DICTIONARIES AS TEACHING INSTRUMENTS FOR MOTHER-TONGUE EDUCATION: THE CASE OF FANG IN GABON

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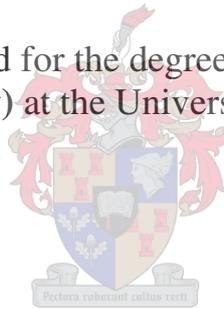
Promoter: Prof. R.H. Gouws

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DECLARATION

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

Signature:……………………….. Date:………………………………..

SUMMARY

This dissertation attempts a study in the design of school dictionaries for their use in the mother tongue or first language education. Pedagogical dictionaries have undergone changes, which are also due to changes, which had taken, place in the teaching of the mother tongue and in descriptive linguistics from the 1950s onwards. Features of the pedagogical model also have been affected by the development in language-teaching methodology. The teaching of the mother tongue is now less concerned with the knowledge and critical exploration of texts than with competence in oral and written expression.

This dissertation deals with theoretical foundations of lexicography as they are applied in the current lexicographic process aimed at the compilation of school dictionaries. Both inside and outside the field of language teaching, the dictionary is one of the most important sources of linguistic information available. For most international languages (English, French, Spanish, German, etc), there is a wide range of reference works that offer useful information on points of pronunciation, grammar and other aspects of the lexicon.

In Gabon, the scenario for the local languages differs from the situations of these international languages. In this context the dissertation attempts to formulate a model for a school dictionary for Fang, one of the main languages in this country. The design of this school dictionary is in accordance with the country's desire to introduce local languages as medium of instruction alongside French, which is the only official language and the sole language of education.

The assignment in this dissertation is to identify the specified target group for the school dictionary in Fang. The determination of any lexicographical endeavour begins with identification of the intended target user group. The dictionary user is the central figure in lexicography, therefore a user perspective is studied. It emphasises the prominent role of the dictionary user as the determining element for the planning and the design of any

dictionary. The type of dictionary has to be made according to the needs of the target user group. The needs of the users define the typology of a dictionary, in this case the school dictionary with French and Fang as respectively the source language and the target language.

This dissertation examines the fact that has become apparent that language teachers, lexicographers, and language learner have much to gain from an increased awareness of the role of dictionaries in the language learning and teaching process. There is a need to teach children dictionary skills or to improve them when necessary. The dictionary is not only to be considered as a repository of stale and static data about language but as an instrument of codifying usage, a means towards communicative action and mostly an essential tool in language teaching and the learning process from children to adults.

The last chapter proposes a model for a French Fang school dictionary. The satisfaction of the specific users' needs demands that the lexicographer devises this school dictionary with monolingual and bilingual features combined. The needs of target users have determined the type of dictionary that will respond to their needs. This aim will be fulfilled by the type of hybrid approach appropriate to the multifunctional needs of the users.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie proefskrif behels 'n studie oor die opstel van skoolwoordeboeke om in moedertaal- of eerstetaalonderrig gebruik te word. Pedagogiese woordeboeke het heelwat veranderinge ondergaan, hoofsaaklik vanweë veranderinge wat sedert die vyftigerjare en daarna in moedertaalonderrig en in deskriptiewe linguistiek plaasgevind het. Ontwikkelinge op die gebied van taalonderrigmetodologie het ook aspekte van die pedagogiese model beïnvloed. Moedertaalonderrig is nou minder op kennis en die kritieke ondersoek van tekste ingestel, maar eerder op vaardigheid in mondelinge en geskrewe uitdrukking.

Hierdie proefskrif gee aandag aan die teoretiese grondslag van die leksikografie soos van toepassing op die huidige leksikografiese proses, gerig op die samestelling van skoolwoordeboeke. Woordeboeke is van die belangrikste bronne van taalkundige inligting beskikbaar, hetsy binne of buite die veld van taalonderrig. Daar is 'n wye reeks naslaanwerke met nuttige inligting oor aspekte van uitspraak, grammatika en woordeskat vir die meeste internasionale tale soos Engels, Frans, Spaans, Duits, ens. beskikbaar.

In Gaboen verskil die prentjie van plaaslike tale van dié van hierdie internasionale tale. Die proefskrif poog om binne hierdie konteks 'n model vir 'n skoolwoordeboek vir Fang, een van die belangrikste tale in hierdie land, te ontwikkel. Die ontwikkeling van hierdie skoolwoordeboek is in ooreenstemming met die land se doelstelling om plaaslike tale as onderrigmedium aan te bied, naas Frans wat die enigste amptelike taal en die enigste onderrigtaal is.

Die proefskrif het ten doel om vas te stel wie die spesifieke teikengroep vir die skoolwoordeboek in Fang is. Die bepaling van enige leksikografiese onderneming begin met die vasstelling van die voorgenome teikengebruikergroep. Die woordeboekgebruiker staan sentraal in leksikografie en daarom word die studie uit 'n gebruikersoogpunt benader. Dit beklemtoon die belangrike rol wat die woordeboekgebruiker speel as die deurslaggewende element in die beplanning en opstel van enige woordeboek. Die

behoeftes van die teikengebruikergroep bepaal die aard van die woordeboek wat opgestel word. Die behoeftes van die gebruikers bepaal die tipologie van 'n woordeboek, in hierdie geval 'n skoolwoordeboek met onderskeidelik Frans en Fang as die bron- en die doeltaal.

Hier proefskrif stel ondersoek in na die feit dat dit duidelik geword het dat taalonderwysers, leksikograwe en taalleerders baie baat kan vind by 'n groter bewustheid van die rol wat woordeboeke in die aanleer en onderrig van 'n taal speel. Daar bestaan 'n behoefte om kinders woordeboekvaardighede te leer en dit te verbeter waar nodig. Die woordeboek moet nie net beskou word as 'n bewaarplek van verouderde en statiese data oor taal nie, maar as 'n hulpmiddel om gebruik te kodifiseer, 'n middel om kommunikasie te ondersteun en veral 'n onontbeerlike hulpmiddel in taalonderrig en die leerproses vir kinders en volwassenes.

In die laaste hoofstuk word 'n model vir 'n tweetalige Frans/Fang-skoolwoordeboek voorgestel. Ten einde in spesifieke gebruikers se behoeftes te voorsien, moet die leksikograaf 'n skoolwoordeboek opstel waarin eentalige en tweetalige kenmerke saamgevoeg word. Die behoeftes van die eindgebruikers bepaal watter soort hibridiese benadering gevolg moet word om in die multifunksionele behoeftes van die gebruikers te voorsien.

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Chapter 1 : GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Dictionaries have a history of thousands of years. According to Gouws (1999:4), dictionaries have been used for centuries as instruments in the acquisition and correct usage of language. In present-day Iraq, dictionaries were compiled as early as 1000 B.C. These dictionaries assisted the Assyrians who came to Babylon to understand the Sumerian signs. The dictionaries contained Sumerian signs with their Assyrian translations and had an educational function as instruments in the teaching of language. Today this remains an important function, but dictionaries have also acquired a variety of other functions, and in the course of time have developed as authoritative containers of linguistic information. The need for them arose as language developed gradually and it became increasingly difficult to read and understand the religious scripts, for example.

According to Tarp (2002:8), dictionaries were produced about 5 000 years ago in China and India to assist in the understanding of sacred texts written in languages that were no longer understood by interested people. Produced in response to the need of people within the society, they were from the very beginning utility products made to satisfy exactly those needs.

Lexicography showed little growth during the Middle Ages. The use of dictionaries was restricted to small user groups, for instance students in monasteries being trained for a clerical career. In their study of Greek and Latin these students relied on word lists that were called *glossae collectae*, (cf. Gouws 1989:52; McArthur 1986:74-80). These dictionaries also had an educational function in their transfer of information. Unfortunately, these containers of knowledge were not accessible to everybody. Only a selected few had the opportunity to benefit from these sources. The Renaissance and the emergence of the printing press also witnessed an increased development in dictionaries, which became more accessible to the public at large, because attempts were made to make them available to the average language user. Lexicographers like Cawdrey and Comenius spearheaded this movement and compiled dictionaries aimed at the ordinary language user.

Gouws (1999:5) emphasises that the ordinary person's access to dictionaries increased the authority of dictionaries. People argued that if something is printed in a dictionary, it has to be the truth. Lexicographers often exploited this attitude and used dictionaries to convey their own subjective point of view. Dictionaries had to fix the language according to the lexicographer's interpretation of what is right and wrong in language usage. According to Gouws (1999:5), "dictionaries were regarded as prescriptive sources emphasising the correct language usage. The criteria for correctness were usually the judgment of the lexicographer". This situation, however, has changed over time as lexicographers changed their views and attitudes towards their work. The authority of dictionaries as prescriptive language tools remained undisputed, but a descriptive function was introduced to show the actual usage of the language. The principal educational and pedagogical function of dictionaries is as prevalent today as it had been when the production of dictionaries started thousands of years ago. It influences this dissertation, which focuses on the design of a school dictionary for the Fang language of Gabon. The research draws attention to the role that dictionaries play in learners' acquisition of languages, particularly the acquisition of the mother tongue, Fang, through the second language, French. This research will serve as a reference for the other languages of Gabon.

1.2. The Context of the Research

The cultural advancement of African people and the acceleration of their economic and social development will not be possible without employing in a practical manner the indigenous languages in that advancement and development. In Gabon, the need for mother tongue education is justified by the concrete indication that the non-use of local languages as media of instruction has reached a historical turning point that would inevitably lead, in the immediate future, to the loss of these languages. Fishman (1991) proposes an eight-stage theoretical framework for describing, preserving or reversing language loss: At stage one, the language exists at the highest levels in government, universities and the national media; at stage two, it is used in the local mass media and local government; at stage three, it is used in the work sphere; at stage four, it is used in schools; at stage five there is local literacy in the community and literacy programmes in native languages; at stage six, children learn

the language from parents, the neighbourhood and communities; at stage seven, there are cultural events and ceremonies; and at stage eight, a few isolated older people speak the language – it is close to extinction. The situation is even more alarming when one reviews Barbara Grimes' study of Gabonese languages (Grimes 1996), some of which are spoken by barely a handful of older people in the villages and are seriously endangered.

Such facts led the Ministry of National Education in Gabon to recognise that literacy education will be greatly facilitated and accelerated if languages familiar to the population are employed. In the same way, Gabonese heritage cultures will be preserved and promoted through the use of native languages. Using the mother tongue as the medium of instruction will reduce the high rate of school dropout and unemployment.

The Ministry of National Education thus envisages introducing a mother tongue education programme, both for literacy programmes and pre-primary and primary school levels. This means that there is a great and urgent need for pedagogical materials and dictionaries in national languages. The interest of this study is therefore not only in the role that dictionaries should play in such a national project, but also in the design of such dictionaries which should meet the needs of the target users. Despite being an essential tool for designing a standard orthography, the dictionary is also important for its ability to act as a language-teaching instrument.

The broad aim of this study is to describe ways in which to design dictionaries for mother tongue education. Its main focus will be to apply such a design to Fang, a Bantu language spoken in Gabon, Equatorial Guinea and Cameroon. According to Guthrie (1971) Fang is listed in Zone A (A 75). Such lexicographical research will be useful for many African countries dealing with problems regarding mother tongue education. Above all, it will serve as model for the design of dictionaries for language teaching in all Gabonese languages.

1.3. The Research Hypotheses

The investigation of mother tongue education has a long history. The classic text, UNESCO's *The use of vernacular languages in education* (1953), enumerates most of the problems relating to education in African languages that are still largely unsolved in most of the countries in Africa. The ability to express oneself is one of humanity's primary needs, and one's mother tongue is the natural means of realising this need for self-expression. It is thus important that every learner begins his/her formal education in his/her mother tongue, or that mother tongue education is used to the extent that the supply of books and materials permits.

In Gabon, both these exercises become almost impossible due to a lack of pedagogical materials in the national languages. Except for some languages that have Bible translations, it is virtually impossible to find any indigenous language with literary texts. This dearth of indigenous languages in written form hampers projects to promote their introduction and establishment in the educational system. The failure of traditional literacy campaigns in adult education is a manifestation of the anomalies in these languages that remain largely undocumented. With French continuing to have a monopoly in the formal education system – and with its speakers having the prospect of upward social mobility – acceptance of mother tongue education will remain low among the general public.

Several authors (amongst others Nzang-Bie 2001; Tadadjeu 1980) have suggested models of multilingual education involving the mother tongue, the languages of wider communication and foreign languages. These models require, among other things, the development of language teaching materials. What role can dictionaries play to implement such programmes? Can dictionaries be an aid in language teaching for mother tongue education? What are the parameters to be considered for such a goal? These and the following questions will be central to this study:

- Who are the target users?

- What are their specific needs?

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- What kind of dictionaries will suit such a programme: learners', school, comprehensive, monolingual or multilingual?

- Will it be adequate for the target users to have access to their mother tongue through another language?

- What kind of data distribution should these dictionaries have?

- What kind of macrostructure should they have?

- How should one devise the microstructure of these dictionaries?

1.4. Methodology

1.4.1. From linguistics towards a lexicographic theory

The establishment of the lexicographic practice preceded the theory of lexicography. As practical instruments, dictionaries could exist for centuries without the influence or the co-existence of a lexicographic theory. In the course of time, the lexicographic practice developed certain patterns and systems unique to specific types of dictionaries. This can be regarded as the beginning of a theoretical approach to lexicography. The typological criteria developed from a well-established practice. The establishment of these patterns was not restricted to the structure and compilation of dictionaries and the different information categories to be included. Knowledge about the contents of these categories and their lexicographic treatment also developed systematically. To illustrate this, reference can be made to the treatment of semantic data in descriptive dictionaries. Gouws (1989:121) and Zgusta (1971:60-74) discuss the presentation and treatment of a polysemous word, i.e. a word with more than one related sense. A separate definition has to be given for each sense of the word and the system developed to ensure an unambiguous transfer of this information leads to a situation where a dictionary article includes the separate definitions and allocates a number to each one of these polysemous senses. The organisation of these definitions is not done arbitrarily, but according to fixed patterns. The present-day theory still utilises and relies on this system, which was developed as a direct result of a sophisticated lexicographic practice.

The guidelines developed for the presentation of the different information categories in dictionaries were initially dominated by practical demands. However, in the course of time other considerations came into play. The systematic presentation of information in dictionaries started to show signs of the influence of linguistic considerations. Users got into the habit of using dictionaries on a more advanced level and they expected the dictionary as a container of linguistic information to assist them accordingly. Although dictionaries were still used as practical instruments, they acquired an additional function as linguistic aids. For the average member of a speech community, a dictionary was the only source of reference to obtain information on language matters. According to linguists, dictionaries also had an important supporting function, a theory that developed to such an extent that it could no longer be denied. What was needed was a prominent linguist to formally declare the importance of the link between lexicography and linguistics.

Although dictionaries were used as linguistic instruments for many decades, the formulation of the complementary relation between dictionaries and other linguistic aids, as well as the acknowledgement of lexicography as a fully-fledged discipline had to wait far too long. Tension existed between lexicographic practice, based on a self-developed system, and theoretical linguists. This tension affected both parties. Linguists criticised lexicographers for a lack of theoretical foundation in dictionaries, whereas lexicographers felt that linguists had little of relevance to be applied in dictionaries.

The 1970s brought the needed breakthrough for the growth and development of theoretical lexicography and the acknowledgement of lexicography as a discipline within the broader field of linguistics. Highly instrumental in this breakthrough was the pioneering work by the linguist Ladislav Zgusta in his *Manual of Lexicography* in 1971. This book heralded a new era in the field of linguistics. Since the publication of Zgusta's book theoretical lexicography developed at an increased pace. It has been said, and rightly so, that we live in the "*Golden Age of Lexicography*". One of the characteristic features of the past three decades has been the co-operation between linguists and practicing lexicographers, and the way in which this co-operation has been beneficial to both parties.

1.4.2. Formulating a coherent theory of lexicography

The publication of Zgusta (1971), and numerous publications that followed, turned the attention to the nature and extent of linguistic data in dictionaries, the systematic way in which it has to be presented and the extent to which a lexicographer has to be familiar with the state of the art of theoretical linguistics. A dictionary is regarded as the most important source to provide the average speaker with solutions for linguistic needs. The lexicographer has to familiarise himself/herself with linguistics to the extent that he/she can select the necessary linguistic data for inclusion in the dictionary and present it in an accessible way to the non-linguist using the dictionary. Especially during the last decade, the emphasis in lexicography has shifted to the various linguistic needs of different user groups. Besides those dictionaries aimed at the public at large, many dictionaries have been compiled as a response to the needs of specific user groups. The contents and presentation of these dictionaries have to take the specific needs of these target users into consideration.

The analysis of the linguistic contents of dictionaries and the criteria according to which the lexicographer has to select the relevant data demanded that lexicography should display a much stronger scientific basis, which had a dramatic influence on the scope of the assignment of the lexicographer. The lexicographer became a mediator between theoretical linguistics and the practical language user. The lexicographer has to satisfy a variety of demands in order to deliver a dictionary adhering to strict linguistic principles, but which can be used as a practical instrument. Lexicographers have to be able to interpret linguistic theory in terms of the needs of practical language usage.

The stronger scientific approach has not only enhanced the quality of the lexicographic practice, but it ensured the final acknowledgement of theoretical lexicography as a fully-fledged discipline. However, contrary to the other linguistic sub-disciplines, no coherent theory has been developed especially for lexicography. The semanticist and the syntactician can rely on semantic and syntactic theories. The lexicographer could not rely on a lexicographic theory. Numerous demands were made on the linguistic versatility of the lexicographer, who has to be familiar with theories and theoretical discussions from a variety of linguistic sub-disciplines. For

example, the way semantic data is treated in a dictionary is determined by taking cognisance of prevailing theoretical issues in lexical semantics. There is no theory of lexicographic semantics or lexicographic morphology. Theoretical linguists do not direct their theories at lexicography. The lexicographer has to interpret these theories in order to apply some of the results in a dictionary. This has led to a situation where lexicographers identified a real need for a coherent theory aimed at the specific needs of lexicography.

Theoretical lexicography, also known as *metalexicography*, has already been established internationally as a research and study area in its own right. Many linguists actively participate in lexicographic research. However, until recently the results of this research have only been directed at isolated subdivisions of the spectrum of linguistic data categories included in dictionaries. One of the exciting developments of the last decade was to attempt to formulate a coherent theory of lexicography that makes provision for all relevant matters. This theory will supply the practicing lexicographer with guidelines regarding the selection, treatment and presentation of linguistic data in a specific dictionary. Although such a theory will still benefit from research in the various sub-disciplines of linguistics, it will function independently and will select and unite the relevant data from the different sub-disciplines. It is no longer the responsibility of the lexicographer to interpret linguistic theory in order to find out what could and should be included in a dictionary. An additional advantage of such a theory is the possibility for lexicographers and linguists to work towards linguistic standardisation and the explication thereof in dictionaries.

In the absence of a coherent lexicographic theory, the need existed to establish a standardised set of lexicographic terminology. Different lexicographers started to use different terms. Over the last few years, attempts have been made internationally to create terminological uniformity. Standardisation also applies to typological criteria and the evaluation of the contents of dictionaries. A coherent theory of lexicography has to aim at consistency in the evaluation of both the contents and the typological features of dictionaries.

The most important work in establishing a general theory of lexicography results from the research done in the Department of Germanics at the University of

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Heidelberg (Germany) under supervision of Prof. H. E. Wiegand. Wiegand was instrumental in compiling and publishing the most comprehensive work done in the field of theoretical lexicography, the three-volume publication *Wörterbücher. Dictionaries. Dictionnaires An International Encyclopaedia of Lexicography* (edited by Hausmann *et al.*). This monumental work (abbreviated WDD) was published in 1989-1991. The publication of WDD puts lexicography on equal terms with the other disciplines of linguistics. It has been beneficial for the development of metalexicography. The work on a fourth volume is currently underway.

Metalexicography refers to the field of study aimed at improving our knowledge of reference works (dictionaries and encyclopaedias). Wiegand (1984:15; 1989:262) gives an exposition of the four most important components of metalexicography, systematic dictionary research (this is the general theory of lexicography), research on the history of dictionaries, dictionary use and dictionary criticism. Systematic dictionary research includes topics like the purpose of dictionaries, the relation between lexicography and other disciplines, the organisation of lexicographic activities, lexicographic language research (e.g. research on the collection and processing of data as well as computer lexicography) and the theory of the lexicographic description of language (e.g. dictionary typology and the structure of lexicographic texts).

This study will refer to the last component, the theory of the lexicographic description of language, which comprises dictionary typology and the structure of lexicographic texts. According to Wiegand (1984:16) "the subject area of a theory of lexicographical description of language is the class of all the presentations of the results of linguistic lexicography as texts about languages". The aim of the theory of lexicographical description of language is to provide and establish the information that lexicographers have to take into account when writing lexicographical texts in dictionaries.

This study will also refer to earlier work done by several other researchers such as Zgusta (1971) with his innovative *Manual of Lexicography*, Dubois and Dubois (1971) who wrote on the "canonical works" on the theory of lexicography, Al-Kasimi (1977) who worked on bilingual lexicography, Hartmann (1979) who published on dictionaries and their users, and Hausmann (1985) who did dictionary research on the

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contents of dictionaries. This study will employ a synthetic analysis of the approaches used by the above-mentioned authors, and will also refer to recent work by eminent researchers (Gouws 1990, 1994, 1996; and Prinsloo 1992, amongst others) who are dealing with specific problems in African languages lexicography.

The study of the design and structures of dictionaries has emerged with the development of metalexicography. For a long time in the history of lexicography, no serious thought had been given to treating the methodology of lexicography at a general theoretical basis. Dictionaries just grew, guided by convenience and convention, and were in most cases commercial undertakings rather than scholarly achievements. A change took place early in the 60s and 70s with numerous publications on the theories of lexicography. Zgusta (1971) focused on the linguistic aspects of dictionaries Landau (1984) and recently Bergenholtz and Tarp (2002) have developed theories, which can be applied in the practical making of dictionaries by giving attention to the lexicographic functions. In the lexicographic field, there are few studies on lexicographical activities in Gabon. The missionaries initiated lexicographical activities as a pragmatic response to the communicative needs of the Europeans involved in evangelisation, trade and administration. Dictionaries were compiled for the foreigners' use. As a result, these dictionaries are less informative for the speakers of the indigenous languages than for their French counterparts whose language is predominantly used to define and describe the target languages (Gabonese languages). Unlike other indigenous languages that do not have any lexicographical work, Fang has some dictionaries and grammars compiled by missionaries. Since the end of the colonial period, very few lexicographical works have been done in Gabon.

It has become apparent that Gabon is faced with the need to implement theoretical lexicography. The acknowledgement of language loss and the need for mother tongue education and dictionaries compel the establishment of a lexicographical unit in Gabon.

Although the practical side of lexicography preceded by thousands of years any development on the theoretical side of lexicography, it has become practically impossible to compile a dictionary without a sound theoretical basis. Therefore, this research is based on the eclectic methodology that draws from the above-mentioned theories. Wiegand and Hausmann (1989:328-360) present in the broad theory of

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lexicography a component called the textual theory for lexicographical texts. Wiegand's theory addresses the structures of dictionaries. This component takes into account the whole structure hierarchy of the dictionary that comprises the data distribution structure, the frame structure, the macrostructure, the microstructure, the access structure and all other structures necessary for the intended dictionary. My research will draw from this textual theory and will incorporate elements from other theorists (such as Bergenholtz and Tarp (2002)) dealing with lexicographic functions. The fundamental and functional approach guiding this research is to ascertain what the user will accomplish with the intended dictionary. Theory has become the vital basis of any lexicographic endeavour. It should reflect and adapt to current practice in the language. It has to be sound and integrated into dictionary structures, which must accommodate and present the data in a way that ensures that not only the content but also the structure assists the user.

This research has adopted an open approach to any lexicographical theory that would enhance the practicality of the intended dictionary. The most essential aim is to satisfy users' needs and to anticipate their expectations of the dictionary. This could only be accomplished by thorough planning, from the identification of the target user to the final stage of the production of the dictionary. The aim of this research is to adapt the necessary elements from the metalexicographical development mentioned earlier to the specificities of the Gabonese languages and to the type of dictionary dealt with. To achieve this objective, the target users and their specific needs must be kept in mind throughout the process. The theoretical basis of this dissertation could be viewed schematically as follows:

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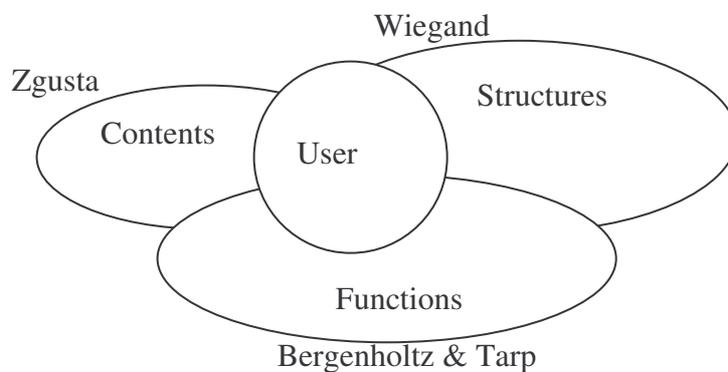
1.4.3. User/Usage: The same user in different situations of usage

The user is the central figure in any lexicographic endeavour. This research is conducted with the aim to respond to the needs of a specific group of users. To this end, a combination of the theories in lexicography is used. In the schema above, the distinction is made on the major metalexicographical basis of the research. Zgusta focuses primarily on the contents, as mentioned earlier, particularly the linguistic component through its application in the dictionary. Wiegand's theory addresses the structures of a dictionary, namely the structural components, which are the macrostructure, microstructure, access structure, addressing structure and mediostructure. Bergenholtz and Tarp (2002) deal with the lexicographic functions of the dictionary. These three aspects constitute the general theory of lexicography. The structures present the data and the data and the structures are combined to achieve a specific function; all three of which are to be taken into account while planning a dictionary. The dictionary is composed as follows:
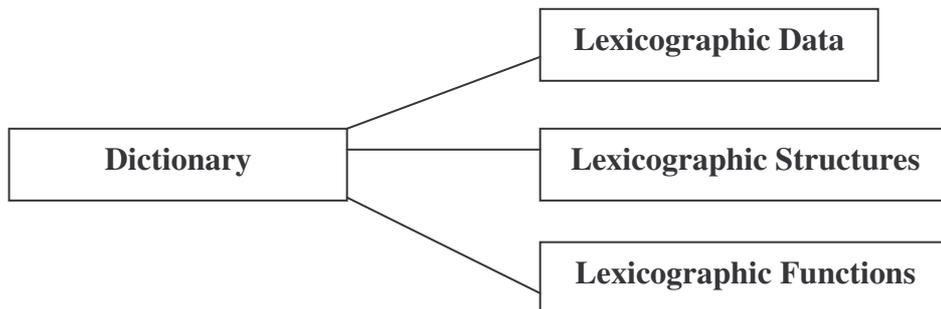
1.5. The Research Objectives

The purpose and the intended users of a dictionary should be guiding principles in handling the materials in lexicography, according to the three headings of lexicography that Hartmann (1983) delineates as recording, description and presentation.

The objective of this research is to devise a model for a school dictionary for young learners in the primary level of education in Gabon. It aims to establish criteria for the compilation of such a dictionary. The planning of this school dictionary falls into a broader project that leads to mother tongue education. It looks into the venues of implementation in the teaching system, not only for pupils but also for the adult

education programme. This will consequently lead to a view on the socio-cultural context in which such a programme is involved. Dubois (1981:248) points out that "dictionaries reflect the cultural universe of their users at a particular moment in time, and can be categorised according to the reference needs of socio-cultural groups whose parameters the lexicographer has previously identified".

This study aims to point out how important dictionaries are for language teaching, specifically in the case of African languages. Above all, it provides information about the purpose of dictionaries as 'language instruments' and 'containers of knowledge'. This study also aims to highlight the importance for lexicographers to adopt an African-language-user-perspective in their projects. It will finally contribute to the establishment of a lexicographic unit in Gabon.

Chapter 2: PERSPECTIVES ON FANG MOTHER TONGUE EDUCATION

2.1. Background

Gabon is a small country located on the west coast of Central Africa. It is bordered in the north by Cameroon, in the northwest by Equatorial Guinea and in the south and southeast by Congo (Brazzaville). It is administratively divided into nine provinces. The native population is 1.200.000 as against an overall population of 1.380.000 (National Census 1995). It gained its independence from France on August 17, 1960. The literacy rate in 1995 was 70-77% as against 29% in 1977 (Grimes 1996).

2.2. A view of the Linguistic Situation in Gabon

The *Gabonese Revised Constitution stipulates*: "The Gabonese Republic adopts French as the Official Language. Furthermore, she endeavours to protect and promote National Languages" (1994, Art. 2, paragraph 8). Thus, French is the sole language of formal education.

The linguistic situation in Gabon is complex. No one has yet determined the exact number of languages in Gabon. Former linguistic research listed 40 languages including French (Grimes 1996). More recent work by Jerome Kwenzi-Mikala (1987; 1988; 1998) puts the number at 62 heritage speech patterns. Kwenzi-Mikala (1988:57) defines a "language-unit as a group of different speech patterns that are mutually comprehensible" ("*l'ensemble des differents parlers tous mutuellement comprehensibles*"). He classified Gabonese languages into such language-units. Indications from ongoing research work however show that other minority speech patterns are still to be identified. On the national level there is no dominant heritage language.

With the exception of some languages of the pigmies, all languages in Gabon belong to the Bantu family. Guthrie's referential classification listed these languages in Zones A, B and H. However, Kwenzi-Mikala's internal classification first had them in eight language-units (1987; 1988:55-64), and in 1998 brought them to ten

languages-units. This classification based on major sociolinguistic criteria (relative intercomprehension and the opening greeting formality "I say that") is as follows:

- Language-unit "*mazuna"* with 6 speech forms

- Language-unit "*myene" with* 6 speech forms

- Language-unit "*mekana-manaa*" with 10 speech forms

- Language-unit "mekona-mangote" with 6 speech forms

- Language-unit "*membe"* with 8 speech forms

- Language-unit *"merye"* with 10 speech forms

- Language-unit "*metye"* with 7 speech forms

- Language-unit "*membere"* with 5 speech forms

- Language-unit "*makina"* with 3 speech forms

- Language-unit "*baka"* made of pigmy speech forms

The observation is that this classification does not always correspond to any geographical proximity. Moreover, the intercomprehension criterion used, confounds some crucial sociolinguistic historicity and does not systematically reflect the native speakers' linguistic intuition. Amongst these language-units, some are regionally dominant languages and are seen as promoted languages. Though these are not legally the official languages, they are partially used for official or political needs. That is the case for languages such as Fang, Omyene, Yipunu and Yinzebi used in the media and generally understood and spoken by many. Larger linguistic communities commonly and generally use these. Fang in the north and Lembaama in the east of Gabon enjoy a regional monopoly so that they are spoken and used everywhere in the areas where they are located. Although they do not have official status, they are commonly used in all spheres of society in these regions.

