

**THE ROLE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY
UNITS IN THE PLANNING AND COMPILATION OF
MULTIFUNCTIONAL BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES**

by

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PROMOTER: PROF. R.H. GOUWS

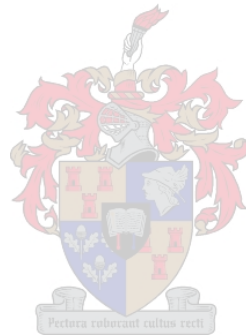
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DEDICATION

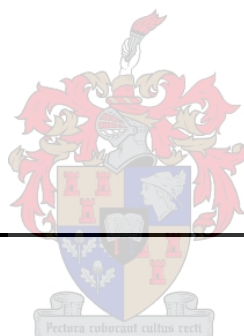
This thesis is dedicated to my parents, family and the Mongwe wa

Rimbale Clan.



DECLARATION

I declare that *The role of the south african national lexicography units in the planning and compilation of multifunctional bilingual dictionaries* is my own work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



M.J. Mongwe

April 2006

ABSTRACT

In my research I will comment on the development of the national lexicography units in South Africa, following the establishment of the eleven official languages in South Africa in the post-apartheid society. I will also outline the weaknesses that exist in the traditional dictionaries to ensure limited mistakes in the lexicographic sector. I strongly believe that bilingual dictionaries in a multilingual society like South Africa, especially printed dictionaries, will play a great role in the African society as there is a shortage of reference sources, to assist translators in the development of our languages.

The research will also advocate society to fight the major challenges faced by the national lexicography units in South Africa and other countries. I hope that with the research people will become aware of the necessity of using a dictionary at all times and that dictionaries are not only used for professional purposes by academics and highly qualified people, but can also be used for pleasure.



OPSOMING

In my navorsing sal ek kommentaar lewer op die ontwikkeling van die nasionale leksikografiese eenhede in Suid-Afrika wat inwerking gestel is na erkenning van die elf amptelike tale in Suid Afrika in die post-apartheid gemeenskap. Ek sal ook die swakheid wat in die tradisionele woordeboeke bestaan, aandui ten einde foute in die leksikografie-sektor aan te dui. Ek glo ten sterkste dat tweetalige woordeboeke en veral gedrukte woordeboeke in 'n veeltalige gemeenskap soos SA 'n groot rol in die Afrika-gemeenskap sal speel, aangesien daar 'n tekort aan naslaanbrone betaan wat vertalers in die ontwikkeling van ons tale kan bystaan.

Die navorsing toon aan dat die gemeenskap groot uitdagings sal beveg wat die nasionale leksikografiese eenhede in SA en ander lande in die gesig staarn. Ek hoop dat mense deur hierdie navorsing bewus sal word van die noodsaaklikheid om te alle tye 'n woordeboek te gebruik en dat woordeboeke nie slegs vir akademiese gebruik deur akademici en hoogs geskoolde mense daar is nie, maar dat dit ook vir genot gebruik kan word.



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I also wish to thank all the people who assisted me with lexicographic information during the course of my research. It is impossible to mention all the people who have assisted me in this regard, but I feel obliged to single out the following for a special word of thanks: Dr J.C.M.D. du Plessis of the Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal who sent the information requested without failure; Mr S.L. Tshabe, the Editor-in-Chief of the isiXhosa National Lexicography Unit; and finally Mr J.D. Baloyi, my colleague at the Ngula ya Xitsonga national lexicography unit who helped me with technical aspects during the typing of the manuscript.

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I owe many thanks to my wife, Tinyiko who encouraged me in the study of lexicography and my beloved children, Nhlamulo Harvey and Nhlalala Hope who always liked to know how I was coping especially when I was at the University of Stellenbosch during my examination period.

To all of you I say “Khanimambo” which is translated as “Thank you”.

FOREWORD

A lexicographic project, especially a large one, is by nature a team effort. Therefore, teamwork and sound communication should form the foundation of the South African national lexicography units. I therefore primarily believe that the findings in this thesis will assist lexicographers in the newly established units. A limited number of editors for example cannot compile a good dictionary on their own without interaction with other people who are knowledgeable in the language and lexicographic theory.

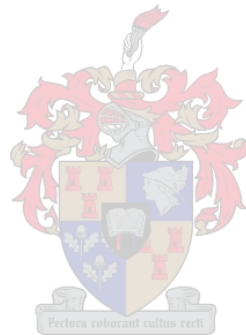
After attending the 7th International Conference for AFRILEX at Rhodes University, Grahamstown in 2002, I realised the need for something to be done. Mr S.L. Tshikota, the Editor-in-Chief for the Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit encouraged me to enroll for lexicographic subjects as these courses are new amongst the African population. This ideal was supported by Mr M.C. Mphahlele, a lexicographer at the Sesotho sa Leboa National Lexicography Unit.



TERMINOLOGY USED IN THE RESEARCH

- A **word** is the smallest independent entity in a language which conveys a specific meaning by itself and which is capable of existing as a separate unit in a sentence.
- **Abbreviation** is a short form of a word or phrase, made by leaving out some of the letters or by using only the first letters of each word.
- **Acronym** is a word created by the combination of the initial letter(s) of each of the consecutive parts of the most important parts of a compound term.
- **Collocation** is an instance of words that commonly occur together as a fixed, identifiable, non-idiomatic phrase or word contraction in the language.
- **Context indicator** is a word or phrase used in a dictionary for a specific subject field.
- **Dictionary article** is the sum total of all entries provided for a specific headword (lemma). It includes all the dictionary entries such as the headword, its synonym, indication of grammatical class, equivalent(s), guidance on pronunciation, syllabication and spelling, definitions and context indicators, examples of usage, etc.
- **Dictionary entry** is used to refer to the separate items of the dictionary article, and includes the headword (lemma), definitions, synonyms, labels, etc.
- **Dictionary** is a structured collection of lexical units with linguistic data about each of them.
- **Equivalent** is a term (technical/scientific word) in the target language that can be used to render a translation of the lexical item given as the headword (lemma) in the source language.
- **Labels** are lexicographic entries marking deviations from the default value.
- **Lemma (headword)** is the lexical item included as guiding element of the article in the dictionary. It is the title word of a dictionary article.
- **Lexicographer** is the person responsible for dictionary compilation.
- **Lexicography** is the art and science of dictionary making. It is the process in which linguistic information is being written down, processed and compiled in a specific lexicographical format. It is the making of dictionaries.
- **Lexicology** is the study of the lexicon (vocabulary) of a language.
- **Lexicon** is the total number of lexical items in a language.
- **Macrostructure** is the list of guiding elements of articles in a dictionary.
- **Microstructure** refers to entries presented as treatment of lemmata.
- **Source language (SL)** is a language in which a lemma is initially recorded/documented and for which an equivalent and possible equivalent synonym(s) must be found in another language.
- **Target language (TL)** is the language in which an equivalent and possible equivalent synonym(s) have to be found for a particular lemma.
- **Term** is a technical or scientific word, word group, phrase or expression in a particular language with a clearly described technical or scientific meaning in relation to a particular subject.

- **Terminography** is a subdivision of lexicography that deals with technical and scientific words.
- **Vocabulary** (called terminology) of a subject is the group of words (called terms) that are typically used when discussing it.



ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE RESEARCH

AFRILEX	: African Association for Lexicography.
BoDs	: Board of Directors.
DACST	: Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology.
DSAE	: Dictionary for South African English.
ISS	: Isikhungo Sesichamazwi Sesizulu.
NLB	: National Language Body.
NLU	: National Lexicography Unit.
PanSALB	: Pan South African Language Board.
PLCs	: Provincial Language Committees.
SALEX	: South African Lexicography.
SANLU s	: South African National Lexicography Units.
SL	: Source language.
TL	: Target language.
UNISA	: University of South Africa.
US	: University of Stellenbosch.
WAT	: Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal.
XNLU	: Xitsonga National Lexicography Unit, IsiXhosa National Lexicography Unit

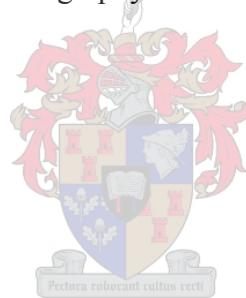


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CHAPTER ONE: THE PROBLEM AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The average members of a particular speech community often regard bilingual dictionaries as the most vital source of linguistic information. They rely on such dictionaries when translating documents from one language to another and also to enhance their communicative skills. Currently we have too many poor bilingual dictionaries in South Africa, because the lexicographers of the past could not adhere to the demands of this typological category. The planning and compilation of such dictionaries did not make provision for the many questions that users have. In many situations where the user of a dictionary consults his/her bilingual dictionary, s/he is not provided with the required information.

In real terms dictionaries contain a relatively small percentage of articles which display absolute equivalence between source and target language. Articles that show no absolute equivalence need extra data so that the user can retrieve the required information easily. Unfortunately this has not been done in the majority of the existing bilingual dictionaries. As a result, the dictionary user cannot achieve effective communicative skills if such additional data is not supplied. An article such as the following from Kritzinger and Steyn in the *Afrikaans/English-English/Afrikaans School Dictionary* (1970) cannot assist the user in achieving communicative equivalence.

aanneen accept, adopt, assume, admit, confirm.

This lexicographic problem was confirmed by Zgusta (1971:294) when he writes:

The listing of the translation equivalents has not sufficed in assisting the target user in his choice of the equivalents because co-ordination of the lemma and translation equivalents cannot always convey the necessary semantic, pragmatic and communicative values.

The article could have been improved as follows:

aanneen (proposal) accept, (constitution) adopt, (duty, position) assume, (student) admit, (appointment, death) confirm.

With this treatment, the dictionary user is able to see that the translation equivalents cannot replace each other in all contexts. The dictionary user is able to retrieve the required information. If the glosses are not supplied, a dictionary user could assume that 'accept', and 'confirm' can replace each other in all contexts, and a dictionary user might then opt to use 'confirm' instead of 'accept'. In this case a dictionary is not assisting its user in the production of a text in English.

Falling within the ambit of my research will be, the article structure, micro-architecture and microstructural data as well as the reversibility of lemmata, the scope of microstructural data and other facets related to the planning and compilation of effective bilingual dictionaries. One cannot refute Gouws and Prinsloo's (1997: 45-57) statement that

Most dictionaries for African languages, including Sepedi dictionaries, fail even at this level.

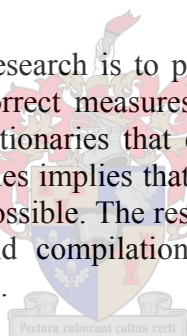
1.2 THE AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.2.1 THE AIMS

The aim of the research is to look at the role of the South African National Lexicography Units in the planning and compilation of multifunctional bilingual dictionaries.

1.2.2 THE OBJECTIVES

The main objective of the research is to present lexicographers with guidelines enabling them to use the correct measures in the planning and compilation of multifunctional bilingual dictionaries that can be user-friendly. It is a fact that user-friendliness in dictionaries implies that the content of the dictionary is made as accessible to the user as possible. The research will also give recommendations concerning the planning and compilation of future multifunctional bilingual dictionaries to lexicographers.



1.3 THE CONTENTS

The study has been divided into seven chapters which are organised as follows:

- (a) Chapter 1: The problem and background of the study.
- (b) Chapter 2: The history of the dictionary projects in South Africa, which presents a historical overview of the dictionary units prior to the dawn of the new democratic South Africa, and the dictionary units established in the post-apartheid South Africa. The aim is to show their establishment and the close historical relationship under the umbrella body, the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB).
- (c) Chapter 3: The establishment of dictionary units, achievement and challenges of the South African National Lexicography Units (SANLUs). This chapter outlines the language policy of the apartheid South Africa and the current democratic Constitution of the Republic of South Africa which led to the formation of the SANLUs. The achievements and challenges are also discussed.

- (d) Chapter 4: Bilingual dictionaries. In this chapter the types of bilingual dictionaries are discussed.
- (e) Chapter 5: Problems of bilingual dictionaries. In this chapter the factors that prevent bilingual dictionaries from being user-friendly and reasons for people having poor communicative and competence skills when using bilingual dictionaries are discussed. This implies that before compiling a dictionary, we should not only determine the exact typological nature of that dictionary, but also the kind of data to be included in the dictionary.
- (f) Chapter 6: Recommendations. This is the recapitulation of the main points discussed in the study where advice is given to future lexicographers and those interested in dictionary writing.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research method will be based on:

1.4.1 LITERATURE STUDY

1.4.1.1 The existing bilingual dictionaries will be used as primary texts

1.4.1.2 Relevant metalexigraphic literature will be consulted.

1.4.2 QUALITATIVE METHOD

The researcher will gather a wider range and depth of information. This will enable people knowledgeable with lexicographic skills to give their input in a broader perspective. One-to-one and small-group interviews with different people will be held focusing on lexicographical information.

1.4.3 FORMATIVE METHOD

This is a strategy used by researchers when collecting formative data from people who are not within a reachable distance. Three strategies, namely, the use of pre-stamped and pre-addressed postcards, electronic mail and telephones are included in this method.

Qualitative and formative methods have been my primary methodologies in this research.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

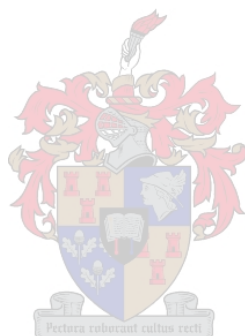
Lexicography is a new discipline in African languages, particularly those spoken in South Africa. Much research work is still to be done in the lexicographic field. Research will make an important contribution to this new discipline. The future dictionary researchers will be able to use the research as a source of reference. One cannot deny the fact that the great challenges in compiling better dictionaries

for the African languages are to develop sound strategies and procedures for planning the structure of the dictionaries. The South African National Lexicography Units (SANLUs) will be able to be guided by means of the research in the planning and compilation of effective multifunctional bilingual dictionaries.

The scope of the research should cover those questions asked by users of bilingual dictionaries. Al-Kasimi (1977:19) quotes Barnhart, an experienced commercial lexicographer:

It is the function of the popular dictionary to answer the questions that the user of the dictionary asks, and the dictionaries on the commercial market will be successful in proportion to the extent to which they answer these questions of the buyer.

This is the basis on which the editor must determine the type of information to be included in the dictionary.



CHAPTER TWO: THE HISTORY OF SOME OF THE DICTIONARY PROJECTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Dictionaries are indicators or mirrors of a country's social, cultural, scientific and technological development. It is without a doubt that the language communities of all the official languages in South Africa need dictionaries not only to bridge the communication gaps but also to document and preserve the rich variety of South African languages.

In 1995 the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology (DACST) drafted the National Lexicography Units Bill. This bill was to provide for the establishment and management of national lexicography units to make equitable provision for dictionaries for each of the official languages of South Africa. The National Lexicography Units could help preserve South Africa's linguistic diversity in all its forms. It is believed that language services, such as translation, editing and publishing could benefit from the products of the national lexicography units.

In view of the constitutional provisions for multilingualism and the development of all the official languages, it is necessary to have national dictionaries for all the official languages. This would be another way of nation building and a realistic reconstruction of the languages in South Africa. It is a fact that well trained lexicographers are urgently needed to document and preserve the South African languages, as the work of dictionary writing involves specific principles and procedures and one has to receive specific training to be able to do the assigned activities of the units.

A national lexicography unit for each of the official languages in South Africa was established and registered as a non-profit section 21 company. Amongst the eleven national lexicography units, there are some that had been established prior to the existence of the Pan South African Language Board. The *Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal*, the Dictionary of South African English, isiXhosa, Setswana, isiZulu and Sesotho sa Leboa National Lexicography Units were established prior to the dawn of a new democratic South Africa. These, however, were not in the same form that they have been adapted to since, while the isiNdebele, isiSwati, Sesotho, Tshivenda and Xitsonga National Units were established in the post apartheid South Africa by means of the Pan South African Language Board Amendment Act, (Act 10 Of 1999). All units were then registered as PanSALB NLUs. One of the greatest problems concerning providing and producing dictionaries in South Africa during the apartheid era was financing, due to the apartheid government policy that only English and Afrikaans would receive financial support. Most of the other dictionary projects, besides Afrikaans and English, were thus financed by publishers, universities, private lexicographers or by the former Department of Education and Development Aid of the Republic of

South Africa. The research shall briefly discuss the history of each of the eleven lexicography units in South Africa. In the discussion some of the aspects to be highlighted are the staff members, management, financial status, the location, the progress and challenges of each unit, dictionary programs, etc.

2.2 THE HISTORY OF THE LEXICOGRAPHICAL UNITS ESTABLISHED PRIOR TO THE PAN SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGE BOARD UNITS

2.2.1 THE HISTORY OF THE BUREAU OF THE WOORDEBOEK VAN DIE AFRIKAANSE TAAL

In 1920 Prof. J.J. Smith from the University of Stellenbosch advocated the compilation of a bilingual dictionary and the collection of the Afrikaans vocabulary in order to prepare for the compilation of an explanatory monolingual Afrikaans dictionary. In 1925 a joint committee of both Houses of Parliament recommended the compilation of a complete and authoritative dictionary: with state support. In 1926 the co-operation between Prof. Smith, the Nasionale Pers and the University of Stellenbosch was confirmed by means of formal contracts. The work of dictionary compilation started in Cape Town. The idea was that Prof. Smith would compile a standard descriptive dictionary similar to the Dutch Van Dale that should be completed within a period of three years. In those early years Afrikaans literature was limited and the linguistic description of Afrikaans was still in a preliminary stage.

The University of Stellenbosch (US) took over the responsibility for the Dictionary from the Nasionale Pers in 1929. Shortly thereafter in 1930, the dictionary office was moved to Stellenbosch and a Dictionary Committee was appointed as a controlling body in 1937. In 1945 Prof. Smith retired because of ill health. The same year the Dictionary Committee was replaced by a Board of Control consisting of representatives of Government, the University of Stellenbosch and the S.A. Akademie vir Wetenskap en Kuns. When Prof. Smith retired after nineteen years of lexicographic labour, not a single volume had been published. Manuscripts from a preliminary to a revised state had been prepared, in the style of a standard dictionary up to the letter N.

There are various reasons why nothing was published in nineteen years. By 1926, the Afrikaans language was not yet standardized. No extensive recording of the Afrikaans language had been undertaken and there was only a very limited corpus of literature which could be excerpted. No comprehensive study of the Afrikaans grammar had been undertaken, many spelling issues still had to be resolved, and furthermore there was an almost complete lack of technical terms. Two other impeding factors were the absence of etymological research and contradicting opinions on the inclusion of Dutch words. Some critics were convinced that the database of Prof. Smith was too Dutch-oriented, whilst others propagated the inclusion of more Dutch words.

