Auto- und Flugbetriebs haben nun Aufnahme gefunden.” However, this cannot be said of the subsequent editions. Words such as ‘Allradantrieb’, ‘Zentralverriegelung’ and ‘Ersatzreifen’ need to be incorporated in the central list of the dictionary.

Some specialised vocabulary of certain fields should be reflected in a general language bilingual dictionary, for example vocabulary surrounding the computer. Although the following Afrikaans terms are used frequently in everyday life, they do not appear as lemmas in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH:

aanhangsel	ikoon
aflaai	internet
bediener	laserdrukker
brandmuur	modem
CD-ROM	muis
disket	ongekoppel
domein	skandeur
drywer	sagteware
epos	wagwoord
greep kliek	webtuiste
hardeskyf	woordverwerker
hardeware	

(www.geocities.com/lacialacia/termtemp/)

Unfortunately even the article for the lemma *rekenaar* contains an unsuitable translation equivalent, *der Calculator*. This is not a German word, insofar as it is not listed in the Duden. It should be replaced by the frequently used term der ‘Computer’, for example:

rekenaar, (-s), der Rechner, der Computer.

4.1.4 Listing culturally bound items

Once the lexicographer has made a decision regarding certain problematic categories of items, he should follow this principle rigidly, for instance, the inclusion of cultural items. In WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH this is tested by example of words reflecting culturally bound

foods and dishes:

Traditional South African foods and dishes included in the dictionary:	Traditional German foods included in the dictionary:
bobotie	Sauerkraut
mieliepap	Sauerbraten
biltong	Spätzle
braai vleis	Lebkuchen
sosatie	Bratapfel

On the Afrikaans-German side there is no entry for *koeksister*, which is arguably just as well known and liked as *bobotie*; and on the German-Afrikaans side there is no entry for *Saumagen* or *Kaiserschmarrn*, which is probably just as well known and liked as *Sauerbraten*. If a bilingual dictionary lists foods and dishes characteristic of a certain culture, the lexicographer should aim to include all the general traditional foods, at least those that are known nationwide. Modernisation and globalisation have influenced also this area, for example, “Matjes” are known and eaten – and offered in restaurants – all over Germany. Some German dishes, for example “Bratwurst” and “Kassler” are even well known internationally. Naturally this presents a difficult task to the lexicographer, because he or she cannot include every single traditional dish of the source language culture in his dictionary. The lexicographer should make a decision on this matter, for example that only those dishes that are known nationwide should be included. It is likely that the dictionary user might find the name of a dish in a source text, for example, a regional delicacy; however, in such cases he or she can consult a monolingual dictionary of the source language. A source language monolingual dictionary would enable the user to form a better idea of what such a dish is made of and what it looks like. Since it is unlikely that the exact same dish is known in the user’s culture, the bilingual dictionary would not be able to provide an explanation as extensive as the definition in a monolingual dictionary.

The inclusion and treatment of culturally bound items reflect one of the most important knowledge-orientated lexicographic functions as explained by Tarp, namely to provide general cultural and encyclopaedic information (2000: 197). This lexicographic function contributes to the genuine purpose of the dictionary, which is to enable the target user to find a fitting answer to his or her question, i.e. to enable a successful consultation procedure. A

successful dictionary consultation procedure depends on the way in which the needed linguistic information can be retrieved by the target user, therefore the dictionary cannot fulfil its genuine purpose if it provides the user with the information desired in some cases and not at all in other cases.

4.2 Aspects of the co-ordination of source and target-language forms

4.2.1 Source language forms and translation equivalents listed in the dictionary

As stated above, the bilingual dictionary's function is to provide the user with suitable target-language units for those source language units he or she either wishes to reproduce in the (foreign) target language or for those he or she wishes to localise in the native (source) language. If one examines the translation equivalents provided in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, one comes to the conclusion that they are often misleading or even incorrect, or some polysemous senses of the target-language lexical item have been left out. This can be seen by example of the following articles from the dictionary:

geut, (-e), die Gosse, die Rinne.

A comparison of the definitions of this source language form in HAT and the translation equivalent *Rinne* in the DUDEN proves that this word is a suitable translation equivalent in German:

Rin|ne, die; -, -n [mhd. rinne, ahd. rinna, zu rinnen]:

2. *schmaler, langer, in Form eines Halbkreises ausgehöhlter Körper aus Blech, Holz o. Ä., durch den etw. [ab]fließen kann*: die R. am Dach muss repariert werden; das Wasser fließt durch eine hölzerne R. in das Fass.

However, when repeating the same process with the definition of *Gosse*, it is clear that this word is an unsuitable translation equivalent, according to the definition in the DUDEN:

Gos|se, die; -, -n [md. gosse, mniederd. gote, eigtl. □ = Stelle, wo etw. ausgegossen wird, zu gießen]:

1. *an der Bordkante entlanglaufende Rinne in der Straße, durch die Regenwasser u. Straßenschmutz abfließen*.

2. (abwertend) *Bereich sozialer, moralischer Verkommenheit*: jmdn. aus der G. auflesen, ziehen (ugs.; *aus den übelsten Verhältnissen herausholen*); in der G. aufwachsen, enden; du landest noch in der G.!

It often occurs that the meanings of words change or they or another sense is added with time, for instance, the German word *Luder*. The article for *Luder* in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is as follows:

das Lu'der, (-s, -), kreng, kadawer; loeder, smeerlap, **armes –**, 'n arme drommel; **dummes –**, stommerik.

The DUDEN provides the following definitions:

Lu|der, das; -s, - [mhd. luoder, H.□u.]:

1. (salopp) *meist weibliche Person, die als durchtrieben, böse angesehen wird: ein blondes, geschminktes L.; ein armes L. (jmd., der einem Leid tut); (mit dem Unterton widerstrebender Anerkennung:) sie ist ein kleines L. (eine gewitzte, kokette o. ä. Person).*

2. (Jägerspr.) **a)** *totes Tier, das als Köder für Raubwild verwendet wird;*

b) *Federn, mit denen der zur Beizjagd abgerichtete Greifvogel angelockt wird.*

However, this is not the only weakness in this article; it firstly contains a translation equivalent which is incorrect; a more fitting Afrikaans translation equivalent would be *lokaas* instead of *kadawer*:

lok'aas s.nw. **1** Aas om 'n dier mee aan te lok sodat hy gevang kan word.

In contrast:

ka-da'wer s.nw. (-s) Dooi liggam; lyk – ten opsigte van mense net in tegniese sin gebruik: *op die veld lê die kadawers van gevrekte diere – karkasse.*

Secondly, the DUDEN definition above does not indicate a resemblance in meaning that conforms to that of *kreng*:

kreng¹ s.nw. (-e) ook **kring²** **1** Dooie dier in staat van ontbinding

Thirdly, the translation equivalent given by WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, *loeder* no longer has an active use in Afrikaans as indicated by its omission from HAT.

The fourth mistake in this article is that it once more provides an unsuitable translation equivalent, namely *smeerlap*. The definition in HAT:

smeer'lap s.nw. **2** Vuil, liederlike persoon. **3** Slegte, eerlose vent; lae karakter; smeerpoets, -pot, -kanis: *Hy is sommer 'n smeerlap; my dogter sal nooit met hom trou nie. So 'n smeerlap. So 'n smeerlap!*

These definitions of *smeerlap* all imply a strong negative aspect, which cannot be deduced from the definition in the DUDEN. The translation equivalent *drommel*, given as a synonym for *smeerlap*, is much more fitting in this context.

As a fifth problem in this article there are no corresponding translation equivalents for the meanings “*meist weibliche Person, die als durchtrieben, böse angesehen wird: ein blondes, geschminktes L*” and “*sie ist ein kleines L. (eine gewitzte, kokette o. ä. Person).*” The lexicographer needs to find translation equivalents in Afrikaans that would correspond to these meanings of *Luder*. Since this word (with these senses) is frequently used in the German press, for example, it is important that suitable translation equivalents be provided, to enable the reader or translator to either understand or to reproduce (in Afrikaans) such texts.