It should be added that minority foreign communities are involved in the country's socio-economic activities. They have been living in Gabon for decades and

they use their mother tongue within their own communities. In commerce, for instance, some other languages are used besides French, which is the official one. It has been recorded (Lascydil 2000) that the percentage of other languages used in commerce is as follows:

- Gabonese languages 10 per cent

- West African languages 35 per cent

- Lebanese Arabic 1,5 per cent

- English 15 per cent

The medium of instruction is French, which is also the official language in public life (law, administration, banking and commerce, for example). This situation seriously endangers local languages. The overall national picture is equally discouraging. It is generally known that any form of literacy that eschews the use of mother tongue in schools, in the administration and in public life often creates communication gaps between generations. This is evident in Libreville, the capital of Gabon, where the number of families in which children do not speak their mother tongue, whether the parents have different mother tongues or not, is increasing.

2.3. Language Status of Fang

Fang is a Bantu language and it is listed in Zone A (A 75), according to Guthrie (1971). It is the home language of 29 per cent of the population (circa 427,000 people). It is spoken in four of the nine provinces of Gabon: Estuaire, Ogooué-Ivindo, Moyen-Ogooué and Woleu-Ntem. In addition, a number of Fang families have settled in the area around the lakes of the Ogooué-Maritime province.

There are the following regional variants of Fang:

- Fang-Atsi spoken in Ndjole and Lambarene (Moyen-Ogooué province);

- Fang-Meke spoken in Libreville, Kango and Cocobeach (Estuaire province);

- Fang-Ntumu spoken in Oyem and Bitam (Woleu-Ntem province);

- Fang-Mvai spoken in Minvoul (Woleu-Ntem province);

- Fang-Nzaman spoken in Makokou, Ovan and Boue (Ogooué-Ivindo province); and

- Fang-Okak spoken in Medouneu and Mitzic (Woleu-Ntem province).

Fang is a cross-border language because it is also spoken in neighbouring countries: Equatorial Guinea, Cameroon and along the north-western border of the Republic of Congo (Brazzaville) and in the Republic of São-Tome & Principe where a few speakers are also found (Johnstone (1993) quoted in Grimes 1996). It is the biggest linguistic group in the country. There is a legitimate need in the speech community to preserve and develop the language. Although Fang is not legally an official language, it is often, and partially, used for official or political needs. It is also used on television and radio. In the north of Gabon where Fang is the only local language spoken, the regional radio station presents most of their programmes and shows in Fang. Therefore, the users of this language will welcome any lexicographic activity. Considering that one of the functions of a dictionary project is to record the lexicon of a language, the speech community will give an enthusiastic response to the compilation of dictionaries, whether monolingual, bilingual or plurilingual with Fang. Nyangone Assam and Mavoungou (2000:259) indicate that all the dictionaries available in Fang are translating dictionaries and biased towards French. The dictionaries were compiled by missionaries or colonial administrators and are mostly directed at French users or other Europeans wishing to know or learn more about Fang. These works are valuable, but it is necessary to point out that they were not made with the Fang speech community in mind. They served as linguistic, cultural and sometimes anthropological tools for the Europeans (the colonial administration and missionaries) to learn about the Fang. Nevertheless, these dictionaries comprise the only lexicographic works recorded in Fang in Gabon, and their compilation occurred long before the translation of the Bible into Fang. These dictionaries are as follows: *Dictionnaire fang-français* (1872); *Dictionnaire français -fang ou pahouin, précédé de quelques principes grammaticaux sur cette même langue* (1892); *Encyclopédie Pahouine. Eléments de grammaire et dictionnaire français-pahouin*

(1901); and *Lexique fãn-français* (1924). All these dictionaries were compiled at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century, as indicated by the dates of publication. Although they are valuable contributions to the lexicographic work on the Fang language in Gabon, they nevertheless show the need for new dictionaries, especially dictionaries that respond to the needs of the local people and to the promotion and the preservation of the Fang language.

2.4. Need for Education in the Mother Tongue

Mother tongue instruction generally refers to the use of the learners' mother tongue as the medium of instruction. Additionally, it can refer to the mother tongue as a subject of instruction. It is considered to be an important component of quality education, particularly in the early years. The investigation of mother tongue education has a long history. The classic text, Unesco's *The use of vernacular languages in education* (1953), enumerates most of the problems relating to education in African languages that are still largely unsolved in most of the countries in Africa. The ability to articulate oneself is one of humanity's primary needs and using one's mother tongue is the natural means of realising this need for self-expression. It is thus important that every pupil should begin his/her formal education in his/her mother tongue or at least to the extent that the supply of books and materials permit. In the case of Fang, the mother tongue as medium of instruction will not be a new concept because it has been used as such in schools in the early years before independence and few years after, mostly in the missionary schools. Education was then almost entirely located in these schools.

During the last two decades, investigations such as the findings of a comprehensive research review carried out by the World Bank in 1997, *The use of first and second languages in education: A review of educational experience* have broadened the perspective on mother tongue instruction in multilingual societies. The most important conclusion drawn from the research and experience reviewed is that when learning is the goal, including that of learning a second language, the child's first language (his/her mother tongue) should be used as the medium of instruction during the early years of schooling. The first language is essential for the initial

teaching of reading and for comprehension of subject matter. It is the necessary foundation for the cognitive development upon which acquisition of the second language is based. One can add to this the numerous recommendations by Unesco (1960; 1992; 1997; 1999; 2001) emphasising the importance of

- mother tongue instruction at the beginning of formal education for pedagogical, social and cultural considerations;

- multilingual education with a view to the preservation of cultural identities and the promotion of mobility and dialogue; and

- foreign language learning as part of an intercultural education aiming at the promotion of understanding between communities and between nations.

In accordance with the constitution, the government of Gabon has undertaken positive and concrete actions toward the development of national languages.

- In 1983, the Ministry of National Education held a workshop (Les Etats Généraux de l'Education et de la Formation) to revise and reform the education system of the country. One of the recommendations of the workshop was the introduction of national languages in schools (*Introduction des langues nationales dans le système éducatif*).

- February 1997: Creation of an Inter-Ministerial Commission comprised of the Ministry of National Education, Ministry of Labour, Employment and Professional Training, Ministry of Communication, Ministry of Higher Education, Ministry of Finances, Ministry of Social Affairs and Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Its main mission is to revisit previous works and examine reflections on the national orientation law on education that will accord a fundamental place to the use of African languages.

- December 1997: The Ministry of Education organised a round table (Table Ronde sur Les Recherches Linguistiques et L'Enseignement des Langues nationals Gabonaises) that recommended among other things the creation and the organisation of a National Commission for the Promotion of National Languages. This commission would enlarge the Inter-Ministerial Commission

by including the Ministry of Health, all laboratories, university departments, national and international NGOs, Unesco, UNDP and the Gabonese Radio and Television (RTG). Its mission would consist of conceiving, organising and following up all education activities in national languages. The decree making it a law has yet to be promulgated.

- April 1999: The Ministry of National Education organised a standardisation workshop on the orthography of Gabonese languages.

In Gabon, the lack of pedagogical materials in local languages is a huge barrier to these languages sustaining their place in the educational system and impedes promotional endeavours. The failure of traditional literacy campaigns in adult education is a manifestation of the lack of documentation to help in the acquisition of the languages. With French continuing to have a monopoly in the formal education system and with the speakers having the prospect of upward social mobility, acceptance of mother tongue education will remain low among the general public.

Two observations can be made about the situation: a) there are concrete indications that the non-use of local languages as media of instruction has reached a historical turning point; and b) all Gabonese languages are easily classifiable into either stage 8, stage 7 or stage 6 of Fishman's eight-stage theoretical framework for describing, prescribing or reversing language loss (Fishman 1991).

Fishman's Eight Stage Planning Theory to Strengthen Local Languages

Stage 8: *The language is spoken by a few isolated older people. It is close to extinction.*

Stage 7: *There are cultural events and ceremonies.*

Stage 6*: Children learn the language from parents, neighbourhood and communities.*

Stage 5: *There is local literacy in the community, literacy programmes in the native languages.*

Stage 4*: The language is in the school.*

Stage 3*: The language is in the work sphere.*

Stage 2*: The language is in the local mass media, local government.*

This situation is still more alarming when one reviews Barbara Grimes' presentation of Gabonese languages (1996), some of which are spoken by barely a handful of older people in the villages. The overall national situation is frightening. It is generally known that any form of literacy that eschews the use of mother tongue in schools, in the administration and in public life often creates communication gaps between generations. This is evident in Libreville, the capital of Gabon. The level of usage of Gabonese languages in trade is low in Libreville where 45 per cent of the national population lives (Lascidyl 2000). It can be argued that the continuous rise in the literacy rate would, in the near future inevitably lead to language loss if literacy continues to be facilitated in the way it currently is.

Languages	Official Transactions	Commerce
French	100%	100%
Gabonese Languages	0%	10%
West African Languages	0%	35%
English	0%	15%
Lebanese Arabic	0%	1.5%

Statistics like these led the Gabonese government to adopt an active policy for a more durable implementation of the Decade of African Education 1997-2006 (*Intergovernmental Conference on Language Policy,* Harare, 1997). The Ministry of National Education acknowledges that literacy education will be greatly facilitated and speeded up if languages familiar to the population are used. In the same way, it will promote and preserve local languages through the usage of native languages. Using the mother tongue as medium of instruction will result in the reduction of high dropout and unemployment figures.

2.5. Language Planning

For any language planning policy to be meaningful and durable, the local communities must be involved. Their involvement will be made easier if they understand the policy and are brought to participate actively in the choice of a language and/or dialect for standardisation. This approach will combine the general orientation of the national perspective with the specific needs of local communities, thus refining respect for their cultural identities. This means that before anything meaningful is done, thorough consultations must be conducted at regional and communal levels. This will enhance communal co-operation and ensure greater cultural bonding with the programme and the national philosophy.

The choice of a national language has yet to be addressed. The broad general option excludes the idea of a single language to stand for the nation. The Ministry of Education, after careful consideration, is indeed inclined toward the teaching of dominant regional languages, which represent the natural pattern of usage in each zone.

> "la reflexion menée par l'Education Natioanle s'incline vraiment vers l'enseignement des langues dominantes régionales qui representent des tendances naturelles en usage dans chaque zone" (Ministère de l'Education Nationale, 1997).

Traditional knowledge, skills, and attitude and belief systems will be integrated into the school curriculum. Oral traditions and literature should form the basis of primers and manuals, and will no longer seem alienated from communal life but contribute to communal development.

The likely scenario is a bilingual and multilingual education system, in which two or more languages are used as media of instruction. Unesco adopted the term 'multilingual education' in 1999 in General Conference Resolution 12 to refer to the use of at least three languages, the mother tongue, a regional or national language and an international language, in education. The resolution supported the view that the requirements of global and national participation and the specific needs of particular culturally and linguistically distinct communities can only be addressed by multilingual education. In regions where the language of the learner is not the official or national language of the country, bilingual and multilingual education can make mother tongue instruction possible, while at the same time facilitating the acquisition of languages used in larger areas of the country and the world.

This approach will greatly benefit a multilingual country like Gabon. The mother tongue instruction advocated in this study is not opposed to a multilingual education system. The model will be appropriate for the region of the north of Gabon where Fang is the only local language, and for other regions where Fang is one of the main languages of the area. The inconvenience of this model is that one may face a multilingual classroom where LI=L3 for some children in the class, which is indeed the situation in the urban centres of the country and in the capital Libreville. This

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vision of development policy (Robinson 1996), though encouraging, is very likely to encounter stiff resistance from the local communities whose children would be brought to learn in an unknown speech pattern, their regional dominant (L3). Micheal Byram (1998:114) states in this context that

> Exposing children to another language and expecting them to learn as a part of the process of socialization and acquisition of social identities is not simply a matter of cognitive learning. There are significant affective factors and challenges, which include risk of and responsibility on the part of the teachers and those responsible for education programs. The more consciously and clearly these challenges are understood, the better the education in multilingual classrooms will be.

The case of Gabon seems to offer an easy theoretical platform according to the speech patterns identified by Kwenzi-Mikala's classification of Gabonese languages. It shows that those speech patterns are intercomprehensible and geographically situated in such a way that it makes multilingualism widespread, a fact that encourages communication between different communities. Most people can understand one another. It is therefore proposed that the dominant regional language should be used as the medium of instruction alongside the official language, French.

2.6. Teachers and Materials

Teachers and didactic materials constitute explicit and quantifiable prerequisites for Gabonese languages to leave the point where they are used primarily and/or exclusively in their oral form for communication and cultural expressions, and to arrive at the point where their use in written form will also serve as a tool for communication and cultural expressions. The importance of teachers and of teaching materials, as well as the lack thereof, led the government to adopt the *Pan African Project for the Training and Production of Educational Materials in African Languages* (PATPAL) from the Intergovernmental Conference on Language Policies in Africa (March 1997, Harare, Zimbabwe). The main objectives are as follows:

- To attain a critical threshold in the training of personnel and to produce educational material that will facilitate the use of African languages as media of instruction, turning this into a normal practice in the African education system;

- To develop in each country a body of professionals at different levels, competent and effectively operational in multilingual education in African languages in a complementary relationship with the foreign official language;

- Develop at national, regional and continental levels adequate systems of production and distribution of quality educational materials in African languages; and

- Setting up a system of communication and coordination capable of ensuring a continental solidarity among decision-makers and professionals of education in African languages.

In Gabon, the Raponda Walker Foundation[1] has produced educational materials to introduce the teaching of Gabonese languages at Catholic secondary schools. It has edited and tried out an experimental manual for learning Gabonese languages, *Rapidolangue* (Hubert 1996; 1998; 1998a; 1998b). The successful implementation of a multilingual education programme expected to result in the access of all Gabonese local communities to the written word in their own languages will largely depend on the nature, quality and quantity of didactic materials. The nature and quality of educational materials are measurable by their embodiment in the cultural milieu, thinking patterns and world vision of the community where they should be used. Successful materials involve the local community in its making, while at the same time embracing general national perspectives. Materials to be produced should be appealing, inspiring, manageable, adequate and useful. Gabon has yet to evolve its own educational material production programme. It is however in preparation and includes the training of lexicographers.

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[1] The Andre Raponda Walker Foundation, founded in 1996, aims to promote all the works of Andre Raponda Walker (the first Gabonese priest and one of the first researchers of Gabonese languages), as well as the languages and the cultures of Gabon.

Good multilingual or bilingual teachers are one of the key factors to a successful mother tongue education programme. They should be masterful native speakers of the child's L1 (first language) and equally well grounded in the official language. The College of Education in Libreville (L'Ecole Normale Superieure '*ENS*') admits to the mother tongue teacher training programme students with at least a Master's degree in linguistics. The large number of graduates from the Department of Language Sciences makes one think that very soon the ENS will have produced a good number of mother tongue teachers. The advantage of this is that they will be qualified language teachers. For this to be more effective, a proposition (Emejulu and Nzang-Bie 1999) has been made that a good working and academic knowledge of the mother tongue be included in the admission requirements. Training should be more practical than theoretical. Teachers should make and/or improvise their materials where these are not available. Teachers as educators and models should be of formal rectitude and readily acceptable to the communities where they work.

In addition to the technical support mentioned above, Gabon has neighbours who are experienced in mother tongue education, for instance Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Nigeria. Experiences gathered in the field of education by these countries after years of trial and error will certainly be of immense benefit to Gabon.

2.7. Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Considerations

How speakers of the targeted language react to the various issues related to the standardisation and written form of their language should be of primary concern. It will be assumed here that there could be mixed reactions ranging from outright enthusiasm, indifference, scepticism and lack of cooperation to open hostility. The following psycholinguistic reasons could explain these responses:

A. The belief that learning through the mother tongue is much easier, faster and more embedded in the mind of the child than in an unknown language (here reactions are likely to be enthusiastic)

B. The pride of having one's own written language and a feeling of increased importance from the new status of the language (here too reaction is likely to be enthusiastic)

C. The fear that the development of the language programme will destabilise the learning habits of the child (reactions may range from indifference, scepticism and lack of cooperation to open hostility)

D. The misconception that learning another language will either slow down or impede the cognitive development of the child, what Cummins (1980) calls the *separate underlining proficiency model of bilingualism* (reactions may range from indifference, scepticism and lack of cooperation to open hostility)

The most effective sociolinguistic strategy is the development of all languages with the view to writing and reading, and using them as media of instruction. This will ideally give all children equal rights and privileges of education in their mother tongue. The financial and political implications of this strategy are to be assessed. Much research has been done in this field. Elisabeth Gfeller's "Why not all the languages in the schools? Potential avenues to handle the multiplicity of languages" (1999) is an attempt to provide a wide range of answers to this pertinent question, as is Maurice Tadadjeu's *"3000 Linguists needed in 15 years for the basic standardization of all African languages"* (1999).

The government of Gabon is aware of the financial implications that the production costs of mother tongue education materials will have. The inclusion of the Ministries of Finance and Planning in the Interministerial Commission of National Languages is an indication of its commitment. On the other hand, one cannot overstress the benefits of multilingual education as an essential part of human capital development. When mother tongue education compensates disadvantaged and poor indigenous populations, the investment in human capital is significant and politically strategic in the end. Statistics from the Ministries of National Education, Labour and Employment show a steady increase in the rates of school dropouts and unemployment. Current studies in bilingual or multilingual education in other countries show that bilingual L1-OL programmes produce more significant school

results, better employment capabilities (Yaqub and Patrimos 1999; Patrimos and Velez 1996), and a more concrete national integration.

Emejulu (2000:64) asserts that the project should also be viewed from a socio-economic level. It will employ many people in different sectors, education personnel in various domains, and production, sales and marketing personnel for didactic materials, amongst others. Cross- and inter-country surveys will be used to determine the benefit of multilingual mother tongue education. One can refer to Ethiopia where 80 languages are accommodated by "an explicit all language policy" (Gfeller 1999:6). The logical strategy for any multilingual society is a multilingual/multicultural education using the mother tongue (L1) as a primary basis of instruction. Multilingual education based on L1 promotes

> healthy identity and encourages personal development: self-assurance, a feeling of being accepted and having a place in the society (national, international). It may be possible that such an attitude, if wide spread, will encourage self- development *(*Gfeller 1999:3).

In agreement with Bamgbose's (1987:38) assertion that multilingualism is a fact of African life, it is argued that multilingualism is Africa's lingua franca in analysing the role of language in development. Although African multilingualism is so often seen as a handicap to development, it needs to be developed as a strength, not castigated as a failure. This multilingualism, pluralism and multiculturalism as facts of African life have to be seen positively as resources upon which development must be built and not as impediments to national unity and development.

2.8. Adult Literacy Programme

There are at least two areas in which language is crucial to national development: literacy and communication. There is an obvious link between literacy and development. For instance, the world's poorest countries are also the countries with the highest levels of illiteracy. Since literacy liberates untapped human potential and leads to increased productivity and better living conditions, it is not surprising that countries with the highest levels of literacy are also the most advanced economically.

Similarly, mass communication with its emphasis on flow of information can provide a suitable climate for national development. The primacy of man as the source of all economic development is a point made effectively by Schumacher (1973:190). It is man, he says, who provides the primary resources, and "the key factor of all economic development comes out of the mind of man". However, a crucial factor in this creativity is education, the essence of which is the transmission of values. Although poverty may be traced to material factors such as lack of natural wealth, capital or infrastructure, those factors are secondary. The primary causes of poverty are really deficiencies in education, organisation and discipline. These, rather than material goods, can stimulate development, as illustrated by the economic success achieved by countries without material resources but with education, organisation and discipline.

Human-centred development is increasingly accepted as the correct path. In the words of former President Julius Nyerere[2] of Tanzania:

> In the Third World we talk a great deal about economic development, about expanding the number of goods and services, and the capacity to produce them. But the goods are needed to serve men; services are required to make the lives of men more easeful as well as more fruitful. Political, social, and economic organization is needed to enlarge the freedom and dignity of men. Always we come back to Man – to Liberated Man – as the purpose of development. So development is for man, by Man and of Man. (quoted in Bataille 1976).

Socio-cultural development obviously points to indigenous languages, while even intellectual and educational development needs to have its roots in the language of the community.

The declaration of Persepolis that emerged from the International Symposium for Literacy held at Persepolis, Iran, from 3-8 September 1975 also came out strongly in favour of man-based development in declaring that "literacy is not merely acquiring the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic but a contribution to the liberation of man and his full development" (Bataille 1976:273-274). A summary of

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[2] Excerpt from a talk given at the International Conference on Adult Education, Dar-es-Salaam, 21 June 1976, and reproduced as a foreword to Bataille (1976).

the elements that should go into national development defined in a broader sense include the following as presented in Bataille (1976):

1. Integration development in which economic development is linked to social and cultural development and the combination of all three is designed to improve the condition of man in society.

2. Self-reliance as the basis of all development, instead of mass importation of expertise.

3. Intellectual aid as a surer basis of development in preference to material aid.

4. Technology whenever transferred to be domesticated and indigenised to conform to the socio-cultural norms and conditions of the country.

5. Mass participation and grassroots involvement in order to ensure widespread and genuine development.

Let us consider the role of language in the light of an examination of national development. As usual, two models present themselves: a) the use of official languages, usually languages of wider communication (LWCs); and b) the use of indigenous languages. Given that the development effort aims to reach the masses, it is obvious that the language to be used in literacy and communication, for example, must be one capable of reaching a large proportion of the population. Earlier attempts to use foreign official languages, such as French in Mali (Dumont 1973) or English for tobacco growers in Western Nigeria, ended in dismal failure. Among the African countries that have a vigorous programme of literacy in African languages are Mali, Togo, Somalia, Tanzania, and Nigeria. The advantages of such programmes are that cultural forms of knowledge and cultural values are better learnt and transmitted, the positive attitude to language encourages greater motivation to learn, the course of instruction is psychologically more adequate as the concepts are already familiar, and the choice of language is in consonance with cultural and political attitudes (Unesco 1976:23-24).

Literacy is an instrument for life skills development. It is not to be limited to the process of learning to read and write. It is to be considered as an opportunity for

acquiring information that can immediately be used to improve the environment, training for work, increased productivity, greater participation in civil life and better understanding of the surrounding world. The acceptance of the idea that in a multilingual country the local languages should be adopted for literacy instruction has found favourable reception in many parts of the world. The forms and knowledge of the values of a culture are better learnt and transmitted in mother tongues. The attitudes of the learners towards the language of instruction often influence their desire and motivation to learn. According to Bamgbose (1987), from a pedagogical point of view the teaching of the first literacy skills in the learner's mother tongue is preferable when possible since it permits an adequacy between the contents and the forms of teaching with the logical structures and the mental processes of the learners. He affirms that one must bear in mind that the choice of a language for literacy is not purely a linguistic problem, but often emotional and cultural, and always political.

2.9. Reference Works and Literacy

This study sees reference works as dictionaries, glossaries, spelling, grammatical and orthography material. Besides traditional teaching material for literacy programmes, these add a meaningful contribution. The planning of the programme of literacy from its inception has to consider and make provision for the production of these references works. Not all this material will be needed at once or for one literacy programme, but the production of one of these, such as a dictionary, will consolidate and enhance the teaching material. From the multiple documents, agreements and recommendations produced throughout the years of Unesco's mandate for action in this field, certain basic guiding principles are common. These represent Unesco's current approach to language and education in the twenty-first century, and should serve as guiding principles for its various member states. One of these states: "Adult illiterates should make their first steps to literacy through their mother tongue, passing on to a second language if they desire and are able". In multilingual situations like Gabon's, the policy regarding the language of literacy should be carefully formulated, especially where the official language is different from local languages. The use of the mother tongue is desirable (cf International Conference on Education 42nd session 1990).

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The literacy programme includes children in primary schools, who are given the opportunity to become literate in their mother tongue, which will be Fang in the present case, and young adult and adult learners, who will have the opportunity to be empowered by the acquisition of new skills relevant to their daily lives. Such a project has to be sustained by material that will support the teaching. Therefore, the present research makes provision to reach that goal, namely a dictionary that will not only enable pupils to learn their mother tongue, Fang, but that will also provide support to adult literacy programmes. Literacy can only be maintained if there is an adequate supply of reading material for adolescents, adults and schoolchildren, for entertainment and for study. In the present situation, the bilingual dictionary falls into the category of material that needs to be produced for the sustainability of the programme. The bilingual dictionary is an ideal tool to promote mother tongue as medium of instruction. In this view, mother tongue instruction of schoolchildren and adult learners should cover both the teaching of and the teaching through Fang. The main functions of this dictionary are to help the children in various kinds of tasks, such as

Reading

Writing

Vocabulary acquisition

Translating (in this case from French to Fang and vice versa)

The dictionary is an essential tool for establishing a standard orthography (cf. Afane Otsaga 2004)[3]. It will thus help the Fang language in that regard as it covers a large number of themes. It is important not only to a native speaker, but also to all learners of the newly written language. It is a useful tool for language promotion and diffusion, and it has an undeniable academic and pedagogical function. The children will master their mother tongue with the help of a supportive instrument like the planned bilingualised dictionary. It will also give them the ability to write in their

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[3] Unpublished DLitt dissertation 2004 University of Stellenbosch. Thierry Afane Otsaga has conducted research in his DLitt dissertation on the role of dictionaries in language standardisation with Fang as the language in case.

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mother tongue. In the case of Fang, there is a lack of the written code of the language amongst the generation between school age and around 40-years old. Although they have a command of Fang on the oral level, they lack or have little knowledge of the written form. A large proportion of the Fang population is therefore illiterate in their mother tongue because they cannot write or read in Fang. The dictionary or any form of reference work has an important role to play in the correction of these inadequacies and the reversal of an unfortunate situation. It is just a matter of planning and political will.

The situation was very different 60 years ago and most probably during the introduction of the western school system in Gabon. The Christian missionaries who initiated education at that time introduced and adopted the medium of instruction in the local language, depending on the region. Education among the indigenous people of Gabon was always informal. Formal education arrived in Gabon Estuary in the early 1840s when American Protestant and French Catholic missionaries established schools to educate teachers, catechists and eventually clergy as well as ordinary Christians (cf. Gardinier 1998:168-184). The colonial government aided the Catholic schools and did not attempt to regulate education until 1883 when it ordered the sole use of French as medium of instruction. The American Protestant missionaries opened schools to teach religion, numeracy and literacy to boys and girls in both indigenous languages and in English, the regional trading language at the time. The French Protestants continued the work of the previous missionaries and made the most progress among the Fang people of Northern Gabon, particularly in the period between the two World Wars, (cf. Gardinier 1974). In the north of Gabon, where most of the Fang population is located, the medium of instruction up to a certain level of primary school was Fang. At this stage, pupils received a certificate attesting to their mastery of the language and all the subjects that were taught at that level of education. It allowed them to further their education in French up to the secondary and tertiary levels. It is therefore evident that the primary level of education at some stage in the history of Gabon had been in a local language and that to reverse the situation is not an impossible dream but a feasible aspiration.

2.10. Standardisation

Standardisation is a crucial step to undertake for the Fang language as well as for all the other indigenous Gabonese languages. There will not be any language development without the phase of standardisation, which is defined "as the codification and acceptance within a community of users, of a formal set of norms defining a correct usage" (Steward 1968:534), or " the process by which the specific variety of the languages emerges as the preferred variety of a speech community" (Ansre 1971:680).

Standardisation is a process and as such it requires a real investment of planning and effort. One of the errors to avoid in the process of standardisation is the idea that one dialect is better than another. This attitude could communicate to the language users a sense of rejection towards one or more of the dialects. The development of the reference dialect or language need not result in the unnecessary abandonment of other dialects. Literature could be developed in a variety of dialects, such as literacy books, cultural and traditional material, etc.

The goals of standardisation for Gabonese languages as outlined in Emejulu and Nzang-Bie (1999:12) are as follows:

- The development of the written language, which includes a grouping of as many dialects of the language as possible, yet is comprehensible to all speakers.

- Helping the government in its educational goals.

Motivations for standardisation

- Ethnicity and linguistic identity.

- Introduction of the languages into the education system and literacy programmes.

- Language maintenance.

Principles of standardisation

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- Simplicity

- Uniformity

- Functionality and diversity

- Social acceptability

- Acceptance of the written code

- Creation of a composite form of the main dialect

- Encouragement of the use of dialectal variants

The work of standardisation

A newly written language does not develop by itself. The speakers of the language must contribute to the writing process and to the promotion of the written form of the language. Two suggested ways to facilitate this input from the speakers had been identified by Emejulu and Nzang-Bie: "Standardisation agents" who are aware of the national language situation and the task to decide on a common orthography, and a "Language Committee" made up of members of the community who will have the principle task of developing their own language. The formation of the language committee should represent the following (Sadembouo *et al*. 1988:28):

- All dialects;

- All groups of different interests and backgrounds, including non-schooled intellectuals, monolinguals and multilinguals, politicians, religious leaders;

- Women as well as men;

- Some committee members who can give all their time to the task and who have adequate training;

- "Technical advisors" experienced in the procedures such as phonological descriptions, orthography design, publication of reference books and basic pedagogical materials; and

- Promoters, consultants, editors, translators, researchers, workshop leaders.

The function of the language committee is to serve as a Language Academy. These members deal with the writing of the language and the accepted norms of the writing. They create a "*literate climate*" and start literacy programmes. They create pre-reading materials, follow-up primers and general reference books. It should be pointed out that this committee cooperates and works closely with the lexicographic units.

2.11. Modernisation

Standardising a language creates new needs. It is an ongoing process in all languages. These needs generally affect all the domains, but specially the social domains such as education, health, justice, construction, transportation, etc. They also affect the technical domains such as communication, computer science, science, etc. What is essential is to create adequate vocabulary for when it is needed.

How to create new terms?