Dr P.C. Schoonees was appointed as the second Editor-in-Chief on 01 January 1947. When the first Volume (A-C) of the WAT was published four years later, on 07 May 1951, it was not a dictionary in the tradition of a Van Dale or a Shorter Oxford as had always been expected. It had the character of comprehensive descriptive dictionaries and was well received by academics, writers and dictionary users. It is without doubt that 1950 marked the real beginning of the WAT. It created great public interest and predominantly aroused a positive reception. The editorial staff was increased to ten members in 1951.

Due to the lack of Afrikaans technical terms, many Dutch terms were included in the first volume of the WAT. Following the advice of leading linguists, other Dutch words were also included on the grounds that they could be necessary for Afrikaans in the future, even though they were not part of the Afrikaans vocabulary at the time of compilation. None of these words really became part of the Afrikaans lexicon, as Afrikaans and Dutch continued to move further apart from each other. No etymologies were given, but the language of origin was provided in the case of loan-words. By 1950 Afrikaans had a well-established written literature and compilers of dictionaries could benefit from a greatly but not completely standardised language. The WAT had been able to have publications of Volume II (D-F) in 1955, Volume III (G) in 1958 and Volume IV (H-I) in 1961.

In 1962 Dr F.J. Snijman was appointed as the third Editor-in-Chief and the WAT recorded the first millionth entry (language data) in 1963. Volume V (J-KJ) was published in 1968. The publication of Volume VI was in 1976. The publication of Volume V-VII was marked by strong criticism aimed mainly at the slow alphabetical progress, the encyclopedic treatment of lemmas and the strong accent on technical terms. The second millionth entry of language material was recorded in 1970. The “Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal” Act, 1973 (Act no. 50. 1973) was passed by parliament. The Dictionary project was established in Stellenbosch on a permanent basis. Henceforth, the Bureau of the WAT was regulated by a Board of Control of the Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal, consisting of five members, in which the state, the University of Stellenbosch and the S.A. Akademie vir Wetenskap en Kuns were represented. Mr D.C. Hauptfleisch was appointed as the fourth Editor-in-Chief in 1981.

The collection of lexical material reached the 3 million mark in 1983. The publication of Volume VII (KOM-KOR-) was in 1984. The “Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal” Amendment Act, 1986 (Act no.9, 1986) was passed in 1986. The Board of Control was increased to six members. The Administrator (in future also the permanent Chairman) and the Editor-in-Chief were ex officio members, and four members were appointed by the Minister of National Education. One member represented the S.A. Akademie. The Bureau implemented its strategic planning process in 1989 in order to complete the Dictionary up to Z as quickly and effectively as possible.

In 1990 the Bureau started to import all new language material into the computer database by using the LEXI-program of the Human Sciences Research Council. Four of the first published volumes of the WAT were read into a computer database by means of a scanner and an optical character recognition program (OCR), with the automatic extraction of data in mind. A new editorial system was designed and from July 1990 all manuscripts were prepared in accordance with the new system. All new manuscripts were structurally computerised for automatic extraction of data. Dr D.J. van Schalkwyk was appointed as Editor-in-Chief after the retirement of Mr D.C. Hauptfleisch on 31 July 1991. Volume VIII of the WAT (KOS-KYW-) appeared in November 1991. The use of computers was increased to the fullest extent which enabled lexicographers to work with ease in their day to day activities.

Volume XI of the WAT was presented to the Minister of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology, Dr Ben Ngubane and to Mr M.B. Kumalo, the Chairman of the Pan South African Language Board on 29 May 2000. In the same year the ONOMA program, a computer program which was developed by Lexilogik, a Swedish Company, in collaboration with the Bureau was phased in. The Bureau was registered on 8 November 2000 as a Section 21 company. The first Board of Directors of the Bureau of the WAT as a Section 21 company was designated in 2001 as follows: Prof. A.H. van Wyk, Chairman and representative of the University of Stellenbosch, Dr D.J. van Schalwyk, Executive Director and Editor-in-Chief of the WAT; Prof. W.A.M. Carstens, Provincial language Committee; Prof. R.H. Gouws, African Association for Lexicography (AFRILEX representative); Ms W.H. Lategan, marketing expert; Dr M. Pienaar, the Provincial Language Committee; Dr J.F. Smith, financial expert and Mr R.A. Stevens, legal expert. The 75th year of the Bureau was commemorated on 28 September 2001 at the WAT festival with “Die variëteite van Afrikaans” as the theme.

In March 2002 the first phase of the *Etimologiewoordeboek van Afrikaans* was presented to the Dutch benefactors Prof. P.G.J. van Sterkenburg, Prof. A.M.F.J. Moerdijk of the Instituut voor Nederlandse Lexicologie, Dr B. Jongsma of the publishing firm SDU and Dr J. Kist. They did the fund-raising for the compilation of the *Etimologiewoordeboek van Afrikaans*. The *Etimologiewoordeboek van Afrikaans* (EWA) was published on 13 June 2003. EWA and the CD of EWA were presented to the Dutch benefactors on 5 September 2003. The Elektroniese WAT was completed on 28 March 2003 and released on 29 March 2003 at the Klein Karoo Nasionale Kunstefees. The Editor-in-Chief, Dr D.J. van Schalkwyk retired on 31 December 2003. Dr W.F. Botha was appointed as the sixth Editor-in-Chief in 2004. Volume XII, covering the letters P and Q, was published in 2005.

2.2.2 THE HISTORY OF THE DICTIONARY UNIT FOR SOUTH AFRICAN ENGLISH

The first dictionary of South African English, *Africanderisms*, was published in 1913. It was compiled by an amateur lexicographer, a Methodist minister, the Rev Charles Pettman. The second South African English dictionary, *A Dictionary of English usage in South Africa* by Ridley Beeton and Helen Dorner, of the University of South Africa (UNISA) was published in 1975.

In 1968, William Branford initiated a pilot project after realising a need for ongoing research on South African English. The Dictionary Unit for South African English was founded by Prof. William Branford in 1969, as a project of the institute of English in Africa at Rhodes University, Grahamstown. It received ad hoc grants from the Human Sciences Research Council and the Department of National Education until 1985 when an annual grant was allocated. In June 1991 the Dictionary Unit for South African English (DSAE) was registered as a non-profit organisation, a Section 21 company, controlled by a Board of Directors and funded largely by the Department of National Education. Subsequently, funding was taken over by the former Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology which later passed on the responsibility to the Pan South African Language Board.

In 1970, Betty Mcleod was appointed as the first full-time professional researcher, and subsequently Penny Silva joined the unit in August of that year. Silva, under the supervision of Prof. Brandford and assisted by Doreen Gray was involved in collecting quotations from books, manuscripts, magazines and newspapers and mounting them on index cards to illustrate English usage in South Africa. Mrs Silva began drafting articles in 1971. Jean Branford and Margaret Britz joined the staff during that year. In 1974, John Walker joined the unit. The work was overseen by an editorial committee chaired by Prof. Branford and drawn from the academic community. By the end of 1973, a working system had evolved, a style had been designed, and the first thousand articles had been written for the planned *Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles*.

The unit was given a single grant of R90 000 by the Department of National Education catering for the period between April 1975 and March 1981. However, the grant could not cover the cost as there was a shortfall each year which was handled by the grant from the University Council. The Department of National Education finally agreed to make the project permanent in 1985 and a more realistic annual grant was allocated. Between 1970 and 1988 the staff of the DSAE was very small. In 1990 the savings that had been made over the years resulted in the addition to the staff component in order to prepare for the editing of the large Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles. From 1991 to 1995 there were five editors, one part-time editor and a typist, with temporary assistance from students. The two major contributions were made by

Jean Branford and Margaret Britz from 1971 to 1989 and from 1971 to 1991 respectively.

In 1997 the DSAE became involved in the practical training of lexicographers. The British Council assisted by bringing three experienced British lexicographers and trainers to run the course, under the leadership of Sue Atkins. The unit has been able to organize SALEX '97, under auspices of AFRILEX and the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology that took place in Grahamstown in September 1997. It was the first course of three planned by AFRILEX with the central goal of enabling the staff of new units for the nine African Languages. The ten day course was attended by thirty-five participants representing fifteen languages. Ten of the eleven languages of South Africa were represented. It was discovered that the course was positive and a heartening spirit of common purpose developed among those present.

The Unit has established contacts with the schools in Grahamstown and in the Eastern Cape at large. A pilot website has been set up at a local primary school, enabling the children to send words to the unit. One of the editors visited the school, and spoke to both learners and educators. The unit hopes to extend the project to other schools. The unit has been able to make contact with the provincial Department of Education, offering its resources.

The Unit has also participated in numerous Grahamstown foundation projects, namely, lecturing teachers on dictionary use, speaking at the National Festive of the Arts and at national and provincial school's festivals and preparing material for the English Olympiad, i.e. an essay competition for high school learners.

Madeline Wright, one of the unit's editors, is lexicographically editing the software programme SG-ML to suit the unit's needs. At the same time the Unit continues to update the large dictionary and to collect data for it. The 1978, 1980, 1987 and 1991 editions of *A Dictionary of South African English* and the *Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles* as well as the *South African Concise Oxford Dictionary* (2002) were published.

2.2.3 THE HISTORY OF THE ISIKHUNGO SESICHAZAMAZWI SESIZULU NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNIT (ISS)

The *Isikhungo Sesichazamazwi Sesizulu* (ISS) commenced on the 1st of December 1977. This was the first endeavour to produce an explanatory dictionary in isiZulu. The project was started without a budget and without any provision for staffing. Three students were initially employed on an hourly rate and paid from savings from the budget of the Department of African Languages at the University of Zululand.

In 1981 the Department of Education and Training approved the establishment of posts at lectureship level. Secretarial work for entering definitions on the

computer was arranged on an ad hoc basis. Fieldwork was not considered or made a high priority. The project leader was unable to exercise his tasks to the full as he was involved with the administration of the University of Zululand. *Isichazamazwi I* and *Isischazamazwi II* were published in 1981 and 1985 respectively under the supervision of Prof. A.C. Nkabinde. A more comprehensive version of this series was printed in 1988.

IsiZulu Lexicography dates back to 1857 with the publication of *A Zulu/Kaffir Dictionary* by J.L. Döhne. This was followed by J.W. Colenso's *Zulu/English Dictionary*, A.T. Bryant's *Zulu-English Dictionary*, R.C.A. Samuelson's *King Cetshwayo Dictionary* in 1917 and P.W. Wangers's *Konversations-Grammatik der Zulusprache, Zulu-English Dictionary* by C.M. Doke and B.W. Vilakazi, *Woordeboek Afrikaans-Zoeloe-Zoeloe-Afrikaans* by A.M. Dekker and J.H. Ries and *English and Zulu Dictionary* by C.M. Doke, D.M. Malcolm and J.M.A. Sikana in 1958. There were about eight major bilingual dictionaries in existence when the Isikhungo Sesichazamazwi Sesizulu commenced. Many of these pioneers worked individually on their own without secretaries and computers, but still did exceptionally good work. *The Afrikaans/Zoeloe-Woordeboek met Engelse Vertalings* by Ernst Kotzé and Patrick Wela was published in 1991 and a monolingual Zulu dictionary, the *Isichazamazwi Sanamuhla Nangomuso* written by Sibusiso Nyembezi was published in 1992.

On 30 June 2000 the Unit was registered as a non-profit organisation and Section 21 company. The Unit is about to publish Volume III of the isiZulu Monolingual Explanatory Dictionary. The students are also assisting with the checking of spelling, alphabetical ordering, sequencing of definitions and correctness of lemmas. Other duties have been assigned to the senior researcher of the unit.

2.2.4 THE HISTORY OF THE ISIXHOSA NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNIT

The IsiXhosa Dictionary Project was started in 1968 in the Victoria East sub-region, Eastern Cape as a project of the University of Fort Hare with the late Prof. H.W. Pahl as its director and Editor-in-Chief. Victoria East is said to be the place of authors and literature of isiXhosa. The establishment of the unit was a response to the needs of students of the isiXhosa language for a modern, definitive, scientific standard dictionary. The dictionary was titled "*The Greater Dictionary of Xhosa*", a comprehensive trilingual dictionary. Its lemmata are entered and defined in isiXhosa and then translated into English and Afrikaans. Its addenda contains information on grammatical, historical, anthropological and cultural aspects of isiXhosa.

The Greater Dictionary of Xhosa is divided into three volumes, namely Volume I with lemmata for the article stretches A-J, Volume II with article stretches K-P and lastly Volume III with article stretches Q-Z. The work started with Volume III and this was published in 1989. Work on the compilation of Volume II was

started immediately after the completion of Volume III and was published in December 2003 and first circulated in March 2004. It is bigger than Volume III because it has 1126 pages including the front and back matter, whilst Volume III only has 755 pages. The reason for not publishing the volumes simultaneously was because the sponsors were anxious to see some tangible results of their contributions. The project was the best established lexicographic project not only for isiXhosa, but also amongst the other African Languages of South Africa. The volumes cater for the needs of both academic and general dictionary users. The importance of the project lies not only in its contribution to isiXhosa but also in the fact that it is the largest and most inclusive African language dictionary in South Africa. The project can serve as a model for the newly established National Lexicography Units and the already established National Lexicography Units in South Africa.

The University of Fort Hare was the major funder of the project. The project was also supported by the Human Sciences Research Council of the Republic of South Africa, the former Ciskei and Transkei governments, and the Anglo-American and De Beers Chairman's Fund. Its publication grant was received from the former Department of Education and Development Aid of the Republic of South Africa.

In the past data was collected through field research and from the perusal of written material. The major sources of entries were from *A Kaffir-English Dictionary* (1915) written by A. Kropf and R. Godfrey and also Godfrey's unpublished revision of *A Kaffir-English dictionary*. In 1989, Prof H.W. Pahl was the Editor-in-Chief. The use of computers was first introduced in the project at the beginning of 1989 when the Director and new Editor-in-Chief Prof. B.M. Mini came to office. She left in 2002 due to the establishment of the national lexicography unit. In 2003 Mr S.L. Tshabe was appointed as the Editor-in-Chief of the XNLU. Mrs F.M. Shoba is the only other permanent member of staff of the Unit thus far.

There are two committees that serve as facilitators of the affairs of the project, namely, the isiXhosa Dictionary Advisory Committee and the isiXhosa Dictionary Executive Committee. The isiXhosa Dictionary Advisory Committee has representatives from each of the following sponsoring organizations and bodies: the University of South Africa, University of Cape Town and Rhodes University, and the Church of Scotland. Lovedale Press represents the Director and Editor-in-Chief of the project, the Rector of the University of Fort Hare, the head of the African Languages Department of Fort Hare, the Council representative and also the Department of African Languages. The isiXhosa Dictionary Executive Committee consists of all the internal members of the latter committee, as well as the Lovedale Press representative.

Channels of communication and co-operation between the Unit and other lexicographic centres in South Africa are already open. Members of the staff are

affiliated to and are regular participants in the following professional organisations: the African Association for Lexicography, the African Languages Association of South Africa, the South African Folklore Society and the South African Translators Institute.

The staff members of the Unit are at present involved in the study of Phonetics of isiXhosa, the writing of a specialized Xhosa Bible Dictionary and management studies. The Unit has played a significant role in assisting the newly established national lexicography units in African Languages, as well as helping lexicographers to start their own projects. The Unit staff continue to improve themselves in the field of lexicography by attending courses at the Bureau of the WAT and at SALEX.

The Unit was registered as a non-profit organisation and Section 21 company on 19 January 2001 and is based at the University of Fort Hare.

A Board of Directors was appointed by PanSALB and the university appointed Dr N.P Lesoetsa as Chairperson of the Board. The other staff and positions include: Mr M.D Tyatyeka (Vice Chairperson), Prof. S.C Satyo, Dr S Gxilishe, Mrs T.L. Kati (Finance), Mrs N.L. Nongxaza (Marketing) and Advocate P. Mnopi (Legal). Dr Lesoetsa has since resigned from the university and Dr M Yoyo was appointed to take over the reigns as Chairperson of the Board of Directors as from January 2003.

The Board also decided on a new logo for the Unit, viz. X representing isiXhosa and the word **isiseko** can be translated as the foundation of isiXhosa language. This serves in clarifying the Unit as a separate and autonomous entity.

2.2.5 THE HISTORY OF THE SESOTHO SA LEBOA NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNIT

The Department of African Languages at the University of Pretoria was formally appointed or instructed to establish a dictionary project for Sesotho sa Leboa in 1988. Its goal was to compile a comprehensive, multi-volume, monolingual dictionary for Sesotho sa Leboa with the then Sepedi Language Board as the controlling body. This was intended to be a major project similar to that of the *Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal*. It was motivated that an amount of R1 million per year be distributed to the unit but no money was granted. After being approached the University of Pretoria allocated an amount of more or less R800.00 per year. This amount of R800.00 was however too small to even hire a full-time lexicographer, but was nevertheless utilised effectively in maintaining the unit. The University of Pretoria has played an important role in the unit by providing comprehensive infrastructure in the form of an office, telephone, fax and computer technology and also the free services of computer programmers.

A Dictionary Committee was formed and supplemented from time to time, namely, P.S. Groenewald, J. Maripane, K.J. Mashamaite, M.J. Mojalefa, D.J. Prinsloo and P.B. Sathekge. These members worked for the dictionary unit in their own spare time as none of them could be released from their duties as lecturers and work for the unit on a full-time basis. Although the work was very slow, much progress has been made since it commenced in 1988. This is measured by the publication of the two pocket-sized bilingual dictionaries which are available to the market and also the experience which has been gained. More than 50 000 articles have been computerised. The single volume *English-Sepedi/Sepedi-English Dictionary* is scheduled to be on the market soon. The unit was assisted by Dr G-M de Schryver from the University of Ghent in Belgium.

The co-operation with the University of the North was established in 1996, with Mr K.J. Mashamaite representing the University of the North. A formal business plan for the establishment of a dictionary unit was presented to the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology in 1997. The Sesotho sa Leboa Dictionary unit held a consultative meeting on 13 August 1999 at the University of the North. The main aim of this meeting was to bring all role players together to:

- discuss the dictionary needs of Sesotho sa Leboa
- communicate the latest legislation regarding dictionary units
- obtain expert advice on the compilation of monolingual dictionaries
- extend the mandate of Sesotho sa Leboa Dictionary Unit to compile a monolingual dictionary
- mandate the new Committee to draw up a business plan according to the requirements of PanSALB.