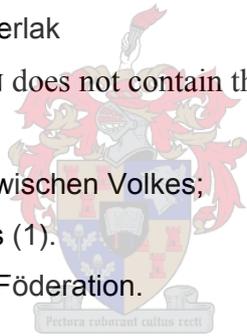
The following article presents an incorrect translation equivalent for the source language form:

der Ru'sse, (-n, -n), Rus; kakkerlak

The definition of *Russe* in the DUDEN does not contain the sense of *kakkerlak* (cockroach).

Rus|se, der; -n, -n:

1. a) Angehöriger eines ostslawischen Volkes;
- b) (hist.) Einwohner Russlands (1).
- c) Einwohner der Russischen Föderation.
2. (ugs. früher) Sowjetbürger.



The following article in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH not only lists translation equivalents that do not exist in German (insofar as they are not listed in the DUDEN), it also does not provide translation equivalents for all the senses of the word:

die Ru'tsche, (-, -n), glybaan vir houtstompe, rotsstorting; voetbank.

When this article is compared with the definition of *Rutsche* in the DUDEN, it becomes clear that *rotsstorting* (rock-fall) and *voetbank* (foot rest) are not suitable translation equivalents:

Rut|sche, die; -, -n:

1. *Rutschbahn* (1): unsere Kinder gehen am liebsten auf die R.
2. *einer Rutschbahn ähnliche schiefe Ebene, auf der etw. rutschend befördert werden kann*: das Schüttgut gelangt über eine R. in den Waggon; Pakete auf/über -n weiterbefördern.

This definition makes it clear that *Rutsche* can be used to move of all sorts of goods and not just logs as stated in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH.

The following article also contains an unfitting translation equivalent:

windsak, der Windsack; der Windbeutel.

The DUDEN provides the following definitions of these two translation equivalents:

Wind|sack, der: *an einem Mast drehbar angebrachter, leicht konisch geformter, an beiden Seiten offener Sack, der (bes. an Autobahnen u. Flugplätzen) die Windrichtung u. -stärke anzeigt.*

Wind|beu|tel, der [1: eigtl. □ = mit Luft gefüllter Beutel]:

1. *aus Brandteig hergestelltes, leichtes, mit Sahne gefülltes Gebäckstück.*
2. *(veraltend abwertend) oberflächlicher, leichtlebiger, unzuverlässiger Mensch.*

The HAT does not list *windsak* as a lemma, it should be *windkous*, according to the HAT:

wind´kous s.nw. Kous aan albei kante oop, wat in ’n hoë posisie opgerig word on die windrigting aan te dui, bv. by ’n vliegveld.

therefore *Windbeutel* cannot be a fitting translation equivalent for *windsak*. It is possible that *windsak* exists as an alternative form of *windkous*, however, in a revised edition this lemma and article should appear in their correct form.



In the following article both translation equivalents are unsuitable:

stiksel, das Gestepte, das Genähte.

According to the definition in the HAT, ‘die Naht’ would be the only correct translation equivalent for *stiksel*.

WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH lists two translation equivalents for the source language item *sterrekundige*:

sterreku'ndige, (-s), der Astronom, der Sternkundige.

The DUDEN does not list *Sternkundige* as a lemma, therefore this translation equivalent should be removed from this article in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH.

The same applies to the following article in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH:

der Harn, (-e)s, urine, menswater.

The translation equivalent does not exist in Afrikaans, insofar as it is not listed in HAT; if it were to exist, it would also not correspond to the register of the German lemma:

die Hypochondrie, (-), *hipochondrie*, *hipochonders*, *swarmoedigheid*.

The definition of *Hypochondrie* in the DUDEN:

Hypo|chon|drie, die; -, -n <Pl. selten> (Med.): *übertriebene Neigung, seinen eigenen Gesundheitszustand zu beobachten, zwanghafte Angst vor Erkrankungen, Einbildung des Erkranktseins [begleitet von Trübsinn od. Schwermut].*

Through analysis of meaning of the source language item *Hypochondrie* and the first two translation equivalents it becomes apparent that these correspond to the source language item. However, when repeating the same process for *swarmoedigheid*, it becomes apparent that this equivalent only implies some of the senses of *Hypochondrie*, namely *Schwermut*. Therefore this word is not a fitting translation equivalent; and should not be given as a synonym of *hipochondrie* and *hipochonders*. Furthermore, the correct form of *hipochonders* is ‘hipokonders’ – this should be corrected.

It is important that the translation equivalents given for a lemma are the best possible ones, listing equivalents that do not truly reflect the meaning of the lemma is misleading and do not allow the dictionary to succeed in its genuine purpose. From the examples above it is obvious that WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH lists many unsuitable translation equivalents. This aspect deserves a thorough revision.

4.2.2 Context information in the form of glosses, labels and cotext entries in the form of examples

As Al-Kasimi explains, the lexicographer has no way of knowing in which context the user might find or would want to use a word, therefore it is advisable that he or she provides as much context information and examples as the scope of the dictionary allows (1977: 68). This is important for the user aspect as explained by Kromann, which involves consideration on the part of the lexicographer for the dictionary’s target group, its needs and competence, and the types of user situations that occur (1991: 2713). Cotext information is the syntagmatic or phrasal environment of the word and context information the conceptual environment. According to Pruvost “[t]he cotext indicates what precedes and what follows the word, the

palette of usages, of uses, needed for a better definition of its semantic and syntactic nature” (2004: <http://kndictionaries.com/kdn/kdn12-2.html>). Sufficient and correct context and cotext information enables the user to select from the translation equivalents provided the one most fitting to his or her needs. The following are examples of articles from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH that do not contain any such information:

goeie dag, guten Tag, Grüß Gott.

Although both of these are correct translation equivalents for *goeie dag*, they differ to the extent that *Grüß Gott* is only used in the southern part of Germany, especially Bavaria. The dictionary should inform the German foreign speaker of this by providing a gloss or a label that indicates this form is limited to a specific region and a specific context. If this form is used in Northern Germany, it is quite often done so mockingly, which the dictionary user might be unaware of.

roer, (s), (-s), die Büchse, das Gewehr [...]

According to the HAT *roer* is archaic and should therefore be labelled as such.

In WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH *Gewehr* and *Flinte* are provided as German translation equivalents for *geweer*. However, the DUDEN defines these equivalents as follows:

Ge|wehr, das; [-e]s, -e [mhd. gewer, ahd. giwer = Abwehr, Schutz, Kollektivbildung zu ¹Wehr]:

1. *Schusswaffe mit langem Lauf u. Kolben, die im Allgemeinen an der Schulter in Anschlag gebracht wird*: ein großkalibriges G.; das G. laden, anlegen, in Anschlag bringen, entsichern, schultern, spannen, reinigen; G. bei Fuß (*in militärischer Haltung, wobei das Gewehr mit dem Kolben nach unten neben den Fuß gestellt ist*) stehen; ins/unters G. treten (*mit dem Gewehr antreten*); jmdn. mit vorgehaltenem G. zu etw. zwingen; er zielte mit dem G. auf ihn; in militär. Kommandos: G. ab!; das G. über!; präsentiert das G.!; **R** ran an die -e! (ugs.; *fangen wir also an!*); haben ein G.! (ugs. scherzh. veraltend; *das ist leider nicht möglich*; nach dem Anfang des Kinderliedes »Wer will unter die Soldaten, der muss haben ein Gewehr« von F. □ Güll, 1812 □ 79); ***G. bei Fuß** (*aufmerksam wachend u. bereit, notfalls einzugreifen*).