Coinage

Coinage combines various items of the language to form words or expressions. This can be semantically motivated or not. Semantically motivated coinage combines meaning-bearing elements of the one language in order to capture the essence of the meaning in another language. According to Sadembouo *et al*. (1988), this can be achieved

- By affixation: here all affixes as meaning-bearing elements can be combined with existing words to form new words;

- By composition: here the combination of the whole word into a compound word conveys the meaning of the desired term;

- By translation: here the new term is a translation of the terms from the model language; and

- By description: here concrete object and abstract concepts are sometimes described.

Coinage can be semantically non-motivated when it gives native speakers nothing in their forms to indicate meaning. They appear to have been created as indivisible wholes.

Semantic extension

Semantic extension serves to increase the number of distinct meanings found in the languages. It increases meanings by adding to or extending the individual meaning of existing words.

Borrowing

Borrowing that includes nouns, verbs, adverbs or adjectives can come from:

- Neighbouring languages: Words could be adapted from neighbouring languages and thus become part of the lexicon of the targeted language. For example, in Gabon, Fang spoken in regions where other languages are spoken borrow terms from the neighbouring language. Raponda-Walker (1998:144) mentions that in the region of Libreville, Fang has borrowed from Omyenè a number of fish names and items from the domain of fishing, e.g. *ekondo* (mackerel), *bone* (mullet), *mvele* (sardine), etc.

- Other dialects: In Gabon, although French is the official language and also lingua franca, many terms from Gabonese languages have been incorporated into the French spoken in Gabon, e.g. *musonfi* (a Yipunu word meaning 'a new mother, woman that just gave birth') and *folong* (a Fang word meaning 'spinach').

- World languages: When it comes to international languages such as French or English, words from the many domains of technology and sciences will be adapted or simply borrowed to term technological concepts or principles in Gabonese languages. For example, for a Fang speaker terms like *computer* and *radio* are borrowed from French *ordinateur* and *radio*. In Fang, borrowed

words from English appear, like tawole (towel), s<u>o</u>b∂ (soap), s<u>o</u>p (shop), kop (cup), to list a few.

2.12. Concluding Remarks

The production costs of mother tongue education materials have budgetary implications of which the Gabonese government is aware. There is a need to plan and implement cost-saving strategies. On the other hand, one cannot overstress the benefits of multilingual education as an essential part of human capital development. When the mother tongue education compensates disadvantaged and poor indigenous populations, the investment in human capital is significant and politically strategic in the long run (cf. Chiswick and Miller, 1992).

The perceived solidarity function of the language has led to the development of two complementary myths: a) the first is that having several languages in a country (multilingualism) always divides; and b) the other, that having only one language (monolingualism) always unites. Hence, national integration is believed to be possible only through one national or official language. Since most African countries are multilingual, these myths are often associated with African languages. Conflicts between groups of people within a country rarely have anything to do with linguistic differences. Foreign ideas, concepts and technology will undoubtedly be imported in a foreign language, but such concepts must be transmitted to the masses in a language that they can understand and with which they can identify. Because Gabon has over 60 languages, many of which do not possess a vocabulary for expressing western philosophical and scientific ideas, according to some, French has continued to be used as the sole medium of instruction. At the same time, it is recognised that young children learn best in their own language or mother tongue, and that the exclusive use of French in the educational system leads to much repeating and dropping out. During the 1970s, Gabon modified the content of its school curriculum to include more African and Gabonese subject matter. In 1981-82, there were experiments in three elementary schools in Libreville whereby French was taught as a second language rather than as a primary one as had previously been the case everywhere (cf. Idiata 2002).

The widespread dissemination of English has not motivated the economic miracle achieved by countries such as Japan; it is rather the result of the domestication of foreign technology in Japanese and the translation of the productive processes into terms that the ordinary factory worker can understand. The conclusion, which seems inevitable in the situation of Gabon and in most developing countries, is that a multilingual policy is the only viable avenue for development. African languages will have well-defined roles in education, culture and mass communication without prejudice to the complementary role of languages of wider communication.

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Chapter 3 THE USER-PERSPECTIVE

3.1. Introduction

The target user of a dictionary is without question the central figure in lexicography. The lexicographer, after all, does not write a dictionary for the sake of personal gratification. The dictionary is intended for target users and it is therefore essential for the lexicographer to know who they will be before work on the dictionary can begin. Because the character of a dictionary and the nature of the material presented in it should be determined by the target users, one of the most important tasks of the compiler of any dictionary is to make the product user-friendly. The central question in lexicography is thus: Who are the dictionary users? This is the case even if the lexicographer can only form a vague image of the user who will eventually consult the dictionary. In the past, lexicographers have often been guilty of ignoring or neglecting the needs of the user, which predictably alienated users.

The lexicographer must therefore adapt his/her methods and presentation to the needs and requirements of potential users. It is this user-perspective in lexicography and the ways it might be attended to by lexicographers that this chapter will focus on. Numerous works on lexicography have stressed the importance of the user-perspective (Hartmann 1989; Hatherall 1984; Mabika Mbokou 2002; McDavid 1979). Householder and Saporta explicitly state, "Dictionaries should be designed with a special set of users in mind and for their specific needs" (1967:279).

Preliminary research to determine the purpose of the dictionary and to define the needs of the intended users is required in planning a dictionary project. Hartmann (1991) and Wiegand (1977) raise awareness on the lexical requirements and the sociology of dictionary use or dictionary look-up. They focus on the conflicts and deficits that drive people to dictionaries. Purpose-specific lexicography has led to improvements in the pedagogic applications of dictionary making (Cowie 1981). Although it is impossible for any dictionary to satisfy the needs of everyone, wide-ranging and diverse as these needs are, it should still strive to do so. In this study, the

identification of the type of dictionary to be made depends on the needs of the target users and the functions this dictionary will have for them.

3.2. The Target Users

The aim of this research is to describe ways in which to design dictionaries for mother tongue education, with special reference to Fang in Gabon. The project will involve both adult literacy and the primary school level. The users thus comprise two categories:

- Pupils at primary schools

- Adults participating in literacy courses

Adhering to the user-perspective, Hartmann (1983; 1989) argues that users' needs should precede dictionary design. The design phase should include the processes of recording, description and presentation. According to him, recording or documentation deals with the gathering of a suitable database or archive of texts; description or processing deals with the analysis and classification of the material collected in terms of such categories as semantics or meaning, syntax and form, and pragmatics or context; and presentation or publication deals with the way the information is arranged for the benefit of particular user groups.

Many problems in dictionary making have been tackled afresh, using new perspectives under each of these three functions of lexicography. Recording presents problems mainly in bilingual lexicography since it has to match vocabulary items from two different linguistic systems. These difficulties will be even worse when one of the languages in the language pair is a language without a written tradition, e.g. Fang versus French. One must be sure that the language samples on which this dictionary is based cover the necessary range of corresponding registers.

Description poses the difficult problem of how the editor can establish equivalence between lexical units from often-divergent pairs. The difficulties are compounded by various interlingual and intercultural factors. Presentation problems are more intricate than commonly realised, because the needs of users vary in

complex ways depending on their proficiency, the purpose for which they consult the dictionary and the directionality of the operation.

In present-day lexicography, the users' needs have a definite influence on the design, structure and contents of any dictionary. With regard to the interaction between users' needs and dictionary typology, the planning of a dictionary must clearly identify the target users. In the case of this study, they are mother tongue speakers of Fang in the literacy programme, and pupils and students who are willing to improve or learn Fang, whether they are mother tongue speakers or not.

Considering the fact that Fang is still in the process of standardisation, users will first need bilingual dictionaries, according to Gallardo (1980:610) who indicated that comprehensive monolingual dictionaries are usually compiled for standardised languages, while languages still in the process of standardisation usually rely on bilingual dictionaries. It is important to indicate that decisions regarding the typological features of dictionaries should be taken on metalexicographical grounds. In the case of this research, an analysis of the typology of dictionaries will be done to determine which type of dictionary will best match the needs of the different target user groups. This study will not be limited to one single type of dictionary, but will consider different types of dictionaries, which will enable the target users to retrieve the information successfully.

Atkins (1985) points out the differences and similarities between monolingual and bilingual pedagogical dictionaries, which offer a choice to the user because both help the user to understand another language (foreign). She found that there could be little doubt that a bilingual dictionary makes fewer demands on the user. With the monolingual dictionary, the user is forced to use the unknown language in order to understand it. There is of course no guarantee that the definitions, examples or metalanguage notes will be comprehensible to the user. A combination of the best features of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries could offer a solution and provide a more flexible teaching aid, particularly considering the genuine purpose of the dictionary for mother tongue education in primary school and adult literacy, a hybrid type of dictionary might be the solution.

In the specific case of Fang, a language not yet standardised, versus a language like French, Fang-speaking users will benefit from learning or improving their French via their mother tongue. Atkins (1985) argues that the hybrid dictionary could conceivably bridge the present gulf between the bilingual and monolingual. Once again, the structure must take account of the users' needs and abilities to retrieve information from the dictionary.

Experts like metalexicographers, lexicographers and linguists should be responsible for making these decisions. While planning a dictionary project, one must always bear the users in mind. There is no need to make dictionaries that will end up on the shelves because they are either too sophisticated for the average user or do not respond to the needs of the intended users. The 'usual' purpose for dictionary consultation acts is to search for data that can be integrated as relevant information into the communicative activity currently engaged in by the user. Therefore, the lexicographer must find ways of accommodating users because it is his/her duty to ensure the successful achievement of the communicative activity.

For this study, the target users identified are primary school pupils and adult mother tongue speakers of Fang, engaged in a literacy programme.

3.3. The Users' Needs

A question that could be asked is whether users should not be trained in the use of dictionaries. This matter could receive greater attention at school level than it does at present. However, it is in fact easier for the lexicographer to adapt to the needs of users than the other way round.

The lexicographer can assist target users in a number of ways. The first is by making the data easy to find. The lexicographer must know or be able to anticipate where the user will search for a certain piece of data. Hanks (1979:35) states that the lexicographer is in the impossible position of someone who has to supply answers without knowing what the questions are. In lexicography today, an empirical approach to dictionary making is no longer as tenable as it was centuries earlier. The task of the lexicographer will however be made easier by adding a proper needs assessment to

the process of identifying the target users. Therefore, the approach to the typology, design, structure and contents of the proposed dictionary will be informed by the principle that users should be enabled to find the information they need to achieve a communication act.

In this research, the needs of the learners are firstly to acquire their mother tongue, and secondly to master the written code as well as the oral code of Fang while they are acquiring French, the current medium of instruction. The needs are twofold because, on the one hand, there is a need for communicative-oriented functions in the dictionary and, on the other hand, there is a need for knowledge-oriented functions in the dictionary. The communication functions cover text reception and text production needs, while the knowledge functions enable users to be immersed in Fang culture.

3.3.1. The users' linguistic difficulties and reference needs

There is no doubt about the utility of the dictionary, but the question is whether the dictionary can satisfy or solve the users' linguistics needs and problems. There are many reasons why users consult a dictionary, one of the main reasons being that they have experienced linguistic difficulties with the meaning, spelling or translation equivalent of a term. This problem compels the user to consult the dictionary with the justifiable expectation that he/she will find a solution. When making a dictionary, the lexicographer therefore has to be aware that one type of users' need should be satisfied.

The compiler should keep the users' reference needs, which are the circumstances that drive them to seek information in dictionaries or other reference works, in mind because users will have different needs. It is therefore compulsory to determine the target group for any dictionary and to avoid assuming that all users have the same difficulties. Users' needs differ substantially in general consultation; for example, a scholar looking up the etymology of a word, an editor checking spelling, a foreign language learner searching for a translation equivalent, or a native learner searching for the meaning of a term.

In presenting each piece of data, the lexicographer must ask whether the users will understand it or whether it is relevant to their needs. This is why a compiler of dictionaries should be able to make a user-friendly dictionary. User-friendliness becomes one of the criteria in terms of which a dictionary is assessed. It is therefore of vital importance that the analysis of users' needs by experts in the field occurs before the compilation process starts.

Wiegand (1985:251) states that lexicography is a practice aimed at the production of dictionaries in order to activate another practice, the cultural practice of dictionary use. The aim of lexicography is to compile dictionaries that meet the needs of users and, as Wiegand (1998:260) points out, certain types of dictionaries are used as part of cultural activities in specific contexts.

Wiegand elaborates a theory of dictionary use from these basic parameters: Various types of reference works, such as general dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries and pedagogical dictionaries, are consulted by users engaged in various activity types, such as reading, translating and language learning, to obtain information needed for various situation types, such as filling a lexical gap, finding an equivalent and checking a collocation. This research on dictionary use is what Hartmann and James (1998:152) refer to as the user-perspective.

3.3.2. The users' reference skills

According to Hartmann and James (1998: 117), "The reference skills are the abilities required on the part of the dictionary user to find the information being sought." While planning a dictionary project, the lexicographer must include this aspect of the dictionary use and educate users to improve their reference skills. The notion of users' needs demands much attention as it includes educating the users. Prospective users have to be taught reference skills and dictionary using skills. The compiler of a dictionary has the task to make the data in the dictionary accessible to users and to help them acquire the necessary expertise to use dictionaries as reference sources.

Users not only need to acquire dictionaries; they also need to acquire the expertise to use dictionaries. That is why the catchword 'user-friendliness' has helped

to focus this traditional concern, but it also tends to hide a universally low level of 'dictionary awareness'. A component on how to use dictionaries should form part of school language syllabi to teach language users about the importance of dictionary use.

Users of dictionaries may experience communication problems resulting from an inadequate presentation of data in existing dictionaries. It is therefore important that one should not decide on a dictionary project before research has been done into the needs of the speech community. A research team should be fully versed in the theory of lexicography to conduct the survey from a sound theoretical foundation. They should analyse the different variables, which can give rise to the needs in the lexicographic practice. No lexicographer should work in isolation. Before a lexicographer undertakes the task of compiling a dictionary, he/she should determine the needs for such a project since the making of a dictionary is a long-term and costly process. He or she also needs to involve the speech community.

Dictionary users need training in dealing with multiple entries in a dictionary and the microarchitecture of a dictionary article so that they can easily find the entry where the data they are looking for is presented. They need to know, for example, that they may have to read and check four or five entries before locating the desired meaning (in the case of a monolingual dictionary). Dictionary users need to know how to get the maximum information from any available contextual clues (e.g. grammatical category of the word, semantic field, etc.) before searching for the meaning of a word in the dictionary. The dictionary is an accepted instructional aid in language teaching and learning. Its use is so widespread that its status is often taken for granted as far as pedagogical lexicography is concerned. Its potential as an aid to learning is usually not questioned; both learners and teachers expect the dictionary to solve problems created by unfamiliar lexical items.

When learners open their dictionaries, there appears to be a gap between their expectations and the reality of dictionary use. When teachers tell learners to find words in a dictionary, they assume that the learners know how to use a dictionary and that the dictionary will provide meanings or equivalents. Learners search for words in the dictionary expecting that they will be able to find meanings or equivalents without

too much difficulty and that these meanings will ideally be accompanied by helpful examples of the word as it is used in context.

It is also likely that in preparing the dictionary the lexicographer assumes that potential users will possess the necessary interpretative skills to use the dictionary effectively. In reality, the presuppositions of dictionary writers and the abilities of users often do not overlap. Admittedly, results in research on dictionary use are currently helping lexicographers in their attempts to make dictionaries that will meet their users' needs and expectations more effectively. In pedagogical lexicography, language teachers assist lexicographers by explaining what learners do when they are learning languages. They show among other things that the learners need more instruction on how to make the best use of the resources available to them in dictionaries.

While doing what they can to educate the dictionary users, the dictionary makers must live in the real world to be able to present the words as they are used in everyday communication. In practice, this will mean making information explicit in the text, especially through exemplification, rather than expecting the user to apply general principles set out in the front matter of the dictionary. This does not undermine the importance of the front matter texts, but delineates the genuine purpose of the dictionary, especially learners' dictionaries, to be accessible to their target users. Dictionary users should be made familiar with the practical looking up of data in a dictionary and the applicable reference techniques. They should be acquainted with the different types of dictionaries and led to achieve a critical use of dictionaries. This is not yet the case because dictionary use is not taught at schools due to the lack of well-developed dictionary didactics, which could be regarded as a prerequisite for successful dictionary use.

3.4. Pedagogical Aspects

The dictionary has to take account of the developments in teaching methods that have affected the teaching of the mother tongue and modern foreign languages. These developments have brought about changes in the nature of the data provided in dictionaries and in the means to access it. The long-lost connection between

lexicographical production and the dictionary use in language learning is re-established, and there is a greater awareness among dictionary compilers and language teachers of the fact that the acquisition and practice of certain skills can be tied to various types of dictionaries.

In the case of this study, the emphasis will be on teacher-orientation. Because the target users are schoolchildren who cannot reply to questionnaires about their needs, the teachers' thorough grasp of learners' needs and the required skills determines the language needs and reference skills of the schoolchildren. Therefore, it is indispensable to view. As mentioned by Dubois and Dubois (1971:16), the dictionary can have two roles: it can be a "portrait of the vocabulary of a language", or it can be a "tool for more effective communication". Research has shown that most schoolchildren and many adults are deterred from making full use of the range of data that the majority of dictionaries provide. This topic will also be discussed.

The traditional monolingual dictionary rests on the assumption that the user already has an adequate knowledge and control of his/her language. He/she consults the dictionary to check a point of data, to capture a shade of meaning, to look up the sense of a word, or to find a literary reference. On the other hand, one's readership consists of children whose knowledge and control of the language are not fully established although they may have a sound knowledge of their mother tongue and native culture. It is clear that the kind of model envisaged must have as its starting point data, which is easy to identify, such as grammatical constructions, commonly occurring expressions in current use and complete sentences, before moving onto the complexities of meaning. It must also establish whether the common focus in schools is on written or spoken language.

Many changes that have taken place in the teaching of the mother tongue led to the publication of dictionaries based on a new model. The pedagogical model is affected by developments in language-teaching methodology. The dictionary is transformed to meet the new needs of language teaching.

As we deal with schoolchildren in this research, lexicographers will have to be well aware of the needs of these children. The dictionary has to be user-oriented and designed as a tool for these specific users. Lexicographical definitions should be seen

as knowledge representations and should be in accordance with the knowledge representation systems the children or adult learners have at their disposal. As far as school dictionaries are concerned, one is forced to conclude that the smaller version is intended for pupils. If one looks at the books themselves, however, it turns out that only very seldom has an effort been made to adapt the metalanguage, e.g. the text of definitions, to the knowledge level of the children. Very often, a smaller dictionary is simply a strictly quantitative subset of a larger one.

The lexicographer has to bear in mind that the knowledge of the intended user should not only co-determine the contents and presentations of the required data, but also the way in which the latter is organised. This applies to items included in a dictionary for schoolchildren, which should be presented in an explicit way to suit the children' knowledge. The common impression that dictionaries for schoolchildren contain less data is wrong because they must contain the typical vocabulary the children will need, presented as explicitly as possible, often with more examples than in standard dictionaries. Above all, one has to recognise a school dictionary as a typological category in its own right that is not a reduced version of a bigger dictionary intended for sophisticated users. This is also applies to dictionaries for adult learners. In short, pedagogical considerations need to be harmonised with linguistic factors in the design of dictionaries for both foreign language and native language learners.

3.5. The Users' Expectations

3.5.1. Dictionary contents

Wiegand (1998) refers to users' expectations to identify what users expect from a specific dictionary, i.e. expectations regarding the contents of dictionaries. Looking at how dictionaries are consulted, there are two striking facts. The first is that dictionaries are not often used for the purposes for which they had been designed. The second is that whenever dictionaries are used for whatever purpose, they invariably pose immense difficulty to their users.

Dictionaries are used oddly. Compilers of dictionaries put a huge amount of data into their books, presumably to accommodate the variety of needs they anticipate will bring users to the task of searching through a dictionary. To this end, dictionaries often contain data not only on denotation and connotation, but also on spelling, etymology, pronunciation, lexical relations (usually synonyms and antonyms only), pragmatics, phraseology, idiomaticity, register, geographical distribution, morphology, syntax and even culture, ideology and cosmology. However, curiously, empirical studies of user behaviour show that people predominantly use dictionaries to check spelling and to find synonyms (Greenbaum *et al*. 1984; Cowie 1987). What makes this result even more curious is that the two most frequent purposes of dictionary consultation can be done without using a dictionary. Often people consult dictionaries for meanings that they already know. A frequent motivation for a definition search is to verify an existing intuition about meaning, not to acquire new information. In this way, dictionaries seem much more like monitoring devices, or metabooks, than reference works in the usual sense.

According to Frawley (1994:143), dictionaries are apparently filled with answers to lexical questions; they come with an air of obligatoriness[1] and urgency about them. Unlike the content of other books, the information in dictionaries must be remembered by the user and integrated into other linguistic and world knowledge to have any effect at all. Frawley points out that dictionaries are not read for pleasure, but for practical use, with their contents much like that of a manual. In spite of this need for use and recall, dictionaries pose great access problems to their users. Frawley

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[1] Frawley says that the obligatoriness of dictionaries was pointedly brought home to him in his first encounter with an adult non-reader whom he taught to read. She arrived at her first lesson with a new notebook stocked with fresh paper, a brand new pen and a dictionary. This person had come from a family of non-readers and had not been past the third grade; she had a working visual vocabulary of fewer than fifty words and had absolutely no sense of phonetic/ graphetic correspondences. Yet she had a dictionary with her! When he asked her why she brought a dictionary, she said (somewhat annoyed by the naïveté of his question) that she thought that she might have to look something up at this first lesson. She also knew, of course, that she was unable to look anything up, but the idea of the dictionary loomed so large to her. The dictionary represents an authoritative tool and source of information. Something made the dictionary, as an ideal abstract form, a requirement to this person even though her life had always lacked actual dictionaries.

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shows that users frequently do not understand the boundaries of definitions; they fail to see where one entry ends and another begins, and are unaware of the nesting of senses. Users do not understand the boundaries of the words and read definitions without a sense of the morphological regularities that relate entries formally and are sometimes exploited by compilers for reason of logic. According to Frawley, readers stop at the first definition they see and, in a dictionary where senses are organised by frequency, this is generally the least appropriate meaning. Readers are sometimes unable to differentiate example sentences from the definitions themselves.

It seems that the internal structure of dictionaries does not help much either with regard to difficulty. Lexicographic metalanguage is patently foreign to users, and not just in the definition of technical vocabulary or intrinsically difficult words that seem to require special explanations. The stress for this research has to be on the relation between the users' needs and the structures of the intended dictionary. The link between the function, the contents and the structures that present them should meet the reference skills of the target users.

These remarks lead to the fact that dictionary skills should be taught. It is a lexicographic conviction that more research is necessary on users' interests, habits and preferences, as noticed by Hartmann (1991). It is an important issue which lexicographers are not allowed to neglect, because the design of any dictionary cannot be considered realistic unless it takes into account the likely needs of various users in various situations. The user must know how to find the information needed and must be aware of the metalanguage in the internal structure of the dictionary. The dictionary must be suitable to the user's particular needs.

In metalexicography there is a distinction between user-friendliness and a dictionary culture. Gouws (1997) says that user-friendliness is the metalexicography or the dictionary adapting to the users' needs. Dictionary culture is the speech community adapting to lexicography. Therefore, within the speech community, a culture of dictionary use has to be established by making dictionaries available at an earlier stage in primary school.

The form of a dictionary is largely determined by the types of linguistic activities it is meant to be used for by the users and by the capabilities of the users.

Since the expectations and the requirements of the user can vary greatly, there are many different types of dictionaries. In fact, the debate should no longer focus on simplistic dichotomies like monolingual vs. bilingual, or general vs. technical, but it should be replaced by specific categories based on groups of intended users. For example, it is frustrating how little compilers objectively know about why and how, how often and how unsuccessfully dictionaries are used in the process of acquiring language, whether foreign or mother tongue. Nevertheless, research (Cowie 1981) makes compilers conscious of and focused on the retrieval deficit. In particular it helps to increase the lexicographer's knowledge about the image of a particular dictionary among its users, and makes compilers and publishers more aware of how the information is transmitted from the lexicographer to the user.

There is, in fact, a misfit between users' needs and expectations from the dictionary and assumptions made in the dictionary regarding its users. The lexicographers must carefully explain the meanings and functions of reference symbols or, even better, assign only one meaning and function to any given reference symbol and explain this to the user. It is important that lexicographers always explain clearly what they do when guiding users, otherwise they run the risk of not being understood or, perhaps worse, being misunderstood. This is particularly important as they are not dealing with the user face to face. Though knowledge of what users expect from dictionaries may not automatically provide all the answers to the lexicographic problems involved, it helps in reducing them and responding in an effective way to the users' needs.

3.5.2. The sociolinguistic aspect

The focus here is on the speech community's reception of the dictionary. Gouws (1999:68) emphasises that users must be kept realistic and enthusiastic. The speech community must be informed about the typology of the dictionary and not have unrealistic expectations about a big project like a comprehensive multi-volume monolingual dictionary. They must be convinced of the necessity of starting with smaller projects that will answer to immediate users' needs.

For the speech community, having a dictionary in their language is a matter of pride. It is considered to enhance the language in the context of a multilingual society. The dictionary is not only a linguistic tool, but also a socio-cultural instrument that can reflect the values of that specific speech community. The dictionary covers a diverse semantic field that includes nature, animals, food, clothing, settlements and houses, furniture, society, trade, communication and transport, culture and entertainment, people and nations, activities, feelings, senses, qualities, time, space and movement. The dictionary will be a useful tool for language promotion and diffusion.

The reasons speakers of the language desire literacy in their mother tongue may range from the desire to enhance ethnic prestige, to the desire for various types of practical, religious, or pleasure literature in their own languages, or for vernacular communication via letters, newspapers, etc. In this sense, the dictionary is "the most successful and significant book about language", according to Ilson (1985).

3.6. The Users' Socio-Cultural Background

The dictionary is a product that reflects something of the society. In order to accomplish a well-planned dictionary project, one must consider the cultural and social aspects. The user-perspective cannot be efficiently applied without taking into account the socio-cultural background of the intended users.

The adult mother tongue speakers of the intended Fang dictionaries are located in rural and urban areas. They do not have academic records and professional education. They are often illiterate and therefore involved in a literacy programme, which aims to empower them in the mother tongue as well as in the official language, French. In this case, it is necessary to determine what their needs will be and what type of dictionary will respond to their language needs and reference skills. The dictionary intended for this group should reflect their social values. As Dubois (1981:248) puts it:

Dictionaries reflect the cultural universe of their users at particular moments in time, and can be organised according to the reference needs of

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socio-cultural groups whose parameters the lexicographer has previously identified.

Therefore, the cultural environment has a major role to play when assessing the users' needs. Placing the lexicographical work in their socio-cultural context will enable the compiler to understand what the users expect and what their needs are.

Since in this study's target users are schoolchildren at primary and secondary school and Fang-speaking adults, a closer look at their respective social and cultural environments will be taken. Dictionaries are not only linguistics toys; they are instruments to assist the user to promote his or her communicative abilities. The compiler will have to find the best way to empower the users of this speech community.

Dictionaries are a part of culture, both its product and expression, and in a modest way help with its development. It is an important point that the socio-cultural environment of the speech community should be taken into account when planning a dictionary. It is the dictionary's function to meet the reference needs, but the dictionary cannot decide what these should be, any more than it is its task to prescribe the kind of language to be taught in schools, or the standards to be aimed at in writing.

Language and education have undergone profound changes, and so too has the character of the dictionary. These linguistic and educational changes call for continuous adaptation to the new conditions in which knowledge is diffused and acquired. It is equally necessary that dictionary makers and users should take notice of the substantial changes, which have affected the educational tools at their disposal. It would not occur to anyone to suppose that motor cars are the same today as they were at the beginning of the last century; the technical modifications they have undergone are considerable, while changes affecting their role in everyday life are still greater. The same is true of educational aids, yet it is more difficult for the users than for lexicographers to become fully aware of these developments. In mother tongue education, the dictionary is a satisfactory teaching and learning aid and a useful tool of communication.

3.7. The User Situation and the Usage Situation

Tarp (2000:195) points out two different types of general user situations. In the first situation, the user consults a dictionary to facilitate an existing or future communication. In the second situation, the user consults a dictionary in order to acquire knowledge about a specific subject, or to learn and study an unknown language.

These user situations are named communication-orientated and knowledge-orientated. Lexicographers must determine in which situations the user will use the dictionary and for what purpose. In the intended school dictionary, the user situation has been determined as the acquisition of Fang for schoolchildren, learning both its oral and its written code. The usage situation is the classroom and the everyday living situation of the children. Lexicographers have become convinced that dictionaries have to be designed with a specific user group in mind in response to specific needs. The user situation and usage situation have a great influence on the structures of the dictionary. The user-profile also influences the functions of the dictionary because it will determine the structures. These structure need to be devised according to the function that the dictionary is intended for. The structures are therefore designed to achieve that specific function, so that the function can prevail. The influence of the user-profile on the functions of the dictionary is crucial. Compilers should be aware that the dictionary is made from lexicographic texts and lexicographic structures determined by lexicographic functions composed and determined by the user-profile, the user situation and the usage situation.

The target users, their needs and reference skills identified here indicate that a pedagogical dictionary will be required, specifically a school dictionary, because the prime target users are primary school learners. For these learners, classic monolingual or classic bilingual dictionaries cannot give satisfactory response to their needs and skills. Therefore, this study proposes a hybrid dictionary that combines features of both classical monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. The approach of this study is to model a "bilingualised" dictionary, which will be discussed in Chapter 5 where different typologies are reviewed. This decision is motivated by the fact that learners understand both languages because they are spoken in the family environment. They are in the process of acquiring both languages, Fang and French. In the past, a gap

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occurred in the mastering of both languages because of the status of French as the medium of instruction. Learners in school mastered their command of oral and written French, while only the oral code of Fang had to be acquired in the primary school. The situation was not corrected in later education and the gap between the two languages was reinforced. The government's decision to use local languages in schools is an opportunity to correct the situation for future generations. Thus, a bilingualised dictionary is the ideal tool for this programme because its purpose and functions are determined by the user's profile.

3.8. Concluding Remarks

This chapter dealt with the user-perspective in dictionary planning and design, which could help to solve many problems in the practice of lexicography. One should plan the dictionary according to the needs of its potential users and its genuine purpose. Lexicographers have to be aware of different ways to design dictionaries if they want to respond to the target users' needs. In the case of a learner's dictionary, such as the one investigated in this research, one has to be familiar with the approaches to and methods of the making of such a dictionary, including data collection and data processing. Research in the user orientation of existing dictionaries provides useful information. It helps to determine the limitations and advantages of these dictionaries. Thus, it may enable lexicographers to compile better dictionaries to fulfil the needs of the target users.