It was agreed at the meeting that the University of the North would become the new head office of the Sesotho sa Leboa Dictionary Unit with the University of Pretoria to act as its branch office. The Sesotho sa Leboa Dictionary Unit was registered as a Section 21 company on 19 September 2000. The unit has four staff members. The Editor-in-Chief is Dr. V.M. Mojela with Ms M.P. Mogodi, Mr M.C. Mphahlele and Ms R. Selokela as lexicographers. The unit has a lot to offer to the newly established dictionary units, especially in terms of research done, training offered, computer programs developed, etc. The unit has taken the initiative to compile a computer program for the compilation of dictionaries which might be useful to other units as well. This program was designed by Mr David Joffe with the help of Prof. D.J. Prinsloo and Dr G-M de Schryver. The first South African online dictionary interface, Sesotho sa Leboa-English, was launched on 20 June 2003 at the University of Pretoria. On 8 November 2003 the unit launched the dictionary entitled "*Pukuntsutlhalosi ya Sesotho sa Leboa*".

2.3 THE HISTORY OF THE NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHICAL UNITS ESTABLISHED AFTER 1994 IN A POST APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA

2.3.1 THE HISTORY OF THE SETSWANA NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNIT

The first recorded published dictionary in Setswana, entitled *Lokwalo Loa Mahuku a Setswana le Seeneles* was compiled by Rev. John Brown of the London Missionary Society between 1875 and 1876. This is a bi-directional dictionary *Setswana-English/English-Setswana*. The second edition(s) of this dictionary appeared in 1914 and 1921 and it was reprinted in 1975. The third edition was published in 1925 under the guidance of Rev. J. Tom Brown and appeared under the title *Setswana-English Dictionary*. Z.I. Matumo's fourth edition *Setswana-English-Setswana dictionary* was published by Macmillan Boleswa in 1993.

The first monolingual dictionary in Setswana, the *Thanodi ya Setswana ya Dikole* under the editorship of Morulaganyi Kgasa, was published by Longman Botswana in 1976. Its target groups were schools. This dictionary consists of 125 pages. J.W. Snyman's first trilingual dictionary, with the assistance of J.S. Soke and J.C. Roux, *Dikisinare ya Setswana/English/Afrikaans Dictionary/Woordeboek* was published in 1990 by Via Afrika. This dictionary is rich in the vocabulary of Setswana.

The Setswana monolingual dictionary was worked on between 1984 and 1987 at the Institute of African Studies, University of Bophutatswana, (now part of the University of North West) with J.M. Ntsime as Editor-in-Chief. From 1988 to 1995 D.M. Mothoagae was the editor and was assisted by M.H. Zebediela, PM. Rakgokong and T.J. Mabe. The first edition of this dictionary, titled *Thanodi ya Setswana*, has been completed and is in the process of publication.

The Setswana National Lexicography Unit was registered as a non-profit Section 21 company on 15 February 2001. The unit is based at the University of North West, North West Province. It was officially launched on 7 December 2001. Organisations such as the Setswana Writers Association (Magogo), Setswana Association (representing teachers, lecturers, translators and the organised students in Setswana), the Setswana Bible translators, and the Bureau of Setswana Language and Culture expressed their great support for the establishment of a lexicographic unit for Setswana. Mr GB Mareme was appointed as the Editor-in-Chief in 2003.

2.3.2 THE HISTORY OF THE ISINDEBELE NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNIT

IsiNdebele was regarded as a minority language during the apartheid era. By 1996 it had still not been taught as a university subject like other official languages in

South Africa. There was not a single isiNdebele dictionary that existed prior to the establishment of the unit. Several consultative meetings had been held across Mpumalanga Province with the main aim being to get support from the speech community before the task of dictionary compilation commenced.

The isiNdebele National Lexicography Unit is based at the University of Pretoria, in the Gauteng Province because this is nearest to the speakers of isiNdebele. It was also the only institution that was ready to introduce this language as a university course by that time. The unit was registered as a non-profit organisation and Section 21 company on 3 November 2000. The isiNdebele dictionary was officially launched at the University in Pretoria in July 1997. Mr P.B. Skhosana was acting Editor-in-Chief from 1999 until 2003, when the first Editor-in-Chief, Ms S. Mahlangu was appointed.

In 1997, some of the staff members who were to be appointed in the eventual unit attended a two-week workshop on lexicography held in Grahamstown. The unit received support in lexicographic skills from Prof. D.J. Prinsloo and Prof. A. Wilkes. The unit has been able to send two drafts of the dictionary to speakers of the language for their comments and input. One draft was monolingual while the other was bilingual.

2.3.3 THE HISTORY OF THE SESOTHO NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNIT

The most important Sesotho dictionary that can be mentioned is Adolphe Maphille's *Sesotho-English Dictionary* published in 1876 in Morija, Lesotho. The work consisted of 158 pages. The compilation of this dictionary was motivated by the Missionaries' need to translate the Bible into Sesotho and to enhance effective communication with the Basotho. The fourth edition, published in 1911, was improved by H. Dieterlen of the French Mission and contained 20 000 lemmata. It was reclassified, revised and enlarged further by R.A. Paroz in 1959. It is said to be the most consulted work in Sesotho.

L. Hamel's *English-Southern Sesotho Dictionary* was published by the Catholic centre of Mazonod in Lesotho in 1965. This work is very similar to Paroz's edition in terms of substance and structure. A. Casalis should be credited for his honesty in his *English-Sesutu Vocabulary*, published in 1984, as he never made false claims of having written a dictionary. Instead it was just an alphabetically arranged list of English words with their Sesotho equivalents. The reasons for the selection of words included in the vocabulary remains unclear.

The work of the eventual Sesotho Dictionary Unit was initially undertaken by individuals and certain institutions. J.A. du Plessis, J.G. Gildenhys and J.J. Moiloa produced *Bukantswe ya maleme-Pedi: Sesotho Se Afrikaanse/Tweetalige Woordeboek: Afrikaans-Suid-Sotho* in 1986. This dictionary consists of three parts. The first part contains Sesotho terms with Afrikaans equivalents, and the

second part contains articles in Sesotho with Afrikaans definitions. The second part contains proverbs and common phrases in Sesotho translated into Afrikaans, and the third Afrikaans articles with Sesotho equivalents. Another publication is the *Dictionary of Basic English: Southern Sotho* edited by K.B. Hartshorne and published in 1984.

The only Sesotho monolingual dictionary is the *Sehlaosi: Sesotho Cultural Dictionary*, written by F.Z.A. Matsela and published by Macmillan Boleswa (Lesotho) in 1994. It focuses on a specific sphere of life, i.e. culture.

The Sesotho National Lexicography Unit was registered as a non-profit organisation and Section 21 company on 28 February 2001. The unit is based at the University of Free State in the Free State Province. Ms D. Moeti is the unit's only lexicographer and Mr M.J. Motsapi was appointed as the Editor-in-Chief in 2003.

2.3.4 THE HISTORY OF THE SILULU SESISWATI NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNIT

The Silulu Sesiswati NLU was registered as a non-profit organisation under section 21 on 23 February 2001. The unit was officially launched at the Pretoria Technikon, Nelspruit Campus in the Mpumalanga Province on 06 September 2002. The SABC, especially Ligwalagwala FM and Mopani; the *Lowvelder*, *Beeld* and the *Sunday World* newspapers were used to create public awareness of the existence of the unit. The unit is also known to the public for its ways of tackling matters relating to isiSwati in Swaziland. Mr M. Mkhabela is appointed on a part-time basis and he visits the unit once or twice a week. Little has been done in the field of lexicography. The first publication was the *SiSwati Orthography, Terminology and Spelling Rules* which appeared in 1980. This was followed by the publication of Rycroft's *Concise siSwati Dictionary* in 1981. The unit was able to launch a *SiSwati Bilingual Dictionary* in 2004.

In October 2002 the unit was able to do lemmata under letters A and B. This task was completed to the fullest with the help of the style guide of the unit compiled by Mrs M.K. Simelane and Dr P.M. Lubisi in early November 2001. The Board of Directors of the Silulu Sesiswati Dictionary Unit has been able to strengthen its relationship with the isiSwati Language Board in Swaziland.

Dr J. Dlamini was acting Editor-in-Chief of the unit until 2003 when Mr J.J. Ncongwane was appointed as the first Editor-in-Chief. The unit has three staff members including the Editor-in-Chief.

2.3.5 THE HISTORY OF THE TSHIVENDA NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNIT

Little has been done in the field of lexicography in Tshivenda. However, there are a number of publications by graduated scholars on the development of the Tshivenda language. There are a few translation dictionaries in this language. The work of LT Marole et al's *Bugu ya Phindulano ya English-Venda* phrase book was published in 1932, followed by *Pindulano: English-Venda Vocabulary* 3rd edition in 1954 and the publication of Afrikaans-Venda Vocabulary and Phrase book in 1955. Warmelo's *Teo dza Tshivenda* was published in 1958.

Warmelo's *Tshivenda-English Dictionary* was published in 1937 and revised with the help of WDM Phophi. Muloiwa's *Trilingual Elementary Dictionary* was published in 1976 and revised in 1982. In 1972 Vol. 2, covering the letters A-C, of the *Verklarende Woordelys: Afrikaans-English-Venda* was published. Its second volume which included letters D-J was published in 1976.

The first Chairperson of the Board of Directors of the Tshivenda NLU was Prof. Muloiwa who, together with others, has written a number of publications which could be included as part of the development of the Tshivenda Dictionary history. Some of his great efforts include the *Venda Trilingual Dictionary* published in 1976. The improved *Trilingual Dictionary of Basic English-Venda: Across the Curriculum* was published in 1984. The trilingual dictionary translates the most commonly used words into Afrikaans and English. Besides dictionary work, Tshivenda orthography was revised and improved in 1980. *Venda Terminology* work was published in 1976. It must be noted that notes on *Venda Orthography*, *Bantu educational journal*, vol. 6 was published in 1960.

The dictionary entitled *Thalwa maipfi a Tshivenda*, which is an explanation of Tshivenda words by M.E.R Mativha, N.A Mlubi and R.N Madazhe, was completed by the language service division. The new edition, *The Venda dictionary* was published in 1989 by Warmelo.

Before the establishment of the Tshivenda NLU in 2001, several consultative meetings were held across the country. In 1999 the lexicographic consultative meeting was held at the Holiday Inn, Johannesburg International Airport. The Tshivenda delegates were Ms A. Mawela, Mr R.T. Siavhe and Mr M. Nematanga.

The unit began its activities in 2001 with Prof. T.W. Muloiwa as the facilitator. The unit was registered as a Section 21 company on 12 February 2001. The unit is based at the University of Venda for Science and Technology in the Limpopo Province. Mr S.L. Tshikota was appointed as the first Editor-in-Chief. The unit has three staff members, the Editor-in-Chief, the Lexicographer, Mr R.L. Ramaliba and Ms M.E. Takalani who is an administrative clerk.

In March/April 2002 these three members of the Tshivenda NLU began the building of the corpus, the compilation of the *Tshivenda Bilingual Dictionary* and compilation of a monolingual terms list.

Compiling the new bilingual dictionary in Tshivenda began with the collection of data belonging to different fields, areas and subjects. The data collected was used to build a Tshivenda corpus. A frequency list was made using the corpus, and words with a high frequency were identified and used to construct a lemma list. The compilation work began during the second half of 2002 and continued throughout 2003 with emphasis being placed on the selection of lemma candidates from the Tshivenda list. In 2004 emphasis was given to the selection of English lemma candidates. The Tshivenda NLU hopes to publish more work in 2005.

The Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit has achieved a number of things within a short space of time. The unit has organised no less than twelve meetings for the Tshivenda National Language Board and its Board of Directors. Thus far three conferences aimed at language development have been organised. The Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit, together with the Tshivenda Writers Association, organised a Tshivenda Language Development Award where people from the SABC radio and television, national and provincial parliament, government departments, PanSALB and writers, and lecturers from universities are awarded for their outstanding role in developing Tshivenda as language.

The Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit has translated the multilingual terminology list of Mathematics for the Department of Arts and Culture. The unit is involved in the Information Technology and Orthography as well as spelling projects. The following are the members of the Board of Directors of the Unit: Prof. T.W. Moloiwa (Chairperson), Ms S.C. Murwamphida, Dr N.E Phaswana, Advocate K.S. Negota, Mr A.S. Tshithukhe, Prof. N.A Mlubi and Mr S.L. Tshikota (Editor-in-Chief).

The Unit is however experiencing many challenges. This is due to people and the University's attitude towards Tshivenda as a major subject in the degree programmes.

2.3.6 THE HISTORY OF THE NGULA YA XITSONGA NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNIT

The first dictionary, the pocket dictionary *Tsonga/Shangaan/English-English/Tsonga/Shangaan* by Rev. C.H.W. Chatelain was published in 1907. Its second edition appeared in 1909. The revised and enlarged sixth edition is the *English/Tsonga-Tsonga/English Pocket Dictionary* published by Sasavona Publishers and Booksellers in 1974. The second dictionary to be published in 1967 was Rev. R. Cuenod's *Tsonga-English Dictionary*. It is a mono-directional dictionary with no reversed entries presenting English lemma with Xitsonga

equivalents. In 1984, K.B. Hartshorne published the *Dictionary of Basic English-Tsonga Across the Curriculum*. Its target users are the Vatsonga pupils who wish to study English as a second or foreign language. There are two unpublished Xitsonga dictionaries, namely, the “*Modern Xitsonga/English Dictionary*” by E.J.M. Baumbach and D.I. Mathumba and “*The popular Xitsonga Dictionary*” by S.J. Malungana edited by D.I. Mathumba. All the published and unpublished dictionaries are bilingual dictionaries.

Bilingual dictionaries such as these mentioned above, are mainly useful to English speakers who wish to learn Xitsonga, and vice-versa. These dictionaries do not contribute much to the development of the Xitsonga language. Before the establishment of Ngula ya Xitsonga, the task of dictionary compilation in Xitsonga was done by individuals, especially at tertiary institutions.

The Xitsonga National Lexicography is situated at Tivumbeni Educational Multi-purpose Centre, east of Tzaneen in the Limpopo Province. It is housed in the Library of Tivumbeni EMPC at Nkowankowa. Its main task is to compile a Xitsonga Comprehensive monolingual dictionary. It was registered as a non-profit organization, a Section 21 company, on 21 February 2001. In November 2001 the unit appointed the first three staff members, namely, Prof. D.I. Mathumba, as acting Editor-in-Chief, Mr M.J. Mongwe, the Lexicographer and Mr J.D. Baloyi, as the Secretary (Office Manager since 2002). The style guide was compiled in December 2001. The first training course was given by Prof. R.H. Gouws of the University of Stellenbosch in November 2001. Prof. N.C.P. Golele joined the unit on the 1st of July 2002 as acting Editor-in-Chief with Ms W.V. Mtebule as the lexicographer but left at the end of July 2005. Prof. N.C.P. Golele was appointed as the first full-time Editor-in-Chief in October 2003 but left the unit at the end of April 2005. Mr MJ Mongwe was appointed acting Editor-in-Chief from the 1st of May 2005. Mrs J. Nxumalo joined the unit as a lexicographer on the 1st November 2003 also left at the end of March 2004. Mr M.T. Chauke was appointed as lexicographer on the 1st of March 2004 but left at the end of March 2004.

The unit has started its mandate with the compilation of a bilingual *English-Xitsonga Pocket Dictionary* and the draft was sent to Vatsonga speakers for their comments and input. The unit was officially launched on 7 November 2003.

The Unit has attended several lexicographical courses as part of skills development. The unit has used the SABC, especially Munghana Lonene FM and local newspapers such as *Mopani* newspaper to create public awareness concerning the activities of the unit.

There are two committees that serve as facilitators of the unit, namely, the Board of Directors and the Language Committee. The first members of the Board of Directors of the unit comprise of the following: Mr S.E. Mushwana, Chairman and representative of Tivumbeni EMPC, Mr D.D. Mhlarhi, financial expert, Prof. D.I. Mathumba, Mr M.R. Masinge, Mrs S.H. Masunga, Dr S.J. Malungana, Mr

M.H. Mnisi and the outgoing Advocate A.S. Shilubane. While the first members and custodians of the Xitsonga National Language Body, are made up of the following representatives: Dr K.J. Nkuzana, (Chairman), Rev. Dr. S.D. Maluleke, (Vice-Chairman), Mrs S.H. Masunga, Mrs S.H. Nkondo, Dr L.B. Mthimkhulu, Mrs Manugu, Mr M.D. Mathebula, Mr M.R. Hlungwana, Mr X.E. Mabaso and Mrs N.C. Shilote.

The two members of the unit, Prof. N.C.P. Golele and Mr M.J. Mongwe, have affiliated to AFRILEX, a professional lexicographic organisation. In July 2002 Mr M.J. Mongwe represented the unit at the 7th International AFRILEX conference at the University of Rhodes in Grahamstown, Eastern Cape Province.

In 2002 Prof. D.J. Prinsloo donated English monolingual dictionaries to the unit. Prof. Golele has also donated some literature books to the unit.



CHAPTER THREE: THE ESTABLISHMENT OF DICTIONARY UNITS AND CHALLENGES PERTAINING TO THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNITS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The development of the lexicographic practice in South Africa began during the colonial era and was influenced by the missionaries. It later gave birth to the ongoing process of compiling bilingual dictionaries. The first dictionaries and wordlists were bilingual dictionaries and they were mainly targeted at missionaries who wanted to learn and communicate in the African languages. Their motive towards the development of African literature in general and the South African lexicographic work in particular was primarily evangelical and not to support creative writing. During the reign of the Nationalist government in South Africa the compilation of terminology projects started with the publication of technical dictionaries as early as the 1950s. At that stage the focus was on the compilation of English/Afrikaans technical dictionaries because of the bilingual policy of the former government. Language practitioners were employed by different Government Departments to fulfill their tasks.

In the past lexicographic work was often the result of private initiatives where an individual felt the need for a dictionary for a specific subject area. Büttner (1996:117) writes

In South Africa nearly all dictionary work has to be done by dedicated compilers and editors in their “spare time”. These are nearly always people, already carrying a disproportionate work load which forces them to keep interrupting their lexicographic work.

These individuals would then compile such a work or ask someone else to do it on their behalf and publish it on their own. Due to financial constraints many documents have remained unpublished. The biggest challenge that compilers of dictionaries were faced with was that they worked without earning a salary. They only received benefits in the form of royalties once the work had been published and it was often not worth the amount of work they had put into the dictionary.