Flin|te, die; -, -n [gek. aus: Flintbüchse, bei der ein Flint den Zündfunken lieferte]: *Jagdgewehr zum Schießen mit Schrot*; **Ü** der soll mir nur vor die F. kommen (ugs.; *mit dem werde ich abrechnen*); ***die F. ins Korn werfen** (ugs.; *vorschnell aufgeben*),

verzagen; urspr. vom Soldaten, der im aussichtslos gewordenen Kampf die Waffe wegwirft [und flieht]).

The correct Afrikaans word for *Flinte* is “haelgeweer”. It would be useful to the user if relevant context information indicating the difference were provided.

The dictionary contains the following article:

nagmerrie, das Alpdrücken, der Alb, der Alptraum.

The HAT defines *nagmerrie* as follows:

nagmerrie s.nw. **1** Angstige, benoude droom: *Natgesweet wakker word van 'n nagmerrie*. Vgl. INKUBUS. **2** (fig) Skrikbeeld, iets wat verontrustend is: *Die nare taak is vir my 'n nagmerrie*. *Die nagmerrie van oorlog, droogte, pes*.

The DUDEN provides the following definitions of the equivalents:

Alp|drü|cken: Albdücken.

Alb|drü|cken, Alpdrücken, das; -s: *drückendes Gefühl der Angst im [Halb]schlaf*: A. haben.

² Alb, Alp, der; [-e]s, -e [mhd., ahd. alp, alb; H. □ u.]:

1. *(im alten Volksglauben) koboldhaftes, gespenstisches Wesen, das sich nachts auf die Brust des Schlafenden setzt u. bei ihm ein drückendes Gefühl der Angst hervorruft; [Nacht]mahr*: etw. liegt wie ein A. auf jmds. Brust.

2. <o. □ Pl.> (geh.) *schwere seelische Last, seelische Bedrückung, Beklemmung*: ein A. ist von mir gewichen; von einem A. befreit sein.

Alp|traum: Albtraum.

Alb|traum, Alptraum, der: *mit Albdücken verbundener Traum; Angsttraum*: von Albträumen geplagt werden; **Ü** ein A. von einem Tisch; etw. ist ein A. für jmdn.; ein A. aus Beton.

It is clear that these equivalents are not absolute synonyms – therefore the lexicographer should provide context information to help the user to select the correct equivalent.

modder, der Schlamm, der Kot; **met – gooi**, einen verleumden.

According to the DUDEN *Kot* is an archaic form:

Kot, der; -[e]s, -e u. -s <Pl. selten> [mhd. (md.) kot, mhd. kwot, kat, quat, ahd. quat = Ausscheidung von Tier u. Mensch] (geh.):

2. (veraltend) *aufgeweichte Erde, schlammiger Schmutz auf einem Weg od. einer Straße*: seine Stiefel waren von, mit K. bespritzt; ***jmdn., etw. durch den K. ziehen/in den K. treten, ziehen** (geh.; Schmutz 1); **etw., jmdn. mit K. bewerfen** (geh.; Schmutz 1).

This information should be provided for the user.

Some entries do contain some context information or labels, but such information is not given consistently:

der Krempel, (-s), boel, spul (veragtelik), rommel, plunje.

According to the HAT, *plunje* is an archaic word used to refer to the clothing of a beggar.

Therefore the lexicographer should provide proper context information, or such an equivalent should be listed in a different, more fitting article as it is not a fitting equivalent in this context in order not to mislead the German native speaker. Translation equivalents in an article should become units of treatment and the procedures of non-lemmatic addressing should be applied to provide the necessary context and cotext information to ensure the relevant communicative equivalence.

Plunje is also given as lemma on the Afrikaans-German side:

plunje, die Lumpen, die Fetzen, abgetragene Kleider.

The lexicographer should provide a label indicating that this word is archaic.

Taboo words, especially those with a political connotation, should be marked as such. Words such as *kaffer* (a black man, woman or child) have an extremely negative connotation and the user should be warned not to use such words. This was the case long before 1994, when apartheid ended, i.e. these words should have been labelled in the 1983 (and previous) edition(s). The following examples from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH contain no labels or glosses:

Kaffer, (-s), der Kaffer.

kafferbier, das Kafferbier.

Kaffermeid, die Eingeborenenfrau.

The term *meid* refers to a black woman; therefore the term *Kaffermeid* is doubly abusive.

If a dictionary provides no context information it can, at the most, serve to remind a user who is very competent in the foreign language of the different target-language translation equivalents available for the source language unit, see 2.2. This is not the purpose of

WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH; therefore this dictionary should be revised to determine where context information and glosses would be useful for the very diverse target user group of this dictionary. Here the lexicographic function as explained by Tarp play an important role (2000: 196-197): i.e. the most important communication orientated functions:

- to assist the reception of texts in the native language;
- to assist the production of texts in the native language;
- to assist the reception of texts in a foreign language;
- to assist the production of text in a foreign language;
- to assist the translation of texts from the language into a foreign language; and
- to assist the translation of texts from a foreign language into the native language.

And the most important knowledge-orientated functions (Tarp, 2000: 197):

- to provide general cultural and encyclopaedic information;
 - to provide special information on the subject field or the discipline;
- and
- to provide information on the language (for example when studying a foreign language).

The dictionary can only fulfil its genuine purpose of providing the user with quick and effective access to the information he or she needs if these lexicographic functions form the basis of the dictionary. The majority of articles in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH do not contain enough context and cotext information to satisfy its users' needs, which can be seen in the articles above. In cases such as these the user (especially when dealing with the foreign language) might not be aware that these words are taboo – he or she would rely on the dictionary to provide such information.

Increased cotext information in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH would also serve the user aspect. Examples would provide collocations that are very helpful to the native speaker, for example, the article for 'Gewalt' in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH contains three examples, LANGENSCHIEDT MURET-SANDERS GROßWÖRTERBUCH DEUTSCH-ENGLISCH provides 34 examples. It is clear that the second entry would be more helpful to the user. In this respect WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH once again shows ample room for improvement.

Some examples in Woordeboek/Wörterbuch are incorrect, for example:

ü'bertragen, (trug ü'ber, übertra'gen), (h), oordra, transporteer; vertaal; oorhandig; opdra; uitsend (radio); **jemandem ein Amt** —, 'n amp aan iemand toevertrou; **eine Krankheit auf jemanden** —, 'n siekte op iemand oordra; [...]

The example should read: 'n siekte aan iemand oordra'. This is a serious shortcoming that does not belong in a dictionary of high quality.

The dictionary hardly contains cotext information to point out collocations to the user, for example:

rekening, (-e of -s), die Rechnung, das Konto, die Faktur(a); **per slot van —**, schließlich, zu gutter letzt; **volgens —**, laut Rechnung; **'n streep deur die —**, ein Strich durch die Rechnung; **op — koop**, auf Kredit (Borg) kaufen; **in — bring**, in Anrechnung bringen, in Ansatz bringen; **— hou met**, damit Rechnen.

Here one could have expected the collocations “rekening (open, sluit)”, which most likely have a higher frequency than *'n streep deur die rekening*.

4.2.3 Lexical gaps

As explained in 3.2 a relation of no equivalence is mainly a result of cultural differences between the speech communities of the source and target languages. The challenge to a lexicographer who busies himself with bilingual lexicography is to treat such items in a way that would be acceptable and helpful for the user. Svensén suggests two ways of dealing with lacking equivalents: if there is a word in the target language, which as a last resort, can act as a counterpart, the lexicographer can provide this word but he or she should add some explanatory comment, or point out that the counterpart provided is only approximately equivalent (1993: 153). The second option is to provide an explanatory equivalent. However, once again one of the most important considerations to keep in mind is that a decision should be applied consistently. Again the example of culture-specific foods, for instance:

bobo'tie, gehacktes Fleisch mit Curry zubereitet

biltong, (-e), das Biltong (getrocknetes Fleisch).

sosa'tie, (-s), der Schaschlik (maleiisches Gericht).

beskuit, (-e), der Zwieback; — indoop, Zwieback eintauchen.