Dictionary users need to know how to retrieve the most information from data available in the dictionary. They need to know that they may not find the desired information at first sight. Most importantly, users need to cope with the time-consuming and potentially distracting task of consulting a dictionary and getting back to the context. Therefore, teaching reference skills and educating users about dictionary culture is an important part of the planning and design of a dictionary project. A new dictionary should not be compiled for an unspecified user; every dictionary should have a definite target user.

Pedagogical lexicography has a specific and well-defined goal, and within this field, the different types of pedagogical dictionaries are aimed at their respective

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target users. In compiling a dictionary, not only the needs of the target users but also the ability to retrieve information from the dictionary should be considered. The emphasis on the user, his/her needs and his/her skills must have an influence on both the compilation of new learner's dictionaries and new projects in metalexicographical research.

The user-perspective necessarily plays an important role in the conception of new learner's dictionaries. The conception of future dictionaries will have to adhere to a lexicographical-pragmatic approach orientated to at least three parameters: the user, the situation in which the dictionary will be used, and the nature and extent of the data treated in the dictionary. This approach, which derives from the tradition of focussing only on the transfer of data, gives an idea of the importance of the user in modern day lexicography.

In planning dictionaries for schoolchildren, lexicographers must realise that a school dictionary is a typological category of its own. It does not have to be a smaller version of a standard or any other desk dictionary. It could be small but functional and add value for users. It is important that children be enthusiastic and stimulated when they first experience looking up meanings in the dictionary.

The dictionary should motivate and give the pupil the instruction to do some activities. The position of the target user may never be underestimated when drawing up the dictionary plan. Since dictionaries are compiled to be used, the target user should be placed in a position where he/she can utilise a dictionary for a successful retrieval of linguistic information. The user perspective, which determines the selection, and the presentation and treatment of lexical items compel the lexicographer to include those lexical items in the macrostructure that can contribute to the aims of the typological category to which the specific dictionary belongs.

Chapter 4: LEXICOGRAPHIC PLANNING

4.1. Introduction

The making of a dictionary does not start with the defining of words. It is preceded by a great deal of planning. Gouws (1997:17) rightly argues that the planning of the compilation of a dictionary starts with the planning of the system to be utilised in that specific dictionary. Dictionaries must first be conceived and then written. Planning is the design phase for creating both the text specifications and the way the whole text will be written. Gouws further argues that before the lexicographer puts one word on paper in the compilation process, he/she has to be well aware of the precise structure each article should display so that the system can be applied with meticulous care.

Sound metalexicographic training will enable the potential lexicographer to tackle his/her task. The lexicographer of any new dictionary project has to be familiar with the target user and the linguistic needs and reference skills of that user.

What interests us here is the sequence of work to be done in the case of a language, which does not yet have a fully developed standard form. The decision about what dictionary to plan, depends largely upon the situation of the language itself and upon the state of its lexicographic treatment. Zgusta (1971) lists the steps that lexicographic planning has to follow: The first step is a very small dictionary concerned primarily with orthographic rules and their application in particular cases of single lexical units. The next step is a bilingual dictionary in which the target language is the vernacular and the source language is the one used by the specific society in its contact with modern civilisation. In this study, it will be Fang and French.

The general situation in Gabon, which we have in mind here, suggests that a bilingual dictionary would be more advantageous. Firstly, it brings a greater number of people into contact with the cultural patterns represented by the foreign language in question and thus increases the number of people for whose activities the development of a standard is necessary. Secondly, such a bilingual dictionary helps more effectively to remove the onomasiological gaps. Certainly, a monolingual

dictionary can also try to introduce the necessary terminological neologisms, but it is difficult to find them there, just because they are not generally known. On the contrary, an engineer or a teacher, for example, who knows the technical terms of his/her field of interest very well in French or English and tries to write on such a subject in his/her own language, will easily find the necessary expressions in the bilingual dictionary.

Thus, the bilingual dictionary is a more effective tool for this purpose than the monolingual one. It should also not be forgotten that it is difficult and often impossible to couch the definition of lexical meaning, necessary in a monolingual dictionary, in a language without a fully stabilised standard form or that lacks many expressions. The compilation of a monolingual dictionary for a language like Fang can follow later. Gouws (1997) explains that the dictionary is meant to empower the speech community and that there is no sense in starting with a multi-volume dictionary similar to the *Oxford English Dictionary* for languages without any dictionaries. They first need other dictionaries because a multi-volume dictionary will take many decades if not centuries to complete and, during that time, they will still be without any communicative assistance. Once again, the needs and the situation of a specific speech community must guide the process.

This study is based on the decision to develop a bilingualised school dictionary that will help in mother tongue education. The choice was made to combine the best of both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. The acquisition of both Fang and French at this level of education is essential and affect the rest of these learners' lives. It gives them a well-balanced perspective on both languages and cultures. They have the opportunity to develop into individuals who know their identity as Fang, but who are also exposed to the global world through an international language, French.

It is quite possible that a small series of bilingual dictionaries will be compiled in adjacent areas at the same time. In such a situation, much time and money can be saved if the different lexicographers join forces to work out a list of say English or French entry words that will be used by all of them; or if one lexicographer or lexicographic team works out a list that is then also used in other projects. Such a common list of entries can easily be specified for the needs of the particular target language. This approach will benefit Fang because French has a broad lexicon, which

also covers modern technology. It will make the lexicographic team's task easier and save much time.

The user-orientation is to be defined as a relative characteristic of dictionaries and not of the underlying corpus from which they are derived. One would suppose that a dictionary that is published nowadays has been derived from an underlying corpus. It is not necessary to build up a separate corpus for each type of dictionary. It is preferable to set up a fundamental corpus, which is not restricted to any specific type of dictionary, and to derive from it as many user-oriented corpora as there are types of dictionaries in planning. In the case of this research, the fundamental corpus would be used for different projects within the future lexicographic unit and for future dictionaries in Fang (monolingual, bilingual, etc.).

The planning phase in the lexicographic process can be divided into two distinctive plans. These will be the organisational plan and the dictionary conceptualisation plan. The lexicographic process has to be planned around these.

4.2. The Organisational Plan

The organisational plan takes into account all the planning around the project before anything has been done. It can be seen as the business plan of the lexicographic process. Gouws (2001:65) indicates that the organisational plan is a basic and compulsory component of every lexicographic process. It is primarily directed at the logistics of the project and all the managerial aspects. This planning is essential for the success of any dictionary project, and the logistic and the managerial infrastructure must precede any editorial work.

Lexicography is a costly activity. It is a rather infrequent phenomenon that lexicographic activities are turned into self-supporting undertakings. The usual situation is that funds must be found to finance the project. In any case, when negotiating financial support and when submitting plans, the lexicographer should be very careful in his/her estimate of both the necessary time and money.

The lexicographer's greatest struggle is the struggle against time. Zgusta (1971:348) states: "I certainly do not know all the lexicographic projects past and present; but of those I know not a single one was finished in the time and for the money originally planned." He mentions various reasons for this state of affairs, for instance "the universal fragility of the human nature", problems with teamwork and the misconception that lexicography is a simple and mechanical matter. Concerning the erroneous predictions that are made about the progress of work on dictionaries, Landau (1984:229) says: "Usually the publisher is ignorant as to what's involved in preparing a dictionary, and the lexicographer is quite irresponsibly optimistic." There are various reasons for the tensions between the expectations of the publisher and the output of the lexicographer, but they can all be traced back to inadequate or lack of planning and poor management.

Nowadays, lexicographic projects carried out by a single person result in smaller dictionaries, apart from a few exceptional cases. The usual situation is that there is a staff, of which the most important members are the editors or the sub-editors grouped around one or two chief editors. In Gabon, where there is no proper lexicographic unit but only linguistic ones, the need for lexicographic projects coincide with the need for the planning of a lexicographic unit. For that purpose, this study will refer to the framework for the planning of a lexicographic project suggested by Van Schalkwyk (1999), former editor in chief of the Bureau of the *Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal (WAT)*.

In the data of the strategic planning of the Bureau of the WAT, Van Schalkwyk stresses nine steps for good and efficient planning of a lexicographic project:

1. Mission statement

2. Areas of strategic focus

3. Description of the situation

3.1 Internal environment

3.2 External environment

4. Analysis of the environment

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4.1   Weak points (constraining factors) in the internal environment

4.2   Strong points (supporting factors) in the internal environment

5.   Environmental tendencies

5.1   Threats (constraining factors) in the external environment

5.2   Opportunities (facilitating factors) in the external environment

6.   Scenario

7.   Assumptions regarding the future strategic position (FSP)

8.   Objectives

8.1   Long-term objectives

8.2   Medium term objectives

8.3   Strategic aims

9.   Plan of action

Once it is decided what kind of dictionary it should be and what its scope should be, and especially once the target user of the dictionary and his/her needs are known, a mission statement can be formulated.

The organisational plan of a dictionary project cannot start without first determining one aspect that has been neglected in so many dictionaries, but which forms an integral part of the organisational plan. This aspect is the identification and formulation of the *genuine purpose* of the intended dictionary. Gouws (2001:65) emphasises that it is an exercise of extreme importance to ensure a sound theoretical point of departure for the compilation process.

4.2.1. The genuine purpose

The goal of this research is to model a school dictionary that is aimed to be a practical instrument for use by learners in primary school as they are engaged in the process of learning their mother tongue. In order to be this functional instrument, the intended dictionary has to fulfil the purpose of empowering the learners in their language acquisition endeavour. In metalexicographical terms, Wiegand (1998) refers to this purpose as *genuine purpose.* Gouws (2001:66) emphasises the importance of including a clear and unambiguous exposition of the genuine purpose of the dictionary to be compiled in the organisational plan of a dictionary project.

According to Gouws, the genuine purpose of a dictionary is co-determined by, among others, its typological nature and its intended target user group. This study has identified the target user group as learners in primary school in the process of learning their mother tongue and adult participants in literacy programmes. After an assessment of the user group's needs and reference skills (cf. Chapter 3), the choice of the typological nature of the intended dictionary is a bilingualised dictionary, which has features of both a monolingual dictionary and a bilingual dictionary. Gouws points out that the first dictionaries to be compiled for a specific language purpose are usually either desk or standard bilingual or monolingual dictionaries. These dictionaries belong to the broader category of linguistic dictionaries, as they will be presented in the next chapter. Their genuine purpose is to transfer, by means of lexical data, information regarding the set of lexical items included as treatment units in order to ensure the linguistic empowerment of the target user. The bilingualised school dictionary will be produced so that the learner who uses the dictionary in a context of learning his mother tongue, Fang, will have an instrument to assist him in achieving a successful dictionary consultation procedure by reaching the goals that motivated the search. In this case, the learner finds linguistic information as well as knowledge information that enable him to learn about the cultural aspects of Fang.

This genuine purpose of the intended school dictionary has major implications for the dictionary conceptualisation plan because of its direct impact on the structure and contents of the dictionary articles and the data distribution pattern. This will be illustrated later in this chapter. In agreement with Gouws (2001), the formulation of the genuine purpose of a dictionary can be regarded as a response to the needs of the

intended target users. The needs of the learners here are the motivation behind any decision regarding the typological choice, as well as the structure, contents and presentation of the intended bilingualised school dictionary.

The organisational plan of this project has to make provision for a managerial infrastructure able to cope with the compilation of this school dictionary as it fits the requirements implied and identified by its genuine purpose. The organisational plan of the future bilingualised school dictionary starts with the mission statement.

It introduces the dictionary plan for all the managerial aspects.

4.2.2. Mission statement

Formulating the mission statement of a project or an enterprise comprises identifying its aim and task in such a way that the nature of the work emerges clearly. The aim of this project is to compile dictionaries, within lexicographic units in Gabonese languages in order to serve indigenous languages and the language users.

The line of function of that lexicographic unit will be to compile, as soon as possible, pedagogical dictionaries for mother tongue education in primary schools and for adult literacy programmes. This line function will be supplemented by the following functions:

(i)   To endeavour to bring about appropriate lexicographic products for the different languages of Gabon;

(ii) To promote national languages through mother tongue education;

(iii) To empower national language speakers through literacy campaigns via their mother tongue;

(iv) To raise the general level of lexicography in Gabon by cooperation with external dictionary projects, e.g. the WAT (South Africa)

(v)   To actively address the imbalances by training and generating work; and

(vi) To endeavour to foster quality and a unity of character, and to cater for the needs of the user in all its activities and products.

4.2.3. Areas of strategic focus

Two essential questions need to be answered:

- Are the right things being done?

- Are the right things being done right?

The answers enable the lexicographic team to consider carefully those areas of the project in which it needs to succeed if it is to remain true to its aims. Such an analysis yields the following areas of performance: language material collection, editorial processing, printing and layout of the dictionary, marketing and research. The nature and the extent of the lexicographic project determine whether all these areas will be applicable. However, all the performance areas of the lexicographer are incorporated into the planning of a project.

Further analysis of each of these performance areas is necessary in order to have a precise indication of their content. This study will not discuss all these areas but it gives a view on the language material collection.

Language material collection

Language material collection involves the excerpting of linguistic material from written sources and spoken sources. The selection, sorting, control integration, safekeeping and computerisation of the material are all part of this performance area. A language material collection policy will be needed to ensure that the collection of material proceeds purposefully. This policy must ensure that a corpus is constructed for the project. The construction of a database is a costly and time-consuming task. For this reason, it is necessary to determine in advance what is to be collected and how it should be collected.

The possibility of utilising an existing corpus is an alternative to an own corpus. For instance, in the case of Fang, a French corpus could be used because of the lack of

terminological items for certain fields. However, no dictionary project should be without an authoritative corpus. The lexicographic team would have to construct a corpus from the French one considering all the aspects of spoken Fang. Then that corpus, which will be a comprehensive and extensive one, would serve for any kind of dictionary they intend to compile.

An important thing to bear in mind is that Fang is mainly a spoken language. Therefore, the collection of data will follow the collection criteria for unwritten languages as indicated by Singh (1982:88). He states that for unwritten languages the data are collected according to the field method with the help of informants. The criteria for the selection of informants, their age, sex, cultural and psychological qualities like intelligence, memory, alertness, patience, honesty, dependability, cheerfulness, etc. must be considered.

The field worker should approach and deal with the informant in a way that will elicit as much data as required without either causing annoyance to the informant or antagonism in him/her. This will ensure faithful and proper elicitation of the proper language data. That is why the speech community must be involved and kept enthusiastic about a dictionary in their language. In Gabon, the Fang speech community is commonly known to be very enthusiastic about their language.

The number of informants to be employed depends on the scope and the type of dictionary. If all the regional varieties of the language are to be included, informants should be selected from all the regions. In order to ensure optimum data, it is advisable to select more than one informant for every variety. This would also help in checking and rechecking the data.

In order to elicit lexical units of as many varied types as possible, it would be advisable to select informants from all the following groups:

- men and women

- people of all ages

- people belonging to different economic and social groups.

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Many typical lexical items common among women may not be elicited from male informants and vice versa. Many unwritten languages are fast coming under the influence of some other languages regarding modernisation and technology. As a result, new lexical items are introduced in the stock of the languages.

For instance, in Fang there is no equivalent for the French lexical item *avion* (plane) and there are many other lexical items with which the older generation were familiar. The younger generation has adopted the borrowed lexical item, which leads to a gradual loss of older lexical items in the language.

Only the older generation knows many of the lexical units which presently have a low usage frequency. Therefore, the older informants would be useful for providing lexical units of the type mentioned above. The younger generation informants would be equally useful for providing new words introduced into the language. The representation from different social groups will ensure the inclusion of words from those groups.

For the preparation of a dictionary of an unwritten language, the lexicographic team or the lexicographer should have knowledge of the life and culture of the speech community. For eliciting words in an unwritten language, word lists of especially a modern language like French or English might be utilised (Zgusta 1971). Nevertheless, in making use of a word list there are limitations to be considered.

The list may contain a good number of lexical items that are quite unknown, or even irrelevant, to native language situations. The general response to enquiries about such items is either that the informant gives generic words for specific objects or tries to coin some equivalents. Some of the newly coined lexical items are very artificial. Their artificiality can be tested by getting them checked with others speakers of the language. In some cases, the native speaker confesses total ignorance of a lexical item. There is a total unawareness of the local environment and objects in such lists.

How can a lexicographer ensure maximum elicitation for a dictionary of such a language? Singh (1982:91) suggests that a list of basic words belonging to different semantic domains and grammatical classes may be tentatively prepared for elicitation of data for unwritten languages the semantic domains include for instance:

- Nature, earth, water, sky, natural events, geographical and astronomical items, directions, winds, weather, seasons, etc.

- Mankind, sex, family, relationships, body parts, bodily functions and conditions, diseases and cures

- Clothing and personal adornments

- Food and drink, methods of preparation

- Dwelling, part of the house and furniture, etc.

- Cooking utensils, tools, weapons, etc.

- Flora and fauna (including parts of animal anatomy, diseases, cures, etc.)

- Occupations and professions, equipments, rituals and customs connected with them

- Road and transport

- Sense perception

- Emotions, temperamental, moral and aesthetic (including insults, curses, etc.)

- Government, war, laws

- Religion

- Education

- Games and amusement, entertainment, music, dance, drama

- Metals

- Numerals and systems of enumeration

- Measurement of time, space volume, weight, quantity

- Function words including classifiers

- Fairs, festivals, customs, beliefs, etc.

- Verbs

    a) Physical activity

    b) Instrument verbs

    c) Verbs of fighting

    d) Music verbs

    e) Motion verbs

    f) Occupational verbs

    g) Culinary verbs

    h) Cosmetic verbs

    I) Communicative verbs

    j) Stationary verbs

    k) Cognitive verbs

    l) Sensory verbs

    m) Emotive verbs

    n) Other verbs

This list is not exhaustive. It might be treated as a sort of reference point and related words on the semantic domain might be elicited on the basis of this list. For example, while collecting words about agriculture, words about the different agricultural products, the sowing and harvesting time, rituals and ceremonies connected with them, names of the different parts at different times of growth of these products and the verbs connected with different actions connected with them might be elicited.

The data collected by using word lists might not be adequate, especially from a semantic point of view. According to Samarin (1967:208), "The chief failure of the

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field dictionary is that it indicates not so much the meaning of words, but the fact that they exist. They do not define, they document." The data for a dictionary collected from the word list should be supplemented by the data from different types of discourses, some of which are listed below (Samarin 1967:208).

- Narration: eyewitness account, reminiscences and instructions on how to perform certain tasks or how to get to certain destination;

- Conversation: arguments, dialogues about 'where you have been';

- Songs: lullabies, dirges, dance songs;

- Folk tales: legends, how things come to be, amusing stories, proverbs and riddles;

- Names: personal, topographic, village, pseudo-onomatopoetic calls of animals or birds.

The collection of data from unwritten languages still has many problems. One of the most important problems is the segmentation and identification of a word from the phonetic continuum of the texts. In written languages, which have a tradition of grammar, there are certain devices and fixed criteria to identify a word. According to Singh,

A word in written languages is generally identified as a meaningful unit, a cluster of sounds or letters written between spaces, or with potential pauses. In unwritten languages there is no such device. The lexicographer has to analyse the data, to make a grammatical analysis of the language, and then to fix the word and the lexicographic unit (1982:94).

The collection of material from oral and written sources will serve the building of a corpus. The corpus for the intended dictionary has to take into account the needs of the target group, learners in school. The learners need text reception and text production skills in the language being learned. A more comprehensive representation of data and additional guidance is necessary.

4.2.4. Description of the situation

It is important for proper planning to negotiate the situation in which a project finds itself. The internal and external environment determine this situation.

The internal environment of a project comprises everything that is within the control of the project. All other matters that can influence the activities of the project but fall outside its control are regarded as part of the external environment, for example, the politico-economic circumstances prevailing in the country. A sound grasp of the external environment makes those involved more sensitive to the milieu in which they operate.

In the internal environment of this project, the collection and selection of language material, the editorial processing and layout depend on the lexicographic team. When the planning is thorough, the task becomes much easier and less time consuming. The finance and support services depend on the external environment. Because the Ministry of Education initiated the project, it is the duty of the government to supply the necessary finance and support services required by the project.

The nature and extent of the reference and research work that the lexicographic team undertakes must be considered during the planning phase. A lexicographer's efficiency is compromised in the absence of reference material and library facilities. If these cannot be utilised elsewhere, they will have to be made available. The purchase and maintenance of office equipment, and computers and software requires large capital expenditures, which must be considered thoroughly during this planning phase.

In fact, all supplies needed for a lexicographic project must be calculated and taken into account so that it can be incorporated into the budget.

4.2.5. Analysis of the environment

The well-being of a project or enterprise depends largely on whether those involved are capable of identifying and acting upon the weak as well as the strong points in the

internal environment. The weak points of a project increase its vulnerability in a changing world. If the project is aware of them, all the mechanisms can be put into operation to soften their effect as far as possible or even to eliminate them. The strong points of a project in the internal environment present the project with the opportunity to take proactive steps to ensure success.

The weak point of this project will be the lack of trained people to carry out the fieldwork for the language material collection. It is important to involve linguists and others interested in language matters in the project. Of course, the Fang speech community must be kept enthusiastic about their language and the project. Sound metalexicographical training of the team must be planned and encouraged.

The strong point is that the government supports the project entirely. It will create jobs and promote the local languages. It will introduce the culture of dictionary use among the young and the older generation.

4.2.6. Environment tendencies

Threats or constraining factors in the external environment must be identified, analysed and overcome, because it is in this way that the risks to which a project is exposed are reduced. A sound grasp and utilisation of the opportunities or facilitating factors in the external environment can assist in neutralising the constraining factors.

In this project, the only great threat is a possible change in the politico-economic situation of Gabon because it is a government project and they will supply all financial and material support needed. There is also the threat that decisions to be taken by linguistic and lexicographical experts regarding language issues become bureaucratic or political. An awareness of the endangered situation of local languages will prevent such a turn.

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4.2.7. Scenario

The aim of this scenario is to outline a potential future in which the project must function with possible linguistic changes taken into account. This can give an indication of the challenges awaiting the project, but it also gives an indication of the impact that the decisions currently taken will have in future. A scenario can help the decision makers to evaluate the effect of their decisions critically.

In five years' time perhaps, the language policy would not have changed because French will remain the sole official language. There will however be other changes because the government has recognised the necessity of mother tongue education. Acting on this awareness, it has initiated the training of teachers at university level for mother tongue education. This teaching section will be functional in five years' time. This means that it invests in the preparation of pedagogical books and dictionaries through the Ministry of Education. The training of translators, interpreters and broadcasters will also take place to anticipate the various needs of the Ministry of Communication and parliament. The direct and evident manifestation will be the compilation of language dictionaries alongside other pedagogical material and textbooks. The establishment of lexicographic units is therefore a matter of urgency in the near future. The development of lexicography in Gabon depends on the implementation by the government of these programmes.

4.2.8. Assumptions regarding the future strategic position

Planning is always directed towards the future and, since the future is not known, planning involves working with assumptions. These assumptions are supported by the achievements of the project, by its current situation and level of development, as well as by the vision of those involved.

In the next five years, the project will have trained lexicographers to start working. The collection of language material and computerisation will be advanced. There will be experienced linguists from the university and other language experts from elsewhere.

4.2.9. Objectives

In order to carry out its functions efficiently and effectively, to strive for excellence in living up to its stated mission, and to remain on track and not lose its vision, an enterprise or project must work according to explicitly formulated aims and objectives.

The long-term objective of this project is to provide Gabonese languages with dictionaries to revitalise languages that are now endangered.

The medium-term objective will be to build a corpus of the main languages that will serve for future dictionaries. The strategic aim is to start the establishment of a lexicographic unit.

4.2.10. Plan of action

Planning is seen as a team effort and is of no value if it cannot be brought to fruition. The entire project is involved and everyone accepts responsibility for carrying out the planning.

Efficient planning and management of goals keep the time and money expenditures of a lexicographic project within bounds. An estimation of the time and capital needed for a lexicographic project demands extensive preparation. The planning of a lexicographic project is practically impossible without extensive lexicographic experience.

When lexicographic planning is carried out, the most important things to bear in mind are the specific lexicographic needs of the given language and its dictionary users. These needs will lead the decision makers to adapt the necessary organisational approach. In the planning of any kind of dictionary, the emphasis should always be on the needs of the intended users.

During the planning of a dictionary of a not yet stabilised language, the lexicographer must make up his/her mind about which policy to follow. It is during

this phase that the lexicographer has to negotiate some important issues, e.g. the functions, structure and contents of the dictionary. He/she decides which variety of the language will be used in the dictionary. While doing so, the users' needs should guide his/her choices on the lexical items to be included or not. Considering this case, the first target group of users will be schoolchildren, which implies a need for the core vocabulary. The context of communication and the vocabulary in daily use will be adequate for learners.

4.3. Lexicographic Needs Assessment

The first step that the language board or lexicographic team has to take is to recognise that there is a need for dictionaries. In Gabon, this need has become more intense as the programme for mother tongue education is in preparation because there is a lack of dictionaries and other pedagogical materials for all the heritage languages. However, compilation should not be done at random. Planning and responding to the needs of the different speech communities are extremely important.

The focus of this research is on learner's dictionaries as pedagogical instruments and it has to include a lexicographic needs assessment. Alberts (1997:9) identifies two kinds of needs assessment studies applicable to national lexicographic units. The first can be called the internal assessment and the second the external assessment. In Gabon, the GRELACO will do both these assessments by means of questionnaires. The purpose of such a questionnaire is to determine the needs of the users.

During the external needs assessment exercise, the lexicographic team or language organisation already has a specific dictionary project in mind; in our case, learners' dictionaries for schoolchildren and adults within mother tongue education. The project's lexicographic team of lexicographers, educators, linguists and volunteers from the speech community then needs to collect specific information on the structure of the proposed dictionary project. This information will include information about the data distribution structure, the macrostructure, the presentation of the lemmata, the articles, typology, scope, source language, target language, target group, the level of literacy of the target group, the microstructural data like parts of speech, plural form, diminutive form, past tense, degree of comparison, inflected

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form, selected contextual examples and collocations. The collection of data is conducted for every aspect of the dictionary. Each data type and every aspect of the prospective dictionary will be assessed. This list is not exhaustive, but it will be dealt with later in this chapter.

Once a national lexicographic unit in Gabon is established, it will have to conduct at least an internal and external needs assessment before the work of the dictionary project proper can commence. The internal needs assessment survey will help the unit to determine the general needs of the speech community and the external needs assessment will determine the specific needs regarding the envisaged dictionary project itself. According to Kaufmann (quoted in Alberts 1997), "needs assessment is the tool for determining valid and useful problems which are philosophically as well as practically sound. It is a tool for problem identification and justification."

One of the functions of the needs assessment is to serve as a basis for effective planning and change. The essence of the needs assessment is to determine the gaps between the present situation and the required or preferred situation.

There are some basic aspects to take into account when conducting a needs assessment. The first of these aspects is the theory. Both the planning team and research team should be fully versed in the theory of lexicography. They will have to conduct the survey from a sound theoretical foundation and they will have to work in close collaboration with various people to conduct the survey. The conceptualisation also has an important impact.

The research team should analyse the different variables, which can give rise to needs in the lexicographical practice. The choice of a specific research technique should however be motivated since measuring instruments can consist of qualitative or quantitative techniques which may influence the data. Interviewing is a qualitative research technique, while a structured questionnaire is an example of a quantitative measuring technique. The target group for the investigation should be determined.

4.4. The Dictionary Conceptualisation Plan

The dictionary conceptualisation plan takes into account all the decisions made about the compilation process. It can be considered as the practical side of the lexicographic process. According to Wiegand (1998:151), the dictionary conceptualisation plan can be divided into five subdivisions: the general preparation phase, the material acquisition phase, the material preparation phase, the material processing phase and the publishing phase.

Gouws (2001:65) points out that the organisational plan can be regarded as a model for the primary lexicographic process for that dictionary. It concerns all the managerial aspects dealt with in the previous section of this chapter. He suggests that the dictionary conceptualisation plan represents a model for the secondary lexicographic process of a specific dictionary. The genuine purpose of the future bilingualised school dictionary is to enable the learners to achieve successful retrieval of information in the dictionary consultation procedure. It aims to give them a practical instrument to help in the acquisition of their mother tongue Fang via French as the source language. The needs and the reference skills of the target user group have determined the genuine purpose of the dictionary, which is therefore the basis for the dictionary conceptualisation plan. The conceptualisation plan for the bilingualised French-Fang school dictionary is presented according to the following aspects identified by Wiegand presented above.

4.4.1. The general preparation phase

The general preparation phase of the dictionary conceptualisation plan lays the foundation for the structure, contents and presentation of the final product. Gouws (2001:68) identifies three issues to tackle in the general preparation phase. The compilation of a lexicographic instruction book or a lexicographic style guide is the first assignment of the team members. The second assignment to achieve is the microstructural programme of the dictionary. A third issue to be dealt with in the general preparation phase is the identification, establishment, nature, extent and description of a dictionary basis.

The instruction book or style guide

The style guide includes instructions for the making of the intended dictionary. According to Bergenholtz (1990), the lexicographic style guide should contain a comprehensive description of the system applied in the dictionary. The editorial process will be much more efficient with the setting up of a style guide, which is a set of generalisations with accompanying illustrations from the envisaged dictionary. It is a set of instructions showing the order of components, typological presentation and input instructions for the database. The style guide is needed to ensure confidence and consistency on the part of the lexicographer, i.e. to ensure a uniform character and prevent deviation form the rules. It is a learnable system for new lexicographers and contains detailed guidelines on how to treat each type of data category, how to treat difficult or prominent semantic and grammatical phenomena (homophony, polysemy, etc.) and other important data, for instance:

- Spelling conventions

- Data on pronunciation

- Parts of speech

- Cross-references

- List of labels

- List of editorial abbreviations

- Definition or translation equivalent

- Example material

- Homonymy, polysemy and synonymy

- Treatment of sensitive lexical items

- Treatment of cultural data

General editorial principles have to be established. A rough style guide of data categories abstracted from samples of dictionary articles should be used for consistency by compiling a computerised system. It is important to refine sample entries and the style guide to reflect changes during the compilation of the dictionary. A frequent update of the style guide is required. The computerised system design helps to root out inconsistencies in the style guide, especially in the treatment of senses and subsenses. It makes it easier to apply the style guide consistently, especially with regard to the ordering of data and the formatting of dictionary articles.