3.2 ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SANLU_s

In 1995 the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology (DACST) drafted the National Lexicography Unit Bill. The National Lexicography Unit Bill was incorporated into the Pan South African Language Board Amendment Act, (Act 10 of 1999). Section 8(8) (c) of this Act states that PanSALB must establish eleven national lexicography units (NLUs) to operate as companies limited by guarantee under section 21 of the Companies Act, 1973 (Act 61 of 1973). The aim of the DACST was to provide for the establishment and management of national

lexicography units so that there could be equitable provision for national general dictionaries for each of the eleven official languages of South Africa.

In section 137 of the South Africa Act, 1909, by which the Union of South Africa was constituted, English and Dutch were acknowledged as the only two official languages of South Africa. In 1925, Afrikaans was formally acknowledged. Nothing was mentioned of the indigenous African languages. Dekker (1961:38) said that “Already at this stage, Dutch was primarily used as a written language and Afrikaans as a spoken language”. In section 89 subsection (1) of the Republic of South Africa Constitutional Act, 1983, English and Afrikaans were mentioned as the official languages. However, according to subsection (3), in a situation where black areas have been declared as a self-governing territory in the Republic of South Africa, one or more of the African languages were recognised as additional official languages. In the former TBVC states for instance, isiXhosa, Setswana, Tshivenda and isiNdebele were recognised as additional official languages.

This situation has changed dramatically after the first democratic election of 27 April 1994. In subsection 1 of section 3 in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1993, the status of Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, Sesotho sa Leboa, Sesotho, Setswana, isiSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, isiXhosa and isiZulu are recognised as official South African languages at national level.

The subsection (10) of section 3 of the present Constitution of South Africa provides for the institution of an independent Pan South African Language Board to provide for the development of the official languages of South Africa. This is the role that the SANLUs should play. The SANLUs are also responsible for ensuring the development and promotion of the equal use of South African languages at all levels.

The history of the establishment of the SANLUs began with the recognition of the eleven official languages by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The Government supports the development and preservation of these languages whether within a bilingual policy or a multilingual policy. In the past the country only promoted a bilingual policy and the Government only supported two dictionary projects, namely the *Bureau of the Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal* (WAT) in Stellenbosch and the *Dictionary Unit for the South African English* (DSAE) at Rhodes University in Grahamstown. With the recognition of the eleven languages, eleven national lexicography units came into being and receive financial support from the national government via the controlling body of the Pan South African National Language Board.

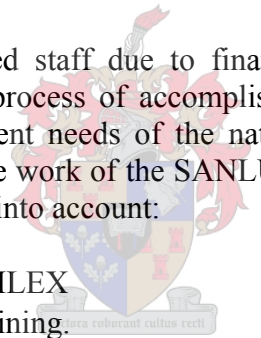
The Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) has established the eleven official national lexicography units at tertiary institutions within the boundaries of the geo-linguistic area of a particular speech community. The reason being that the speech community should be involved in dictionary work. The WAT and the

DSAE remained where they were prior the establishment of the other South African National Lexicography Units.

A national lexicography unit for each of the official languages in South Africa was established and registered as a Section 21 Company by March 2001. All lexicography units for the eleven official languages in South Africa have been established according to the revised PanSALB Act of 1999. Members of the Board of Directors have been trained in strategic planning, business planning and in the general requirements for a Board of Directors. The current situation is that the government of the day is characterised by multilingualism and all the NLUs in the country receive great support from government.

Since the inception of the NLUs, the work of dictionary compilation has started. Most SANLUs, especially those of the formerly marginalised African languages such as Ngunya Xitsonga, Silulu SeSiSwati, Tshivenda and Sesotho have started with the compilation of bilingual dictionaries. The Sesotho sa Leboa, isiZulu and isiXhosa NLUs are busy with the compilation of comprehensive monolingual dictionaries for their speech communities, a project that has been long in the pipeline.

The SANLUs have limited staff due to financial restrictions which makes it difficult to speed up the process of accomplishing the task. It is of significant importance that the different needs of the nation and speakers of each speech community are known. The work of the SANLUs will be of a high standard if the following points are taken into account:

- 
- co-operation with AFRILEX
 - continuous in house training
 - co-operation with the NLBs
 - co-operation with stakeholders such as the PLCs
 - involvement of academics and professional bodies
 - co-operation with teachers' organisations
 - having a sound relationship with the publishing companies
 - co-operation with schools
 - consulting researchers
 - using the media such as the SABC TV and radio stations and the national and regional newspapers
 - conducting community dictionary awareness campaigns
 - Annual General Meetings where progress reports are given to the community, etc.

The staff of the SANLUs receive various forms of training. They are usually trained in the principles and practice governing lexicography and also receive training in computer skills such as corpus building, the scanning of documents, the analysing of materials, frequency counts, the handling of collocations, dealing with dictionary entries, etc. Most of the training is conducted by experts

such as Prof. R.H. Gouws of the University of Stellenbosch and Prof. D.J. Prinsloo of the University of Pretoria. The SANLUs also receive advice concerning the purchasing of relevant hardware and software licenses needed for dictionary compilation.

3.3 THE ROLE OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNITS

The eventual role of the South African national lexicography units is to compile comprehensive monolingual dictionaries. It is without doubt that in order for languages to assume the role of 'official languages' they should be well developed. This means that these languages should be able to operate in various fields such as the economy, judiciary, education, science and technology fields. The South African national lexicography units should be in the position to accomplish what Marivate (2001:5) said that

The Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) is required by the South African Constitution to develop the official languages and create conditions for use of these languages.

The Pan South African Language Board created conditions for the South African national lexicography units for the development of the eleven official languages in the country in terms of compiling comprehensive monolingual dictionaries for their speech communities. However, based on the conditions of the development of languages, other types of dictionaries and terminology lists of different subjects will be written. The role of the national lexicography units in South Africa is outlined by Alberts (1996) during the drafting of the Bill that led to the establishment of the national lexicography unit as:

... to preserve South Africa's linguistic diversity in all its forms, regardless of political, demographic or linguistic status. By establishing national lexicography units the Department will improve the country's understanding of the diversity of culture and languages. The national lexicography units can help preserve South Africa's linguistic diversity in all its variant forms. Language services, such as translation and interpreting, as well as schools, technikons, universities, libraries, the media and publishers can benefit from the products of the national dictionary units

Alberts continues that

In the process of reconstruction and development, it is the democratic right of every citizen to be empowered in any language of his/her choice in order to make a meaningful contribution to socio-political activities. There is no alternative but to establish national lexicography units to govern the documentation of the vocabulary of the official languages of South Africa.

This Bill is a constructive contribution to reconciliation and nation building in South Africa. The policy of multilingualism is underpinned by this Bill, since it will contribute to the documentation of the African languages as well. By planning, managing and financing national projects various lexicographic activities will be coordinated. This can be done in the close co-operation with the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB)

It must be noted that besides dictionary compilation the SANLUs have a lot of work to do. Furthermore, the units in the country should fulfill recommendations made in PanSALB's Lexicographic meeting report (1998:103)

To provide for the establishment and management of National Lexicography Units to make equitable provision for the compilation for a monolingual explanatory dictionary for each of the official languages of South Africa, or for a dictionary or dictionaries, as arranged between the Management Committee of a Unit and the PanSALB ...

The Unit must from time to time initiate, maintain, compile and improve the compilation of the monolingual dictionary or other products. They must act as a source of information for their speech communities and other people interested in the development of languages in the country and the world at large. Wiegand (1989:251) writes the following which supports the aims of the national lexicography units in the country as

Lexicography is a practice aimed at the production of dictionaries in order to activate another practice, i.e. the cultural practice of dictionary use.

3.4 THE CHALLENGES OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY UNITS

The greatest challenge facing the SANLUs is to change the mindset of the respective speech communities. Politicians, celebrities, and other prominent figures for example should be encouraged to use indigenous languages in their public address. As they are the role models for future generations, they must try and build moral values. Besides these, there also are other challenges they are faced with. Amongst them the following might be regarded to be of major importance:

- **Lack of dictionary culture**

The SANLUs are faced with a great many challenges and one of them is to produce dictionaries urgently, especially in the African languages. It is no doubt that this is the reason why PanSALB has established dictionary units for all the eleven official South African languages. Besides that, there is also a need for a 'dictionary culture' facing all dictionary units in South Africa. It is also without

doubt that there is a low percentage of active dictionary users. Gouws (1999:9) writes that

... speech communities are not really trained to use dictionaries.

He goes on to say that the average member of a speech community still has doubts regarding the different types of dictionaries and their contents. One cannot deny the fact that many dictionary users still think that one dictionary has almost all information on each aspect of language, and they have a perception that one dictionary contains all ideas. It is the responsibility of lexicographers to sensitise teachers, lecturers and higher institutions regarding dictionary activities and to make them aware of the fact that no dictionary can be everything to everyone.

Ramagoshi (2004:260) writes that Grades R-3 should have picture dictionaries. She also says that each grade should have a dictionary suitable for its level of education. Establishing a dictionary culture implies that users become aware of the variety of dictionary types, data types in dictionaries and the need to develop their reference skills. Gouws (2004) writes that the lack of a dictionary culture among the majority of dictionary users leads to a situation where these users do not realize that the success of a dictionary consultation procedure does not only depend on the relevant data being included in the dictionary.

- **Funds**

Dictionary compilation is an expensive exercise in terms of personnel, time and funding. The NLUs in South Africa do not receive equal funding from the South African government at this stage, but at least receive support from government for language development. The DSAE and the WAT, due to the bilingual policy of the previous apartheid government, still receive more funding than the NLUs of the African languages.

The funds that PanSALB has at its disposal are only sufficient to maintain the minimal functions of each of the SANLUs. The biggest part of the budget of the NLUs is spent on salaries. The history of lexicographic projects throughout the world shows that they always have too little money and too few staff members to fund their assignments effectively and within a reasonable length of time. The national lexicography units of the official languages of South Africa must try to fight these problems.

- **User-friendliness**

User-friendliness in dictionaries implies that the contents of the dictionary are made as accessible to users as possible. Users should be able to retrieve the required information without difficulties. Most traditional dictionaries are not user-friendly. Therefore, it is the responsibility of dictionary units in the country to make sure that they do not make a similar mistake. Dictionaries should serve

the needs of their users. According to Mavoungou (2003:196) “Dictionaries are known to present great access to users”. That is why one of the challenges facing lexicographers of the SANLUs is to devise a user-friendly dictionary from which they would benefit.

Lexicographers within the SANLUs must try by all means to produce dictionaries that are user-friendly and are accessible to their users. Béjoint (2000:140) says that:

Lexicographers in many countries have recently felt the need to go beyond empirical observations on the use of the general-purpose dictionary, seeking to find out what the users really do, as opposed to what they are believed to do in order to make sure that the dictionary really corresponds to the needs of the public.

Dictionary makers have to know, and not only assume what users know. According to Svensén (1993) to be user-friendly a bilingual dictionary must have the following features:

- **Conceptual equivalence** – This refers to a situation where the target language translation equivalent refers exactly to the same concept as that referred to by the source language lexical item. It is not easy to find this kind of translation as the concept is known differently or does not exist in another language due to historical, geographical, cultural, social and economical differences between countries where these languages are spoken. In a situation where the target translation equivalent refers to the same concept as that in the source language, one would speak of complete equivalence.
- **Variant status** – This refers to a situation where the lexical item of the source language has more than one translation equivalent in the target language. These translation equivalents may be regarded as synonyms although they might have functional restrictions depending on the context in which they are used.
- **Lexical item status** – It refers to a situation in which the lexical item of the source language may or may not have a translation equivalent which is a lexical item in the target language. In a situation where the translation equivalent is a lexical item, it will be specified as lexicalized. In this case, a translation equivalent may not be a lexicalized word but a description or phrase which explains the conceptual meaning of the source language concept.
- **Pragmatic contrast** – The term pragmatic refers to the contextual adequacy of a word. The pragmatic component consists of the subject field, style, connotation, chronology (time), frequency and geography (place). For the translation equivalent to be exact it should have no contrast with the source language counterpart on the basis of the stated pragmatic components.

- **Dictionary programmes and computerisation**

The purchase and maintenance of office equipment and computer hardware and software requires large capital expenditure. Most dictionary units, especially the newly established African lexicographic units, are working with Microsoft Word as it is accessible software. It is a fact that today computers save time and money and improve efficiency. Wright (1999: 40) says that computers had been helpful to the DSAE during the compilation of their dictionary based on historical principles. According to her

“... a manuscript on paper - the dictionary would have taken five years to typeset under the old system. Under the old system, a typesetter would have had to re-type the whole book and set it correctly to print from. The process of typesetting without computers was always very time consuming,...”.

In some NLU's there are dictionary compilation programmes such as ONOMA. At *Ngula ya Xitsonga*, for example they do not have a dictionary compilation programme, but make use of Microsoft, a word processing programme. David Joffe and his colleagues are fighting this problem with the design of TswaneLex, which is the first South African dictionary programme. TshwaneLex is already operational. It is said to be user-friendly. Louw and Hartevelde (2005) write that the decision to purchase software need to be taken on a management level, but with input from editors. They also say that

These decisions include whether to choose existing software or develop one's own.

According to Louw and Hartevelde (2005) if one decides to choose existing software, different packages need to be evaluated by employing among others, the following criteria:

- Cost, both initial and maintenance costs.
- User-friendliness, with the least computer literate of staff member kept in mind.
- Speed.
- Flexibility or adaptability, e.g. for different dictionaries or dictionary types.
- Comprehensiveness. Integrated components for editing, corpus and publishing.
- Compatibility, if not comprehensive, is at least compatible with, for example Wordsmith.
- Interface, user-friendliness and strain factor.

It is crucial that all national lexicographic units have spell-checkers especially in the African languages. I strongly believe that it is the responsibility of each national language body for each unit, as custodians of the language, to see to it that a spell-checker exists and to ensure that there are orthographic rules and

standardisation of the language. It is essential for each unit to plan dictionaries that can be produced in both a printed and electronic version.

- **The selection of lemmata**

According to Tomaszczyk (1983:51) one of the basic problems of lexicography is to decide what to put in the dictionary and what to exclude. One cannot deny the words of Gove (1961:4a) that “the selection is guided by usefulness, and usefulness is determined by the degree to which terms most likely to be looked for are included”. It is without doubt that the decision as to what to include in the dictionary still has to be made by the lexicographer himself, however, this depends on the nature and size of the dictionary and its intended users. Walter (1996:640) writes that lexicographers constantly have to make pragmatic decisions on what to include in the dictionary to conform to the dictates of space available. Bwenge (1989:5-6) writes that

The main task for the lexicographer will be which lexical forms should be listed in the dictionary and in what manner.

Lexicographers of yesteryear had a tendency of selecting lemmata that would serve their needs. These compilers and publishers could not involve the speech communities in the development of their languages. This also applies to the selection of lemmata which should be dictated by the needs of users.

- **The future of the Staff**

The staff members of the SANLUs are faced with future uncertainties as they do not know their status of employment. It is without doubt that the resignation of some lexicographers within the NLUs is a sign of future uncertainties. The other challenge is that they are not treated equally to their colleague counter-parts from other NLUs. The BoDs (Board of Directors) of the NLUs in South Africa use different methods in the running of their activities.

Lexicography involves specific principles and procedures and one has to receive specific training to be able to compile a dictionary. Lexicography training can be an ongoing process. Trained lexicographers will be able to document and preserve the South African languages. Silva (1996:35) states that

It is high time that lexicographic planning and development be done holistically, not bit by bit.

She continues that

Many of our languages are interconnected, and we can offer each other assistance. Those dictionary offices already established have experiences to share in the planning process. We need to use all possible resources in

creating a network of dictionary offices to describe our rich language assets.



CHAPTER FOUR: BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In South Africa there are eleven official languages. South Africa as a multilingual country needs bilingual dictionaries, especially bidirectional learner's dictionaries, so that the speakers of these languages can learn each other's language. It is high time that the African population be encouraged to regard lexicography as a field of study. No doubt there is a great shortage of well trained African lexicographers. The Pan South African Language Board is fighting the backlog.

Gouws (1996:103) writes that the South African lexicographic practice has also been dominated by a few dictionaries and dictionary types, especially bilingual dictionaries. Dictionaries are of social importance to mankind because they are sources of information regularly consulted by users to solve their uncertainties about certain lemmata. Alberts (2003) states that a dictionary is

... a structured collection of lexical units with linguistic information about each of them.

Barnhart is quoted by Alberts (2001:74) in defining a dictionary as

... a book containing a selection of words, usually arranged alphabetically, with explanations of their meaning, and other information concerning them, expressed in the same (source language) or other language (target language).



According to the *Daily Sun* newspaper (2004:04: 30) a dictionary is

... an alphabetical list of words or entries.

A dictionary is a book in which the lemmata are selected and written down or even expressed in an electronically prepared source of reference, depending on the type of dictionary usage. In a multilingual society the use of bilingual dictionaries forms an integral part of the daily communication process. It is further indicated that dictionaries differ in the volume of data they hold. Bilingual dictionaries are essential for efficient and active communication between different cultural groups and speech communities. Therefore, it is the responsibility of lexicographers of the national lexicography units to compile bilingual dictionaries that will aid users in ensuring the success of multilingualism in South Africa. Bilingual dictionaries can therefore be viewed as agents of unifying South Africans and other countries regardless of their geographical areas. They will assist in the translation of documents from one language to another in a way that will enhance the development of our language diversity. Marelllo (2003:325) defines a bilingual dictionary as

... a list of established equivalents between words of different language systems.

This simply means that a lemma from the source language, for example a lemma in Xitsonga, is co-coordinated with say an English equivalent, English being the target language as in R. Cuenod's *Tsonga-English Dictionary* (1982) below:

nhlampfi 9, fish.
nhlamuselo 9, explanation.
nhlomi 1, bride.
vuvopfu 14, pus.

Marello continues to say that in bilingual dictionaries the lemmata are translated into the second language. Bilingual dictionaries are also known as translation dictionaries. Gouws (2002:3) writes that translation dictionaries play an important role in promoting sound communication in a multilingual society. It is of significant importance to note that bilingual dictionaries do not give the meaning of the word in the other language, but they supply users with translation equivalents. A translation equivalent is defined by Gouws (2002) as:

... a form in the target language which can be used to substitute the source language form in certain contexts.

In simple terms a bilingual dictionary is a dictionary that involves two languages.

4.2 TYPES OF BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

Most dictionary users do not consider the fact that all dictionaries are compiled for a specific target group, but they consult them for solving the problem encountered in any particular situation of usage. It is important to note that there are many varieties of bilingual dictionaries. Bilingual dictionaries are sub-divided into among others the following types, *unidirectional* dictionaries and *bidirectional* dictionaries.