The equivalents provided for each of these articles differ; in the first case only an explanatory equivalent is given; in the second article the lexicographer chose to transfer the source language item into the target language and provided an explanatory equivalent; in the third article the lexicographer decided to give as a translation equivalent a word foreign to both the source- and target-language cultures and added an explanatory equivalent; and in the fourth article the lexicographer provides as a translation equivalent a type of food from the target-language culture which is similar to that in the source-language culture. However, there are many differences between *Zwieback* and *beskuit*, e.g. taste, texture and form. Therefore it would have been fitting to give a short description of *beskuit* and then state that it is related to *Zwieback*. Once again the lexicographer does not follow a consistent strategy, which could lead to irritation and confusion on the part of the user.

4.2.4 The sequence of the translation equivalents

It is a lexicographic convention to list the most general or frequent target-language equivalent first in an article, cf. Gouws (1989: 137). *WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH* does not consistently follow this principle, as is apparent from the following article:

das Früh'jahr, (-e)s, -e), voorjaar, lente.

In Afrikaans the translation equivalent *lente* is used more frequently, since *voorjaar* can only refer to spring in the Northern Hemisphere – in the Southern Hemisphere spring starts in September. It is not possible to refer to spring in South Africa as *voorjaar*, therefore the lexicographer should add a context information to explain this to the user. This example highlights the importance of an up-to-date, representative corpus. If the dictionary were based on such a corpus, such misleading equivalents could have been labelled accordingly or could have been avoided altogether.

4.2.5 Grammatical information in the bilingual dictionary

Kromann *et al.* state that lexicography, apart from the denotative and connotative meaning of the individual lemma, also deals with the lemma's combinatory properties – i.e. how it combines with other lexical units (1991: 2770). Such combinations are problematic, especially for those translating into a foreign language – therefore they are particularly significant for the bilingual lexicographer. Empirical studies of dictionary use for translation into foreign languages indicate that grammatical problems lead to up to 55 per cent of consultations (Wiegand, in Kromann et al, 1991: 2773). According to Al-Kasimi dictionaries

traditionally do not provide much information on grammar, however, this has since changed (1977: 48). Al-Kasimi continues by saying that good dictionaries usually record gender (if applicable), exceptional case forms, irregular plural forms, and various conjugations of irregular verbs and point out which of two competing forms is used more commonly (1997: 49). They also label parts of speech, but these indications are quite often defective and incomplete. Most dictionaries use the label “noun”, but do not indicate the subcategories, such as mass noun and count noun. With regard to syntax, they give very little information on word order and clause structure. He does note that lexicographers argue that it is almost impossible to produce a dictionary that provides “the desired integrated linguistic description of the lexicon of the language” (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 49).

According to Zgusta, examples not only play a crucial role in meaning discrimination of translation equivalents, but also in indicating and explaining grammatical aspects of the target language (1971: 340). Usually grammatical information is given as part of the lemma, of which the entry word is the most important part; it “is the indication of each respective lexical unit in its canonical form (Zgusta, 1971: 249-50). The other indications of the lemma usually consist of morphological information, but mostly also the syntactic or combinatorial³ class to which the lexical unit belongs (Zgusta, 1971: 250). This is indicated in different ways, for example the abbreviation *n* for *noun* in dictionaries with English as a source language. According to Zgusta, the dictionary may provide the reader with information on the lemma or the equivalents or both (1971: 340). He states that such information indicates the way in which the entry word or the equivalent is combined with other words in a sentence, for example in languages with intricate morphology this information will indicate required forms (e.g. “with dative”) and combinations with grammatical operators (required prepositions, etc.); in languages with simpler morphology, such information will concentrate on combinatory possibilities. Zgusta states (1971: 340):

“The character and amount of the grammatical information is correlated with the intention of the dictionary in an obvious way: a dictionary for the comprehension of the source language can afford (if it is strictly limited in its intentions) to concentrate only upon those grammatical indications by means of which the multiple meaning of the entry-word is disambiguated; the intention to describe the source languages bring with it the necessity of indicating all such grammatical properties of the entry-word, irrespective of whether or not they disambiguate its meaning; and the dictionary which intends to help to generate texts in the target language must give rich instructions on how to use the equivalent.”

Al-Kasimi suggests that, as with selecting equivalents, a constructive analysis of the source and target language, with special attention to the grammar systems of both languages, should be done before compiling the dictionary and will give the lexicographer a good insight into the morphology and syntax of the languages to be treated in his dictionary (1977: 49).

Depending on the purpose of the dictionary, morphological and syntactical features that differ should be singled out for preferential or exclusive listing. “If the purpose of the dictionary is text comprehension a policy of selectivity regarding the types of grammatical information would be acceptable” (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 50). However, Al-Kasimi lists two reasons why a dictionary for text production, such as WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, should include all necessary information on the target language, namely (1977:50):

- a) such a dictionary must enable the foreign user to produce adequate sentences in the target language; and
- b) the dictionary must provide the foreign user with all of the information he requires without having to consult a handbook on grammar.

Another possible reason for the inclusion of notes on grammar could be added the reasons mentioned by Al-Kasimi. Because languages have different grammar systems, it could easily happen that a foreign user is unaware that a word he wishes to use has a grammatical peculiarity in the target language, for example, the cases in German which are unknown in Afrikaans. If an Afrikaans speaker wishes to form a German sentence with the word “außerhalb”, for instance, and the dictionary does not indicate that “außerhalb” requires the genitive form, the Afrikaans speaker will have no way of knowing this – unless he already has this knowledge. In such a case grammatical information must be given as part of the translation equivalent, because it forms a unit. Kromann *et al.* have the following to say on dictionaries with German as a foreign language (1991: 2772):

“Irrespective of which language is the source language of the dictionary, it is necessary in the foreign language to specify a number of grammatical and idiosyncratic constructions with their respective German equivalents, for example:

- relevant valency specification for verbs, adjectives and substantives;
- cases governed by prepositions that govern two cases (accusative and dative) in fixed-valency combinations with verbs (*Geld in einem Safe deponieren*), adjectives (*müde* + genitive), substantives (*Hoffnung auf* + accusative);
- obligatory or facultative use of correlatives for subordinate clauses or infinitives (*Er hofft (darauf), ihn bald wiederzusehen/daß er ihn bald wieder sieht; es gehört*

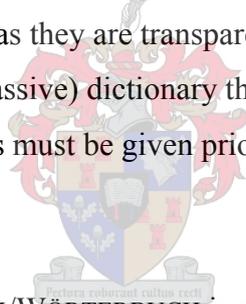
eine Frechheit dazu, so zu tun);

- the use of articles in phrases in certain constructions (*jemandem zum Direktor ernennen*).

The idiosyncratic constructions should be made clear by the examples given with the German equivalents – for example, under *bike, bicycle* or *wheel* the idiosyncratic phrase ‘das Fahrrad schieben’ in the article in the Afrikaans-German part. With the equivalent *Frage* one must cite the functional verb ‘eine Frage stellen’.

What is common to such grammatical or idiosyncratic constructions is that they cannot be described as the result of regular grammatical or lexical combination rules, and that they must therefore be included in an active dictionary.

In a passive dictionary, on the other hand, such grammatical or idiosyncratic constructions can be omitted insofar as they are transparent to the target-language users. In a bifunctional (active and passive) dictionary the demands on the active dictionary’s construction descriptions must be given priority over those of the passive dictionary.”