Bergenholtz (1990) includes more of the typical issues to be dealt with in an instruction book, for example the lemmatisation process (with reference to, for instance, the influence of an initial capital letter, diacritics, the order of the word and stem forms), the use of typographical and non-typographical markers in the articles, the marking of different senses of a lemma, the use of abbreviations in the metalanguage of the dictionary, and the positioning and marking of new search zones in the article.

A style guide has to be developed which covers all aspects of lexicography relevant to the dictionary to be compiled. It should preferably be an alphabetically arranged reference guide for making the manuscript, starting, for instance, with the abbreviations an editor may use and ending with the treatment of verbs. It should discuss the different kinds of definitions and when to use them, synonymy and semantic opposition, polysemy and homonymy, the ordering of senses, and the treatment of gender and derogatory items. The style guide covers in detail all the types of data that need to be presented in the envisaged dictionary. It has to be indicated in a consistent pattern so that it facilitates the work of the compilers. It should give clear guidance on labelling and the presentation of information. Typography and punctuation should be discussed in detail, for instance that all lemmas should be in bold print and grammatical data like parts of speech and plurals should be in italics.

The development of a style guide is essential as it serves as a training manual for new editors with little or no lexicographic training; it ensures that every editor makes the manuscript in the same way and that the dictionary eventually has a uniform character. It also prevents gradual deviation from the treatment of raw material originally decided on.

The microstructural programme

According to Gouws (2001:68), the microstructural programme is another important issue in the general preparation phase that needs to receive attention. He states that at a very early stage of the lexicographic process, the team members should know the microstructural programme thoroughly. The microstructural programme involves the different data categories to be included in the treatment of the lemmata and the typical article slots allocated to these categories. It assists the team members to determine the quantitative extent of the dictionary. It enables team members to ensure a functional space budget because a dictionary always has space limitations and an early indication of the microstructural programme provides good space management. Gouws points out that a further value of the early identification of the microstructural programme is that it assists the lexicographers during the early phases of the compilation process to focus on those data categories that will be included in the dictionary.

In response to the genuine purpose and the functions determined by the needs of the users, the French-Fang bilingualised school dictionary will present an integrated microstructure. Gouws (2001:87) defines an integrated microstructure as one presenting a relation of direct addressing between a paraphrase of meaning/translation equivalent and its co-text entry/entries. It means that each paraphrase of meaning/translation equivalent is immediately followed, within the same subcomment on semantics, by the co-text entry illustrating the typical usage of the lexical item in question.

An integrated microstructure ideally suits this bilingualised dictionary because it makes the appropriate interpretation of the contents of the subcomment on semantics for the user very easy. Especially in the treatment of a lexical item with many polysemous senses, the direct relation between co-text entry and paraphrase of meaning/translation equivalent ensures an optimal retrieval of information. It decreases text condensation because no other paraphrases of meaning/translation equivalents come between a given paraphrase of meaning/translation equivalent and its co-text entry. This will be presented in the bilingualised school dictionary as follows:

Abum [àbùm] noun. Plural ***mebum*** (Var: ***amum, memum***)

1. Ventre, abdomen. *Makon abum, ma wok abum,* j'ai mal au ventre.

2. Mère. *Bine abum avor,* nous sommes issus de la même mere.

3. Grossesse. *E minga nyi ane abum,* Cette femme est enceinte.

This article gives an example of the treatment of a lemma in the integrated microstructure of the bilingualised school dictionary. The lemma **abum** (stomach) has different polysemous senses: **1** (stomach) the translation equivalents in French are given followed by the example sentences in Fang then in French to illustrate the usage of lemma in this specific sense. It is the same for the last two senses. There is a direct relationship between the translation equivalents and the co-text entry.

In the above-mentioned article, the data categories that are included in the microstructure are the following:

Comment on form: An indication of the pronunciation is given for each lemma so that the learners will be helped with the **pronunciation** of each lemma. Pronunciation is given in phonetic transcription and the tones for Fang lemmata will be indicated to give learners a solid basis for pronunciation. One of the main functions of the bilingualised school dictionary is to enable learners to read and write in their mother tongue Fang. The **class of the lemma**, **part of speech**, is indicated for the learners and they will know whether the lemma is a noun, a verb, an adverb, a pronoun, etc. The **morphological data** on the lemma, whether it is the **plural or diminutive forms**, is also indicated when necessary to give learners a thorough perspective of the lemma treated. Fang is a language with different variants

and the treatment makes provision for an **indication of the variants** when they occur.

Comment on semantics: A translation equivalent and a definition are given followed by the example sentences in the language pair French and Fang. Idioms will be presented and treated as sublemmata treatment, but very few clusters will appear in the microstructure. Only those that are part of the learners' core language and have a high frequency of usage as indicated by the corpus will be given treatment as lemma. Collocations will not be treated as units, but each component, the base and the collocator of the combination, will be treated under its alphabet stretch. The collocations will be treated in the FFBSD as illustrative examples in both the articles representing the base and the collocutor.

The dictionary basis

According to Wiegand (1998:139), a dictionary basis can be described as the total of the source language material for the specific lexicographic process. This includes all the possible sources, which accommodate such material, as well as informants and mother tongue speakers of the language who can assist the editorial staff in the building up of a material collection.

The dictionary basis of the planned school dictionary will be compiled from three types of sources. Wiegand (1998:139) shows that the dictionary basis of a general monolingual or bilingual dictionary can be compiled from three sources. The primary sources of the dictionary basis will be all the written material reflecting typical communication situations. The secondary sources are all the available dictionaries in the specific language. The tertiary sources involve all other linguistic material that can be used, for example linguistic monographs, papers and grammars.

The dictionary basis of the school dictionary will be compiled for French and Fang. As far as French is concerned, all three sources are available and abundant. The primary sources, written material that reflects typical communication in French, will be available since it is the language of wider communication and of instruction in

Gabon. These include schoolbooks, story books, textbooks and all other material used in the curriculum at this level. The secondary sources, available dictionaries in French, are abundant and will be easy to collect, but the collection of material must be guided by the purpose and functions of the envisaged bilingualised school dictionary. The tertiary sources are other linguistic material, particularly grammars, available in French for the primary education level. It is important to emphasise that cooperation within the team that includes teachers and educational experts at the primary level is crucial.

Compiling the dictionary basis for Fang is not as unproblematic as it is for French. Fang is a language with a limited amount of written sources. The primary sources will be oral sources. Gouws (2001:68) indicates that, although the primary sources will usually be texts, the dictionary basis of a dictionary compiled for a language with a strong oral tradition can also use recordings of the orature as primary sources. A corpus compiled only from written sources will not be fully representative of the Fang lexical stock. The dictionary basis for Fang is to be primarily oral sources and written sources from the material available in Fang.

4.4.2. Editorial processing

Editorial processing is one of the line functions of all dictionary projects, and includes the systematisation of linguistic material and the production of manuscripts and dictionary texts. The question as to what material should be included and what should be excluded is fundamental to the lexicographic team. This question will be answered in the light of the kind of dictionary that is compiled as well as its scope. The inclusion policy of a lexicographic project is formulated in reply to this question. An inclusion policy needs to cater for the macro- as well as microstructure of the dictionary. It must be determined which elements become lemmas and what lexicographic data should be supplied for each of these elements.

Gouws (1997:18) points out the importance of efficient well-planned editorial processing:

The macrostructure represents the lexicon and this selection may not be on a random basis. It is important that the compilation of any dictionary be dominated by well-defined principles regarding the collection and selection of lexical items. The lemmata have to be drawn from a representative corpus of that specific language and a vital part of the planning of any dictionary is the development of a corpus. The successful retrieval of information in a dictionary often depends on an unimpeded access to the needed lemma sign.

Depending on the size of the editorial staff, one or more editors should revise the work of the others. Amongst other things, he/she must see to it that the editorial manual is followed correctly to ensure that the dictionary has a uniform character. He/she has to look at the data and decide whether it has been interpreted correctly. Firstly, he/she must judge whether the inclusion of the lemma complies with the policy. He/she must check the pronunciation indicated, the grammatical information supplied, and so forth. He/she must ascertain whether the information in the definition is correct, and whether it has been formulated clearly and unambiguously. He/she has to check that a disproportionate number of quotations are not used. He/she also has to check all the cross-references to ensure that the dictionary is a reliable and closely-knit unit.

Fortunately, editing is not only about checking up and correcting mistakes. It is also of invaluable help to younger colleagues who learn a tremendous amount from the changes suggested. In the beginning, the changes should always be discussed with the younger colleagues because this promotes the learning process.

4.4.3. A dictionary-making system and customisation of computer software (editing tools)

The construction of a database for Fang will require recordings of written and mostly spoken language of all varieties. The corpus will be the point of departure from which the lexicographic team will abstract items to include and exclude for the pedagogical dictionaries that are needed for the current project. However, it is vital for the project

to have an authoritative database of Fang, which would also be utilised for dictionary projects.

Lexicographers' knowledge of dictionary-making systems could ensure that they gain as much as possible from systems developed for them. In order to make their contributions count in the design of dictionary-making systems, according to Hartevelt and Louw (2004), they should consider the following:

1   Speed: The system should speed up the dictionary-making system process as much as possible.

2   User-friendliness: The editor must find the use of the system and the editing of dictionary entries on the system simple and sufficient.

3   Flexibility/adaptability: It should be easy to modify the system to suit individual or changing needs.

4   Language support: All characters required by the lexicographer should be available.

5   Access to language data: Language data resources should be easily, if not simultaneously, accessible on the workstation used for editing.

6   Interface: Queries of manuscript data as well as other language resources should be possible by means of a simple interface.

7   Group work/Networking/Internet: It should be possible to be able to communicate, to exchange and to share material quickly and over long distances.

8   Compatibility with other/external data: The system should use file and data formats, which make exchange, sharing, and incorporation with other data simple and accurate.

9   Multiple output formats (electronic, printed): The system must allow for the output of data in both hard copy (printed) and electronic format (CD-ROM, online, Internet).

10   Cost: The system should be economical to run and maintain.

Hartevelt and Louw (2004) advise that the steps indicated above should be a prerequisite for any adaptation and use of software in the editorial process. It is important to consider these because the cost and time of customisation will depend on the type and complexity of the dictionary being compiled. The program that will be provided initially may be a generic platform and will need to be customised for each specific dictionary. New dictionaries may need to be created at a later stage and further customisation will then be required. The contract clause with the creators of the software must not only make provision for continued support of the software, but also for further customisation at minimal or no cost to the compilers. There must be training and support for the chosen tools, as well as a fixed period of familiarisation with the tools.

Computers have affected dictionaries in two major areas: production and research. On the production side, dictionaries can now be stored in databases, so that a change can be made very quickly and changes that affect the entire dictionary can be done in one step. New editions of dictionaries can be produced without having to re-typeset the entire work. Computers have already become important as a method for publishing dictionaries in electronic format instead of paper, and this will likely be increasingly important in the future.

For research, lexicographers can have instant access to corpora of the language and can thus look for example sentences of rare words, compare grammatical information, gather example sentences, and in general rely on real life examples of the language instead of having to fall back on personal impressions. They can also communicate rapidly with consultants across the world by using e-mail. It has become difficult for any lexicographic project to avoid the use of computers and all the tools that come along with it.

4.5. Concluding Remarks

Dictionary making is a long, complex and time-consuming activity. As the work involved is vast, it is necessary that detailed planning be done before it begins. The

compilation of every dictionary has to be preceded by the formulation of a lexicographic plan adhering to the aims of the typological criteria of that specific dictionary, and aimed at the specific needs and reference skills of a well-defined target user. This plan must not be done in a haphazard way, but has to be rooted in a general theory of lexicography.

According to Wiegand (1984:14-15), one of the components of a general theory of lexicography is the theory of organisation. This includes all the activities leading to the drawing up of a plan that has to precede the compilation of every dictionary. There are some crucial issues to be considered for the lexicographic planning. For example, the planning cannot start without a decision about the type of dictionary because the macrostructure and the microstructure of a monolingual dictionary and a bilingual dictionary are different, and even more so in the case of a school dictionary. The lexicographer should decide about the language of the dictionary, and the social and stylistic variations of the language. In this regard, all the structural components of a dictionary, including the macrostructure, microstructure, mediostructure and access structure come into play.

These decisions should be made before starting the actual work on the dictionary and should be strictly adhered to. All decisions must be printed and recorded to ensure continuity when new staff join the project. Instructions must be complete and detailed. A blueprint for the project, which may contain descriptions and instructions for the collection of material with sources mentioned, the compilation of the word list, and the articles of the intended dictionary, is advisable.

Besides these details, the project should reflect the scope of the dictionary, its purpose and the target user group. The preparation of such a blueprint will not only help as a guidebook for the compilers in which the data distribution is explained, but can also be used to prepare the front and the back matter texts.

Chapter 5: DICTIONARY TYPOLOGY AND DICTIONARY ADEQUACY

5.0. Introduction

In this research, dictionary adequacy refers to the coordination between the target users' needs and the type of dictionary. The intended dictionary will be compiled to satisfy the users' needs and respond appropriately to their reference skills. The planning should show consistency with regard to the content and the structures, both being determined by the functions of the dictionary. In this perspective, dictionary adequacy reveals the relations between the content, the structures and the functions of a dictionary, but most importantly also relations between the users, the functions and the structures. The identification of the target user group determines the functions of the dictionary, and the functions determine the structures and contents of the intended dictionary. A set of dependency relationships and links exists that determines the typology of the dictionary.

The principle concern of this research is to design a dictionary that will help the target user group, identified as the learners/primary school pupils. The function of this dictionary is to help the target users in their acquisition of their mother tongue, Fang, through the official language of instruction, French. The question that directs the endeavour is what type of dictionary will best respond to the needs of the learners/users and what are the functions of the dictionary determined by the profile of the learners? Therefore, this chapter firstly presents a review of types of dictionaries and different typologies and, secondly, as part of dictionary adequacy, a presentation of Wiegand's theory of lexicographic texts, which leads to the justification of the typology of the envisaged dictionary.

5.1. Different Types of Dictionaries

Just as there are genres of novels, so there are genres of dictionaries. Dictionaries differ from one another in several ways, including their aims (e. g. a learner's dictionary, school dictionary), their scope (how comprehensive it is) and the subject(s) (limited, general, etc.) they cover. These differences coincide with the typology

variation within the broader category of dictionaries. In a dictionary, a lexicographer presents a part of the lexicon of a language. The material is selected in terms of linguistic and typological principles. Dictionaries consequently differ from one another in their presentation of data from the lexicon. Because a great variety of dictionaries has already been produced, a number of metalexicographical criteria have been formulated in the course of time to classify dictionaries typologically.

In drawing up a typology, the approach should focus on the users of the dictionary and their specific needs. Dictionary typology should therefore be defined in terms of the user profile (Hartmann 1989a; Gouws 1999b). It is impossible for any dictionary to satisfy the needs of everyone, wide-ranging and diverse as these needs are. The form of a dictionary is largely determined by the types of activities it is intended to be used for, by the relevant needs of the users and by their capabilities. Since the expectations and the requirements of the user can vary greatly, many different types of dictionaries exist.

5.2. Functions and Genuine Purpose of a Dictionary

Lexicographers should first know the characteristics and the profile of the user group, and then they can proceed to a characterisation of their needs. They should have a good knowledge of the users' competence in the language or languages. Users' needs are not abstract but are related to concrete situations. Tarp (2002) indicates that when the lexicographers know the user group and their specific characteristics, the user situations and the specific user needs related to these situations, they are able to proceed to the determination of the lexicographic functions. He argues that a lexicographic function of a given dictionary has to assist a specific user group with specific characteristics in order to cover the complexity of needs that arise in a specific user situation. Therefore, a concrete dictionary can have one or more than one function. It can be mono- or multi-functional. He adds that dictionaries, like any other utility product, have a genuine purpose, which is the totality of functions of a given dictionary and the subject field(s) that it covers.

Functions are the basic elements of lexicographic theory and practice, and constitute the leading principle of all dictionaries. Bergenholtz and Tarp (2002:67;

2003) argue that 'function' and 'genuine purpose' are frequently confused. They regard the term 'function' (in Wiegand 2001, quoted by Bergenholtz & Tarp 2003) as the overall concept, whereas 'genuine purpose' is a subordinate concept. It is evident that everything in a dictionary is to a greater or lesser extent influenced by its respective functions. According to Wiegand (1999:299), the 'genuine purpose' has to be identified prior to the compilation phase and must make provision for the satisfaction of the users' needs. It should consider the users and their characteristics, situations and needs. This research agrees with both Wiegand's and Tarp and Bergenholtz's theories regarding the importance of users' needs in determining the structures of the dictionary. The functions are a component of the general theory of lexicography. The functional approach gives this research the ability to know the user profile, the user situation and the usage situation for the intended dictionary. What the user will do with the dictionary at the end of the lexicographic process raises the concern about the functions of the dictionary. The dictionary structures and the lexicographic functions are closely related and dependent on one another.

Gouws (1999) rightly suggests that decisions regarding the typology of dictionaries to be compiled should not be based on emotional or ideological criteria, but should reflect the results of a proper needs analysis of the intended target users.

In the case of Gabon, few dictionaries exist and the lexicographical tradition has been established by the work of earlier missionaries (Nyangone Assam & Mavoungou 2000). The target users and their needs have been identified for this study so that the lexicographical endeavours now will be taken to a higher level.

This study has analysed the need for dictionaries that will be tools for mother tongue education. In this specific situation, dictionaries have to be compiled not as theoretical instruments but as practical tools. It does not mean that the theoretical aspect must be ignored, but it should be used in order to make dictionaries practical tools that respond to users' needs. According to Al-Kasimi (1977), "each culture fosters the development of dictionaries appropriate to its characteristic demands."

This study promotes the production of pedagogical dictionaries as helpful instruments for a mother tongue education programme. As mentioned earlier, the variety of the users' needs had resulted in many different dictionary typologies. Yet it

is not easy to ascertain the nature of user's needs and this is why dictionary classification is often undertaken in terms of different norms and requirements. In placing dictionaries typologically, there can often be an overlapping of the categories used for classification.

5.3. Many Typologies

Several typologies have been identified for the range of dictionaries. This study will present some of them.

Scherba (1940, cited in Al-Kasimi 1977) proposed a classification based on the structural characteristics of possible dictionary types. He used a series of six contrasts between these types:

(1)   A normative dictionary, which dictates norms vs. a reference dictionary which adopts a descriptive approach.

(2)   An encyclopaedia vs. a dictionary; the contrast here is based on the function of proper names in a language, which should not be excluded from the dictionary because they are part of the language.

(3)   An ordinary dictionary (such as a defining dictionary or translating dictionary) vs. a general concordance in which all the words are listed along with all the quotations that can be found in texts, as is the case in a concordance of a dead language.

(4)   A dictionary (such as a defining dictionary or a translating dictionary) vs. an 'ideological' dictionary, which groups ideas or subjects (such as *Roget's Thesaurus*).

(5)   A defining dictionary (e.g. monolingual dictionary) vs. a translating dictionary (such as bilingual or multilingual dictionary).

(6) An historical dictionary vs. a non-historical dictionary. For Scherba, the purpose of an historical dictionary is "to give all the meanings of all the words that belong, and have belonged, to a given national language during

all of its existence". He points out that "an historical dictionary would be an historical one in the true sense of the word if it gave the history of all words during a given period … which would show not only the birth of new words and new meanings, but also their gradual disappearance and their change."

The results from this attempt show a great overlapping between the various types.

Malkiel (1962) proposes a typology based on three main features: (i) range, (ii) perspective and (iii) presentation.

(i)   **Classification by range**

With regard to range, dictionaries are divided by:

(a) the density of articles, which may be measured by the breadth of coverage (how much of the total lexicon of the language is covered) and by the depth of coverage (how many senses are listed under each lemma; are contextual connotations and idioms covered);

(b) the number of languages involved, according to which there are mono, bi-, tri-, quadri- and pluri- or multilingual dictionaries; and

(c) the extent of concentration on lexical data. Malkiel distinguishes encyclopaedic data by the inclusion of proper names and by a prodigality of comments, which are more than a sober definition needs.

Range distinguishes between dictionaries according to the number of lemmas, the number of languages used and the percentage of exclusively linguistic information.

(ii)   **Classification by perspective**

Dictionaries can be classified according to (a) the fundamental dimension: the dictionary is either synchronic or diachronic; (b) three contrasting patterns of arrangements: alphabetic, semantic or casual (non-systematic); and (c) three contrasting levels of tone: the tone of the dictionary may be detached (reporting facts objectively), prescriptive (normative and didactic) or facetious.

Perspective differentiates historical dictionaries and synchronic dictionaries. Historical dictionaries describe the evolution of the language over a certain period of time: they contain obsolete words and archaic words, as well as information on the history of every lemma. Synchronic dictionaries only describe the language as it is used at a given period, usually the present. Malkiel also distinguishes between prescriptive and descriptive dictionaries. For him a dictionary can be detached, prescriptive, or facetious, though facetiousness is hardly compatible with modern lexicography.

(iii)   **Classification by presentation**

Here dictionaries are classified in the light of their (a) definitions, (b) exemplifications, (c) graphic illustrations (including maps), and (d) special features (localisation in territorial terms on the social scale).

Presentation, in Malkiel's typology, is a measure of the precision of the definitions, the nature of the examples, the presence of the pictures and certain pieces of information, such as phonetic transcription and usage labels.

Many other authors have presented a dictionary typology. Some have based them on the type of linguistic approach used by the lexicographer. Bejoint (2000:35) cites Guilbert (1969)[4], who distinguishes five types of dictionaries: the encyclopaedia, the scientific and technical dictionary, the 'linguistic' and encyclopaedic dictionary, the D*ictionnaires de langue* (no equivalent in English) and the linguistic-type dictionary.

Besides this typology, Quemada (1968) also made a typology mainly based on specialised language dictionaries, such as dictionary of proverbs, dictionary of roots, dictionary of verbs, dictionary of synonyms, pronunciation and the like.

Rey (1967) proposes his 'genetic' typology, based on the more or less chronological choices that lexicographers have to make when designing and compiling a dictionary (cf. Bejoint 2000).

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[4] Guilbert, (1969), Dictionnaires et Linguistique: Essai d'une Typologie des Dictionnaires Monolingues Francais Contemporains, in *Langue Francaise*, 2: 4-29. This classification applies only to French monolingual dictionaries, which makes it difficult to apply to other language dictionaries (English).

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In the same way, Al-Kasimi (1977) proposes his typology of bilingual dictionaries. He states that the new typology is an aid to lexicographers in order to help them understand linguistic theoretical solutions. It is also meant to guide the user in choosing and selecting the dictionary that satisfies his/her needs. Al-Kasimi presents in his typology of bilingual dictionaries three criteria: source, scope and purpose.

His scope is linguists' views on lexicography and their criticisms of the existing dictionaries. Then the discussion is limited to bilingual dictionaries and finally the purpose is "to assist the lexicographer in digesting linguistic theories to produce better bilingual dictionaries". This classification is based on seven contrasts:

(1) Dictionaries for the speakers of the source language vs. dictionaries for the speakers of the target language.

(2) Dictionaries of the literary language vs. dictionaries of the spoken language.

(3) Dictionaries for production vs. dictionaries for comprehension.

(4) Dictionaries for human users vs. dictionaries for machine translation.

(5) Historical dictionaries vs. descriptive dictionaries.

(6) Lexical dictionaries vs. encyclopaedic dictionaries.

(7) General dictionaries vs. special dictionaries.

Many researchers over the years have attempted to classify dictionaries in a clear typology and have reached mainly the same conclusion; the task is difficult if not impossible because the concept is too imprecise. Most of all, the structural characteristics that compose dictionaries overlap from one type to another.

5.4. Wiegand's Typology

The constituent D of Wiegand's general theory[5] of lexicography called 'a theory of lexicographical description' has two components. The first is the 'dictionary typology' and the second, a 'text theory for lexicographical texts'. As mentioned in Smit (1996), Wiegand distinguishes between two different typological criteria. The first criterion is based on the *purposes* of each type of dictionary, and the second criterion will depend on the *language(s)* used in the dictionaries.

Wiegand (1983b:60) states that one should determine the main purposes of dictionaries of a specific type by defining priorities according to the *list of user questions* that such dictionaries should answer. Therefore, specific groups of questions may receive greater priority. In Wiegand's view, as quoted by Smit (1996), a dictionary type develops systematically as follows: A selection of expressions or lemmas is placed according to a specific arrangement, for example an alphabetical one. All parts of dictionary articles, such as the meaning explanations, the items indicating pronunciation, the items indicating usage, items indicating word class, etymology, spelling, verb, etc., can be regarded as *answers to specific user questions.*

Therefore, the type of situations of dictionary use in which the dictionary would answer the questions posed by the target users in the situation of dictionary use determines the dictionary type. Wiegand thus makes provision for a dictionary typology that is aimed at the bridging of one or more types of dictionaries. This results in the compilation of a typological hybrid based on the needs of the identified users.

5.5. Zgusta and Gouws' Typology

It is difficult to present a method of classification that is entirely satisfactory, but for the sake of conciseness, the well thought through classification of Zgusta (1971) will be adopted with modification from Gouws (1989; 1996; 1999). Yet it must be kept in mind that no classification can make watertight distinctions between categories.

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[5] Wiegand's general theory of lexicography referred to here is his 1983 theory, published in 1984.

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Criteria are different from one lexicographer to another, but broad categories have more or less been agreed on.

Zgusta uses a method of classification according to which dictionaries are divided into categories. The first division provides for the distinction between encyclopaedic and linguistic dictionaries. Many categories and sub-categories within linguistic dictionaries are relevant to the present chapter.

5.5.1. Encyclopaedic dictionaries

The encyclopaedic dictionaries, also called merely simply encyclopaedias, are primarily concerned with the denotation of the lexical items. An encyclopaedic dictionary is orientated towards the extralinguistic and thus often concentrates more on matters to which the lexical items refer rather than on distinctions in meanings between items. Such a dictionary contains elements of a dictionary and an encyclopaedia. They give information about the extralinguistic world, physical or non-physical, and they are arranged in the order of the lexical items by which the segments of this extralinguistic world are referred to when spoken about. The *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and the French *Encyclopédie Universelle* are well-known examples of encyclopaedia. The word '*encyclopedia*' suggests a vast work of many volumes concerned with all the fields of human knowledge. Encyclopaedias are directed at the extra-linguistic features of the items to be treated. It is important, however, to make a distinction between encyclopaedic dictionaries and encyclopaedic data in dictionaries. The latter occurs in linguistic dictionaries; in fact, a limited quantity of such data is an essential component of linguistic dictionaries.

The compilation of an encyclopaedia will be extremely important in the context of Gabon. An encyclopaedia is essential to record data on the different cultures, the people and the environment around them. In the intended school dictionary, the use of extralinguistic data has to be balanced. Although the focus is on the children's acquisition of Fang as a language, a fair amount of reference will be made to the community and to the culture of the Fang people.

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5.5.2. Linguistic dictionaries

Linguistic dictionaries are orientated towards reproducing the linguistic characteristics of lexical items. Linguistic dictionaries can be divided into different types. One division is between *diachronic* and *synchronic* dictionaries. Diachronic dictionaries deal with the history of the changes in the meaning and form of the lexical items. Such dictionaries cover a considerable period of time, e. g. a century. These are mainly *etymological* and *historical* dictionaries.

The synchronic dictionary is restricted to a much narrower range of time and attempts to set out the lexicon or part of it as it exists at a particular time. The concept of synchrony must not necessarily be taken as synonymous with contemporary, although most synchronic dictionaries concentrate on the language as it is being used at the time of the compilation of the dictionary concerned. The aim of the synchronic dictionary is the description of the lexicon of a particular language at a particular stage or period of the development of that language.

Synchronic dictionaries can be divided into two main types, namely monolingual (descriptive) and translation dictionaries. Translation dictionaries could be bilingual or multilingual. The category of monolingual synchronic dictionaries includes restricted and general dictionaries.

5.5.2.1. Monolingual dictionaries

The monolingual dictionary describes a language by means of that language itself: it gives the meanings of lexical items by means of definitions or explanatory paraphrases. Some of the large monolingual dictionaries are abundantly provided with examples, which extensively supplement the semantic description.

The monolingual dictionary is usually intended for users who are native speakers of the language. Examples of this dictionary type are *Larousse*, *Robert*, *Concise Oxford Dictionary* and *HAT*. However, during the past decades monolingual dictionaries intended for foreign learners have been produced in the great world languages and many others worldwide. Gouws (1989) proposes that the category of

general monolingual dictionaries can be divided into four categories, comprehensive dictionaries*,* standard dictionaries, desk/college dictionaries and pedagogical dictionaries.

In Gabon, there is at this stage no monolingual dictionary in any of the languages. Monolingual dictionaries will preferably be compiled after more bilingual or plurilingual dictionaries have been compiled. The establishment of a lexicographic unit is a priority, with a number of well-trained staff to tackle the complex task of data collection. The model of the intended school dictionary will have some features of a monolingual dictionary.

5.5.2.1.1. Pedagogical dictionaries

Pedagogical dictionaries can be divided into two subcategories: school dictionaries and learner's dictionaries.

School dictionaries represent a category in its own right. In the past they have been neglected because of the false impression that these dictionaries are easy to compile by simply reducing a bigger dictionary. The fact that a dictionary intended for children has to differ considerably from those for adults is self-evident. Children are less able to make use of a complicated format (even adults for that matter), and it is more difficult for them to determine whether the data given is relevant to their needs of the moment. A dictionary for children must therefore not be a condensed version of a dictionary for adults.

A school dictionary is designed to meet the needs of school pupils. The macrostructure of such a dictionary is usually more limited and represents the core vocabulary in its daily use. The microstructure is presented in such a way that it is reconcilable with the linguistic abilities of the target users. The communicative needs of the children must enjoy priority at all times. Gouws (1989) points out that these dictionaries focus on the comment on semantics and, more specifically, on a brief paraphrase of meaning given as the lexicographic definiens. A limited process of co-textualisation occurs although examples are used to illustrate some typical occurrences of the lexical items functioning as treatment units.