4.2.1 Unidirectional dictionaries

Unidirectional dictionaries are also known as mono-directional dictionaries. These dictionaries do not display a switch of source and target language. This can be seen from R. Cuenod's *Tsonga-English Dictionary* (1982) below:

hatima 9, lightning, glittering shiny object.
mudoro 3, (Afr.) prickly pear, jointed cactus (*Oputia* sp.), an introduced plant, the name is derived from Afr. "turksvye".
nandzu 3, (pl. *mil-*) fault, offence or debt out of which a court case may arise; guilt.

rhimila 5, (usu. in pl. marh-) nasal mucus.

The *English-SiSwati Dictionary* (2004) is another good example of a unidirectional type of dictionary with one alphabetical ordering of lemmata. There is only one source language, i.e. English; it is treated as the source language with SiSwati as the target language throughout the dictionary. This is illustrated by the articles given below:

breakfast *n.* kudla kwasekuseni; (ku) -sukusala
boycott *v.* (ku) -ncamula budlelwane kwesikhashana;
kubhikisha; kudvuba, sidvubedvube
investment *n.* kufakwa kwemali emsebentini kute itale
rehabilitation *n.* ku buyisela similo
resolution *n.* sincumo lesitstafwa emmhlanganweni
tradition *n.* lisiko, indzabuko; umhambo wesive nenkholo yaso

The unpublished *Ngula ya Xitsonga* NLU's *English-Xitsonga/Xitsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* (2004) is another good example of a unidirectional dictionary with one alphabetical ordering of lemmata. Good examples of such ordering can be seen below:

legislature *n.* huvo yo endla milawu.
liquidation *n.* (sb/sth's business or company) nxaviso wo
akelela xikweleti.
mastermind 1 *n.* ntlhari, mukunguhati. **2** *v.* (esp. criminal)
kunguhata vugevenga.
masturbate *v.* (taboo) chokocha, (euph.) tinyanyula xirho xa
rimbewu.
masturbation *n.* (taboo) ku chokocha, ku tinyanyula xirho xa
rimbewu.
mate *n.* munghana, nakulobye.

In most cases people involved in the compilation of such dictionaries do it for the benefit of foreigners who need to learn and understand literary texts of another language. They are usually compiled for the benefit of the needs of a specific user group.

4.2.2 Bidirectional dictionaries

A bidirectional dictionary is a dictionary with two alphabetical components. Dent and Nyembezi's *Scholar's Zulu Dictionary English-Zulu: Zulu-English* (1987) is a good example of a bidirectional dictionary. In these dictionaries there are two alphabetically ordered textual components with each member of the language pair functioning as source language in one component and target language in the other component and this can be seen from the examples of the English-Zulu alphabetical ordering of lemmata below:

truly (adv) iqiniso; isibili; isiminya; impela.
bard (n) imbongi.
stalwart (n) isigadlaba. (a) -yisigadlaba.
cure (n) ukuphilisa; insindiso; isilapho (remedy). (v) elapha.
sue (v) mangalela; biza; ncenga uxolo (s. for peace); mangalela
 ukuhlawulwa (s. for damages).
venue (n) inkundla yondlalo; indawo yokuhlanganela;
 inkundla.
sprinkle (v) nyenyeza; nyakambisa; fafaza; chela; khifiza (of
 rain).
servant (n) isisebenzi; inceku; isigqila; isibhalo (slave).
hide (n) isikhumba; umkhwahla (dry high). (v) casha; sitheka;
 bhaca;
 fihla; thukisa.
escape (n) ukweqa; ukubaleka; ukuphunyuka. (v) sinda; eqa;
 baleka;
 phepha; phunyuka.

Examples of the Zulu-English alphabetical ordering of lemmata are given as follows:

impela (adv) truly ...
-imbongi (i- izi-) (n) one who recites praises at court; bee.
-phephela (v) hide; take over; escape to or in.
-philisa (v) cure.
-sebenzi (isi- zi-) (n) servant.
-vuvuzela (v) sprinkle.
yedwa (pron) she/he alone.
-qhumisa (v) cause to explode. *qhumisa nge mpama*. – give a
 hard smack. *qhumisa uhleko* laugh hilariously, *qhumisa*
isiNghisi/isiBhunu – speak English/Afrikaans.
-pholisa(v) cure; heal; stop pain; cool, *pholisa amaseko* – relax
 for a while after a meal.
-mangalela (v) bring a charge against.
-sindisa (v) rescue; save; redeem; heal.
-elapha (v) cure; treat medically.
-gadlaba (isi- izi) (n) powerful built person.

The other good examples of a bidirectional dictionary can be seen from the unpublished *English-Xitsonga/Xitsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* below:

munghana *riv.* friend, mate.
chokocha *rien.* (ndzhuk.) masturbate.
ku tinyanyula xirho xa rimbewu *riv.* (xisasi) masturbation.
ntirho wa vutshila bya le henhla *riv.* masterpiece.

ntlhari *riv.* intellectual, mastermind.
nxaniso wo hakela xikweleti *riv.* liquidation.
huvo yo endla milawu *riv.* legislature.
clouds *n.* mapapa, matsefu.
cockroach *n.* hele.
quotation *n.* ntshaho, ntsavulo; khothexini.
tax *n.* xibalo.
task *n.* ntirho.
teamwork *n.* ntirhisano, ntirho-ntlawa, tsimu.
technical *adj.* –maendlelo, -xithekiniki.

Another good example of such a dictionary is Bosman et al's *Tweetalige Skoolwoordeboek Afrikaans-Engels/Engels-Afrikaans* (2002). The Afrikaans-English alphabetical ordering:

kommandant, (-e) commandant; commander.
nietigheid, (-hede), insignificant; paltry; trifling; miserable:

The English-Afrikaans alphabetical ordering of lemmata has been treated as follows:

commandant, bevelvoerder, kommandant
insignificant, onbeduidend, niksbeduidend, onbetekend, gering,
 nietig, klein

The Swiss Mission of South Africa's *English-Tsonga/Tsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* (1982) is a bidirectional dictionary. The examples of English-Tsonga alphabetical ordering of lemmata:

luggage, mpahla, nhundzu, ndzhwalo.
majority, *quantity*, vunyingi; *age*, vukulukumba.
misfortune, khombo, xirha; *presage misfortune*, -hlolela.
chameleon, lumpfana, rimpfani.
year, lembe, nyaka; *this year*, nan'waka; *last year*, n'wexemu,
next year, haxawu.
fracture, ku tshoveka ka rhambu.
skeleton, nkongolo.
bone, rhambu; *back bone*, longo; *divining bone*, nhlolo.
meeting, nhlengeletano, huvo, xividzo; *social meeting*, vuxoxo.
assembly, hlengeletano, huvo, ntsombano.
conference, nhlengeletano.
convention, nhlengeletano.
gathering, nhlengeletano.
association, komponi, nhlengeletano, vandla.
company, ntlawa, komponi, nhlengeletano.
name, vito; - *of clan*, xivongo; *what is your name?* vito ra wena

u mani?
name (to) v. -thya vito, -chula vito; -tshula.
noun, vito, riviti.

The following are good examples of the Tsonga-English alphabetical ordering:

mpahla, luggage, belongings, parcel, luggage, goods
-hlolela, presage misfortune, be of ill omen to.
khombo, woe, accident, misfortune, death, mishap, danger,
distress, doom, peril, plight, doom, peril, plight, adversity,
calamity.
ndzhwalo, load, burden, luggage.
nhundzu, luggage, belongings, goods.
vukulukumba, seniority, superiority, precedence, dignity,
majority, prominence.
vunyingi, multitude, plenitude, majority, plurality, throng, lot, many,
mass.
lembe, year; *lembe ra nan'waka*, this year; *lembe ra haxawu*, next year;
lembe ra n'wexemu, last year; *lembe rin'wana ni*
rin'wana, annually.
lumpfana, chameleon.
rimpfani, chameleon.
nhlengeletano, reunion, meeting, assembly, conference,
convention, gathering, association, company.
rhambu, bone (pl. *marhambu*), skeleton; *ku tshoveka ka*
rhambu, fracture.
vito, name, noun; *-thya vito or -chula vito*, to name.

Another good example of a bidirectional bilingual dictionary is the *Tshivenda-English/English-Tshivenda Dictionary* (2004). The following are examples of the Tshivenda-English section:

bege *dzin* bag.
beiḽi *dzin* bail.
musidzana *dzin* girl.
khomba *dzin* girl.

The English-Tshivenda alphabetical ordering of lemmata:

bag *n* bege, saga, khedzi; mukwama.
bail *n* beiḽi.
girl *n* musidzana, khomba

This presentation, like that of many bilingual dictionaries, is not much more than a glorified word list with a translation equivalent added to it. Therefore, there is an urgent need for lexicographic planning in the SANLUs, especially in the newly

established units. The lack of lexicographic planning is shown by Prinsloo (1996:37) when quoting Gouws that:

The majority of dictionaries for African languages are products of limited lexicographic achievement ... with a few exceptions these dictionaries offer only restricted translation equivalents and reflect a complete lack of lexicographic planning.

Prinsloo (1996:37) continues to support his argument by quoting Mbongho (1985:152) that

Bilingual lexicography seems to be developing without any basic theory. He refers to the inefficiency of bilingual lexicography ... the basic methodological principles for compiling bilingual dictionaries were largely unknown or overlooked ... African bilingual lexicography is still in its infancy ... one way of promoting African languages is to apply several methodological principles which are tailored to the needs of the users.

Bidirectional dictionaries are in demand in the South African market as they are able to cater for the needs of both the speech communities and those interested in learning the diversity of languages of the country. This will in the end promote the dream of multilingualism in South Africa. If planned and compiled such dictionaries will cater for both groups of users. In principle, all types of dictionaries whether active or passive, unidirectional or bi-directional, might as printed dictionaries be compiled for different kinds of users. Lexicographers need to direct their attention to the real needs of a well-identified user group.



4.3 THE FRAME STRUCTURE OF BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

The structure of a dictionary refers to various types of structures as components, for example, the macrostructure, microstructure, access structure, frame structure, etc. My discussion will focus on one of the above-mentioned structures. The frame structure consists of the front and back matter texts representing the outer texts, and the central list. According to Kammerer and Wiegand (1998) a dictionary with a central text and front and back matter constitute a frame structure.

Gouws (2004:70) writes that a typical extended outer text could be found in a dictionary with one or more complex outer texts, i.e. an outer text consisting of a number of subtexts, where it includes its own table of contents as a secondary outer text which enhances the access to the different subtexts.

- **Complex outer text**

An outer text that contains its own outer text.

- **Extended complex outer text**

According to Gouws (2001) a text which is extended constitutes a partial frame structure which does not have both a front and back matter but only one of these outer text types. Outer texts directed at the dictionary as a whole and not only at an outer text, constitute the primary frame structure.

A bilingual dictionary with a frame structure consists of three components, namely, the *front matter*, *central list* and *back matter*.

A. FRONT MATTER

Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:330) argue that the front matter as a whole is not a functional part of a dictionary but rather an arbitrary set of functional text parts. The front matter could be sub-divided into the following components:

- **Table of contents**

It is used to guide the user to both the word lists in the central lists and different texts included in the front and back matter sections.

- **Foreword**

A foreword is a short introductory essay preceding the text of a book.

- **Acknowledgement**

This is an area whereby the lexicographer acknowledges the good work done by people consulted during the process of dictionary compilation.

- **Users' guidelines**

Dictionary users are given usage information which guides them in retrieving information without difficulties. In other words this is used to ensure successful use of the dictionary. This information should be explained very clearly in the dictionary's information on usage for the dictionary users. The symbols are explained in the users' guidelines. The dictionary articles contain items, representing word class and structural indicators which help the user to identify and interpret the items. Structural indicators are divided into typographical and non-typographical indicators. This is a compulsory text in any dictionary.

B. CENTRAL LIST

The central list can assist the user in various ways depending on the function of the specific dictionary. Each dictionary has a central list covering the article structures from A-Z. This is the major component of any dictionary. On top of the

pages of the central list of a dictionary there are running heads which help the user identify the first and last lemmata on each page. Running heads enable dictionary users to find the lemmata without difficulty. The central list is divided into article stretches and each article stretch contains all the articles with lemmata starting with the particular letter. Each article consists of a lemma functioning as the guiding element of the article and entries directed at the treatment of the lemma. All the lemmata form the macrostructure whereas the other entries constitute the microstructure.

- **The macrostructure**

The macrostructure always consists of lemmata that are in the source language. In the case of *English-Xitsonga Dictionary* it would mean that the lemmata are in English and their translation equivalents in Xitsonga. The lemmata are always written in bold, not capitalized except for proper names and they are arranged in an alphabetical order. This depends on the convention of a specific dictionary. This is typically the case but it is determined by the dictionary-specific arrangements. The role of the macrostructure is to accommodate the lemmata in a dictionary. This can be seen from the unpublished Ngula's *English-Xitsonga/Xitsonga-English Dictionary* (2004) below:

habit *n.* ntolovelo, mukhuva.

kaye *n.* nine.

- **The microstructure**

A dictionary article consists of a comment on form and a comment on semantics. The lemma and entries directed at the form of the lemma, for example, pronunciation and morphology belong to the comment on form. Translation equivalents and co- and context entries belong to the comment on semantics.

In translation dictionaries there is a variety of equivalent relations that can hold between the lemma and its equivalents. These different relations are caused by the different ways in which meaning is lexicalized in different languages. The relation between the lemma and the translation equivalent has to be evaluated in terms of the nature of the transfer of semantic information which occurs. Where the translation equivalent has the exact same meaning as the lemma, a relation of absolute equivalence exists between the SL and TL. The most typical relation, however, is one of partial equivalence where a lemma cannot have one translation equivalent with the exact same meaning. There are three types of equivalence, namely congruence, divergence and zero equivalence.

- **Equivalent relation of congruence**

This is the relevant equivalent relation in a one to one relation between source and target language. This is a specific type of absolute equivalence. Gouws

(2003) argues that the equivalent relation of congruence confronts neither the lexicographer nor the dictionary user with serious problems. The reason is that the user does not have to choose between alternative translation equivalents. In such articles there is little need for additional information to illustrate the correct usage of the translation equivalent. It is important for the lexicographer to ensure a successful communication in the compilation of the dictionary.

- **Equivalent relation of divergence**

Divergence can be defined as the state of moving away in different directions from a common point. In lexicography divergence exists only when there is one to more than one relation between the source and target language.

In dictionary compilation divergence is a prevailing equivalent relation when one lemma has more than one translation equivalent. Divergence can be divided into two sub-categories, namely semantic and lexical divergence. The occurrence of a target language synonym paradigm motivates the existence of a relation of lexical divergence. This can be seen from the example in the *English-Tsonga/English-Tsonga Pocket Dictionary* (1982) below:

diarrhea, nchuluko; have diarrhea, *-huda, -cheka, -chuluka*.

In the given example of an equivalent relation of divergence; lexical divergence exists. The three synonyms *-huda, -cheka, -chuluka* as translation equivalents of the lemma, **diarrhea**, are separated by commas. These commas are not only structural markers indicating the occurrence of a synonym paradigm, but they also mark a specific type of equivalent relation, i.e. lexical divergence. The semicolon separating the translation equivalents of the lemma, **diarrhea**, indicates that the lemma not only represents a polysemous lexical item, but it also signals that the prevailing equivalent relation is one of semantic divergence.

It is important to note that an equivalent relation does not only exist between a lemma and the translation equivalent paradigm, but also between a lemma and the different sub-groupings within the translation equivalent paradigm. Articles do not necessarily have to display relations of mono-equivalence. Mono-equivalence is where the translation equivalent paradigm displays either lexical or semantic divergence but not the mixture of these two types. This can be supported by the following examples from the *English-Tsonga/Tsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* (1998) given below:

business, mhaka, ntirho, bindzu, bhisimusi; do business, -pindzula.

ntsuvi, mist, fog; vinegar.

ntwanano, alliance, agreement, treaty, unanimity.

The above examples are good examples of one-to-many correspondence.

- **Zero equivalence**

This is also known as surrogate equivalence. Surrogate equivalence is the response of the lexicographer to a relation of zero equivalence holding between the source and target language. In a situation where there is zero equivalence, the lexicographer has to offer something else to substitute the normal translation equivalent.

The absence of a translation equivalent usually indicates the existence of a lexical gap in the target language. The lexicographer will be bound to familiarize him or herself with certain aspects from the field of lexical semantics. A lexical gap is the absence of lexical item in a language in place where one would have expected the presence of such an item.

The most typical examples of surrogate equivalence can be found in the lexicographic treatment of culture-bound items. Where a natural language contact exists between the languages treated in one translation dictionary, the dictionary has to reflect the results of such a language contact situation. The lexicographer indicates existing borrowings from the different languages. The *Concise Oxford of South African English Dictionary* (2002) gives an interesting account of existing language borrowing from isiZulu and isiXhosa.

A bilingual dictionary has to give account of the results of language borrowing. Culture-bound items are typical targets of borrowing and can often be included as surrogate equivalents, for example, the lemma **lobolo** in Doke et al's *English and the Zulu Dictionary* (1985) with **lobolo** as a source language and **i(li)lobolo** as target language. The lexicographer has to supply a brief description of the meaning of the source language form. The nature of the lexical gap leads to the inclusion of surrogate equivalents. A linguistic gap is established where a given referent is known to the speakers of a language group but where one language has no lexical item to express that particular meaning while the other language does have such a lexical item. **HIV/AIDS** is known to the speakers of Vatsonga. Vatsonga has no lexical item to offer as a translation equivalent for this form. This constitutes a lexical gap. However, where a referential gap exists, the lexicographer will have to include a more comprehensive description as surrogate equivalent because the users need more information to understand the meaning of the source language item. A referential gap is a situation where target users of a language do not know the object referred to. For example, the word "**scanner**" is not known by the Vatsonga speakers. This means that they have no knowledge about the object. In the case of a linguistic gap the target language speakers know about the object but they have not established a translation equivalent. For example, the word "**windscreen**" is known amongst the Vatsonga speech communities but they have not yet established a term.

THE COMPONENTS OF THE MICROSTRUCTURE

It is the addressor of the macrostructure. The microstructure of a dictionary consists of the following elements:

COMMENTS ON FORM AND SEMANTICS

Comment on form

- Lemma form
- Orthographic variants
- Pronunciations
- Morphology
- Part of speech

Comment on semantics

translation equivalents
example structures and
pragmatic contrast and
collocations.

- Parts of speech

This is a part of the comment on form. This is one of the grammatical categories of lemmata intended to reflect their functions in a grammatical context. In the *English-Tsonga/Tsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* (1982) the examples are given below:

perjure, v. -xiksa, -kanganyisa.

piece, v. -hlanganisa, -nameketa.