When considering that WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is a bidirectional dictionary for both Afrikaans and German and that it should serve the purposes of text comprehension and text production, one would expect that it provides adequate grammatical information to the user. However, the following examples show that this is not the case.

In German the prepositions *aus, außer, bei, binnen, entgegen, gegenüber, gemäß, mit, nach, seit, von* and *zu* require the dative (or, in some cases, the accusative); and *außerhalb, diesseits, halber, innerhalb, jenseits, kraft, unweit, während, längs, mittels, oberhalb, statt, trotz, unterhalb* and *wegen* require the genitive. These represent only a selection for the purposes of the test below. WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH claims to be a bidirectional dictionary. An Afrikaans native speaker wishing to produce a text in German, either by translating an existing text or creating his own text, can then expect this grammatical information to be supplied with the lemma and the translation equivalent. The following table indicates whether WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH provides a specific user (Afrikaans native speaker) with the grammatical information needed in German text production and text comprehension:

German-Afrikaans: Text comprehension

Afrikaans-German: Text production

<i>With dative</i>		
aus	Indirectly in example	No; Yes, from example; No; No
ausser	Indirectly in example	No; Yes, from example; No
bei	Indirectly in example	Yes, from example; No; No; No; No; No
binnen	Indirectly in example	No
entgegen	Indirectly in example	No
gegenüber	No	No
gemäss	Stated explicitly as part of lemma	No
mit	Indirectly in example	No
nach	Indirectly in example	No; No; Yes, from example; No; No; Yes, from example;
seit	Indirectly in example	No
von	Indirectly in example	Yes, from example; No
zu	Indirectly in example	Yes, from example; No; No; No; Yes, from example; Yes, from example; No; -; No; Yes, from example; No
<i>With genitive</i>		
diesseits	No	-
halber	No	No
innerhalb	No	No
jenseits	No	No
kraft	No	Yes, stated explicitly
längs	Indirectly in example	No
mittels	No	No
oberhalb	No	No
statt	Indirectly in example	No
trotz	Indirectly in example	Yes, stated explicitly
unterhalb	No	Can be deducted from example
unweit	No	-
wegen	Indirectly in example	No
während	Indirectly in example	No

One of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH'S greatest shortcomings is a lack of consistency. This could have been avoided if the lexicographer applied lexicographic processes and considered

the lexicographic functions during the compilation of this dictionary (see 2.1 and 2.3). Chapter 5 demonstrates how important such grammatical information is for the foreign speaker when producing a text in the target language.

Al-Kasimi states that most linguists would agree that a grammar of the foreign language should be included in the front matter of a bilingual dictionary (1977: 50). It should outline the morphology and syntax of the foreign language, and should include a systematic presentation of derivation and word formation, and would have a direct influence on entry selection, see 2.6. A thorough overview of such grammar features of the target language will cut out the need for redundant information in the article, e.g. formation of diminutive in Afrikaans and German. The dictionary itself should function as an amendment to the grammar.

At present this dictionary offers grammatical information only in the articles of the central list. The guide for the user is the key to this information. For the purposes of this study only the guide for the German native speaker is analysed. This guide pays attention to six different aspects, namely:

- indication of the gender of nouns;
- the accent mark used with words with more than one syllable;
- the word type and the abbreviation for the Afrikaans equivalent e.g.:
steht s für selfstandige naamwoord (Hauptwort);
- the endings or irregular endings of the plural form, e.g.:
vis, (-se); oorlog, (...oë)
and after adjectives the Beugungsendungen are given: lewendig, (-e);
- the dictionary user is informed that synonyms are divided by commas, words with different meanings are divided by semicolons. This information does not appear in the instructions for the Afrikaans native speaker;
- Lastly, the author informs the user that where there are no translation equivalents for a German expression a derivative of the English or Afrikaans form is given.

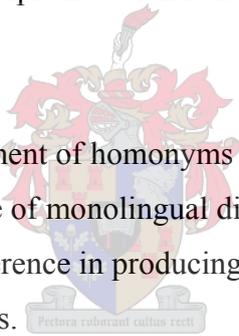
No information is provided to the user on how, for example, the diminutive form is derived in Afrikaans – in spite of the frequent use of this form in Afrikaans. Instead the lexicographer provides some diminutive forms as entries in the central list, for example, *boompie*. However, only diminutive forms are listed as lemmas. It would have been more functional if the lexicographer added a section on how to form the diminutive form as part of the front matter, see 3.2.1. The Afrikaans native speaker could benefit from a list of irregular German verbs

4.2.6 Semantic information in the bilingual dictionary

4.2.6.1 Homonyms and polysemes

According to Al-Kasimi “[g]rammatical information can be implicit in the basic issue of the selection of entries” (1977: 51). Homonyms, for example, should be listed as separate entries (cf. Gouws, 1989: 123), but whatever the lexicographer’s decision in this matter may be, he must be consistent in his or her treatment of such words. Listing homophones as separate entries would be logical, as can be seen from the following example: *kraal* (pen, corral) from the Portuguese (*curral*), and *kraal* (bead) from the Latin (*corallus*), coincidentally have the same form (De Villiers, in Gouws 1989: 123). Listing these as two translation equivalents could confuse the target user, whereas two separate articles could lead to a quicker consultation procedure, especially where the user is familiar with the dictionary, e.g. translators, and is aware that this principle has been followed consistently throughout the dictionary.

WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH’S treatment of homonyms is inconsistent, a weakness which could have been avoided by a) the use of monolingual dictionaries of both German and Afrikaans² as an aid and frame of reference in producing the dictionary and b) through meaning analysis of the two languages.



For example, the following homonyms are listed as different entries in

WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH:

1. **oorkom, (oorge-)**, hinüber-, herüberkommen; passieren, widerfahren; **mens kan `n ongeluk -**, ein Unglück kann einem zustoßen; **hy sal daar niks van – nie**, es wird ihm nicht schaden

2. **oorkom, (-)**, überwinden, besiegen; zustoßen; **hy het die siekte -**, er hat die Krankheit überwunden

1. **rits, (-e)**, die Reihe, die Serie.

2. **rits, (ge-)** rascheln, rauschen (Seide); säuseln (Wind), knistern.

However, the following homonyms are given as polysemous senses of one lemma:

elf, (s), (elwe), der Elf, die Elfe; (tw), elf; **ter –der ure**, zu guterletzt, zur elften Stunde.

jag, (s), (-te), die Jagd; die Jacht; (w), (ge-), jagen; pirschen; – **maak op**, Jagd machen auf; **geslote** –, die Hege, die Schonzeit; **die – maak op effek**, haschen nach Erfolg, Effekthascherei; **die – na rykdom**, die Jagt nach Reichtum; **op – wees**, auf der Jagt sein; **gaan**–, einen Jagdausflug machen.

van, (s), (-ne), der Familienname; (vs), von, von Seiten, seit; – **blydschap**, vor Freude; – **daar (af)**, von Jugend auf; – **kleins af**, von klein auf; – **voor af**, vor vornherein; – **waar**, von wo, woher; – **nuuts af**, von neuem; – **ouds**, seit langem; – **ouds af**, von alters her; – **kant maak**, vernichten.

roer, (s), (-s), die Büchse, das Gewehr; das (Steuer) Ruder, das Steuer; (w), (ge-), bewegen, ruhren, **so reg soos 'n – wees**, in bestem Zustand; **aan die – van sake wees**, das Ruder führen, die Leitung haben; **jy moet jou (lyf) –**, du musst dich tummeln; **dit – my diep**, es bewegt mich tief.