The access structure of a school dictionary should be designed to assist the specific age group, identified as the target users of the dictionary, in a functional way. The dictionary will be dominated by the central list and a limited number of texts function as outer texts. It is important that the pedagogical function prevail at all times in these dictionaries. This is the kind of dictionary that is needed in Gabon in order to introduce the teaching of local languages in the education system. The aim of this study is to provide a framework for the structure of such a dictionary: a school dictionary that will meet the needs of pupils in their language acquisition endeavour, and which considers the user situation and characteristics. This model, although devised for Fang, will eventually serve as a model for many other Gabonese languages. A dictionary that will respond to the needs of the schoolchildren in this specific situation does not have to present the exact typological features. The aim of this research is to model a dictionary that satisfies users and achieves the function assigned to it.

The preceding chapters explained that the planned dictionary will not fall into the traditional typology because of the special needs of the target users. The goal is to present a type of dictionary that will best serve the users' needs. For that reason, a hybrid school dictionary that combines features of a monolingual school dictionary and a bilingual school dictionary is proposed.

Learner's dictionaries represent one of the fastest growing sub-typological categories in modern lexicography. A learner's dictionary is aimed at users who wish to learn a foreign language. The existence of these dictionaries is a direct result of the user-driven approach and the consequent attempts to compile dictionaries that respond to the needs of specific target user groups.

Language learning imposes its requirements on the format of a dictionary, and the user has a more limited capability of making use of its contents. Therefore, the lemmata are treated in such a way that the learner can have easy access to the represented data categories, giving the dictionary a high data density. The treatment is characterised by its very explicit nature.

The more explicit the representation, the easier it is for the foreign language learner to understand the data presented in the article. The lexicographer of a learner's dictionary should never rely on the linguistic intuition of the target users.

Zgusta (1971) argues that the purpose for which a dictionary is intended is a powerful determining factor. Pedagogical dictionaries must be conspicuous for the restriction of their purpose. They usually restrict either the number of entries and indications of the lexical items' single senses, or the phraseological indication to cover only what somebody learning a language may be expected to say, write and read. Dictionaries of this type frequently contain more explanatory glosses than their more general counterparts do.

Other pedagogical dictionaries are of a prescriptive character. The learner's dictionary is a very useful tool for Gabonese languages, particularly for the adult literacy programme.

Pedagogical dictionaries are needed urgently in Gabon to promote the heritage languages in schools and within the adult literacy programme. However, the needs of the two groups are different, and the design of such dictionaries should provide guidelines regarding the data distribution according to the needs of each of the intended groups.

5.5.2.1.2. Desk/College dictionaries

Desk/College dictionaries are usually aimed at mother tongue users and do not display a learner-orientated approach. In comparison with school dictionaries, they display an extended macrostructure, but a low data density prevails because of a limited microstructural treatment and a restricted article structure. Little co-text assistance is given and the focus is on a brief definiens of the lexical item represented by the lemma sign.

These dictionaries usually contain short articles and do not rely too heavily on a corpus. The work done in the compilation process of a desk dictionary can form the basis for a more comprehensive project like a standard dictionary. Compiling a desk

dictionary can be regarded as an ideal introduction to the work of dictionary making. It gives lexicographers the opportunity to apply their knowledge and to gain practical experience. A project like that has the additional advantage that it can be completed in a relatively short time to ensure the rapid availability of a dictionary to the speech community.

5.5.2.1.3. Standard dictionaries

Standard dictionaries can be regarded as products resulting from a well-established lexicographic environment. These dictionaries are the most commonly used monolingual lexicographic instruments and display a wide range of lemmata and microstructural categories. Standard dictionaries usually are single volume products in which a synchronic and normative approach prevails.

The macrostructure represents the standard variety of the treated language, although a high number with a usage frequency from non-standard varieties will also be included. Lexicographic labels indicating stylistic, chronolectic, regional or other deviations from the standard variety will mark these items. Standard dictionaries include a representative selection of macrostructural items and an extensive treatment of these items. These dictionaries consequently have a high data density.

The data distribution has to be well devised. These dictionaries usually employ a frame structure and the consequent use of outer texts as functional components of the dictionary. Both integrated and unintegrated outer texts are used. Although a varied and extensive microstructural treatment is presented, standard dictionaries are characterised by a thorough semantic treatment, which includes the use of a variety of definition types and an indication of semantic relations.

The definitions contain a limited amount of encyclopaedic data, but the data distribution structure makes provision for the use of synopsis articles to convey extra-linguistic data in the treatment of certain types of lemmata. Standard dictionaries contain medium-sized articles that do not usually display a comprehensive micro-architecture.

In a standard dictionary, little attention is given to historical data. The macro- and microstructural representation should be aimed at the present and future language usage. These dictionaries are compiled for fairly sophisticated users who have acquired a certain level of dictionary culture, and who can cope with an access structure leading the user to implicit and explicit data.

Their compilation requires a substantial corpus, which gives a valid and representative account of the lexicon and everyday usage of the language. This is an ideal dictionary to be compiled once a speech community has already acquired access to a desk dictionary.

Since none of the Gabonese languages has been standardised, a standard dictionary will be a project to consider once lexicographic units are established for every language group.

5.5.2.1.4. Comprehensive dictionaries

Comprehensive dictionaries are multi-volume and multi-decade projects. They have an overall-descriptive and informative approach, and give an account of the full spectrum of the lexicon, including lexical items from the non-standard varieties. Lexical diversity is covered extensively. To achieve this assignment, a comprehensive dictionary has to rely on a well-established corpus.

This comprehensive character applies on macro- and microstructural level. This leads to a balanced data density. The microstructure gives an extensive account of the linguistic features of the lemma signs. Comprehensive dictionaries are typically historically orientated and are directed at a lexicographic treatment reflecting the past and the present characteristics of a language. They use more encyclopaedic elements in their definitions. It is important to note that the compilation of a comprehensive monolingual dictionary presupposes a fully standardised language, a typological infrastructure in the given language, as well as advanced lexicographic expertise and a sound metalexicographical basis.

5.5.2.2. Bilingual dictionaries

The usual aim of a bilingual dictionary is to help in translating from one language into another, or in producing texts in a language other than the user's native one, or in both. The basic purpose of a bilingual dictionary is to coordinate with the lexical items of one language those lexical items of another language that are equivalent in their lexical meaning. The first language to whose lexical items the lexical items of the second language are co-coordinated is called the source language; the order of the lemmata in a bilingual dictionary is determined by the source language. The other language whose lexical items are coordinated to that of the first one is called the target language.

Bilingual dictionaries fall within a more general category of translation dictionaries. This category also includes multilingual dictionaries. Multilingual dictionaries include more than two languages. The lexicographic principles that apply in multilingual and bilingual dictionaries are more or less the same. Bilingual dictionaries represent the most typical member of the category of translation dictionaries.

There are features within the category of bilingual dictionaries that give a clear indication of the function of the dictionary.

Polyfunctional dictionaries are bilingual dictionaries compiled to respond to the needs of users of both members of the language pair treated in the dictionary. The text production and the text reception should be satisfactory for the users of both sides (cf. Kromann *et al*. 1984; Hausmann 1986). Wiegand (1996) recommends that all the functions be accommodated within one dictionary and even one dictionary article. Gouws (1999; 2000b) argues that it is not possible to deal with each of the four functions that theorists have identified, in a separate dictionary. This will demand four to eight dictionaries per language pair. From a user-perspective, it is an unrealistic and unattainable objective. This would imply that for a language pair like Fang-French the following dictionaries have to be compiled:

1. Production (writing and speaking) for Fang speakers, Fang-French dictionary

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2. Reception (reading and listening) for Fang speakers, Fang-French dictionary

3. Production (writing and speaking) for French speakers, French-Fang dictionary

4. Reception (reading and listening) for French speakers, French-Fang dictionary

It will even be more if one has to consider the dichotomies in encoding or decoding for mother tongue users and non-mother tongue users. The most suitable option, not only for lexicographers but mostly for the convenience of the users, is to make one poly-functional dictionary. Wiegand (1996) makes provision for the application of this theoretical idea. The result will be one dictionary: Fang-French/French-Fang, which can respond to the needs of users, even if some are likely to be more satisfied than others. There is always room for improvement for lexicographers to make the dictionaries user-friendly.

In conclusion, no dictionary typology can be complete and there will always be overlapping of categories. The demands made upon the coordination between the users' needs and a sound theoretical basis in modern lexicography have consequences for the constant overlapping between different categories of dictionaries. The distinction between one type of dictionary and another has become very small. Therefore, trends tend to go towards hybrid dictionaries.

The aim of any lexicographer is to make a dictionary that responds to the reference needs of the intended users. It is not a matter of sticking to a category for the sake of maintaining dictionary types, but to seek which one will fulfil the needs of the users. The combination of different features across categories is thus justified by the goal of providing the users with a tool that is able to satisfy their quest. Kühn (1989) states that a particular dictionary is only useful to a particular group of users, and then only for specific purposes. The aim to reach remains the successful retrieval of information by the user, even if it requires the combination of features from different types of dictionaries. This leads to the section of this chapter that deals with dictionary adequacy in the situation described by the research.

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5.6. Dictionary Adequacy

Dictionary adequacy in this study is understood to be the dictionary's success in responding and adapting to the specific needs of the determined user group. The compilers of the dictionary have to make sure that the theories and principles are applied for the sole benefit of the users of the envisaged dictionary. The specific needs of the user group in this study are to learn and to have access to education in their mother tongue, and also for learners to simultaneously acquire the global language, French, as they progress in the education system. The bilingualised dictionary will be an aid to learners (young adults or adults) in literacy programmes in Gabon. In dealing with education, we deal with life issues. All children, young people and adults deserve access to learning and life skills that enable them to realise their potential. With this concern in mind, this research aims to make provision for a product that will be an efficient tool in reaching all these goals. From these motivations, I make a presentation of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries in addition to the classification previously made in this chapter. It gives an idea of the different features that form these dictionaries and the ways in which they differ.

5.6.1. Monolingual dictionary versus bilingual dictionary

The purpose of this section is not to argue that one type of dictionary is better than another, but merely to underline some of the general ideas about monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and their different uses. In Ilson (1985), an analysis is conducted to compare these dictionaries in terms of the language teaching process. The outcome shows that both types are appropriate tools, depending on the target user groups for whom the dictionaries are intended. This kind of analysis is also proposed in Bejoint (2000), but mainly on the features of some monolingual dictionaries.

The interest here is in the work to be done in the case of a language that does not yet have a fully developed standard. The decision as to what dictionary to plan depends largely upon the situation of the language itself, and upon the state of lexicographic treatment. Zgusta (1971:346) identifies the steps that the lexicographic planning has to follow. The first step is a very small dictionary, which is concerned

primarily with orthographic rules and their application in particular cases of single lexical units. The next step is a bilingual dictionary whose target language is the vernacular in question and whose source language is the language used as medium through which the society comes into contact with modern civilisation. In the case of this study, the language pair will be French and Fang.

At first glance, the bilingual dictionary seems to be more advantageous and appropriate for the context of this study. First, it brings a greater number of people into contact with the cultural patterns represented in the foreign language in question, and thus increases the number of people for whose activities the development of a standard is necessary. Secondly, a monolingual dictionary can also try to introduce the necessary terminological neologisms, but it is difficult to find them there, just because they are not generally known. An engineer or a teacher who knows the technical terms of his/her field of interest very well, in French or English, and tries to write on such a subject in his/her own language, will easily find the necessary expressions in the bilingual dictionary.

Thus, for the specific situation in Gabon, the bilingual dictionary is considered a more effective tool than a monolingual one. It must however be noted that it is difficult, and often impossible, in a monolingual dictionary to give an appropriate paraphrase of meaning in a language of which the standard has not yet been established. The compilation of a monolingual dictionary in Fang can follow in a number of years. Gouws (1997) argues that the dictionary is meant to empower the speech community and there is no sense in starting with a twenty-volume project like the *Oxford English Dictionary* for languages without any dictionaries. They need other dictionaries because a twenty-volume one will take a hundred-and-fifty years to develop and during that time, they will still be without any communicative assistance.

Once more, the needs have to be directed at the specific situation of the speech community. It is quite possible that a series of bilingual dictionaries will be compiled in adjacent areas at the same time. In such a situation, much time and money could be spared if the different lexicographers join forces to work out say a French or English lemma candidate list that will be used by all of them; or if one lexicographer or lexicographic team works out a list, which is then also used in other projects. Such a

common list of lemmas can easily be specified for the needs of a particular target language.

This approach will benefit Fang because French has a broad and established lexicon, which also covers modern technology. It will decrease the task of the lexicographic team and save much time. The users' needs have to be the platform from where all the tasks regarding the typology will be assumed.

The user-orientation is to be defined as an essential characteristic of dictionaries. One would suppose that a dictionary published today has been derived from a corpus. It is not necessary to build up a separate database for each type of dictionary. It will be preferable to set up a basic database not restricted to any specific type of dictionary. In the case of this study, a basic database for Fang would serve for the compilation of future dictionaries.

5.6.2. The bilingualised dictionary

The bilingualised dictionary is a hybrid dictionary that combines features from monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. This is not a new idea. Laufer (1995) reports that the first dictionary of this type was English-English-Hebrew and was published in 1986. It is now referred to as a bilingualised dictionary. Nakamoto (1995) refers to a bilingualised dictionary and says that the study on this type begun only a decade ago. There has been a great deal of discussion about whether monolingual or bilingual dictionaries are better educational tools for foreign learners. Some prefer monolinguals; others support bilinguals. As Bejoint (1981) reports, checking meaning seems to be the most common motive for using a dictionary. In other words, "dictionaries, both monolingual and bilingual, are primarily for dealing with meanings" (Iannucci 1976:1). Functionally, monolingual dictionaries 'define' lexical items of the target language most typically by way of paraphrase, whereas the primary function of the bilinguals is "to serve as an aid to the translation" (Kromann *et al*. 1991:2725).

Against the background of monolingual and bilingual learners' dictionaries and their contested merits and demerits, a new type of learners' dictionary has recently

appeared. It is called 'bilingualised', 'semi-bilingual', 'glossed' or 'translated' (cf. Hartmann 1994). It is usually partially (only occasionally thoroughly) translated from a monolingual learners' dictionary into the intended users' mother tongue. They are different from monolingual dictionaries because they supply translation equivalents and from bilingual dictionaries because they provide semantic equivalents (definitions) of the original text.

The possibility of this type was hinted at as early as the mid-1970s. Iannucci (1976:4) argues that the objectives of Hornby's *Advanced Learners' Dictionary* (ALD) are bilingual. Atkins (1985:22) has offered a concrete view of the new 'hybrid dictionary'. She suggests two types of dictionaries that combine the best features of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries.

The first type

Starting from a monolingual, source language L1 equivalents could be inserted at the beginning of each semantic category (sense); the metalanguage or even the definition could be in L1; the fixed phrases could be not only explained and exemplified in target language L2, but also translated into L1. This type is a 'bilingualised' dictionary. An example from a bilingualised French-Fang dictionary in this type might be seen as follows:

> **dictionnaire** nom masculin. Un livre où l'on trouve l'orthographe et le sens des mots ou leur traduction dans une autre langue (kalare bifiè): Dans un dictionnaire les mots sont classes par ordre alphabétique.

Here we see a Fang equivalent "(kalare bifiè)", which is enclosed in round brackets, and the original French definition "Un livre … langue".

The second type

Starting from a bilingual dictionary, a number of monolingual features could be introduced: one could, for example, not translate phrases exemplifying the straightforward use of the lemma; the lemmas, or better still the semantic categories (senses) of the lemma, could be classified from the point of view of frequency, and entries for the less frequent items could contain a higher proportion e.g. of

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monolingual material. This type is a 'monoligualised' dictionary. In this case, a sample article of a 'monolingualised' French-Fang dictionary might look as follows:

> **dictionnaire** nom masculine. (kalare bifiè) (Un livre où l'on trouve l'orthographe et le sens des mots ou leur traduction dans une autre langue): Dans un dictionnaire les mots sont classés par ordre alphabétique.

Here we see that the ordering has changed; in this type, the starting point is from a bilingual dictionary. The translation in brackets comes first after the comment on form, which is followed by a definition also in brackets "un livre … langue".

In my view, there is not much difference between the two types as such, but just a matter of the ordering of entries. Therefore, a combination of the two above-mentioned types has been adopted for the intended bilingualised school dictionary. As a starting point, there are already French school dictionaries for the level of the target user groups such as *Larousse des Debutants (6-8), Larousse Maxi Debutants (7-10) and Le Robert Junior (8-12).* The motivation for this choice is linked to the functions assigned to the bilingualised school dictionary. Such a dictionary will sustain the productive function and the receptive function. The tasks for the users are to acquire vocabulary, to reproduce the vocabulary in sentences and conversations, to be able to read and comprehend, and finally to write in their mother tongue. It is possible to achieve these gaols in the bilingualised school dictionary. Another advantage for the study, in the case of Fang, is that the children simultaneously acquire an international language French in their early years of formal education. The study's view is that, of all the typologies reviewed early in this chapter, the bilingualised school dictionary will best serve the aim of mother tongue education in Fang in Gabon. In the bilingualised French-Fang school dictionary, a dictionary article will be presented as follows:

> **dictionnaire** noun masculin **kalare bifiè.** Un livre où l'on trouve l'orthographe et le sens des mots ou leur traduction dans une autre langue *Dans un dictionnaire les mots sont classes par ordre alphabétique.*

Here we see that after the lemma sign in bold, **dictionnaire**, the rest of the comment on form (the entries "nom, masculine") follows. This in turn is followed by the entries included in the comment on semantics, the translation equivalent in Fang (given in bold), **kalare bifiè**; then the paraphrase of meaning and the example sentence in italics follow: "*Dans … alphabétique*".

Dictionaries are compiled in order to be used by those who need them. A dictionary like any other good product should satisfy the needs of its consumers. A wise production team should try to find out what these needs are and when the user is most likely to require the product. It is necessary to base all endeavours in the lexicographic process on a sound theoretical foundation. In this regard, attention will be given to the theory of lexicographical texts without which it might be impossible to produce a dictionary that responds to the needs of the users. Most importantly, the compilers should know in which way to present the different data categories from which the user will retrieve information. The compilers have the duty to make that consultation friendly and successful in presenting the right data in the right structures for the right user.

5.7. About the Theory of Lexicographical Texts

The constituent D of Wiegand's general theory of lexicography will be relevant to and important for this dissertation. In Wiegand's formulation (1984:16), "the subject area of a theory of lexicographical description of language is the class of all the presentations of the results of linguistic lexicographical texts about language." The first component consists of a dictionary typology and its rationale. This is a major component of a general theory of lexicography, since many of the statements in this theory have to be formulated in relation to the typology.

The second component concerns the structure of lexicographical texts. The aim of the theory of lexicographical description is to provide and establish the information that lexicographers have to take into account when writing lexicographical texts. Dictionaries are text carriers; texts of which are arranged into a macrotext, which has

a mediostructure and a metatext. Jean Dubois (1970) characterises the dictionary as a didactic text as follows:

> The dictionary is not just a subject, a consumer product that is determined by social and cultural necessities but also and primarily a text, a coherent and concluded text, either on an object that the lexicographer describes as the language (or as a certain part of the language) or on another subject, namely the knowledge of the world (or on a part of this knowledge): a language dictionary or an encyclopaedic dictionary follow joint rules which control the form of the lexicographer's statement.

In accordance with users' needs, one might think creatively about the principle of lexicographical text constitution in order to invent new ways of formulating and presenting it. One can establish which principles could apply for new types of dictionaries. These will depend on factors such as user needs, social needs, scientific demands, and technological and historical factors, etc. In modern lexicography, the computer and on-line possibilities offer many options in the planning and compilation of dictionaries. It is important to bear in mind that all these possibilities should have a sound theoretical basis.

A lexicographer has to describe a particular part of a language in such a way that the prescriptive needs of potential dictionary users will be met. The text theory allows for an explicit description of all structures, such as the outer texts and the dictionary articles. Wiegand (1983a:43-49, quoted by Smit 1996) argues that text theory is not concerned with which linguistic signs one has to use in a meaning explanation. It is interested rather in the structure in which these signs have to be placed in order to convey the meaning of a lemma sign successfully. According to Smit (1996), text theory can be used to:

- Bring about decisions which relate to the target group and dictionary purposes;

- Aid in the planning of larger scientific dictionaries, the establishment of explicit instruction books and the reviewing of sample articles;

- Enable the critical judging and comparison of dictionaries;

- Assist in the revision of dictionaries; and

- Serve as an aid in the computerisation of dictionaries.

Although Wiegand's text theory refers to monolingual lexicography, this study will employ it for the design of the project in the field of bilingual lexicography.

The theory of lexicographic texts consists of three parts (Smit: 1996):

(i)   Production of lexicographic texts

(ii)   Structure of lexicographic texts

(iii)   Reception of lexicographic texts

Part (ii) of text theory refers to the dictionary form of the most important types of monolingual dictionaries (e.g. general monolingual dictionaries, spelling dictionaries, dictionaries of synonyms and of antonyms, dictionaries of foreign words, dictionaries on language stages, dictionaries on dialects, etc.).

To Wiegand (1984:561), the most crucial assumption of lexicography is that dictionary users exist, and that these users use dictionaries to obtain information on linguistic expressions. That is the main purpose of dictionaries, and the compiler must thus be well equipped to present the lexicographic texts in such a way that the user can successfully retrieve the needed information. That is why the theory of lexicographic texts focuses on the structures of the texts to be presented in the dictionaries.

Text theory deals with the following aspects of the dictionary form (Smit 1996):

- Criteria for the textuality of lexicographic texts and presentation forms of textuality

- Text condensation, prepositional density and expansion of texts

- Kind and grades of the standardisation of lexicographic texts

Structures of lexicographic texts, namely:

- Textual text book structure

- Textual word list structure

- Inner and outer access structures, including rapid access structures

- Hierarchical and precedential articles structures

- Hierarchical and precedential microstructures and item structures

- Kind of microstructures, namely: simple, expanded, composed, rudimentary, listing, integrated, partially integrated, non-integrated and the possible combinations

- Partial structures of microstructures, item structures and article structures

- The microstructure programme of a dictionary and the grammar for establishing microstructures

- Text structures, which are not order structures, namely, among others:

  - Scope structures

  - Cross-reference structures

  - Addressing structures

  - Cohesion structures

  - Theme-rheme-structures (or: topic-comment-articulation)

  - Coherence structures (Smit 1996).

The connection with the partial theory (iii) is established with the representation of the two last structures. The form of the outer matter and the dictionary styles are taken into consideration, as well as the problem of the lexicographic metalanguage. The theory makes provision for an explicit description of all the text structures that are recognised as relevant to the formulation of outer matter (including front and back matter) of the dictionary. It helps and allows the selection of dictionary articles. It

guides in the usage of standardised monolingual dictionaries that show condensed articles.

Based on text theory, certain aspects of writing lexicographic texts can be taught systematically. Wiegand (1983, quoted in Smit 1996:171) discerns two phases in the theory of the lexicographic description of linguistic data: the description and the constructive phase. The latter consists of the construction of the dictionary itself, or rather of a theoretical plan for it. These considerations are embedded in a general discussion of the problems of a general theory of lexicography in relation to theories of other activities. According to Wiegand, lexicography is considered to be neither a science nor an art in its own right, but a scientific practice.

This means that the theories should be appropriate and applied to lexicographic practice. Then, in the construction of the dictionary structures, these theories must be applied methodically. Wiegand (1987 quoted in Smit 1996) identifies various aspects of the notion of usefulness of a dictionary: it is not a mere property of the dictionary itself, but rather consists in the advantage that the users of the dictionary derive from its use.

Dictionaries can be useful in the area of native or foreign language pedagogy, or in the acquisition of a specific technical register; in language-to-language transmission (usually translations); in the acquisition of cultural values; in the development of self-conscious linguistic communities; and as an instrument of the linguistic policy in relation to other communities. The usefulness of the dictionary can be classified into three types: the economic type (e.g. the publisher's profit); the correct information received by the user; and the influence that the dictionary exercises on behalf of a social group. Lexicographic information does not consist solely of the data offered by the dictionary, but of the user's interpretative effort. Thus, lexicographic texts must be presented in the dictionary in such a way that the user can retrieve the information needed effectively and as fast as possible. This leads to a discussion of dictionary structures.

5.7.1. The structure of a dictionary

The topic of the dictionary is language, not only its lexicon, but also its grammar, spelling, pronunciation, usage, etc. Because language is very complex and made up of many very different parts and elements, the dictionary cannot but also have complex structures and many different elements. The components of the textbook structure of a dictionary are of crucial importance in the planning of a dictionary. These different components should accommodate appropriately the structures that present the data categories from which the user of the dictionary retrieve the information for a specific task in the process of language learning. The bilingualised school dictionary will present the major components of the textbook structure of a dictionary.

The components of the textbook structure of a dictionary are the following: The **front matter**, **central list** and the **back matter**, not all of which are compulsory components. The central list is a compulsory component because it contains the lexicographic treatment. According to Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:331) only one other obligatory component exists besides the central list, namely the text in which the central list and its uses are explained to the dictionary user. It is usually presented in the front matter of a dictionary. Other texts in the front matter and the back matter have to be regarded as optional parts of a dictionary. Dictionaries are carriers of text types. These lexicographic texts, such as the preface, the notes on use, the dictionary grammar, the word list with the dictionary articles and the index appear in a dictionary. They are not only arranged in a specific way, but are also related to each other functionally with respect to content and structurally with respect to form. The alphabetical ordering is used in standard descriptive and translation dictionaries, comprehensive dictionaries, as well as learner's dictionaries. A more or less differentiated network of cross-references connects the single lexicographic texts with each other. This is called the dictionary-internal mediostructure. One of the general guidelines for the presentation of lexicographic texts is that there is at least one outer access structure within every dictionary. It is the structure, which always represents an ordinal structure in the mathematical sense that makes the dictionary a reference book. Wiegand (1996:136) shows that different classes of methods of presentation are used when textual structures are presented:

Above all the analytic and the synthetic methods are important. The latter merely refer to lexicographic partial texts that are called dictionary articles. Their application allows the production of article text structures for any type of lemma sign. They are completely taken over from formal syntax, namely from phrase structure grammar.

The larger part of the analytic methods that are applicable to lexicographic texts leads to a reduction into certain parts. Most reduction methods are methods of text segmentation. The purpose of a segmentation method for lexicographic texts, among others, consists of the fact that several have an instrument at their disposal that allows them to convert the intuitive knowledge of dictionaries into knowledge that is as explicit as possible, taken down in writing, so that it is accessible for verification of the theory (Wiegand 1996:136).

Gouws (1999) argues that the metalexicographical discussion of the structure of dictionaries has two major focal points. Firstly, the discussion is concerned with the *lemmata*, the lexical items selected to be included in the dictionary and to receive lexicographic treatment. The second concern is the treatment of these lemmata. The collection of the lemmata presented as lemma signs is known as the *macrostructure* of the dictionary.

The *microstructure* of a dictionary accommodates the different data categories presented in the treatment of each lemma. The combination of a lemma and its microstructural treatment is known as the *dictionary article* or just the *article*. The central list of a dictionary consists of a collection of article stretches. All the articles presented under a specific alphabet letter form a single article stretch. Each article contains a lemma and the lexicographic treatment of that lemma.

Examples of dictionary articles

See the following article from *The Pocket Oxford Dictionary*

widow - n. 1 woman who has lost her husband by death and not married again.

        2. woman whose husband is often away on a specific activity (*golf widow*) - v. make into a widow or a widower.

Nyangone Assam, B. 2006   DLitt Dissertation   University of Stellenbosch

See the following article from *The Galley Dictionnaire Fang-Français et Français-Fang.*

Bore (b) vb. Habiller quelqu'un. *Ma bore é mo wam, j'habille mon enfant.*

5.7.2. The macrostructure of a dictionary

5.7.2.1. The nature of the macrostructure

The macrostructure is the collection of lemmata included as part of the central list. The central list is also known as the Textual Word List Structure. The lexicon of the language contains all the lexical items of a language. The majority are words, but the lexicon also has elements larger than words, as well as elements smaller than words. They are called multiword and sub-word lexical items. They are fully-fledged members of the lexicon and should be reflected in the macrostructure. The macrostructure consists of the collection of lexical items included as lemmas in the dictionary.

The macrostructure pertains to the organisation of the whole dictionary, particularly the arrangement of lemmas. The macrostructure is the overall list structure which allows the compiler and the user to locate information in a dictionary or reference work. The most common format in dictionaries is the alphabetical word list (although there are other ways of ordering the lemmata or headwords, e.g. thematically, chronologically or by frequency) that constitutes the central component. This can be supplemented by the outer texts in the front, middle or back matter of the work. The order defined on the lemmata may be different, for instance it may be initial-alphabetical or final-alphabetical.

Wiegand (1996) points out that the macrostructure is the structure leading to the other structures in which the dictionary articles are put, holding them together. If a dictionary only has a central word list and no index, then it is possible that the macrostructure represents at the same time the one and only *outer access structure*. This is not the case if a dictionary has several word lists and/or one or more indexes. Apart from *outer access structures*, standardised dictionaries also have *inner access structures*. Wiegand argues that they exist because the items in the articles are given

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in a specific order. Next to the inner access structures, *inner rapid access structures* are defined in many dictionaries, the knowledge of which allows the user faster access to the data looked for. The domains of these structures are above all made up of the item giving the form of the lemma sign, the items giving polysemy and special signs announcing special article positions.

The macrostructure of the intended dictionary has to be designed with the aim to be of friendly use to the pupils. The main principal access structure will be the central list. A school dictionary at this primary level of education has the objective to teach not only the languages dealt with in the dictionary, but also the dictionary culture. At this stage, the structures are to be limited to the necessary and essential.

5.7.2.2. Different types of lemmata

The lexicon of a language consists of different types of lexical items included as different types of lemmata. A lemma is thus a lexical item that has been lexicographically processed for inclusion in the macrostructure. The moment such a lexical item is included in a dictionary, it becomes a lemma sign. The lemma also has to satisfy certain linguistic criteria and as a macrostructural element it stands as the *head* or the *guiding element* of a *dictionary article,* while as a microstructural element it forms part of a dictionary article. The lemma sign is usually distinguished typographically from other entries by being printed in bold type.

Gouws (1989) distinguishes between three types of lemmata, namely *lexical lemmata, sublexical lemmata, multilexical lemmata.* Words are included as lexical lemmata, subwords as sublexical lemmata and multiword items as multilexical lemmata.