This simply tells users that the lemmata *piece* and *perjure* are verbs. The part of speech in this dictionary has been poorly treated. The *Scholar's Zulu dictionary English-Zulu: Zulu-English* (1987) is given a credit compared to the *English-Tsonga/Tsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* (1982) in terms of supplying lemmata with parts of speech.

- Pronunciation

This is the way in which the lemma is pronounced. According to the *South African Concise Oxford Dictionary* (2002)

Pronunciation is not for ordinary, everyday words ...

This depends on the particular dictionary. Pronunciation is given only to lemmata which are likely to cause problems to both the native speakers and other users of a dictionary. Bilingual dictionaries need to give a more comprehensive treatment of pronunciation. Native speakers should pronounce the lemmata correctly. Hadebe (2004) writes that

Most dictionaries in African languages mark tone because varying the tone changes the meaning of a particular word.

In the secondary articles of the Reader's Digest's *Afrikaans-Engels Woordeboek/English-Afrikaans Dictionary* (1999) the pronunciation is given in brackets, using English sounds for Afrikaans lemmata, and Afrikaans sounds for English lemmata. This can be seen from the examples below:

niggie n. cousin (ka'zien) dogter van 'n oom of tante; **niece** (nies) dogter van 'n broer of suster; **girl** (ghil).
become (biekam) betaam; suit (soet) pas.

In this dictionary a full explanation of the symbols is given on how to pronounce both the English and Afrikaans lemmata. It must be remembered that the pronunciation guide is intended merely to help dictionary users pronounce lemmata in the other language. Other good examples of pronunciation can be seen from Baillièrè Tindall and Saunders, W. B.'s *Nurses' Dictionary* (1995) below:

friable (fri-abl) Easily crumbled.
fibre (fiber) A thread-like structure.

Pronunciations have not been treated in R. Cuenod's *Tsonga-English Dictionary* (1982) and the *Scholar's Zulu Dictionary: English-Zulu/Zulu-English* (1987) respectively. This can be seen from the examples below:

musenge 3, bamboo.
-ntlhantlha, undo, demolish.
ntlhari 9, wise, clever man.

orphan (n) intandane; inkedama.
teeth (n) amazinyo; amazinyo enja (canines).
-alana (v) refuse; deny; reject (a lover) start cultivating with hoe; mark out portion to be ploughed.
-hlomelana (v) take up arms against one another.

- Word class

There are no classes in English and Afrikaans dictionaries. The African languages are the only languages dealing with classes in dictionary making. In Xitsonga, for example, noun classes are indicated by numbers according to Meinhof's classification. This can be seen in R. Cuenod's *Tsonga-English Dictionary* (1982) below:

1 munhu (person) **2 vava** (father), **2 vanhu** (people)
3 murhi (tree) **4 mirhi** (trees)

Synonyms

Source language synonyms that qualify for inclusion on account of their usage frequency should be entered as lemmata in the appropriate alphabetical positions. The target language synonyms are entered as translation equivalents and ordered according to frequency of usage. Palmer (1971) defines 'synonymy' in this way

'Synonymy' is used to mean 'sameness of meaning.' It is obvious that for the dictionary-maker many sets of words have the same meanings; they are synonymous, or are synonym of one another.

The degree of synonymy that exists between two or more lexical items may not determine whether the lexicographer will indicate synonymy or not. Synonymy is a semantic relation that should be indicated throughout dictionaries. However, not all synonyms will be treated in the same way, and dictionaries should constantly and unambiguously indicate the scope of every synonymic relationship. The lexicographer should determine which member of the synonym paradigm has the highest frequency of usage. If there are more than two members in this paradigm there must be a hierarchical indication on the basis of the frequency of usage. If the synonym paradigm comprises more than one member, the ordering between the various synonyms should be motivated by frequency of usage and not alphabetically. The examples of synonyms are given in the Reader's Digest *Afrikaans-Engels Woordeboek/English-Afrikaans Dictionary* (1999) below:

death (die) dood; sterfgeval; (die) afsterwe, oorlyde; **after** ~ na die dood; **at** ~ by die afsterwe; **be in at the** ~ die end eemaak, die slot sien.

uit'trek pull out (nails); extend (table); draw (out), elicit, educe; unrobed, unloose, strip, extract (teeth, etc.); abstract; pull off, remove (boots); take off, discard (clothes), doff, take the field, sally forth; unstop (organ stop); exert; sig ~ undress (o.s).

The translation equivalents in the articles above are separated by the semicolons (;) and commas (,). This means that semicolon separates the equivalents representing the different senses of a single word and the commas are used to separate the equivalents that are similar in meaning.

Lexicographers must be able to give proper treatment of lexical divergence and semantic divergence in dictionary compilation. Divergence is a situation where we have synonyms and/or polysemous senses in the microstructure. Commas are being used in separating translation equivalents that are synonymous and these synonyms may differ in the sense that some might be partial synonyms while others might be complete or absolute synonyms. The relation of lexical

divergence is seen by commas separating synonyms that are contained in the synonym translation equivalent paradigm.

In semantic divergence semicolons play a role in the translation equivalent paradigm. There is a difference in meaning. There is a combination of two aspects of meaning. This means that the microstructure has both the commas and semicolons. Commas are used to separate synonymous while semicolons are used to separate translation equivalents representing different polysemous senses of the lemma. In semantic divergence, lexicographic definitions can be used as surrogate equivalence.

Another good example is given below:

rifu (death), ku fa (to die), ku siya misava (to pass away), ku wisa (to rest), ku etlela (to sleep).

Polysemous source language items have different equivalents for each sense. They are separated by semicolons. Target language synonyms are separated by commas.

Polysemous translation

A polysemous lexical item is a single item with more than one sense and these senses are related. Polysemy could therefore be seen as one word with various semantic distinctions, distinctions that are related to each other. Ullman (1967:63) in the *Principles of Semantics* defines 'polysemy' as

The word will then be said to possess 'several meanings', the interrelatedness of which is fully grasped, but which are unserviceable in isolation.

One may say that 'polysemy' implies a word with many senses. These originate from the same basic meaning. Pei (1966) in the *Glossary of Linguistic Terminology* defines 'polysemy' as

The use of the same word in two or more distinct meanings.

A good example of 'polysemy' can be seen in R. Cuenod's *Tsonga-English Dictionary* for the lemma **-tlhava** below:

-tlhava, stab, pierces; slaughter; be very hot (sun); sprout (maize plants), ~ **ngula**, walk against the wind; **swa ndzi** ~, it grieves; ~ **mhaka**, make convincing statement, come out with the truth.

nhloko 9, 1 head. **-tirha hi** ~, work following one's silly

notions. *-tiva hi* ~, know by heart, without understanding. *munhu wa* ~, a man without commonsense, ~ *ya musu*, head of pestle. **2** slave.

-dya, eat; devour; consume. ~ *ndzhaka*, inherit. ~ *xikweleti*, incur debt, borrow. ~ *mbilu*, attract irresistibly, have strong influence over. ~ *byi*, (sc. vuswa) rhelela, be at peace. ~ *swo hisa*, be in difficulties of any sort, ~ *mabulu*, converse. *u ta* ~ *na xo*, (in game of “touch”) you have got “it”. ~ *hi mahlo*, start eating straightaway after long fast, ~ *khumbi*, be deprived of food, ~ *thyaka ra mavoko*, eat from hand to mouth.

Lexicographers should not treat polysemous words haphazardly in an article. Equivalent senses representing their different meanings should be arranged in a systematic order. That is, the closer related polysemic senses should be placed closer together. By doing so, the lexicographer would assist the dictionary user in retrieving the required information with ease. In dictionary compilation I feel that lexicographers should be able to deduce a better and more user-friendly approach regarding the treatment of polysemy.

Fowler et al's *Pocket Oxford Dictionary* (1984) has treated polysemous senses of the word 'carrier' as follows:

carrier 1 person or thing that carries. **2** person or company conveying goods or passengers for payment. **3** part of a bicycle for carrying luggage. **4** person or animal that transmit disease. **5** pigeon trained to carry messages tied to its neck or leg.

Usage frequency is often the determining factor in the ordering of senses. Semantic relatedness also can play a role. When we look at the example above, we can see the polysemic distinctions have been arranged haphazardly. Polysemic distinctions that are connected to human beings are not placed closer to each other. The second polysemic distinction should have been followed by the fourth distinction because the two have a reference to a person. A 'pigeon' is a living animal; this means that it should have been put closer to those distinctions that deal with human beings. The polysemic distinctions of the lemma 'carrier' should have been arranged as follows:

carrier 1 person or thing that carries. **2** person or company conveying goods or passengers for payment. **3** person or animal that transmit disease. **4** pigeon trained to carry messages tied to its neck or leg. **5** part of a bicycle for carrying luggage.

The above-given arrangement of the polysemic distinctions would have been acceptable. The lexicographer should always try to put related senses closer to each other at all times. The users' guidelines text should explain the system of ordering. This also applies to bilingual dictionaries. These can also be seen from the treatment of the lemma '**circuit**' below:

circuit **1** line or course or distance closing an area. **2** path of electric current, apparatus through which current passes. **3** judge's itinerary through district to hold courts. **4** chain of theatres, cinemas, etc. under single management. **5** a group of methods Churches forming a minor administrative unit.

In this presentation, the second polysemic distinction should have been entered as the last distinction because all other senses are related to each other as they deal with an area and administration. The same lexicographic mistake has been committed in the micro-structural treatment of the lemma 'dish' below:

dish **1** shallow flat-bottomed container for holding food. **2** particular kind of food. **3** all the utensils after use at meal.

In the above presentation, the lexicographer should not have entered the polysemic distinction '*particular kind of food*' as the second polysemic distinction. This is because the senses **1** and **3** are closer related to each other because they deal with utensils. The polysemic distinctions of this lemma would have been more acceptable had they been done in this way:

dish **1** shallow flat-bottomed container for holding food. **2** all the utensils after use at meal. **3** particular kind of food.

The above displays a systematic distinction and this type of arrangement should be followed by lexicographers of descriptive dictionaries. Let us look at the arrangement of the lemma '**entry**' below:

entry **1** going or coming in. **2** place of entrance, door, gate, etc. **3** passage between buildings. **4** item entered in a diary, list, etc. **5** person or thing competing in a race.

In the above article the microstructural presentation of polysemic distinctions is acceptable because the senses have been arranged according to their related meanings. The polysemic distinctions with related meanings have been placed closer together. The lexicographers of the *Pocket Oxford Dictionary* have not adopted the systematic way of arranging the polysemic distinctions. The polysemic distinctions have been arranged according to frequency of usage. Some of the senses with related meanings are placed closer to each other and I would rightly argue here that lexicographers were not aware of this arrangement. The arrangement of polysemic distinctions occurred within their dictionary. In the

usage guide or the front matter, no information was given regarding the system according to which various polysemic distinctions are marked and separated, neither guidance about the letters nor the numbers nor roman figures that were used in the separation or marking of polysemous senses. Let us look at how the *South African Pocket Oxford Dictionary* (2002) arranges polysemic distinctions in the microstructure of the lemma ‘**bar**’ below:

bar n. **1** a long rigid place of wood, metal, etc. **2** a counter, room, or place where alcohol or food and drink is served. **3** a small shop or counter serving food and drink or providing a service: *a snack bar*. **4** something that stops or delays progress. **5** any of the short units into which a piece of music is divided by vertical lines. **6 (the bar)** the place in a court room where an accused person stands during a trial. **7 (the Bar)** the profession of barrister. **8 (the Bar)** barristers or (in America) lawyers as a group. **9** Brit. a metal strip added to a metal as an additional honour. v. (**bars, barring, barred**) **1** fasten with a bar or bars. **2** forbid or prevent. prep. esp. Brit. except for

The above polysemic distinctions have been arranged systemically. That is, the senses that are connected to object (metal and wood) are placed closer to each other. These senses are followed by senses that are related to place. The dictionary user could easily follow this arrangement of the polysemic distinctions and this could allow him or her to retrieve the required information easily.

Credit should also be given to Dent and Nyembezi’s *Scholar’s Zulu Dictionary* (1987) in the treatment of the lemma “**school**” below:

school (n) isokole; sikhholiji; ibandla, ihlelo (sc.); ibhodi yezikole (s. board).

I strongly believe that each sense of a polysemous word, i.e. a word which has more than one meaning must be indicated separately with a sense number or be separated by a semicolon. Undoubtedly in some languages it will be possible to group several of these senses together because they are close in meaning and share a common translation.

C. BACK MATTER

The back matter, although regarded as optional and not a compulsory component of a dictionary, is a part of a dictionary that accommodates the following text segments – bibliography, appendix, addendum, explanation of abbreviations, pictures and references associated with the postures, relevant literature that can be consulted regarding extra-information on the dictionary. The back matter also contains a number of texts with both communication-orientated and knowledge functions. The knowledge-orientated functions assist the user by providing:

- general cultural and an encyclopedic date.
- specific data about the subject field, and
- data about the language.

Communication-orientated functions assist the user to solve problems related to:

- text production in the native language.
- text production in the foreign language.
- text reception in the native language.
- text reception in the foreign language.

The back matter texts may and should be employed to give a more comprehensive account of this material. Gouws (2004:84) writes that putting the data exposure structure to proper use could result in the back matter containing texts which guide the users to some of the complexities of cultural and encyclopedic data. Some of the information that can be included in bilingual dictionaries are for example, everyday lexical items like the names of the days of the week such as **Ravuntlhanu** (Friday) or the months of a year such as **Hukuri** (November). Gouws (2004) argues that by giving this data in the outer texts, the lexicographer ensures that the user has a knowledge-enriching experience which falls within the scope of the kind of information I think the user would like to retrieve.

However, the back matter could be very helpful in bilingual dictionaries as we could find names of places, people and provinces. A good example of a dictionary with names of people and place names is the Reader's Digest *Afrikaans-Engels Woordeboek* (1999). The *Scholar's Zulu Dictionary English-Zulu/Zulu-English Dictionary* (1987) does not have such information.

4.4 THE PURPOSE OF BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

The average user of a dictionary regards a dictionary as a source of linguistic knowledge. In most cases if he or she needs to know something about the language this average member of a speech community will not just go randomly to the library but to the dictionary. In a bilingual dictionary, the users want to find a target language item for a given source language item but they will also want to know how and where to use that item.

Dictionaries have to fulfill a specific purpose. This implies that dictionaries should be regarded as tools to be used by every member of the speech community. Bilingual dictionaries may serve different purposes. Catering to the communicative needs of the dictionary users may be more important than the quality of the data to be included in the dictionary. Mdee (1997:95) writes that a bilingual dictionary is for comprehension, i.e. reading and listening, and for production which is for writing and speaking. This communication-directed function is one of the primary lexicographic functions. Bilingual dictionaries are used for translation purposes, yet another lexicographic function. There was a

great demand for dictionaries to help with the language learning during the second half of the sixteenth century. It is said that the translation of the Bible into various vernaculars played a fundamental role in terms of stimulating research to the true meaning of words in context so that their meaning could then be rendered into other languages. The growth in trade between European and non-European countries increased missionary work.

It goes beyond reasonable doubt that in Africa, the lexicographic work came into existence *inter alia*, the compilation of bilingual dictionaries. The language communities of all the South African official languages need dictionaries, not only to bridge the communication gap between them, but also to document and preserve the rich variety of languages in South Africa. Hendriks (2002) writes that bilingual dictionaries can bridge the gap between communities which in the end can empower and educate the new generation, and enable us to appreciate languages and cultures of others in our country. She goes on to say that these dictionaries may play a key role in a multilingual society; they can be perceived as important instruments in the communication between different cultural groups such as in South Africa.

Hendriks (2002) quotes Gouws to support her argument that one of the most important functions of dictionaries is to enable the user to achieve a higher degree of communicative competence. It is without debate that the purpose of bilingual dictionaries is to promote effective communication amongst speakers of different languages in a multilingual society.

Bilingual dictionaries assist the source and the target language user in reading with understanding. These dictionaries also assist the user in writing or expressing themselves so that they in turn will be understood. Hellriegel and Slocum (1982:583) state that a simple but basic fact is that “effective communication is important to achieve the objectives of [an] organization”. One cannot rule out the fact that ineffective communication is normally the consequence of poor planning and management because the planning of communication is a management function. Gouws and Prinsloo (1997:46) outline that dictionaries are instruments of linguistic and communicative empowerment, therefore lexicographers have to make sure that their intended target users receive an optimal linguistic presentation.

The role of dictionaries in the communication world is also outlined by Alberts (1992:1) when she talks about the role of bilingualism in “... eliminating obstacles in communication”. She continues that “The dictionary should nevertheless contain enough information to allow the dictionary user to successfully discover the relevant information”.

Zgusta (1971:304) indicates that dictionaries will be significant enough to cater to even the primitive needs of tourists or the difficulties of the new beginners or learners. He indicates that if such dictionaries are used often, people will be more

educated and they will be able to fully understand the retrieved information. The end result is that these dictionaries will uplift the socio-political, educational and the commercial life of the majority of South Africans. It is a fact that bilingual dictionaries are required to solve problems of users. They may also be used for the study of languages or a specific linguistic purpose other than translation.

There is no doubt that the purpose of compiling bilingual dictionaries is to act as tools for effective communication amongst speakers of different language groups. This is supported by Bejoint (1981:208) when saying that

A dictionary has a two-way function: it can be “a portrait of the vocabulary of a language”, or it can be “a tool for effective communication.

The need for compiling a bilingual dictionary is summarised by Al-Kasimi “As a result of flourishing increase in international interaction and cooperation, more and more of us are coming to realize that bilingual dictionaries have become a necessary part of our daily economic, intellectual, and cultural activities”.

It is essential that a bilingual dictionary should be organized so as to help the user perform specific tasks. There is no doubt that a bilingual dictionary will be of fundamental importance in view of solving problems. Basically the role of bilingual dictionaries will be to cater for the needs of the source language (SL) user as well as the target language (TL) user. It also assists both the SL and TL user in his/her reading or understanding. Bilingual dictionaries assist the SL and TL user in writing or expressing him/herself. Both translators and interpreters will from time to time find solutions to their problems.

The purpose of bilingual dictionaries is to assist the speakers of the various languages spoken in South Africa in learning each others' languages in order to promote multilingualism. There is no doubt that those dictionaries should serve a genuine purpose. Gouws (2001) defines the genuine purpose of a dictionary as:

The genuine purpose of a dictionary should therefore be to ensure successful dictionary consultation procedures. A successful dictionary consultation procedure depends on the way in which the needed linguistic information can be retrieved.