In HAT *elf*, *jag*, *van* and *roer* are defined as follows:

elf¹ telw. (elwe, -s) **1** Tien plus een. **2** Skryftekens vir die elfde getal. **3** Elf persone, voorwerpe: *Christus het aan die elf verskyn*. **4** Elfuur: *Ek kry jou op die hoek om elf, hoor!*

elf² s.nw. (elwe, -ie) Aard-, natuurgeestes in menslike gedaante. *elfaartig*.

jag¹ ww. (jagtend; gejag) **1** Spesiaal uitgaan agter wild aan om dit dood te maak, te skiet of te vang: *Gereeld elke winter gaan jag. Vir jou plesier, vir die pot jag. Roofdiere jag hulle prooi.* ∇ *Gaan uit in die veld en jag vir my stuk wild* (Gen. 27: 3). **2** (w.g.)

Vinnig beweeg: *'n Straat vol jagtende motors.*

s.nw. **1** Agtervolging van diere: [...]

2 Tyd om te jag: [...]

3 Ywerige poging om iets in besit te kry: [...]

jag² s.nw. (-te) Klein, vinnige seilvaartuig; seiljag: [...]

van¹ s.nw.(-ne) Familiennaam: *Wat is haar van nou weer?* [...]

van² voors. **1** Ter aanduiding van skeiding, berowing, bevryding [...]

roer¹ s.nw. (-s) **1** Toestel wat aan 'n vaartuig waarmee dit gestuur word. **2** (*fig.*)

Bestuur, leiding: *Aan die roer staan*, aan die hoof wees [...]

roer² s.nw. (-s) (veroudend) **1** Geweer [...]

roer³ ww. (geroer) **1** Beweeg [...]

roer⁴ In die uitdr. *In rep en roer*, in groot verwarring, in opskudding.

The German-Afrikaans side deals differently with homonyms. They are not given as separate numbered lemmas (e.g. ¹, ²)

ti'ppeln, s (h), stippel; rondloop.

ti'ppeln, s (h), aanraak, tik (op die tikmasjien); wed, voorstel, vermoed; **an etwas** –, aan iets raak, iets versigtig bespreek; **ihm auf die Schulter** –, op sy skouer tik; **auf etwas** –, iets vermoed; **daran ist nicht zu** –, daaraan kan niks gedoen word nie, dit is juis.

übertra'gen, (übertrug', übertra'gen), (h), oordra, transporteer; vertaal; oorhandig; opdra; uitsend (radio); **jemandem ein Amt** –, 'n amp aan iemand toevertrou; **eine Krankheit auf jemanden** –, 'n siekte op iemand oordra; **eine Summe auf ein anderes Konto** –, 'n bedrag op 'n ander rekening oordra ((oorskryf) [sic]; **ein Buch ins Deutsche** –, 'n boek in Duits vertaal; **ein Theaterstück im Rundfunk** –, 'n toneelstuk oor die radio uitsend.

übertra'gen, oordragtelik, figuurlik.

This could have been avoided if the lexicographic process was applied (see 2.1). Gouws (2001: 62) states that when the lexicographic process has been applied successfully, the result will be a dictionary characterised by specific features, for example predictability, calculability, analysability and controllability. Consistency would make the dictionary more user-friendly, i.e. more fitting to the needs of the users (see 2.1).

However, as on the Afrikaans-German side, some homonyms are treated as polysemous values of the same word:

der/das Kaff', (-e)s, kaf; nonsens, onsin; armsalige dorpie.

The DUDEN lists *Kaff* as two homonyms, with the meaning of the first two translation equivalents *kaf* and *onsin* in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH as polysemous values of one of the lemma in one entry:

¹ **Kaff**, das; -s, -s u. -e [Gauerspr., wohl zu zigeunerisch *gaw* = Dorf] (ugs. abwertend): [abgelegene] kleine, langweilige Ortschaft; Nest: ein elendes, ödes, trostloses K.

² **Kaff**, das; -[e]s [mhd., mniederd. kaf, eigtl. □ = Spreu, H. u.] (nordd.):

1. *Spreu*: K. streuen.

2. (ugs.) *wertloses Zeug, Plunder.*

However, the DUDEN indicates that the article for both these forms is *das*.

If WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH makes any claims of being a “neue und ergiebige Quelle zur schnellen, beiden Sprachen umfassenden Informationen” (WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH, 1983, “Vorwort zur siebten Ausgabe”) it would be highly recommendable that this aspect be revised. The current system – or lack of system – is confusing to the user and does not serve the users’ needs – see 2.1 and 2.3.

4.3 Conclusion

WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH should be able to succeed in fulfilling the needs of varied groups – school pupils to academics, these being native Afrikaans or German speakers, cf. Singh (1982: 192). This dictionary claims to be useful to users with different levels of competence in the foreign language and to be an aid in both text comprehension and text production. Therefore one would expect a dictionary with lemmas selected from a representative corpus of Afrikaans and German. It also means that the dictionary should contain as many senses of each lemma as possible and that these senses (in the form of translation equivalents) should be accompanied by glosses, labels, context information and examples to enable both target-language text production and comprehension. However, it is apparent that this is not the case. Another shortcoming is the inconsistencies that mar this dictionary.

5 Chapter 5

Empirical study to determine the effectiveness of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH as a tool in text production

This chapter presents the results of an empirical study to determine whether WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is an effective aid in text production in German by the Afrikaans native speaker.

The purpose of the empirical study is explained and the target group and its foreign language abilities are identified in 5.1. A short explanation on how the questionnaire was compiled follows in 5.2. The results of the questionnaire are presented in 5.3. A summary containing the analysis of the results follows in 5.4. The value of this study is placed in perspective in the same section. An example of the questionnaire is provided in 5.5.

5.1 Aim of the study and identification of the target group

This study evaluates whether WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is a reliable and effective source of information for the target user, especially with regard to the source and target-language forms listed in this dictionary. The genuine purpose of a dictionary is to enable the target user to find the information he requires when consulting the dictionary. The purpose of this study is to determine if WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is in a position to fulfil its genuine purpose by focusing on source- and target-language forms. This aspect forms the focus of the empirical study. The target group of this study is Afrikaans native speakers with a moderate competence in German. For this purpose the Grade 11 pupils (21 in total) studying German as a subject from three different high schools were asked to complete the questionnaire. At the time of this study these pupils had almost completed their Grade 11 year; by this stage they have learned all the grammar as prescribed by the syllabus of the Educational Board of the Western Cape. The Grade 12 year gives the pupils the opportunity to prepare for their final exams – pupils do not learn any more grammar during this year. These 21 respondents are in the position to produce texts of a moderate level of difficulty in German. However, they will need a dictionary during this process, since they have not yet completely internalised the German grammar system; and especially because the grammar system of Afrikaans, their native language, is very simple when compared to German. Eight of these pupils have taken part in

an exchange programme with Germany where they spent six weeks with a German family and also attended German schools.

The aim of the empirical study is to see whether WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH fulfils its genuine purpose, i.e. to enable the pupils to carry out successful consultations which lead to the most fitting and correct target-language equivalent when producing or translating text into the target language, in this case German.

5.2 Compilation of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was compiled with the cooperation of Ms Elsabé Naudé, German teacher at Stellenbosch High School, to ensure that the questionnaire assignments lie within the competence level of the pupils. The questionnaire consists of two assignments divided into several questions. The questions focus on grammatical aspects as well as translation equivalents. Excerpts from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH were provided with each question to determine whether this dictionary is capable of clarifying uncertainties regarding grammar and translation equivalents.

The target group was required to translate Afrikaans sentences and phrases into German and to make sentences with German words. The respondents were not required to comment on the dictionary, or how they reached their answers. However, some commented on the degree to which WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH aided them in their translation.

5.3 Results of the questionnaire

The objective of the first question is to test whether the respondents were able to select the correct translation equivalents from those listed in the dictionary. The English meaning of each of the Afrikaans phrases is given after the question number. The words in brackets only served as context information and it was not required that they be translated.

5.3.1 Question 1

Question 1a: 'n oulike fliek (a cute film)

The Afrikaans phrase contains two translation elements ('oulike', 'fiek') to be translated with the aid of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH.