5.7.2.2.1. Lemmata with limited lexicographic treatment

A. Variant and synonym lemmata

The inclusion of a specific lexical item as a lemma is not motivated arbitrarily, but has to be seen as the application of fixed lexicographic criteria. The typological nature of a dictionary also determines the selection of lexical items to be included as part of the macrostructure. Not all lemmata get a full lexicographic treatment. The extent of the treatment is determined by the system used in the dictionary, which has to be explained in the front matter. Some lemmata receive very little treatment, for example, when two variants of a lexical item exist and both have to be included in the dictionary. The full treatment will only be given in the article of one of these lemmata; the other will have a treatment consisting mainly of a cross-reference to the lemma where the full treatment is given.

Examples from the *Chambers Dictionary*

Sally 3, a variant of **sallee** and of **sallow** 2

In the treatment of synonyms, the definition may not be repeated in each article. Therefore, the synonym with the highest usage frequency will receive a comprehensive treatment whereas the synonym with the lesser frequency will get a cross-reference to the treated lemma.

reen. see **rhine**

The treatment for **rhine** is given as follows:

rhine ren, (*somerset,* etc) n a ditch or watercourse.
Also spelt **reen, rean or rhyne.**
rhyne. See rhine

In the example above, only one synonym is given treatment; the others, **reen** and **rhyne**, are lemmas but without any treatment, except for a cross-reference to **rhine**.

Macrostructural status is not determined by the extent of the microstructural treatment, but by the inclusion of a lexical item as a lemma in a dictionary. Lemmata

with a limited lexicographic treatment are not inferior to other macrostructural elements. By including a lexical item as lemma, the dictionary gives proof of its status as an element of the lexicon of the given language.

B. Self-explanatory lemmata

Gouws (1989:77-83) argues that in a descriptive dictionary simplex lexical items have to be included and their treatment has to include an explanation of the meaning or cross-reference to another lemma where the meaning is defined. Complex lexical items are also included in dictionaries, but not all complex items get a similar treatment. In linguistics, a distinction is made between transparent and intransparent complex items. The meaning of a transparent complex item can be deduced from the meaning of its components. This distinction has implications for the lexicographic treatment of complex items. Besides explaining some of the complex lexical items, descriptive dictionaries often include complex items as unexplained or *self-explanatory lemmata.* This implies that the dictionary user should be able to retrieve the meaning of the lemma by looking at the meaning of its components. Self-explanatory lemmata are often included attached to the article of the lemma sign representing one of the stems of the complex item. Their inclusion often impedes the strict alphabetical ordering of the macrostructure and it leads to a cluster of nested lemmata. This type of lemmata is mostly found in monolingual comprehensive dictionaries.

Examples from the *Chambers Dictionary*

Bed - bed bath, bed bottle, bedclothes, bed cover, bedpost, bedroom, bed sheet, bedtime.

house - house agent, house arrest, housebreaker, house call, house craft, house duty, house flag, house guest, house holder, house keeper, housemate, housewife, housework.

In the bilingualised school dictionary, the core vocabulary used by the children at school and at home will be treated; there will be no self-explanatory lemmas at this level because they are more suitable for sophisticated users.

5.7.2.2.2. Lemmata with a complete lexicographic treatment

The occurrence of self-explanatory lemmata is restricted to descriptive dictionaries because translation dictionaries do not have untranslated lemmata. Likewise, the notion of 'complete lexicographic treatment' applies to both descriptive and translation dictionaries. Dictionaries have to be compiled in such away that their macrostructure can accommodate all the different types of lexical items of the given language. The lemmatisation process has to ensure that words can be included as lexical lemmata, sub-words as sublexical lemmata and multiword items as multilexical lemmata.

Because of its role in the acquisition of the language, the French-Fang bilingualised school dictionary will give synonyms or variants a full treatment as lemmata. Considering the corpus that the lemma candidate list will be derived from, all lemmas will have full treatment although it will be necessary to indicate the synonymy relation and therefore give a cross-reference. For example, in the Fang-French section, the lexical item **abum (stomach, abdomen, pregnancy, siblings)** has to be treated as follows:

abum[1] nom. ventre, abdomen. efa nyul en∂ a<u>ng</u>∂r∂ yo eb∂l∂ bis∂g(. Ma kon abum.

abum[2]. nom. Grossesse. Minga ayan bie mon. *Son ane abum.*

abum[3]. nom. Mère. Bon bene nye mbor. *Bine abum avor.*

The lemma **abum** means **stomach**, **abdomen** in the first sense; then it indicates **pregnancy**, and lastly it is used to indicate **siblings specifically born from the same mother**. The last sense (**same mother**) indicates the difference between sisters and brothers, and half sisters and half brothers in the context of the Fang community, and for Gabonese in general, for whom polygamy is legal, it indicates siblings from the

same mother. It is not applicable to siblings from the father's side since the term **abum** represents the mother as the bearer of the unborn child.

In the French-Fang section of the dictionary, the same rule is applied: **ventre, abdomen, grossesse, mère** have the same translation equivalent in Fang **abum** and each lemma will be given full treatment in their alphabetical section.

A. Lexical lemmata

The lexical lemmata dominate the macrostructure of a dictionary. This is because words, which become lexical lemmata once they are included in a dictionary article, make up the greatest part of the lexicon of a language. The range of lexical items selected for inclusion in any given dictionary is determined by the typological criteria. Lexical lemmata include simplex as well as complex lexical items.

B. Sublexical lemmata

A sublexical lemma is a lemma that does not represent a complete word, but an item smaller than a word, for instance stems and affixes. Too often too many sublexical items with a productive occurrence in a given language are not included in a dictionary. The lexicographer includes a hyphenated lemma if the main function of a lexical item does not correspond semantically with the word function of that lexical item, or if there is a semantic restriction on the main function.

C. Multilexical lemmata

A multilexical lemma consists of more than one word, but is still recognised as single lexical item. When dealing with the lexicographic embodiment of multiword lexical items, the lemmatisation of multiword lexical items, which contain words that are recognisable due to their occurrence as independent lexical items, offers the most serious problems. The most typical multilexical lexical items are often loanword groups, fixed expressions and specialised expressions.

Multilexical lexical items will be limited according to the usage frequency in the classrooms and the children's environment. In French, a multilexical lexical item such as **taille-crayon** (sharpener) **taille** derives from **tailler** (to prune, to cut short) and **crayon** (pencil). This is a multilexical lexical item that is necessary in a classroom

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environment and thus has to be lemmatised. Usually, when it is a two word lexical item, they are written with a hyphen in the middle.

5.7.2.3. Different types of macrostructure

5.7.2.3.1. A straight alphabetical macrostructure

Most dictionaries display an alphabetical ordering of their lemmata although a thematic arrangement may be used. A thesaurus and other dictionaries with a thematic approach have a non-alphabetical ordering of macrostructural elements. Different types of macrostructural ordering can often be found in one dictionary and this applies to both descriptive and translation dictionaries. In the front matter of a dictionary, the lexicographer has to give a clear explanation of the macrostructural ordering of that specific dictionary.

A straight alphabetical ordering implies that the lemmata display a vertical macrostructural arrangement and all these lemmata are positioned alphabetically. This is the main method of ordering in general dictionaries. See the following example from (a) *Collins GEM French Dictionary* and (b) *Klein Woordeboek/Little Dictionary*:

(a) **Chrome**	(b) **respek**
Chromium	**respektabel**
Chronic	**respekteer**
Chronicle	**restourant**
Chronology	**resultaat**

Besides straight alphabetical ordering, dictionaries often also display a *sinuous lemma file* which represent a system of *niched* and *nested lemmatisation.*

5.7.2.3.2. A sinuous lemma file: niche and nest

In order to save space and make the dictionary more compact, the lexicographer uses two devices (Gouws 2000a): 1. lemmatisation by condensing space in the dictionary article by contracting the quantum of data in the dictionary article; and 2. by cross-referring the lemma to some other lemma in the dictionary. These methods form part of the procedure of textual condensation. Besides the vertical and straight alphabetical ordering of lemmata, the macrostructure can also display a horizontal arrangement. A sinuous lemma file contains clusters of lemmata that display a horizontal ordering and function in a text block introduced by a main lemma. The main lexical unit carrying the basic form and recurring in all the derivative forms is given as the lemma, and its derivatives and compounds are nested as sublemmas. A thorough knowledge of the morphological structure of the language is a prerequisite for a proper and methodical system of niched and nested lemmata.

See the following example from *Collins GEM French Dictionary:*

Foot (pl. feet) n. pied, m…. on ~ à pied, ~age n. (cinéma: length)
métrage, ~ball n. ballon (de football), ~ brake frein à pédale,
~bridge n. passerelle, ~hills contreforts, ~hold prise (de pied),
~note note (en bas de page), ~path sentier, trottoir, ~print n. trace,
~step n.pas, ~wear n. chaussure(s), ~lights rampe.

The sinuous lemma file in these examples still displays an internal alphabetical ordering. This arrangement can also maintain the vertical ordering. For example:

fool

foot (horizontal)

for

The lemmata which are horizontally arranged in the sinuous file are components of either a *lemma niche* or a *lemma nest.* Niched and nested lemmata are found attached to the article of a main lemma, which is part of the vertical ordering of the

macrostructure. This lemma is known as the *main lemma*, with the niche and nest lemmas known as *sublemmata.*

Gouws (2000) makes a well-motivated distinction between niche and nest lemmata. Niched lemmatisation, also niching, is a sinuous ordering of lemmata which maintain a strict alphabetical arrangement and which does not necessarily display a semantic relation between the lemmata in the niche. The alphabetical ordering is not only maintained in the sinuous file, but also with regard to the preceding and following main lemmata in the vertical ordering.

See the following example from Oxford French-English mini dictionary:

freckle	
free	**~dom**, **~gift**, **~kick**, **~lance**, **~range**, **~trade**, **~will**
freeze	

Nested lemmatisation, also known as nesting, shows two differences from niched lemmatisation. One of these differences is obligatory and the other is optional. According to Gouws, the most noticeable difference is that nesting does not maintain such a strict alphabetical ordering. This applies to both the internal ordering in the nest and the connection between the lemmata in the nest and the preceding and following main lemmata in the vertical ordering. The second difference often flows from the fact that nesting does not adhere to a strict alphabetical ordering in order to display certain morpho-semantic relations between the sublemmata.

Besides saving space, nest and niche lemmatisation have another practical advantage. It provides the user with possible derived forms and sets of compunds from a lemma that helps him/her understand the interrelationship of the lexical items and develops his/her vocabulary.

The bilingualised school dictionary will not have to make provision for these methods of nested and niched lemma. For the sake of the user-perspective (pupils), each word will have the position as main lemma even in the case where they are morphologically and syntactically related.

5.7.3. The microstructure of a dictionary

The microstructure is the design of a reference unit, in contrast to the overall word list (macrostructure). The microstructure provides information about the lemmas, with comments on their formal and semantic properties (spelling, pronunciation, grammar, definition, usage, etymology) (Hartmann & James 1998). Svensén (1993:210) describes the microstructure as the structure of individual dictionary articles: their various parts and the mutual relationships between these. It includes the typographical conventions used (various typefaces and type sizes, punctuation and special symbols). The microstructure has to do with the organisation of the dictionary article itself, of its components. Dictionaries vary according to the amount of data they provide and how they present it in the text of the article. The microstructure determines through the dictionary article which items are put into which order. There are two conceptions of microstructures, namely the classical conception and the new conception.

5.7.3.1. The classical conception

The classical conception of the microstructure goes back to Josette Rey-Debove (1971:151-179). The microstructure of a dictionary article is the total set of linearly ordered information items following the lemma. Hausmann and Wiegand (1989) point out that the microstructure of each dictionary article is the result of a writing process in which the lexicographer goes systematically through the well-established microstructural information programme consisting of linearly ordered information types.

5.7.3.2. The new conception

The new conception of microstructure is based on an elaborated method of how to find partial texts of dictionaries and textual segments of dictionary articles based on theoretical principles (cf. Hausmann & Wiegand 1989:330-333). It is part of the theory of lexicographical texts. The microstructure of the dictionary article is only one

of the possible article structures. The new conception starts from the assumption that the lemma signs belong to different semantic and/or pragmatic types. The typology of lemma signs is based on language theory and determined by the information goal of dictionaries. Each lexicographic treatment unit belongs to such a type of lemma sign. Word classes do not exclusively determine types of lemmata.

5.7.3.3. Types of microstructures

Wiegand (1996; 1996a) refers to a selection of microstructures that appear in the general monolingual dictionary. Every microstructure appears in a concrete and an abstract form. With respect to concrete microstructures, the elements of the domain are concrete items of an article, with the article itself representing the largest item. With respect to abstract microstructures, the elements represent item classes all having the same general genuine purpose. As far as the hierarchical microstructures are concerned, a part-whole-relation and a predecessor-successor-relation are defined for the domains; whereas with respect to the precedentive microstructures, only the latter is defined. Microstructures have numerous partial structures for which the theory of lexicographic texts has specific names. Wiegand (1996a) describes them as follows:

- **Integrated microstructure**

The simple microstructures of a general monolingual dictionary may be called integrated when all items within the article not belonging to the comment on form are located in the scope of a certain semantic item and belong to the same semantic subcomment to which the semantic item also belongs. In articles with integrated microstructures, the items appearing in the comment on semantics are sememe-specifically arranged. Items on the meaning of a polysemous lemma sign are always given in a subcomment on semantics. The following is an example of how a dictionary article is presented in an integrated microstructure:

Ayon [àyóŋ] nom. Adjectif. Edzom eze ki avè.

1.   chaleur. nom. *Medzim mene ayon. L'eau est chaude.*

2.   temperament bouillant. adjectif *Dzal ene ayon. Le village est plein d'animation.*

3.   dynamique.adjectif. *nyu ene ayon. Cet homme est dynamique.*

Here each polysemous sense of the lemma is treated in a separate article block called 'integrate'. In each article block, the subcomment of form is given followed by the translation and a paraphrase of meaning, followed in turn by a sentence example illustrating the usage of each sense. This is the way in which the integrated microstructure of the bilingualised school dictionary will be presented.

- **Unintegrated microstructure**

This means that all semantic items addressed at the lemma appear in the article's first subcomment on semantics; it is thus a comment on lexical meaning. All example items and idiom items are distributed in the subcomment semantics following the first one, in accordance with a system explained in the metatext of the dictionary. An unintegrated microstructure might be as follows:

Ayon [àyóŋ] nom. Adjectif. Edzom eze ki avè.

1.chaleur. nom.

2. tempérament bouillant. adjectif

3.dynamique.adjectif

A Mot nyi ene ayon. Cet homme est dynamique. (3)

Medzim mene ayon. L'eau est chaude. (1)

Dzal ene ayon. Le village est plein d'animation. (2)

5.7.4. The access structure of a dictionary

The access structure is realised by those component parts of the overall design of a dictionary that allow the user to search for a particular item. The prototypical *external* (or *outer*) access structure in the general dictionary is the alphabetical order of lemmas. In many general monolingual dictionaries, the macrostructure and the only outer access structure coincide; such dictionaries belong to mono-accessible dictionaries with one outer access structure. Dictionaries are called mono-accessible when there is only one defined *search path* to reach a lemma sign. The complete search path always has two parts: in single-volume dictionaries, the outer search path proceeds from the top to the bottom; if the dictionary has more than one volume, the search path starts with the information on the spine. Once the lemma is found, there is a change in direction. The *inner search path* starts at the lemma and proceeds through the dictionary article. Some metatexts explain *inner access structures* in relation to types of lemma signs. Most dictionaries have, in addition, a shorter version of the *outer search path.* The rapid access structure search path starts at the running heads of the column, which are guiding elements other than the lemmata. Together the running heads of the dictionary form the *outer rapid access structure* of the general monolingual dictionary, which goes from the left to the right without exception. Some dictionaries have a second rapid access structure, namely the *thumb index*. The guiding elements of thumb indexes are either letters or pairs of letters or both. There are also *rapid inner access structures* of a linear type. They include at least one lemma, one structural indicator within the article and two search areas. Search areas are sets of article positions marked by a structural indicator, for example: **"+", "*"**.

Since this study deals with a school dictionary, many of the above features are not as relevant to the needs of the target group. In a school dictionary, the lexicographer should keep the amount of data presented in the dictionary article balanced. Most importantly, the compiler must accomplish an adequacy between the dictionary type and functions and the users' needs.

green

1. *noun* the colour of fresh grass

2. *adjective* being the colour green:

   Peas and beans are green. Plants often

   have green leaves.

3. *adjective* not ripe: *Eating green peaches*

   will make your stomach sore.

Sand *noun* (no plural)

   The very soft ground which is

   made from tiny pieces of rock and

   is found on beaches, near rivers or

   in deserts: *Children love to play in*

   the sand at the beach.

These two dictionary articles are taken from the Maskew Miller Longman *Illustrated School Dictionary for Southern Africa*. They show how simple the presentation of the article should be kept, constantly having the user and his/her reference skills in mind. The first article shows the treatment of a polysemous lemma sign and presents the different senses distinctively and without complexities. The last article presents the lemma sign with its comment on form and comment on semantics in the simplest way possible for a successful retrieval of the information by the user. In the first article, the lemma **green** is treated with different polysemous senses, each sense is given a number followed by the comment on form and the comment on semantics respectively. This gives the user clear and unambiguous access to the needed information. The lemma **sand** is followed by the comment on form and, down the following line, the definition is given followed by the example sentence given in italics.

5.7.5. The mediostructure of a dictionary

The mediostructure or cross-reference structure is the network of cross-references that allows compilers and users of a dictionary to locate material spread over different component parts (cf. Wiegand 1996). There are many different types of cross-references and typographical devices to support them (between or inside articles, within or outside the word list, alphabetical or numerical, by lettering or punctuation, etc.) and the framework for their systematic study (cf. Gouws & Prinsloo 1998:19). The mediostructure or cross-reference structure is neither a constituent nor an ordinal structure, but a special type of network structure, with the help of which parts of the knowledge presented in a printed dictionary are linked to each other by means of the dictionary subject, and also with the subject of the data presented outside the dictionary.

The cross-reference structure should be kept very simple in school dictionaries.

Chichement adv. En dépensant le moins possible d'argent.

Ils vivent chichement.→ **pauvrement**.

This dictionary article from *Le Robert Junior* shows a cross-reference entry. The cross-reference marker used is the arrow pointing to another word included as lemma in the dictionary as a cross-reference address indicating a synonym of the lemma sign.

5.7.6. The addressing structure of a dictionary

The items of a dictionary article are always textual segments referring to something external to the text. In language dictionaries, the segments refer to properties of expressions of the language. These properties are the subject of the dictionary. The relations mentioned are established by *addressing* (cf. Hausmann & Wiegand 1989:349). Each item refers to an addressee through an address given in the text of the article. The central address of a dictionary article is the item giving the form of the

lemma sign. The lemma introduces the lemma sign into the article text by mentioning it. Once mentioned, the lemma sign is available for further lexicographic treatment, particularly for the definitions. According to Gouws (2001:90), when the address is the lemma, it is *lemmatic addressing;* when it is the sublemma that is addressed, it is *sublemmatic addressing*. In all other cases, the items are addressed by *non-lemmatic addressing.* If all the items inside the article are addressed at the lemma, it is *full lemmatic addressing.*

The general rule in school dictionaries is to keep the addressing structure at its simplest, e.g. the following:

From *Collins Primary Dictionary*

reference references

NOUN **1** a mention of someone or something in a

speech or a piece of writing.

2.a document written by someone who knows

 you, that describes your character and abilities,

 usually when you are applying for a job.

5.8. Concluding Remarks

According to Rey-Debove (quoted by Wiegand 1989):

The most striking characteristic of the dictionary is the presentation of its text. This text is a sequence of isolated statements, separated by the starting of a new line and/or the special and constant typographic signs at the beginning of any statement. [...] It is a sum of independent (sometimes rearranged) information and not unitary but a broken-up text like a philosophical treatise which is divided into chapters.

Even though all does not accept this comparison between lexicographic texts and philosophical treatises, it is referred to here because it is a reminder of the important fact that dictionaries are carriers of texts. This means that dictionaries should be designed and compiled in a way that makes it easier for users to access the

information contained in these texts. Lexicography deals with words from texts and formulates new texts for them. The text-type dictionary article must be examined with regard to the text structure. Lexicographers must be well-informed about the structure of these dictionary articles. Thus, Wiegand in his theory makes provision for every element of the dictionary article on the macrostructural level as well as on the microstructural level. The aim in this chapter was to provide an overview of some dictionary typologies and to identify aspects of the theory of lexicographic texts. The planning and compilation of a dictionary must not be done in a random way, but be based on the theory of lexicographic texts. Every type of dictionary finds its structure through Wiegand's theory of lexicographic texts.

First, it is crucial to determine the target group because dictionaries are understood as 'containers of texts' with a pedagogical or socio-cultural function. This function has implications for the presentation of the dictionary articles. The design of the dictionary articles, the macrostructure and the microstructure must be designed with the users' needs in mind. The typology that is determined in rapport with the target users could thus be planned according to the future users' needs.

In this research, a French-Fang bilingualised school dictionary responds to the specific needs of the user group: children in their early years of formal education and young adults and adults engaged in literacy programmes. The features of this bilingualised school dictionary are adapted to the functions of text production and text reception that are required in a language teaching and learning context. This typology answers in a practical and better way to the demands of Fang mother tongue instruction and learning, while not excluding the official language, French, from the learning system.

In the specific case of Gabon, mother tongue education in Fang will cover both the teaching of and teaching through Fang. This study advocates the view that this is achievable with the help of a good educational tool produced for this purpose, namely the French-Fang bilingualised school dictionary, which, although not the only instrument, will be an indispensable and practical one.

Chapter 6 A FRENCH-FANG BILINGUALISED SCHOOL DICTONARY (FFBSD)

6.1. Introduction

It has been argued in the previous chapters that there is an urgent need for a school dictionary in the Gabonese language learning and teaching context. The needs of the users and the functions assigned to the dictionary proposed by this study are best met by the hybrid typology of a French-Fang bilingualised school dictionary.

The language situation as a whole in Gabon compels the compilation of school dictionaries that would enhance and reinforce the teaching and learning of local languages in the schools. In the case of Fang, it has been shown in Chapter 2 that the language had once been taught and that it had been a language of tuition in some parts of Gabon.

The approach followed here is to emphasise the use and/or initiation of native languages in the early years of the process of children's language acquisition during their first years at school. The children will be immersed from birth and grow in a multilingual environment (in communities, homes and mostly at school). This is an advantage when it comes to the acquisition of languages within that multilingual setting. The process of learning other languages will coincide with the acquisition of their mother tongue, whether in an oral or in a written form. The children will grow up with both languages and will master them at an almost equal level. In Gabon, as in many other African countries, multilingualism is the norm rather than the exception. This should be reflected in sociolinguistic practice, as well as in cultural and, particularly, educational policies. It would therefore be appropriate to create an educational system that represents a multilingual reality that will become much more relevant to the communities.

The government is aware of the situation and is in the process of introducing local languages in schools. There is consequently a need for pedagogical material, which must be produced and prepared to sustain the introduction of other Gabonese languages besides French in schools. This includes dictionaries, particularly school dictionaries.

The target users for these dictionaries have been determined as primary level schoolchildren in the age group seven to eleven years old. Guided by the practical considerations of these users, the lexicographer must determine the presentation of a school dictionary according to the profile of its users. Before presenting the intended school dictionary, the following questions arise:

- How is a school dictionary planned?

- What is a school dictionary?

- What is the user profile?

- What are the functions of the dictionary?

- What will the data distribution structure be?

- To what extent must the meaning and the grammatical categories be presented?

- What is the difference between a school dictionary and a learner's dictionary?

This chapter attempts to give sustainable answers to these questions and it finally presents an overview of a school dictionary in Fang.

Dictionaries differ in size and purpose. The structure and content of the article also differ accordingly. The contents of the article of a learner's dictionary may not be the same as in a general reference dictionary. The types of definitions, the number of illustrative examples and collocations differ between larger and smaller dictionaries. Lexicographers too often neglect the importance of a well-designed macrostructure as a functional component of the total linguistic contents of a dictionary by restricting their attempts to enhance user-friendliness to the microstructural level. Dictionaries are instruments of linguistic and communicative empowerment and therefore lexicographers have to make sure that their intended target users receive optimal linguistic information. The way in which macrostructural elements are presented should reflect their linguistic status. When deciding on which form to include as macrostructural component, a lexicographer has to consider the theoretical status attributed to that form.

Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:329) emphasises that lemmatisation refers to

The selection of one single morphological form whose function in the macrostructure is to represent the total set of grammatical and morphological forms of the linguistic sign treated in the microstructure.

A dictionary article usually consists of a single lexical unit and its lexicographical description. A lexical unit is a part of the lexical stock of the language. However, when it is presented in the dictionary in an article, it has a universe of its own.

An article in a general dictionary usually contains the following item classes as enumerated by Singh (1982:110):

- Headword (lemma)

- Spelling and pronunciation

- Grammatical data or meaning (also derivatives, inflected form in some cases)

- Meaning (definition, description or equation)

- Illustrative examples (also illustrative pictures)

- Phrases and idioms

- Etymology

- Synonyms and antonyms

It is not necessary that every article in every dictionary have all these data categories, which are treated in more detail later in the chapter.

This study focuses on pedagogical dictionaries, which would have to meet the needs of the two target user groups identified earlier. During the editorial process, the lexicographer has to determine what lexical items should be included. In the case of schoolchildren who are not able to determine their pedagogical needs, the lexicographer will have to rely on the input of teachers. The teacher is in a position to determine what the needs of his/her learners are and is able to decide which items should be included in texts and exercises. The acceptance of "the dictionary as a

reliable guide to real language use" and as a useful addition to a teacher's tool kit depends on him/her.

The corpus is a reliable representation of the language in usage. It will best serve the users if the FFBSD is compiled from a dedicated corpus made from textbooks used in the curriculum. It will differ from a general corpus of Fang, which is the language that is recorded. There is, however, a need to match the general corpus and the dedicated corpus on the base of the high frequency of some lexical items of the language.

6.2.   School Dictionary

Gouws (2001:74) divides pedagogical dictionaries into two subcategories, namely school dictionaries and learner's dictionaries as seen previously in chapter 5.

A history[6]

Children's dictionaries rarely get the recognition they deserve. In 1596, Edmund Coote, master of Freeschool at Bury St. Edmunds, produced a textbook called *The English Schoole-Maister*. It consisted of graded passages of text at progressive levels of complexity and a supplement of about 20 pages at the back. This supplement consisted of "slightly hard words in alphabetical order with meanings". This is the first attempt at producing a reading scheme combined with the first monolingual English dictionary. The aim of *The English Schoole-Maister* was to teach children (and illiterate adults) to read and give them first their reference skills. The modern dictionary also owes its existence to another schoolmaster's efforts to teach his pupils the meanings of "hard words". In 1604, Robert Cawdrey compiled *A Table Alphabetical*, an alphabetical list of "hard words".

In this sense, school dictionaries are as old as lexicography. But dictionaries for children as we know them today, with carefully selected headword lists and graded vocabularies, were unknown before the twentieth century.

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[6] Part of this history of the school dictionary has been excerpted from the Oxford's Specialist Children Dictionary Unit web page: *The Word Watchers.*

Thorndike (1991) explains that it was not until the 1930s that the first general school dictionary arrived when Edward L. Thorndike, an educational psychologist, first put forward the notion of a controlled and graded defining vocabulary for children, and produced his *Century-Thorndike Dictionaries* aimed at three levels of school-age children.

These first attempts at school dictionaries were very different from the children's dictionaries of today, with their rigid definitions and painfully formal English. As recently as 1970, definitions like the following could be found in school dictionaries aimed at eight- to fourteen-year-olds:

dog, *n.*
> carnivorous quadruped, domesticated in great variety of breeds, also found wild; male of this or fox or wolf.

prejudice, *n.*
> preconceived opinion, favourable or unfavourable bias. *v.t.* damage validity or prospects of; inspire with prejudice.

irony, *n.*
> expression of meaning by use of words normally conveying opposite meaning: apparent perversity of fate or circumstance.

NEW DICTIONARY ENTRIES (*The Oxford School Dictionary*)

dog *noun* (*plural* **dogs**) a four-legged

animal that barks, often kept as a pet.

prejudice *noun* (*plural* **prejudices**) a fixed

opinion formed without examining the facts fairly.

> **irony** (*say* **I**-ron-ee) *noun* (*plural* **ironies**) **1** saying the
> opposite of what you mean in order to emphasize
> it, e.g. saying 'What a lovely day' when it is
> pouring with rain. **2** an oddly contradictory
> situation, *The irony of it is that I tripped while*
> *telling someone else to be careful.* (From Greek
> *eiron* = someone who pretends not to know)

Part of the problem in the early days of children's dictionary publishing was that children's dictionaries were produced – almost as an aside – by the same editors and lexicographers who produced adult dictionaries, with little school trialling and teacher and child input.

It is only in recent years that publishers have begun to realise how important it is to target language level, word choice and design at different age levels and how necessary it is to use editors and lexicographers who are children's specialists – in conjunction with educational advisers and teachers, and extensive classroom trialling.

School dictionaries are a specialised category, which has been neglected often in the past due to a false impression that these dictionaries are easy to compile and merely require a cut and paste approach to extract them from bigger dictionaries. School dictionaries are aimed at scholars who are mother tongue speakers of the language treated in the dictionary. The fact that dictionaries for children have to differ considerably from those for adults is self-evident. Children are less able to make use of a complicated format, and it is more difficult for them to determine whether the information given is relevant to their needs of the moment. A dictionary for children should therefore not be an abbreviated dictionary for adults.

Due to the needs of their target users, a synchronic approach typifies this dictionary type. The macrostructure of such a dictionary is limited and represents the core vocabulary with which the children come into contact during natural conversations and when working through their study material.

School dictionaries display a low density of data; i.e. the quantitative relation between macrostructural and microstructural entries, because each article is allowed

only a restricted number of microstructural categories (c.f. chapter 5). These dictionaries focus on the comment on semantics and more specifically on a brief paraphrase of meaning given as the lexicographic definiens. Gouws (2001:75) explains that a limited process of co-textualisation occurs although examples are used to illustrate some typical occurrences of the lexical items functioning as treatment units. The access structure of a school dictionary should be devised to assist the specific age group, identified as the target users of the dictionary, in a functional way. The dictionary will be dominated by the central list, and a limited number of texts function as outer texts. It is important that the envisaged lexicographical functions prevail at all times in these dictionaries.

6.3.   The Psychology of a School Dictionary

Dictionaries are indicators or mirrors of a country's social, cultural, scientific and technological development. In Gabon, indications are that the language communities of all indigenous languages need dictionaries. Responding to this need does not merely entail a simplistic solution to the lack of dictionaries; it also entails providing a potential bridge for the communication gap between communities, in addition to documenting and preserving the rich variety of Gabonese languages. The school dictionary is one of the most useful and appropriate ways to bridge that gap.