Lexicographers of the SANLUs should note that the main objective of a bilingual dictionary is to provide equivalent words in the target language and such words should be easily used in translations from one language to another. To ensure this the translation equivalents have to be supported by ample cotext and context entries. Users should be assisted in making the appropriate choice between the equivalents for a given communication situation.

4.5 THE ORIGINS OF THE BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

According to *Daily Sun* news paper (2004:04:30) ever since people started to write, they devised reference works that could be called the early ancestors of the dictionary. It is noted that the most famous reference work is the Rosetta Stone made in Egypt in 200 BC. It features an account of a king's coronation, written in hieroglyphics in early Arabic and Greek. The formal dictionaries did not appear until the early centuries. Some scholars such as the Englishman Dr Samuel Johnson in 1755 and American Noah Webster in 1806 did however create some famous dictionaries.

Bilingual dictionaries came as a result of a monolingual communication breakdown. Some scholars have discovered that those ancient civilized countries which were familiar with writing have left bilingual or multilingual lists compiled by scribes and administrators. The oldest examples of bilingual dictionaries found to date are the clay tablets discovered in Ebla in 1975 by an Italian archeological expedition. The dictionary contains three hundred Sumerians lemmata with their Eblaite equivalents. The Sumerian language is said to be the source language with the Eblaite being the target language.

4.6 THE TARGET GROUPS

Dictionaries are compiled for real users and they must be regarded as useful tools. That is the reason why lexicographers should make sure that their target users are able to retrieve information from their dictionaries. Lombard (2000) argues that

It is very important for the lexicographer to know who the target users of his labours are going to be before work on the dictionary can begin. Because the character of a dictionary and the nature of material presented in it should be determined by who the target users are, one of the most important tasks of the compiler of any dictionary is to make the product user-friendly. User-friendliness thus becomes one of the criteria in terms of which a dictionary is assessed.

The lexicographer should not write a dictionary for the sake of gratification. The dictionary is intended for dictionary users. It is therefore important for lexicographers to know the needs of their target users before the work of dictionary compilation can begin. One of the most important tasks for lexicographers of any dictionary unit is to make sure that their dictionaries are user-friendly. This is done by making information easy to find. This is supported by Lan et al (2001:214) when they state that

In a competitive market, the success rests in shaping the dictionary to meet the needs of its users.

Béjoint (2000:140) states that

Lexicographers in many countries have recently felt the need to go beyond empirical observation on the use of the general-purpose dictionaries. Seeking to find out what the users really do, as opposed to what they are believed to do, in order to make sure that the dictionary really corresponds to the needs of the public.

Lexicographers should identify the needs of their target users. Dictionary compilers have to know, and not only to assume what they think users know. The target groups of the different national lexicography units in South Africa are different. It is without a doubt that some of the language groups have been involved in dictionary compilation for decades. The Pan South African Language Board's main objective in its establishment is to ensure that each unit fulfills the needs of the speech communities for each language.

In a multilingual society, the users of a dictionary are not only restricted to native speakers of the language. Both native speakers and non-native speakers will share in regular use of the dictionary. The same applies to journalists and language practitioners.

4.7 THE FUNCTIONS OF BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES IN A MULTILINGUAL SOUTH AFRICA

Dictionaries are important instruments in the teaching of both native and non-native speakers of the language. These dictionaries can also help to bridge cultural and linguistic gaps and can enhance the communicative competence of the speakers of different speech communities. To my own understanding each dictionary is compiled to serve a specific purpose to the user. The *English-Tsonga/Tsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* (1982) of the Swiss Mission in South Africa, for example, is compiled for both the Vatsonga and those who want to know other languages. South Africans living in a multilingual society with eleven official languages and a diverse society need to learn different languages. Louw (1997) writes that

The current South African metalexical literature clearly shows that the contemporary translation dictionaries with Afrikaans and English as a treated language pair do not do enough to facilitate communicative success for speakers of either of these languages.

He continues to say that

In a multilingual society such as South Africa, translation dictionaries and especially bilingual dictionaries have a very important role to play, because they often function as the primary or even only source of communicative help (and especially of semantic information) for their users.

I also believe that in a multilingual society the use of bilingual dictionaries will form an integral part of the daily communication process. Reliable dictionaries should educate the future generation to appreciate the language, custom and culture of others within our country.

- **THE ROLE OF BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES IN TRANSLATION**

Translators need such dictionaries to do their work efficiently. Undoubtedly a bidirectional type of dictionary can serve the purpose. The bidirectional dictionary, the *English-Xitsonga/Tsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* (1982) for example will be of utmost importance in this regard and the unpublished Ngula's *English-Xitsonga/Xitsonga-English Dictionary* (2004) will play a great role in this regard.

- **THE ROLE OF BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES FOR LEARNERS**

In the case of a history learner, if she or he comes across a difficult term, for example the word **freedom** in *City Press* dated 13 March 2005 in the statement "**Comrades died for our freedom.**" The learner can consult the unpublished bilingual dictionary for Ngula and will find that the word "**freedom**" has "**ntshuxeko**" as its equivalent. By doing so the learner will understand the word much better and know that if they say "Comrades died for our freedom" it can be translated as "**Vanghana va hi file leswaku hi kuma ntshuxeko**". Thus after consulting the bilingual dictionary the learner will be able to move forward with a better understanding of his or her lessons. The same applies to Russel Molefe's (2005:4) word "**sacked**" from the statement "**Sacked CEO of Limpopo hospital gets his job back**" in the *City Press* dated 05 June 2005. The learner will again consult the dictionary of Ngula and will find that the word "**sack**" has its equivalent as "**hlongola**". This will help him to know that "**sacked**" is the past tense of "**sack**" and that the word "**sacked**" has "**hlongoriwile**" as its equivalent. Ultimately the statement by Molefe in Xitsonga will be translated as "**Mulawurinkulu wa Xibedhlele xa Limpopo loyi a hlongoriwile u tthele a vuyiseriwa entrihweni**".

- **THE ROLE OF TEXT PRODUCTION AND TEXT RECEPTION**

- **TEXT PRODUCTION**

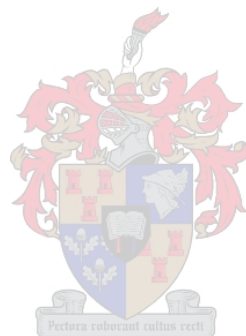
Text production refers to a lexicographic function where the dictionary assists the user to produce texts. This is the core area in the lexicographic field.

- TEXT RECEPTION

Text reception helps the user to understand texts. No doubt that the user-friendliness of the dictionary goes hand in hand with the skills of users.

• THE ROLE OF A BILINGUAL DICTIONARY IN A HOME ENVIRONMENT

In most cases children believe that their parents know almost everything. In a situation where a child listens to the media, a word is often read with which the learner is not familiar and the child asks his or her parents. Parents are regarded as solution makers to them. Parents should not lie to their children, but they should consult their dictionaries or tell their children that they have no solution. When the child hears the word “**corruption**” read on the media, for example when the Shabir Shaik verdict was read by Judge Hilary Squirry on 06 June 2005, the child would like to know what it means. If Ngula ya Xitsonga’s dictionary is consulted the child will get the required meaning. The word “**corruption**” has “**manyala**” as its equivalent in Xitsonga.



CHAPTER FIVE: TYPICAL PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY USERS OF BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of compiling bilingual dictionaries is to achieve communicative equivalence. Lexicographers must make sure that their users are able to obtain and achieve communicative equivalence. In a situation where this is not achieved, it means that such dictionaries are not as user-friendly as they should be. There is no doubt that most traditional bilingual dictionaries are not user-friendly. This is often due to the fact that earlier dictionaries did not adhere to a user-driven approach. Gouws (2004:68) writes that dictionaries should be compiled for effective use and be regarded as useful instruments. Thus the lexicographers should plan in such a way that their users will be able to retrieve the relevant information within the dictionaries consulted without any difficulties.

5.2 SOME REQUIREMENTS FOR SUCCESSFUL BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

5.2.1 CONTEXTUAL GUIDANCE AND THE CONSISTENT USE OF STRUCTURAL INDICATORS

The average language user relies on the authority of the dictionary for communication. One of the major problems experienced by users of bilingual dictionaries is that they are confronted with a list from which they have to choose one equivalent for their specific need. In order to achieve communicative equivalence dictionaries should consistently give guidance, since omissions of contextual guidance confronts the user with a list of equivalents and leaves him/her stranded when it comes to the choice of an appropriate target language form. Kritzinger and Steyn (1970:3) merely give translation equivalents without any contextual guidance, for instance:

aaneem, accept, adopt, assume, admit, confirm.

In this case, there is no way in which a dictionary user will be able to achieve communicative equivalence. A great lexicographic blunder has thus been committed by Kritzinger and Steyn. A lack of contextual guidance will lead a dictionary user nowhere. Limited contextual guidance has been supplied in their dictionary. It would have been more acceptable had they been done in this way:

aaneem (proposal) accept, (constitution) adopt, (duty, position) assume, (student) admit, (appointment, death) confirm).

The same blunder can also be seen in the *Tshivenda-English/English-Tshivenda's* (2004) first draft of the Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit within the following articles:

activity *n* mushumo; mutambo; vhuitwa.
skin *n* likandza; mukumba; ganda.

It would be much better if the following lemmata were treated as follows:

activity *n* (work) mushumo; (games, entertainment) mutambo; (sth made) vhuitwa.
skin *n* (human being) likandza; (animals) mukumba; (human being) ganda

Good work was however done in Kromhout and Kritzinger's *Mini Woordeboek Afrikaans-Engels/Engels-Afrikaans* (2001) in the treatment of the following lemmata in both sections. The first example is from the Afrikaans-English section:

bespreek ~ discuss, talk over/about; review (books); reserve, book (seats)' *sitplekke* ~ book seats.
le' wendig -e; -er, -ste living (person); alive (animal); quick, lively (person); vivid (description); vivacious (animal).
pit (-te) kernel (nut); core (tree); stone (peach); pip (orange); wick (lamp).

The following examples come from the English-Afrikaans section

determined (a) vasberade (van aard); vasbeslote (om iets te doen).
deuce¹ twee; gelykop (tennis).
sultana sultana (rosyntjie); sultane (vrou van sultan).

One of the best possibilities in this regard is the use of lexicographic labels. The labeling of translation equivalents informs the user that the translation equivalents should not be regarded as neutral standard variety lexical items. The lexicographer must be able to give an account of the use of a lexical item as well as of restrictions on its use. Any restriction on the use of a particular lemma, whether social, geographical or temporal, should be indicated by means of a label. Labels mark the appropriateness of a lemma or translation equivalent for a given communicative situation and enable the dictionary user to select words in such a way as to communicate effectively.

Using commas to separate the translation equivalents in one translation equivalent paradigm indicates that the lemmata are ordered according to the frequency criterion. When a dictionary follows this system the lexicographers of bilingual dictionaries must make sure that commas are used consistently so that dictionary users will be able to choose equivalents to achieve good communicative

equivalence. Let us see how the lemma ‘**onbedorwe**’ is treated by Kritzinger and Steyn (1970:165) below:

onbedorwe, innocent, pure, unspoiled.

Kritzinger and Steyn assume that the above article displays a relation of synonymy within the translation equivalent paradigm as their English translation equivalents are separated by commas. This however, is not the case. They should rather have used semicolons in separating the translation equivalents **innocent**, **pure** and **unspoiled** as they represent polysemous senses of the lemma. It would have been much better had they treated it as shown below:

onbedorwe, innocent; pure; unspoiled.

The reason for such a treatment is that the equivalents above cannot be known to dictionary users. The consistent use of semicolons and commas will assist dictionary users to achieve communicative equivalents. Communicative equivalence becomes a problem in a situation where lexicographers are not consistent in using commas and semicolons and this may result in communicative embarrassment. Credit is given to Bosman et al’s *Tweetalige Woordeboek* (1982) for the way commas and semicolons have been used in the articles below:

onregstreeks, (-e), a. indirect; mediate.
onregverdig, (-e), unfair, unjust; unrighteous; wrongful
(action).

It is important that dictionary users should not confuse synonyms with lists of translation equivalents which represent the different polysemous senses of the lemma.

5.2.2 THE USE OF LEXICOGRAPHIC LABELS

The lexicographic function of labels varies according to the kind of dictionary. In a prescriptive dictionary labels will have more normative functions than in a descriptive dictionary. When labeling is done in a particular dictionary, the lexicographer should label consistently since the omission of a label carries usage information as well. Standard dictionaries are more prescriptive dictionaries; therefore their labels will also be more prescriptive. Examples are often labeled as figurative or metaphorical. Other labels that can be used are slang, colloquial, formal, informal, etc. Within this group, there is no uniform set of labels that is used by all dictionaries in the same way. Each dictionary selects its own system of labels that are often applied in a random and unscientific way. An attempt must be made to standardize labels across the board.

THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF LABELS

The lexicographical labels may be divided into four main categories, namely *stylistic*, *geographical*, *temporal* and *technical* labels, cf. Gouws (2003).

- **THE TECHNICAL LABELS**

They are used to mark a lemma for use in for example a specific technical field, types of sport or occupational field. The user is thus immediately informed about the subject area, professional field or sport to which the lemma belongs. Labels such as *physics*, *hairdressing* and *boxing* place lemmas within specific semantic fields and have a decoding function. An example of this can be seen from the way the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (2002) deals with the lemma **devoice** below.

devoice *v. phonetics* make (a vowel or voiced consonant) voiceless.

Other examples of technical labels from the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (2002) are the following:

image setter *n. Computing* a very high-quality type of colour printer.

light reaction *n. Biochemistry* (in photosynthesis) the reaction in which light is absorbed and converted to chemical energy in the form of ATP.

- **GEOGRAPHICAL LABELS**

A geographical label links a lemma or other entry to a particular geographical area of usage. Geographical labels mark the spatial distribution of lemmas and make provision for dialectical variations to be noted lexicographically. Labels like *dialectical*, *unusual*, *regional*, *British English*, *American English* and many more are used in dictionaries. When the labels ‘*dialectical*’ and ‘*regional*’ are used, the region where the lemma is used should also be given in the dictionary.

Geographical guidance is also essential in a descriptive monolingual dictionary. The following are examples of geographical labels from *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (2002) given below:

beano *n.* (pl. -os) *Brit.* Informal a party.

beanery *n.* (pl. -ies) *N. Amer.* Informal a cheap restaurant.

• THE STYLISTIC LABELS

The term stylistic is a comprehensive name for a variety of labels. Labels such as *formal*, *dignified*, *elevated* or *colloquial* for example, mark stylistic features; *unusual* or *rare* indicate frequency of usage; while *slang* or *vulgar* points to social taboos. The most important function of *stylistic* labels is to indicate particular sociolinguistic features of lemmas.

The lexicographer is necessarily expressing a value judgment where stylistic labels are used. This social grading of lexical items is difficult to measure in terms of objective norms. The lexicographer's version of sociolinguistic reality often depends on subjective judgment and on a linguistic analysis of language diversity. Where possible the lexicographer should use linguistic norms to determine his or her choice of stylistic labels.

It is necessary for users to distinguish between the values of the different stylistic labels. Because there is a hierarchy of taboos in dictionary compilation, stylistic labels should give an indication of the place of a particular item in its hierarchy. The explanatory notes should indicate clearly the difference in taboo value between, for example, the labels for *abusive* and *swear word*. The *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (2002) presents or uses *stylistic labels* in this way:

heathen n. *derogatory* **1** a person who does not belong to a widely held religion (especially Christians, Judaism, or Islam) as recognized by those who do. **2** informal a person lacking culture or moral principles. **adj.** of or relating to heathens.
paki n. *Brit.* Offensive a prostitute or promiscuous woman.
tart n. *Brit.* Offensive a prostitute or promiscuous woman.
peart n. *US* dialect lovely; cheerful.
pecker n. *N. Amer.* Vulgar slang a man's penis.

Credit should also be given to Reader's Digest's *Afrikaans-Engels Woordeboek/English-Afrikaans Dictionary* (1999) for the treatment of the following lemmata below:

Kaf'fer -s (*his.*, *derog.*) Kaf(f)ir, Black; ~, Moor en Indiaan everybody indiscriminately. **k** ~ **baai**. K sheeting.
Koe'lie -s (*derog.*) Indian, Asiatic, **koelie** -s coolie. ~ **winkel** (*derog.*) Indian store (shop).
shit *n.* (*vulg.*) kak, stront: *he is a* ~ *hy is* (stuk) stront. 'n kakjas, -gat. **shit.**

• THE TEMPORAL LABELS

Temporal labels are used to indicate the chronological deviations. In other words these are labels which are particularly used to make the restriction of a dictionary entry concerning time and period. Labels such as *historical*, *archaic* and *obsolete*

particularly indicate the frequency usage of the lemma. In the user's information the lexicographer should not only explain the use of the label, but he or she should also give an indication of the cut off periods on the time scale that determine the various labels. Some of the most recent lemmas like the **OBE**, **HIV-AIDS**, **SARS** (disease) should be labeled as very modern.

Depending on the conventions of the dictionary the label *archaic* is used to mark lemmas or distinctions in meanings that are becoming archaic because of changes in language usage. *Archaic* indicates that the lemma or distinction in meaning has become archaic as it is no longer used. But the matter which it refers to is not obsolete nor has it fallen out of use. The label *historical* is used if the lemma or a distinction in meaning or the thing to which it refers, belongs to the past; in other words it has fallen completely out of use, but it has usually not been replaced by another lexical item and is found primarily in historical works.

Apart from explaining the use of each label, the explanatory notes should also give an indication of the cut-off points along the temporal axis determining the use of the different labels. Good examples of temporal labels can be seen from *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (2002) within the following lemmata:

almoner n. *historical* an official distributor of alms.

dust adj. *archaic* 1 burnt. 2 gloomy.

court plaster n. *historical* adhesive sticking plaster made of silk or other cloth.

gold standard n. *historical* the system by which the value of a currency was defined in terms of gold, for which the currency could be exchanged.

When labeling is done correctly in a dictionary, lexicographers should label consistently since the omission of labels also carries usage information. Each dictionary selects its own system of labels that are often applied at random and in an unscientific way. The function or the importance of these lexicographic labels is to make sure that dictionary users do not use for example offensive lemmata in a public environment. If labels are not supplied to offensive lemmata, users will be attempted to use the language in a wrong environment. Kritzinger and Steyn's English-Afrikaans section have failed to adhere to the principle. Let us look at the following lemmata:

bastard, baster, halfnaatjie.

bitch, teef; hoer.

buttock, boud, agterste.