Four of the 21 respondents chose the correct translation equivalent *niedlich*. One of them indicated that the dictionary does not provide enough information to enable such a choice.

Thirteen of the 21 respondents chose the correct translation equivalent *Film*. However, three of these gave two versions (with *Kinostück* as translation equivalent for *fliiek*), which implies that they were not able to select the correct translation equivalent. One of the respondents commented that the German translation equivalent *Film* is not provided for the Afrikaans word *fliiek*⁴.

Some examples of unsuitable translations:

ein netter Kino

ein nettes Kinostück

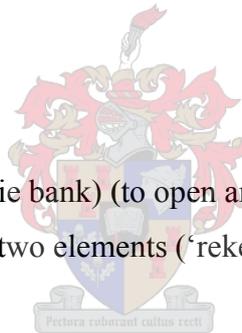
ein aufgeweckter Film

ein aufgewecktes Kinostück

Das Kino war nett.

Question 1b: 'n rekening open (by die bank) (to open an account (at the bank))

Again the Afrikaans phrase contains two elements ('rekening', 'open') to be translated with the aid of the dictionary.



Eight of the respondents chose the correct translation equivalent *öffnen*. Two of them indicated that the dictionary did not play a role in the selection – the respondents were able to select the fitting equivalent based on their knowledge of German.

Seven of the 21 respondents chose the correct equivalent *Konto*. Five of the respondents who did not select the correct equivalent indicated that the dictionary gives no information to enable such a translation.

One respondent who provided a correct translation (ein Konto öffnen) commented that he was sure that his version is incorrect, because *öffnen* means to physically open something.

Some examples of unsuitable translations:

ein Konto am Bank festmachen

mit einer Rechnung anfangen
das Konto aufmachen
eine Rechnung ausnehmen
ein Rechnung ausmachen
ein strich durch die Rechnung

Question 1c: My ma het baie gewig verloor. (My mother lost a lot of weight.)

The Afrikaans phrase contains one element ('gewig verloor') to be translated with the aid of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH.

Thirteen respondents gave the correct translation 'abnehmen', which was not listed in any of the entries provided. One respondent translated the phrase as: "Meine Mutter ist viel dünner geworden." This translation is also suitable, but the respondent indicated that she did not use the dictionary for this translation. The other respondents selected translation equivalents that are unsuitable.

Some examples of unsuitable translations:

Meine Mutter hat abgemagert.

Meine Mutter hat viele Gewicht verlieren.⁵

Meine Mutter hat sich gemägert.

Meine Mutter ist dünn geworden.⁶



It has to be noted that *abmagern* is not a suitable translation equivalent for *maer word*, which is a neutral term meaning 'to lose weight'. The DUDEN provides the following definition of *abmagern*:

1. *mager werden* <ist>: sie ist [bis auf die Knochen, zu einem Skelett] abgemagert.

Question 1d: (die perd) met 'n tou vasbind (to tether (the horse ... with) a rope)

The respondents were required to select the translation equivalents *Seil* and *anbinden*.

Nine respondents selected the correct translation equivalent *anbinden*. Two respondents indicated that they did not know which equivalent to choose.

Only four respondents selected the equivalent *Seil*. Eight respondents chose the equivalent *Tau*, which is very similar to the source language form *tou*.

Some examples of unsuitable translations:

Das Pferd mit ein Seil verbinden.

Das Pferd mit dem Bindfaden anbinden.

Das Pferd mit einer Schnur festbinden.

(Das Pferd) mit einem Tau anbinden

...mit einer Kordel anbinden

Question 1e: Ons hou vakansie by die see. (We spend the holidays at the coast.)

The respondents were required to select the translation equivalents *Ferien/Urlaub machen* and *Meer*. The fact that *Urlaub* is not listed as an equivalent is a qualitative weakness in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH. The main purpose of this question was to determine whether the respondents were able to build the collocation *Ferien/Urlaub machen*.

Eleven respondents provided the collocation *Ferien/Urlaub machen*. One respondent provided the translation: “Wir verbringen die Ferien am Meer.” This is also a suitable translation. The other respondents used the verbs “halten”, “machen” and “haben”. These verbs do not build suitable collocations with *Ferien* or *Urlaub* in this context.

Seventeen respondents selected *Meer* as a translation equivalent.

Some examples of unsuitable translations:

Wir halten Ferien an das Meer.

Wir haben Ferien ans Meer.

5.3.2 Question 2

This question tests to what degree WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH provides grammatical information to enable its users to produce a grammatically correct text in German. It was required of the respondents to form a sentence in German with the words provided. This questionnaire tests only one aspect of German grammar, namely the cases. These are very problematic as they do not exist in Afrikaans.

Question 2a

Only six respondents knew that *wegen* requires the genitive case. Three more respondents used the form “wegen Krankheit”, which is correct – but does not indicate that they are aware that *wegen* requires the dative.

Some examples of unsuitable translations:

Ich bin zu Hause wegen mein Krankheitshalber.

Wegen krankheitshalber kann ich nicht in die Schule gehen.

Wegen das Wetter sind wir nicht ans Meer gegangen.

Question 2b

The aim of this question is to determine whether the respondents knew that *gratulieren* requires the dative. Twelve respondents used the dative; the others all used the accusative.

5.4 Summary

It is important to note that the scope of this study is too narrow to make any statistical conclusions to offer as representative results. However, the results do indicate that WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is not an effective aid to the German foreign language speaker. The dictionary does not provide its users with enough context information for the respective translation equivalents. The results of Question 1 make this clear. The dictionary needs to provide more collocations and examples of use. The results of Question 2 indicate that the dictionary should indicate grammar aspects of German foreign to Afrikaans native speakers. Since WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH was originally conceived as a learner’s dictionary for school pupils who are native speakers of Afrikaans, one would expect that this dictionary would be a helpful tool for such pupils.

According to Ms Marcia Combrink, German teacher at Bloemhof Hoër Meisieskool, pupils strongly tend to select equivalents unsuitable to the context when consulting this dictionary; she remarked that the dictionary needs to be revised thoroughly and that the structure of the articles needs to be changed to provide more context information, examples of use, grammatical information and that the source and target-language units needs to be modernised and extended.

For logistical reasons the pupils were provided only with selected entries from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH. The ideal situation would be to provide every pupil with a copy of the dictionary and to provide a questionnaire testing more aspects of the dictionary. However, in every day life the foreign language speaker will only consult the dictionary when he has difficulties with a specific element of the foreign language. This study endeavoured to create such situations – the conclusion can be drawn that WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH does not succeed in its aim of being an effective aid in foreign language text production.