The lexicographers should have at least supplied the lemmata with the following lexicographic labels; *taboo*, *offensive*, *derogatory*, *slang*, *obscene*, etc. immediately after the lemma. This would enable the user to use language with a high degree of communicative skills. If labels are supplied the user will not use

offensive lemmata in the wrong environment, especially those with racial connotations.

The same blunder was committed in Bosman et al's *Tweetalige Skoolwoordeboek Afrikaans-English/English-Afrikaans* (2002) in the English section

prostitute, n. hoer, prostituut.

It would have been better if they were treated like this:

prostitute, n. hoer, (obscene.) prostituut.

Credit is given to R. Cuenod's *Tsonga-English Dictionary* (1982) in the treatment of the following lemmata:

mpfila, (taboo in society) rectum, anus.

nyungulu, nyunguri 9, (taboo in society) testicle.

nyupfi, (taboo in society) anus.

The labeling of the lemmata given above is highly appreciated because dictionary users are given guidance not to use them in public situations. Lexicographers must see to it that the lemmata which are not supposed to be used in public are labeled, for example as *obsolete*, or as *vulgar*.

5.2.3 THE USE OF LEXICOGRAPHIC DEFINITIONS IN AN ENVIRONMENT OF A ZERO EQUIVALENCE RELATION

Lexicographers and terminologists are faced with the challenge of giving equivalents to foreign language lexical items. This must not be done haphazardly. There is no doubt that the shortages of equivalents, especially in African languages in South Africa, came as a result of a lack of development in these languages. Afrikaans and English have enjoyed the privilege of having terminologists that developed terminology in different fields.

Mphahlele (2004) writes that

African Terminologists, lexicographers, subjects' specialists and linguists have to create accurate new term equivalents in their mother tongue for the multitude of terms in English.

For lexicographers to cope with such a situation they are bound to apply transliteration as a lexicographical and terminological principle. He argues that this is done without looking at the needs of target users. According to Mphahlele (2004:340)

They often regard transliteration as the quickest lexicographical and terminological procedure without taking into consideration the practical demands of the target users.

This can be seen in the *English-Tsonga/Tsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* (1982) below:

envelope, vhilopho.

Bosman, Van der Merwe and Barnes (2002) *Tweetalige Skool-Woordeboek* experienced a similar problem in the presentation of Afrikaans equivalents.

baleen, balein.

balsa, balsa.

documentary, dokumentêr.

middle-deck, middeldek.

The lexicographer does not initiate the process of transliteration but reflects what is presented in the lexicon. If the transliterated forms already exist in the language they have to be included in a dictionary. Transliteration undoubtedly came as a result of the lack of term equivalents within the target language. Gouws (1999:26) writes that

Zero equivalence entails a lexical gap.

This is a major challenge facing the lexicographers of the SANLUs especially the newly established units. Roets (2001:10) warns

Do not grasp transliteration as a first, but a last resort – if all else fails. No matter if an equivalent may sound and appear like a brief explanation of a term.

The lack of absolute translation equivalents exists as a result of many factors, e.g. cultural bounds. Lexical gaps compel lexicographers to employ different strategies, e.g. lexicographic definitions, to assist with the attempted communicative equivalence. This can be seen in **Scholars's Zulu Dictionary** *English-Zulu: Zulu-English* (1987) in the treatment of the following lemmata:

dux (n) ophumelele phambili kubobonke ezifundweni.

dugout (n) isikebhe esibazwe ngogodo (boat); umgodi wokucasha empini (shelter).

insulin (n) umuthi wokwelapha isifo soshukela egazini.

matriculate (v) phumelela ekuhlolweni kukamatrikulesheni.

It must be noted that in the compilation of dictionaries a clear understanding of the scope and meaning of lexical items is important. Bilingual dictionaries should use definitions much more frequently to present such a transfer of data.

5.2.4 THE CROSS-REFERENCE

The cross-reference principle plays a very fundamental role in dictionary work. This principle is often applied in the treatment of synonymous lemmata. Cross-references are often used for space saving. The lemmata with high frequency will receive full treatment compared to those with less frequency of usage. Kritzinger and Steyn have failed in using the cross-reference principle in their dictionary. A good example is how the lemmata **envy** and **jealous** have been treated below:

envy, jaloers, afgunstig.
jealous, jaloers, afgunstig, naywerig.

The treatment of the lemmata above is unacceptable as they do not have the same high frequency status. Therefore, it would be much better if the treatment were done like this:

envy, see **JEALOUS**.
jealous, jaloers, afgunstig, naywerig.

It means that the above lemma **jealous** has the higher frequency and the lemma **envy** has a less frequent usage, therefore, the lemma **jealous** gets a full treatment and the lemma **envy** heads a reference article. If the cross-reference principle is used in the dictionary, the user will be able to see that the lemmata in a dictionary interact as part of the lexicon and not as single and isolated entries. This will assist users in their choice of equivalents and help them understand the relations within the synonymous paradigm.

Cross-reference is very important in dictionary writing. Van Sterkenburg (2003:218) says that

In traditional dictionaries, the user is often referred from one entry to another (and yet another and another ...) for a meaning description of an entry word or phrase.

The cross-reference system is done by using cross-reference markers like *see* as treated in the unpublished Ngula's *English-Xitsonga/Xitsonga-English Dictionary* (2004) for the following lemmata:

aeroplane *n.* see **AIRCRAFT**.
blow job *n.* (vulgar, slang) see **FELLATIO**.
emigrant *n.* see **SETTLER**.

5.2.5 THE REVERSIBILITY PRINCIPLE

The reversibility principle implies that a translation equivalent of a lemma A for instance should be used as a lemma in the other section of a bidirectional dictionary and a lemma in section B should be a translation equivalent in section A of the lexical item given as its translation equivalent in section B, functioning as lemma in section A. Kritzing and Steyn have been able to achieve their goals with the article below. This can be seen from the Afrikaans-English section below:

baster, bastard, half caste, hybrid.

The English-Afrikaans section is as follows:

bastard, baster, half naatjie, hybrid.

This is acceptable for they applied correct measures that will enable users to achieve good communicative equivalence. Credit is therefore given to Kritzing and Steyn in their dictionary.



CHAPTER SIX: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

RECOMMENDATIONS

The business of dictionary compilation is a huge task and very difficult to accomplish in isolation by the national lexicography units in South Africa. Therefore, it is important for lexicographers to work together. Some are much more experienced than others and it would be helpful for the newly established NLUs to benefit from this expertise.

There is a tendency of individualism practiced by the National Lexicography Units in South Africa and they work under different conditions of employment. Most areas of common interest are handled differently, and therefore lead to great inequalities between the staff of the NLUs in the country. It would be of the utmost importance for units to have structures that would identify the most important issues that might motivate NLUs' employees to deliver more than expected from them.

It is important to note that NLUs are faced with the great challenge of compiling better dictionaries. Each dictionary unit should be able to cater for the needs of the dictionary users of their particular speech community. Because South Africa is a rainbow nation bilingual dictionaries will serve as major communicative tools amongst the diversity of the speech communities. This will lead to the realisation of the dream of multilingualism in the country. This confronts NLUs with specific challenges.

- **OUTREACH PROGRAMME AND PROMOTION OF THE NLU PROJECTS**

Due to a poor dictionary culture especially amongst the African population, I think an outreach programme would be of great help. Units should conduct dictionary awareness campaigns to all educational institutions in the country. This should begin from the lower grades of our learners to higher learning institutions and even to ordinary countrymen. I also believe that dictionary skills should be included in teacher training syllabi. Teachers will be able to impart their knowledge to learners and dictionaries can then be used effectively by learners. A dictionary culture is essential and should be introduced to learners from an early age. Hartmann and James (1984:41) write that 'dictionary culture' is the critical awareness of the value and limitations of dictionaries and other reference works in a particular community. There is no doubt that once teachers have been taught to be good users themselves, they will be able to pass these skills to students and to the society at large.

Hadebe (2004) argues that once both teachers and students are equipped with skills in dictionary use this would ultimately spread to the community. There

would be better evaluation within the existing dictionaries and for the improvement of future dictionaries. McKean (2000:87) writes that

The biggest problem of improvement does not seem to be in the dictionary, but teacher training.’

He continues that

Better teacher training would, in time, lead to better dictionary consumers – not only for dictionary users, but commercial as well.

It goes without saying that for each organisation to sustain itself, it must be financially viable. I am convinced that the national lexicographic units should jointly seek financial assistance. Donors should from time to time be informed of what is happening within the unit. This even applies to the nature of dictionaries that are in the production process. It is important for units to have representatives from sponsors.

Currently as the South African government is the only sponsor of most dictionary projects of the NLUs, it is important for the state to be given an annual report or if possible be invited to visit the units. The units can establish relationships with banking institutions and insurance companies and make sure that they ultimately become friends of or are involved in the units. The units should establish contact with business people. The business communities should in turn be supplied with full information concerning the activities of the units. It is important to acknowledge the fact that the business people who make donations would like to see their donations being utilised and progress in the work.

It goes without saying that the end product should be submitted to the office of the state president. In 1928 the *Oxford English Dictionary* for example, was presented to King George V upon its completion. It is said that some volumes of the WAT have been presented to the heads of state of South Africa once they have been completed. I hope that if done, this would be an excellent opportunity to bring the dictionary to the attention of the people.

It is important for the National Lexicography Units to establish contact with potential donors for financial support to ensure progress at all levels. Both the local and national radio stations should certainly be used to inform people about the existence of their language development and the activities taking place within the units. This would enable units to receive the necessary support from the speech communities.

- **EDITORIAL STAFF**

There is a limited number of editorial staff within the newly established national lexicography units in South Africa and the current financial grant from government limits units with regard to permanent and competent employees. It is important to create a sound and justifiable working environment within the NLUs in order to compile dictionaries which are user-friendly. This is certainly achievable when there is an editorial team in each unit. As the WAT and the isiZulu NLUs make use of contracted and casual staff, the newly established units may learn to work with such an ideal. It is therefore important for the retired educators and inspectors of education and other members of the society to be involved in this regard. This will demand increased in house training and structures must be put in place to evaluate the work.

The editorial team of each national lexicography unit in South Africa must make sure that their dictionary production undergo a thorough systematic check on consistency before publication of any lexicographic material. Mini (1996:73) writes that

Staff must be trained for efficiency in research, in the ordinary, non-lexicographic editing and proofreading of the manuscript after completion, in marketing as well as in financial marketing so as to keep track of their center's own records of funds from outside bodies as well as from sales of their center's product.

- **PUBLIC AWARENESS/COOPERATIVE LEXICOGRAPHY**

All people interested in the dictionary project should be encouraged to be involved at all levels. This would help to ensure that a representative dictionary is compiled. It is also important to use both educated and ordinary countrymen and they should have mutual contact with other speech communities across the borders of the country. It is important to interact with different language groups.

The less experienced lexicographers should utilize the knowledge and expertise of other lexicographers as the work of lexicography is a mammoth task. According to Gouws (1996:107) training should not only be aimed at lexicographers. He says that the whole community needs to be educated in the use of dictionaries; not only to solve a problem in a crossword but to be used as practical containers of information. Higher learning institutions such as universities should offer degree courses in lexicography. Nkabinde (1996:65) writes that

Degree courses offered at various S.A. universities so far do not offer training and research in lexicography.

He continues that

An extension of the study of semantics by offering a course in lexicography would unlock energy and interest on an unprecedented scale. This would provide a resource for future lexicographers.

There is no doubt that teachers should be taught how to choose dictionaries appropriate to the child's ability and needs. The government and the Department of Education should be informed on the critical role of dictionaries to learners. I also believe that the WAT with its expertise in lexicographic activities should play a role in supporting all lexicographic projects in South Africa by equipping them with training and planning skills. Through mutual contact they will assist each other in addressing common problems. The NLUs in the country should establish contact with other lexicographic projects in Africa and the world at large and give assistance where possible. It will be of great help to all concerned should such a relationship go beyond our continent.

- **A REPRESENTATIVE CORPUS**

Lexicographers in the newly established units have to be aware of and be able to identify the problems of the past. The traditional lexicographers for example, have selection problems, concerning what to include in their dictionaries and what to leave out. This is a result of not using a representative corpus. De Schryver and Prinsloo (2000) say that

What we mean by representative is covering what we judge to be the typical and central aspects of the language and providing enough occurrences of words and phrases for the lexicographers [...] to believe that they have sufficient evidence from the corpus to make accurate statements about lexical behaviour

In simple terms this implies that the corpus should include both the spoken and written texts. The end-product of a dictionary according to Gouws and Prinsloo (2000:139) should

... primarily be directed at the communicative needs of the members of the relevant speech communities and should endeavor to equip these target users with the necessary communicative skills to function successfully in a multilingual and multi-cultural environment.

I strongly support the idea that lexicographers make use of a corpus in the selection of their lemmata. Gouws and Prinsloo (2000:150) write that

Without the use of a corpus, the lexicographer has no chance of finding the hundreds of senses and sub-senses of a word ...

Therefore, it is essential to know that a corpus enables lexicographers to determine the usage of lemmata with high frequencies. It is important for

lexicographers to use all written and spoken material to have well balanced information. In this case I feel that they will be able to deal with all senses of lemmata.

It is essential to know that the selection of lemmata plays a very significant role in dictionary making. Lexicographers should always choose the most appropriate selection of lemmata for their users. This is supported by Van Sterkenburg (2003) when he says that

When a lexicographer did a good job, the user of the dictionary would feel that it included 'everything', everything the user reasonably might expect.

Therefore, it is necessary for lexicographers to have suitable sources when selecting their lemmata. He indicates further that

Today however, it is perfectly feasible to collect the complete wordlist from daily newspapers, from the complete catalogue of major general publishers.

It is essential for lexicographers in South African national lexicography units to make use of the corpus with recent texts in order to ensure that the vocabulary covered was up to date, and accurately reflected the frequency of usage of lemmata in order of senses in the entries.

• **THE PUBLISHING INDUSTRY**

The National Lexicography Units in South Africa are faced with a great many challenges. One of the challenges is that the publishing companies must be convinced that it is not only Afrikaans and English which are economically feasible to publish dictionaries in, but also the African languages. One of the major challenges is the fact that South African citizens are not buying books for leisure reading at a high rate. This can be seen by the limited number of books available in the libraries especially in areas where there are few or no higher learning institutions. This is an indication that the NLUs should identify other eager organisations to assist in publishing their products and cultivating the reading habit amongst the African population in South Africa. Wolvaardt (2002:17) says that

... NLUs will have to be prepared to market and promote the cultural and educational importance of each of their proposals, in order to compete successfully alongside the many other worthy enterprises seeking support from the donor community.

Above all there should be strong partnerships that should include training and educating employees to be productive within the work environment. Alexander (1996:05) writes that

Many people will have to be trained, markets for dictionaries will have to be explored at all levels of our society, and publishers in particular will have to get on board in the manner they have generally eschewed hitherto.

According to Tyolwana (2004)

... partnerships should be based on mechanisms such as the existence of a network of communication channels between the government and language providers.

The National Lexicography Units in South Africa should speak in one voice. This will enable donors to realize without a doubt the huge financial challenge that the NLUs are faced with.

There is no doubt that the ultimate solution would be to provide for the empowerment and promotion of the entire South African languages. I am convinced that bilingual dictionaries will serve as essential tools for non-speakers of these languages who wish to learn more languages of South Africa.

It is essential for the publishing houses to co-operate with lexicographers in the planning and revision of lexicographic projects, meaning that there should be effective planning. Mini (1996:71) says that

Planning is necessary so as to avoid duplication and overlapping. Thus it must include investigation about, and establishment of contact among, all lexicographic activities within the language.

• LANGUAGE MATERIAL SOURCES

An appeal can also be made to the public to volunteer their assistance in language material collection. Publishers, libraries, schools, etc. may be approached to offer source materials such as books, reports, electronic texts, etc. to a dictionary project. The most common source of language material is the written text. The reason being that the texts are readily available and can be utilized immediately. The lexicographer must focus on both written sources such as periodicals, newspapers and ephemera and spoken sources such as the public, official or broadcast material. It must be noted that written languages are more formal and standardized. It is believed that spoken language material reveals features which are observed in speech, for example slang and stress.

When conducting interviews within the community through field work activities, lexicographers should make sure that they record their material. Recordings may be collected from broadcasters, libraries, universities, parliament, etc. Recordings can be transcribed on paper or word processor.

Lexicographers must also use the already published dictionaries for the compilation of dictionaries and must make use of libraries for linguistic and lexicographic research. Printed dictionaries, even those in the other languages, are valuable resources for dictionary-making.

It is therefore important for the South African national lexicography units to make sure that their dictionaries are user-friendly so that their efforts are appreciated by their users. However, users must be able to get assistance at all times when consulting the work of dictionary projects. The units should see to it that they do not repeat similar mistakes made when compiling dictionaries of which the lemmata are not well researched. Ponelis (1996:29) writes that

It is said that Afrikaans has never enjoyed the privilege of a truly reliable, well researched single-volume.

Ponelis (1996:29) continues that

Afrikaans standard dictionaries are produced part-time by academics, who obviously lack the time and resources for fresh research on the Afrikaans lexicon, ... Consequently, these dictionaries have gone through numerous largely cosmetic revisions and they cannot be relied on to give a faithful representation of current Afrikaans.

Hopefully, the future uncertainties of lexicographers will be attended to sufficiently for the benefit of the units. The employees of the units should enjoy all the benefits that they are supposed to have. It is high time that sufficient financial support by both government and the non-government institutions be given for the sake of the development of the languages to be used for socio-political and economical affairs.

In a multilingual society like South Africa, the users of bilingual dictionaries will not be confined to native speakers of the languages only. These dictionaries will help South Africans to learn other people's languages. There is no doubt that both speakers and non-speakers will be able to benefit from the use of such dictionaries. Thorough research should be done to include terms that the users need rather than the words which are not necessary for daily use. Research has to be conducted at grassroots level, this is where lexicographers have to go out and interact with people from all walks of life and status to get the latest concepts. This means that lexicographers should go to sport fields, 'shebeens' and different social gatherings where the speech communities use the language in a more relaxed and recreational atmosphere.

South African lexicographers need to do more to achieve communication equivalence in their dictionaries. This can also be achieved by the employment of pictorial illustrations. I believe that pictorials can assist the user in achieving better comprehension of the lemma or the translation equivalent.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, when planning a bilingual dictionary, the compiler must know that the choice of the source language and of the target language is a powerful factor. Lexicographers within the South African national lexicography units must try by all means to produce dictionaries that are user-friendly and are accessible to their users.

I hope that with this research people will become aware of the necessity of using a dictionary at all times and that dictionaries are not only used for professional purposes by academics and high qualified people, but can also be used for pleasure.



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