5.5 Example of the questionnaire

Vraelys oor Woordeboek/Wörterbuch

1. Vertaal die volgende sinne of frases in Duits met behulp van die woordeboek uittreksels. Die gedeeltes in hakies hoef nie vertaal te word nie:

a) 'n oulike fliek

oulik, aufgeweckt, niedlich, verschmitzt, nett.

film, der Film, das Kinostück

fiek, (-e), das Kino

b) 'n rekening open (by die bank)

rekening, (-e of -s), die Rechnung, das Konto, die Faktur(a); **per slot van -**, schließlich, zu guter letzt; **volgens -**, laut Rechnung; **'n streep deur die -**, ein Strich durch die Rechnung; **op - koop**, auf Kredit (Borg) kaufen; **in - bring**, in Anrechnung bringen, in Ansatz bringen; **- hou met**, damit Rechnen.

c) My ma het baie gewig verloor.

gewig, (te), das Gewicht, die Schwere; **soortlike -**, spezifisches Gewicht; **veel - heg aan iets**, großes Gewicht auf etw. Legen, einer Sache Gewicht beimessen; **lewende -**, das Lebendgewicht; **skoon -**, das Reingewicht.

verloor, (-), verlieren; **uit die oog -**, aus dem Auge verlieren.

maer, mager, hager, dürr, dünn; **so - soos 'n kraai, (riem)**, so mager wie eine Hopfenstange; **- word**, abmagern.

skraal, mager, hager, dünn, spärlich, dürftig, knapp; **'n skrale troos**, ein geringer Trost; **'n - wind(jie)**, ein schneidender Wind.

d) (die perd met) 'n tou vasbind

tou, (s), (-e), der Bindfaden, die Schnur, die Kordel, der Strick, das Seil, das Tau; (w), **(ge-)**, schleppen, bugsieren; in einer Reihe gehen; **-lei**, Ochse führen; **- opgooi**, den Mut aufgeben, die Flinte ins Korn werfen; **oor die - trap**, einen Fehltritt tun, sich vergehen; **op - sit**, veranstalten, in die Wege leiten.

vasbind, (vasge-), fest-, anbinden, anschnüren

e) Ons hou vakansie by die see.

see, (seë), das Meer, die See, der Ozean; **ter - en te land**, zu Wasser und zu Land; **die oop-**, die hohe See; **in volle -**, auf hoher See; **onstuimige -**, schwere, stürmische See; **oorsee gaan**, nach Übersee gehen.

vaka'nsie, (-s), die Ferien; **met (op) -wees**, Ferien haben.



2. Maak 'n sin in Duits met elk van die volgende woorde na aanduiding van die woordeboek uittreksels:

a) Wegen:

weens, wegen, halber; **- ongesteldheid**, krankheitshalber

b) Gratulieren:

gelukwens, (-e), der Glückwunsch, die Gratulation; (w), **(gelukge-)**, beglückwünschen, gratulieren.

6 Chapter 6

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to determine whether the source- and target-language forms currently listed in WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH enable this dictionary to fulfil its genuine purpose. When comparing the entries used as examples in Chapter 4, and the results of the empirical study in Chapter 5, the conclusion can be reached that WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH does not fulfil its genuine purpose as defined by Wiegand (1998: 298). He states that a dictionary is a utility product, which means that dictionaries are produced for the purpose of aiding their potential user to reach a certain goal in certain contexts. In its current form WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH is generally not in a position to assist its user. This is the result of a lack of lexicographic processes. The original compilers of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH had the difficult task of compiling a bilingual dictionary of German and Afrikaans at a time when Afrikaans was not yet entirely standardised and they could not rely on an Afrikaans monolingual dictionary. This means that they had to rely on their own knowledge for analysis of meaning. But this does not explain why WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH does not serve all of its target users equally. Considering that this dictionary started out as a learners' dictionary, it would have been interesting to hear the original compilers' and later revisers' explanation as to why this dictionary does not provide much context information and labels.

If those who revised the respective editions of this dictionary (a) applied comprehensive lexicographic processes and (b) did so continuously, this dictionary would have been one step closer to being able to fulfil its genuine purpose. It would have ensured that the dictionary was based on a representative corpus of the two languages.

Since the secondary comprehensive lexicographic process has the most direct influence on the compilation process, applying this process would have ensured that the lexicographers' work was based on a sound dictionary conceptualisation plan. If the lexicographers involved with the dictionary paid attention to the five subphases of the dictionary conceptualisation plan as described by Wiegand, the dictionary would have been much more consistent in the way it presents information to the reader, for example, indicating the differences between homonyms by listing all of them as separate entries (1998: 151).

However, during all of these phases the lexicographer has to keep three aspects in mind, namely the target user and their characteristics, user situations and user needs (cf. Tarp, 2000: 196). This will enable him or her to determine lexicographic functions of the planned dictionary. If these lexicographic functions form the foundation of the dictionary conceptualisation plan, the lexicographer can be sure that he is compiling a dictionary able to fulfil its genuine purpose.

The dictionary is not based on a representative, up-to-date corpus of Afrikaans or German. It contains many antiquated terms, or terms of which the meaning has changed. The dictionary is not objective; it contains taboo words, but does not inform the user of this. It does not cover the entire spectrum of the vocabulary, perhaps for moral reasons, for example, there are no entries for 'transvestiet' / 'Transvestit'. The dictionary does not provide enough information to enable the user to obtain the optimal target-language translation equivalent. The dictionary should provide more information on the target languages; for example, the grammar, both in the articles themselves and as a part of the front matter.

In its current form WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH cannot serve as a useful tool in translation. The dictionary provides translation equivalents that are unsuitable, outdated or incorrect in the context in which they are being presented. The dictionary provides very little context and cotext information, which could lead to frustration on the part of the translator. Often two translation equivalents are very similar and in only some cases can they not both be used, for example *wie* and *als* in German, where even native speakers are confused. If the dictionary does not explicitly state the differences the translator would have to turn to a monolingual dictionary or consult an English-German/German English dictionary, which will reduce the value of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH. The fact that this dictionary was last updated more than 20 years ago means that all the neologisms and other developments in Afrikaans and German would be inaccessible to the translator if he or she does not make use of alternative sources, for example to ask a native speaker or to consult an up-to-date English-German/German-English dictionary. This could have the result that this dictionary is omitted from the translation process, which would be a loss for Afrikaans-German lexicography, because there are no alternatives with the same language pair available.

To conclude, this dictionary needs to be revised thoroughly and professionally. This should ideally be done by a team consisting of lexicographers and German and Afrikaans native speakers who are specialists of their native languages. Such a team should start from the beginning, i.e. analyse lexicographic functions and conceptualise the new form according to the lexicographic processes.

The fact that the original compilers of WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH had very admirable intentions in the creation of this dictionary should not be ignored. The dictionary cannot be considered to be useless – it played an important role in South African lexicography as well as the development of Afrikaans. It has the potential to be transformed into a very useful, authoritative and influential dictionary. Very few lexicographers chose their field for financial gain alone. Dictionaries play an important role; with increasing globalisation international communication is becoming more and more important. Dictionaries form part of the foundation of communication. The following quotation sheds some light on the work of the lexicographer:



Writing a dictionary is a salutary and humbling experience. It makes you aware of the extent of your ignorance in almost every field of human activity. It fills your ...day with a series of monotonous, humdrum, fascinating, exasperating, frustrating, rewarding and impossible tasks. It goes on for years and years longer than you ever thought it (or you) could. And when it is all over, the fruits of this labour are enshrined forever in a form which allows other people to take it (and you) apart in print, publicly and permanently.

BTS Atkins, Oxford University Press (in Lutjeharmse, 2004)

7 Notes

¹ Examples taken from WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH

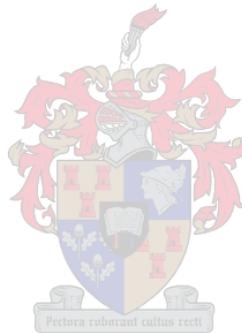
² Zgusta gives the example of the indication “verb transitive” in an English dictionary, where morphological and syntactic (or at least combinatorial) criteria (and information) are combined.

³ Although with the first editions of **WOORDEBOEK/WÖRTERBUCH** the lexicographer did not have the support of an Afrikaans monolingual dictionary, this does not apply for the current edition. See 2.3.

⁴ In Afrikaans *film* and *fliék* are absolute synonyms.

⁵ “Meine Mutter hat viel an Gewicht verloren” would be grammatically correct – but this form is rarely used in this context.

⁶ If an obese person loses a lot of weight, it does not necessarily mean that he or she is thin – he or she might still be overweight.



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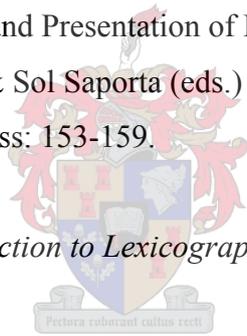
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