Thorndike[7] (1991) confirms that the dictionary is one of the most important instruments of instruction. It offers an enormous store of systematised knowledge, more or less useful to every pupil. The saving of time and error made possible by this great invention of past scholarship is immeasurable. Furthermore, a dictionary ranks high in satisfying two ideals of current educational theory, namely that instruction

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[7] Edward. L. Thorndike's (1874-1949) seminal paper, which was delivered at the Fifteenth Annual Conference on Educational Measurements at Indiana University on 20-21 April 1928 and published in the *Bulletin of School of Education, Indiana University* IV(6),July 1928: 24-31). The principle promulgated by Professor Thorndike here, and subsequently applied in the Thorndike-Barnhart dictionaries for American school children, is now well known.

I present here these principles as they were first formulated.

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should respond to a real need and that the pupil should be taught knowledge and skills relevant to and useful for his/her real-world context. A pupil uses a dictionary when he/she really wants to know the meaning, pronunciation or spelling of a word, which is something he/she could do in a similar case in the real world outside school.

School dictionaries are also in some respects greater sinners against psychology and pedagogy than any other instruments of instruction. Both because of their values and their vices, their improvement should be a main task of educational science. Yet, they have been almost unnoticed by all the educational reformers of the past century. The Herbartian doctrine that new knowledge, insight or habit should be taught with the optional use of the experiences already undergone, abilities already acquired and knowledge already present, could have been applied directly and helpfully to the definitions of rare words by common and unfamiliar words; but no follower of Herbart used the doctrine to remodel dictionaries.

The so-called child study movement which, especially from about 1890-1910, studied the concrete details of child life with a view to fitting education to the natures, needs and interests of children, criticised and sought to change school material and methods in many ways. However, it seems never to have inquired into how well school dictionaries were adapted to children's minds. Recent studies, which emphasise the psychology of learning, have established facts and principles that are changing teaching and textbooks in reading, arithmetic and spelling in fundamental ways. Nevertheless, they too neglect the most-used textbook of word knowledge.

Thorndike's findings have brought improvements to school dictionaries and developments in the field of theoretical lexicography have changed the general approach to pedagogical dictionaries. Applying psychology and educational science to the making of school dictionaries improves the learning process, and clarifies and emphasises certain general principles of textbook construction. For the school dictionary, in its presentation of the meanings of words is an extreme example of the modification of elaborate scholarly knowledge for presentation to children.

Thorndike (1991:16) asserts that a great dictionary is a masterpiece of science and scholarship, and also of system and organisation, condensing the experiences of millions of hours of reading into pithy epitomes and apt illustrations of a word's meaning. It is a treasure house of conveniently arranged information for an educated

adult. The school dictionary made out of it or adapted from it, valuable as it is, does not perform anything like a corresponding service for the eight- to twelve-year-old pupil. The reasons for this comparative failure are instructive. One is that the child's book is made too small because it is a general tendency to reduce the amount of information in adapting the standard dictionary for school use. Reducing the number of facts and principles to be taught is certainly desirable, but it will usually require many more words and pictures and diagrams to teach the same fact and principle to the immature, untrained and uninformed pupil, perhaps four times as many. If dictionaries for eight- to twelve-year-olds are to be about one-fourth the size of dictionaries for adults, as they used to be, the number of facts presented would have to be reduced to about one-sixteenth as many as are in the large dictionary. Of course, no such proportionate reduction is made.

The custom of making small books for small pupils shows its irrational associations beautifully in the size of the pupils compared to the adult. Reduction by omitting words altogether is in general suitable, just as it is reasonable to omit certain topics in the adaptation of college books for lower schools. Reduction by omitting some of the rarer meanings of a word is less acceptable, as is reduction by condensing the treatment of any one meaning

This indeed is where so many of the makers of schoolbooks have disregarded the laws of psychology and teaching. They keep a general principle, omitting or reducing the explanations and illustrations of it, and the fact or principle thereby becomes incomprehensible to children. They keep a man's name and the bare fact of his chief activity, but omit all the details about him that will make him real and vivid to the pupil.

In the case of dictionaries, pictures and illustrative sentences containing the word are omitted, leaving the bare definitions, even though the child needs the pictures and illustrative sentences more than the adult does, and needs two or three of them where one would serve the adult. The treatment of any one word-meaning in a large dictionary is already condensed to the limit of comprehensibility. Thorndike recommends that the modification needed in adapting the treatment to children should be in expansion by repetition, illustration and the replacement of unintelligible

characterisations and definitions by simple cases of actual use where the context teaches the meaning.

We should therefore consider dictionaries chiefly as teachers of the meanings of words and limit this to dictionaries used in elementary school and junior high school. In framing definitions, as elsewhere, the maker of a school dictionary must consider the learner. A definition should obviously be a means of learning what the word means, as well as a convenient way to remember and to state what it means when you know it. Eternal vigilance in consideration of the learner is the price of success.

The best form of definition, psychologically, is probably an approximate synonym with the needed limitation, qualification or specialisation. Truth, and truth in a form which fits the learner, should be the aim of the school dictionary and every other instrument of instruction.

6.4.   Criteria for a Good Children's Dictionary

In this study, the criteria for a good children dictionary are in the answer to the following question: **What do children need from a dictionary?** Eventually, they need the same as sophisticated adult dictionary users need; they want to check spelling, or to find out what an unfamiliar word means or how it is used. But, while they are doing all these things, they also need to be learning how to be dictionary users. These are the twin aims that the compilers of a dictionary for children have to bear in mind (1. use a dictionary to look up information and 2. acquire dictionary skills).

The age and learning stage of a child are crucial in the compilation of children's dictionaries. Children who are beginner readers need dictionaries which focus on a few early dictionary skills, like learning the alphabet and finding the way round the alphabet. Older readers can progress to acquiring more complex dictionary skills, like learning how to look up a word for spelling and context. It is only a very confident dictionary user who will use a dictionary to look up words because they need general information on the usage, grammar, pronunciation and origin of that particular word,

and refer to appendices and introductions, or use complicated cross-referencing systems.

A child of six or seven has different needs compared to a child of thirteen. For six- to seven-year-olds, the dictionary is a new experience and they need to be led into its mysteries as sympathetically as possible. As they grow, the dictionaries need to grow with them, and a publisher must provide dictionaries that progress in complexity and are clearly demarcated so that a child at any age and learning stage can find a dictionary most suitable for their needs. In this way, dictionary workbooks become valuable tools.

Another feature that makes a good children's dictionary is adequate coverage suitable for a particular age group and stage of learning. Comprehensive coverage is not the aim, and no children's dictionary is suitable for extensive adult use. It is important to know that omissions of words do not necessarily have any bearing on the quality and usefulness of a children's dictionary.

It has been agreed that when it comes to the compilation of a school dictionary, it is no longer a matter of reducing a large dictionary to a small size and trying to adapt it to children. The children, who are identified as the user group here, are the centre of all attention and all endeavours. The pupils are the targeted group and therefore the aim of the makers of a school dictionary is to respond to their needs. In the environment of learning and education, the children are definitely not the ones that decide what to learn or what not to learn. This leads to the people who provide the teaching, the teachers. Lexicographers alone cannot decide what to include in a school dictionary.

The cooperation between the makers of the school dictionary and teachers has become unavoidable and pertinent to the production of high-ranking school dictionaries. It has become a team effort comprising teachers, lexicographers and educational experts. The question of data distribution therefore becomes central and crucial to the successful compilation of a school dictionary. It determines the vocabulary to be included. A good example of this kind of teamwork is Oxford University Press' Children's Dictionary Publishing Unit. This unit produces dictionaries that are conceived and put together, often from scratch, and specially

targeted at specific age levels. Editors and lexicographers who are specialists in children's publishing staff the unit, and expert educational advisers and practising teachers support them.

Oxford's children's dictionaries are all trialled and tested in schools. In recent dictionaries, lemmas are drawn from word frequency tables, which are based on material from primary school reading lists and children's written class work, so that it includes words young children frequently come across and use regularly.

The editors construct detailed dictionary questionnaires that are sent out to schools; they commission teachers to trial dictionaries in class, using exercises designed to check that children find the dictionary easy to use, that it contains all the information they need, and that it is aimed at the appropriate level.

The teachers then make comments and recommendations and send in children's written work. In addition, teachers interested in linguistics are invited to comment on the headword list, which can be as large as 40,000 lemmas, all the definitions and the appropriateness of the examples.

Teachers are in the best position to identify the core vocabulary and grammatical categories needed for the level of education and understanding of pupils in this target group. Although the compilation phase processes all the data categories, it is not in itself the end of the matter. Rather, the results are proven satisfactory when the product responds to the requirements and expectations of the target group. A dictionary intended for children has to differ from those for adults. Children are less able to make use of a complicated format, and it is more difficult for them to determine whether the data given is relevant to their needs. It is therefore a meticulous task to decide which data categories to include and which to leave out.

Lexicographic functions play a central role in the success of the envisaged French-Fang bilingualised school dictionary. The functions required from the dictionary are to aid in the process of language acquisition and enrichment, orthography acquisition, mastering of the language system in the different tasks of speaking, reading, listening and writing. The mother tongue, Fang, is learned as well as French for wider communication.

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6.5.   The Situation of Usage and Dictionary Culture

The situation of usage will mostly be in the classrooms, at schools or any learning centre. The target user group will use the dictionary to retrieve information about the words (meaning, translation equivalents, spelling, pronunciation, etc.). The cooperation between the lexicographic team and the educational experts, such as teachers, will be a great aid. The target users do not have a well-established tradition of dictionary culture. The dictionary culture has to be taught and be extended beyond the classrooms or schools situations to the home and community situations. It should be part of the curriculum and there should be complementary material to support this activity, such as dictionary workbooks. This will give concrete support and a platform to implement what has been taught during lessons in the classrooms. Children can be given exercises in the classroom, as well as homework where parents or guardians will be involved. The establishment of a dictionary culture in the Gabonese situation goes hand in hand with cooperation between lexicographers, teachers and parents of this specific target user group.

As mentioned above, the situations of usage can be collective in a class set up or individual. The goal of a dictionary consultation in this specific case will be to learn Fang and French as languages that are part of daily life communication for the learners. The French-Fang bilingualised school dictionary has the role to help in the tasks of language acquisition and vocabulary enrichment, spelling system and language system learning.

Dictionaries in general are complex and require skills from the learners, the first of which is the ability to read. Gross (1989:176) reveals that investigations in France have shown that almost half of eleven-year-old the pupils (first-year senior primary) have problems with reading. The role of the bilingualised school dictionary is to aid in the acquisition of skills in reading and vocabulary retention, and to master the spelling system of the pair of languages. To this end, the mastering of the alphabetical system will be established by means of training and activities in the classroom. The recognition of typographic indicators occurring in the dictionary should be taught. The children need to be motivated about using the dictionary individually or in a

group. This has implications for the layout of the dictionary and implies that the micro-architecture has to be presented in a clear and consistent manner. The articles will become more accessible because of the typographic markers. The structuring within the article has to make provision for an inner search path that the user can follow with identification in text blocks. The lexicographer should explain every aspect of the structure and contents so that the user is at ease during the consultation process.

6.6.   The Dictionary Layout

The bilingualised school dictionary will present a clear layout to make it easier to use. The layout of the school dictionary plays an important role in its success. It is therefore important to use plenty of colours and make the page design spacious, using none of the small print and compressed text of a conventional adult dictionary. The binding and packaging are also important; books must be sturdy to withstand the wear and tear they receive from children's hands. Getting the dictionary habit should be fun, not boring or difficult. The illustrations in the bilingualised dictionary will be in colour, some will be drawings or sketches, and others will be pictures made by electronic devices, such as computers or digital cameras.

The cover page is equally important in the layout of the dictionary. Both the front and back cover pages must be attractive and used creatively to make the dictionary appealing and eye catching to the user. These cover pages will market what the dictionary offers the user, serving the purpose of advertising boards for it. The micro-architecture also plays an important role in the layout of the dictionary. Every structure will be presented in a friendly and consistent way to add value to the layout.

Another feature of the bilingualised school dictionary layout, which can also be an access structure, is the alphabet from A-Z on each page of the central list; the alphabet letter treated will be in colour, for instance red or blue. On the page, each letter of the alphabet will appear in its capital form, with its small form next to it. This will give a red thread going though on the top white pages of the book. In the middle of the dictionary, there will be a section of red or blue pages, the middle matter (pages are coloured on the edges) that will present data on, for instance, the solar system, parts of the body, grammatical information, spelling of difficult words, time,

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measures, etc. The layout also has implications for the presentation of the data categories within a dictionary article in a way that makes the consultation easy and friendly. It adds great value to the measure of success of a school dictionary. Our aim is to make the bilingualised school dictionary as successful as possible. The consultation process in this dictionary must help and empower children to achieve the task of language acquisition in their mother tongue, Fang, while learning or reinforcing their acquisition of French.

Using dictionaries and acquiring early dictionary skills are extremely important. It equips us adults with the general reference skills needed in later life, enabling them to find their way around big books – regardless of whether they are large encyclopaedias, cookery books, telephone directories, or even shopping catalogues and television guides.

6.7.   The Corpus of the French-Fang Bilingualised School Dictionary

Kennedy (1998: 1, 5, 9) defines the corpus as a body of written text or transcribed speech that can serve as a basis for linguistic analysis and description. It is more simply a collection of running words. In a language, a corpus is built from different sources. They can be written sources like books, newspapers and existing dictionaries. They can be spoken sources, such as transcriptions of speeches in the language. In Gabon, where the languages have limited written sources, spoken sources essentially form the corpus. A corpus can be used as the only source for the compilation of dictionaries.

In this study, the collection of material to compile the corpus will be based on textbooks used in the classrooms and existing French school dictionaries. It has to be a dedicated corpus for the school dictionary. The teachers will compose lists of the core vocabulary used during the lessons and in the school environment. The teachers can best identify what should go in the dedicated corpus.

Once the corpus is compiled, it will give the lexicographers access to various manipulations with specific tools such as usage frequency, word lists, spell checkers

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etc. For a dictionary to be representative, it has to be based on a corpus. From the corpus the lemma candidate list will be selected by using the frequency count.

6.8.   The Frame Structure of the French-Fang Bilingualised School Dictionary

School dictionaries represent a specialised category. Gouws (2001:76) indicates that the macrostructure of such a dictionary is limited and represents the core vocabulary pupils come into contact during typical daily conversations and when working through their study material.

Generally, a school dictionary will display a low density of data. The focus is on the comment on semantics. A limited co-textualisation occurs although examples are used to illustrate some typical occurrences of the lexical item functioning as a treatment unit. The lemmas are listed in an alphabetical order from A to Z. The Fang school dictionary will not be a monolingual dictionary because the aim is to make the children acquire both French and Fang simultaneously. This research proposes that a hybrid dictionary will better satisfy the users.

Gouws (2004:267) defines the term *typological hybrid* to indicate a dictionary that displays features from more than one typological category. In this study, the case is that of a monolingual descriptive dictionary with a translation equivalent included in the comment on semantics. The children will have access to Fang through French. The study material available is in French, which will save time to constitute a word list from these and translate them into Fang. The aim of this dictionary is to provide all the information a pupil at this level needs in the most straightforward terms, while still providing more challenging material for older or more able primary pupils.

6.8.1. Different types of macrostructures

The different types of macrostructures have been discussed earlier in this study (cf. Chapter 5). The French-Fang bilingualised school dictionary (FFSBD) will present a strict alphabetical macrostructure.

6.8.1.1. A strict and straight alphabetical macrostructure

A strict alphabetical dictionary puts all lemmata strictly according to the alphabetical system. Wiegand (1989:383) also characterises this form of arrangement as a strictly alphabetical macrostructure without grouping. This means that, in this type of arrangement, the amount of carriers of the guiding element is equal to the amount of dictionary articles, and there are no sublemmata. In children's dictionaries, the presentation of the guiding elements can be by means of a combination of colour and forms. The presentation of the running head is in colour so that it is eye catching, which makes the reading easier for learners. A straight alphabetical ordering implies that the lemmata display a vertical macrostructural arrangement and all the lemmas are positioned alphabetically. The alphabet will be printed down the side of every page, showing the reader where they are. The letter with which the lemmas on a particular page start is printed in colour and the rest of the letters are black. The letters will be listed in two forms, capital and small. The letter of the section will be highlighted in red in the pages of the running heads starting with that letter of the alphabet. To encourage young dictionary users, the lemmas will be picked out in colour. It will also serve as a good search route, **a rapid access structure**, to the dictionary articles. The macrostructure of a dictionary often runs parallel to the **outer access structure**. Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:329) show that, when looking up a word in the dictionary, the reader firstly comes across the lemma sign, the lemma representing a lexical item.

When a user looks up a word under the letter **d,** the sideline on the left side of the dictionary will look as follows:

A a

B b

C c

D d

E e

F f

G g

H h

I i

J j

K k

L l

M m

N n

O o

P p

Q q

R r

S s

T t

U u

V v

W w

X x

Y y

Z z

The access alphabet for multiword lemmata, lemmata with diacritics, homonyms and homographs will be determined as follows. In the French-Fang bilingualised school

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dictionary, the above will appear in respect of the alphabetical order. In Fang, as in other Bantu languages, spelling raises the dichotomy of word tradition versus stem tradition.

- Multiword lemmata appear in the article slot of both words of the combination. They will receive a lexicographic treatment in both articles.

- Lemmata with diacritics: For French, the alphabetic order of the ranking of the letter prevails; the diacritics of any forms, whether they are at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of a word, do not have any influence on the alphabetical order. It is the letter that counts and determines the alphabetical access. For example, the word **dénoncer** (to denounce) is included in the dictionary before **dent** (tooth).

- Homonyms and homographs: The ordering is indicated by the frequency of use, indicated by a number in front of the lemma. For example, in French the lemma **mal**:

   mal[1] nom masculin. **1.** Le mal qui est contraire à la morale, à l'honnêteté: *à sept ans, on sait faire la difference entre le bien et le **mal***.

   2. des paroles méchantes:*Qui t'a dit du **mal** de moi?*

   3. douleur dans les pieds. *J'ai **mal** aux pieds.*

   4 effort, de la peine: *Elle se donne du mal pour apprendre à lire.*

   mal[2] adverbe. On ne parle pas bien. *À deux on parle **mal**.*

In Fang we see the following example:

   n'gon [1][ngòn] nom

   1. jeune fille, jeune femme non mariée. *Ngon tayem nzem.* La jeune fille sait danser.

   2. frimer, faire la moue. *A bo ngon.*

   n'gon [2] [ngòn] nom. Courge. *Efakh e n'gon.*

   n'gon [3] [ngòn] nom. La lune. *N'gon etoh mevua.*

6.8.1.2. Types of lemmata

The macrostructure contains all the lemmata, which is the collection of lexical items that have been included as treatment units in the dictionary. The lemmas that are the macrostructural elements will be entered alphabetically as indicated above.

The macrostructure of the planned dictionary will operate with the following lemmata: Lexical lemmas, sublexical lemmas and multilexical lemmas.

Lexical lemmas are single words that will constitute the bulk of the lemma candidate list of the FFBSD.

Sublexical lemmas derived from single words will be lemmatised with particular emphasis on their encoding function to help the learners acquire a word generating potential.

Multilexical lemmas from multilexical lexical items like idioms will appear in the dictionary article of the word introducing the multilexical lexical item.

These categories of lexical items should be included according to their usage frequency in the corpus. The macrostructure of the planned dictionary will establish what should be included in the dictionary. In this research, as mentioned earlier, the dictionary basis and the selection of the lemma candidate list are based on the corpus.

6.8.1.3. Additional macrostructural elements

A. Multilexical lexical items

In every language there are multiword lexical items. In dictionaries, they are usually treated as sublemmata of the main lemma with their own definition sentence and often also with their own example sentence.

In French, some multilexical lexical items are compounds words. They are defined as one word and mostly give a special meaning. In most cases, the meaning is transparent, for example:

feu d'artifice (fireworks display)

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> **hôtel de ville (city hall)**
>
> **arc-en-ciel (rainbow)**
>
> **sans souci ()**

In the FFBSD, they will be treated as lemmata following this pattern:

> **arc-en-ciel** nom masc. (pluriel:
> des **arcs-en-ciel**). **ntutum.** Un arc-en-ciel est
> une courbe multicolore dans le ciel.
> *Un arc-en-ciel est apparu après la pluie*
> *Ntutum onəyo nyene mveng eman non.*
>
> **hôtel de ville** nom masc. **ngoman.** Un hôtel de ville
> est la mairie d'une grande ville. *Le mariage a eu lieu a*
> *l'hôtel de ville. Alugan embe ngoman.*
>
> **ndzogh medzim** nom masc. **hippopotame**
> *Ene tsit da funa ne ndzogh da enyin ashin ete Afrique.*
> Un hippopotame est un gros mammifère qui vit dans
> les fleuves d'Afrique

B. Collocations and idioms

Collocations are combinations of words. Some collocations can be fixed expressions, meaning that they always occur in the specific combination of words. The meaning of a collocation is transparent. Its meaning is the same as the meaning of the words that constitute that collocation. Idioms are also a combination of words in a language, but they are generally fixed and their meaning is different from the meaning of the words that constitute that idiom. Idioms will not be included in the dictionary article, but they can be included in the back matter depending on their high frequency usage. In the FFBSD, collocations will be included as they are part of the daily language used in communication that the children are exposed to. Their presentation should be done in a clear way which does not lead to confusion in the children's minds. The decision in the FFBSD is to enter the collocation in the dictionary article of one of the components (base or collocator) of that collocation. The collocation will be entered at the end of the dictionary article and an illustrative example of its usage will be provided. In the FFBSD a collocation will appear as follows:

> **n'lem** [nlèm] nom.**coeur. N'**lem one ekila ya nyui da ve meki enyui ese. *N'lem wakur, le coeur bat.* **mbeba n'lem** *abele mbeba nlem ave more ase:*un bon coeur, généreux. **mbya n'lem** *babo nbya n'lem:* mauvais coeur, méchanceté*.*

This dictionary article presents the treatment of the lemma sign **n'lem.** The entries **mbeba n'lem** and **mbya n'lem** are collocations that occur in everyday language in Fang. Therefore, the decision is taken to include these collocations in this dictionary article to give the learners examples of the language in usage.

C. Cross-references

Hartmann and James (1998:32) define a cross-reference as a word or symbol in a reference work to facilitate access to related information. The form of a word, or the way it is written, changes, depending on how that word is used. The spelling of a form can look quite different from the spelling of its lemma, and so the form is often listed at a completely different place in the dictionary. Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:344) argue that cross-referencing opens a search path that ends in the dictionary itself. A *cross-reference* is a link between a form and the entry where the definition appears. The dictionary can have also external cross-reference addresses. This happens when the user is referred to a reference outside the dictionary like an encyclopedia or textbook that comes as a package with the dictionary. This occurs mostly with school dictionaries. In the envisaged dictionary there will have a dictionary internal cross-reference address, i.e. when a dictionary article refers to another dictionary article within the dictionary or to any other data in the dictionary (middle matter section). Cross-references look as follows:

- When a word has a difficult plural form, the cross reference indicator will refer to the article that represents the other lexical item, for example:

Feet more than one **foot**

Cheval (horse) plus d'un: **chevaux**

- When a word is a verb or an adjective, the cross-reference says 'look at',

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For example:

became look at **become**

An indication can also be given that the lemma **became** is a past tense form as follows:

became past tense of **become**

roi (king) cherche **reine (Queen)**

▪ When a word or a group of words is abbreviated or made shorter, the cross-reference from the abbreviation to the lemma says '*short for*', for example:

m. abbreviation**.** short for **meter** or **metres**

TGV est l'abbréviation de **<train à grande vitesse>**

TV short for **television**

In the FFBSD the decision on cross-reference entries is to make little use of any type of cross-reference addresses. Each word included as a lemma will get full lexicographic treatment. In the pursuit of the aim to give children all the data that they need to accomplish the different tasks of text production and text reception, or simply acquisition of the language. The cross-reference system might hinder this process. Cross-reference will be used to indicate synonymy in this dictionary. The main concern for the compilers will be to treat all the lemmas that comprise the lemma candidate list fully and use very little cross-referencing in the dictionary articles.

6.8.2. The accessory texts

The accessory texts of the FFSBD include a **front matter,** a **back matter** and a **middle matter**. These texts offer the users an aid to understand the codes and conventions that the compilers used in the dictionary. These texts offer equally a linguistic and grammatical aid to enable the learners in their consultation of the dictionary.

6.8.2.1 The front matter

The front matter contains the accessory texts that are placed in front of the central list as outer texts. The front matter text of the FFSBD will include the table of contents, the user's guide and the mini-grammar. The user's guide is an essential and compulsory text component of the front matter (cf. Hausmann and Wiegand 1989). The user's guide is for the FFSBD a pre-eminent accessory text that explicate to the users the codes, conventions, markers, and other systems employed in the dictionary. It empowers the target user group to adequately use the dictionary to the fullest. For the FFSDB the decision for effective usage of the user's guide is to teach it to the learners as activities in the classroom. In that way they will learn and acquire reference skills.

The mini-grammar, which is not a compulsory text, is also important. For the FFSBD the decision to include a mini-grammar for the pair of languages is motivated by the intention to introduce the learners to the basic rules of grammar, syntax and morphology in both languages.

6.8.2.2 The back matter

The back matter of the FFSBD will include a variety of texts. These texts have a pragmatic function to give extra encyclopaedic data like measures, time, shapes, fractions, solar systems, continents etc. The FFSBD as a school dictionary will make use of the back matter space to encourage the learners to discover new information

mostly of encyclopaedic nature. This encyclopaedic data must be relevant to the level of learning of the children and their discovery of the world.

6.8.2.3 The middle matter

The FFSBD will include a middle matter section to accommodate mostly illustrations. These illustrations serve as references from both the Fang and the French sections of the dictionary. It includes illustrations on themes such as body parts, months of the year, seasons, cultural activities etc.

6.9. The Microstructure of the School Dictionary

Hartmann and James (1998:95) define the microstructure as

> the internal design of a reference unit. In contrast to the overall word-list (macrostructure), the microstructure provides detailed information about lemmata, with comments on its formal and semantic properties (spelling, pronunciation, grammar or part of speech, definition, usage, etymology).

Hausmann and Wiegand (1989: 340) state that the microstructure of a dictionary is the total set of linearly ordered information items following the lemma.

In the FFBSD, it is not necessary that all data should be included in the dictionary, because a choice is made about the contents of the comment on form and on semantics according to the needs of the target user group. The children need to acquire both the written and oral code of both languages. They learn through the mastering of the vocabulary and be able to produce in both languages.

6.9.1. Types of microstructures

Dictionary research has resulted in the identification of different types of microstructures (cf. Wiegand 1989; 1996). The dictionary-specific lexicographic process of each project has to instruct the lexicographers with regard to the type of microstructure to be employed in the dictionary. This decision coincides with the

decision about the typological classification of the dictionary. A model for a new project should make provision for a choice between three types of microstructures, an *unintegrated,* an *integrated and* a *semi-integrated microstructure.* Gouws (2001:87) states that the choice between these is made in accordance with the proximity and the directness of the relation between each entry representing a paraphrase of meaning (in a monolingual dictionary) and the supporting co-text entries representing a translation equivalent (in a bilingual dictionary); the lexicographer gives an illustrative example after the translation equivalent. The different types of microstructures were discussed in Chapter 5. This section focuses on the type of microstructure needed for this school dictionary.

The planned dictionary will have a simple integrated microstructure. Gouws argues that an integrated microstructure presents a relation of direct addressing between a paraphrase of meaning/translation equivalent and its co-text entry/entries. Each paraphrase of meaning/translation equivalent is immediately followed by the co-text entry illustrating the typical usage of the lemma in question. The fact that no other occurrences of paraphrase of meaning or translation equivalent come between a given paraphrase of meaning/translation equivalent and its co-text entry decreases textual condensation and makes it easier for a user to interpret the contents of the subcomment on semantics correctly. Especially in the treatment of lemmas with many polysemous senses, the direct relation between co-text entry and paraphrase of meaning/translation equivalent ensures an optimal retrieval of information. This research agrees with Gouws, who affirms that this microstructure is ideally suited to monolingual and bilingual pedagogical dictionaries, or to desk/college and standard dictionaries.

> **examination** noun
>
> **1** a set of questions which you have to answer to show how much you know about something, a test (also called **exam**): *She passed all her school examinations.* **2** a careful look: *The policeman found nothing in his examination of the area.* **3** when a doctor checks your body to see if you are healthy: *The doctor's examination showed that I have an unusual sickness.*

The above example from the *Chambers Primary Dictionary* represents a dictionary article of the lemma sign **examination** which illustrates an integrated microstructure. Each polysemous sense of the lemma is treated in a separate article block called

integrate. All subcomments on semantics include co-text entries, the illustrative examples.

6.9.2. The microstructural elements

The type of dictionary determines the microstructural elements included in the dictionary. The FFBSD will include various types of data, such as semantic data, spelling data, pronunciation data and, to a certain extent, encyclopaedic data and cultural data. In order for the FFBSD to achieve its pedagogical and communication functions, the compilers will pay special attention to the way the data will be presented. To make instruction in the mother tongue effective and to enhance the quality of teaching in Fang, dictionaries such as the planned FFBSD must be compiled to be effective tools in the Gabonese education system. The importance of the presentation of data on spelling and on pronunciation is thus emphasised to give children a good foundation in their language acquisition process throughout the education system. This will determine the success of the FFBSD in regard to its goals and functions to empower the children through their mother tongue, Fang, and equally to equip them for the learning of French in their early years of formal education.

Microstructural elements hold the key to a satisfactory lexicographic project. The data presented in the microstructural elements can be structured in two categories. According to Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:346), two basic textual components of the dictionary article are part of the simple microstructure: **comment on form** and **comment on semantics**.

DA

CF   **CS**
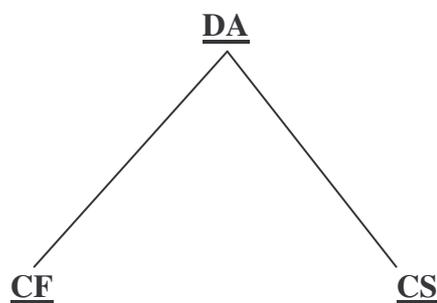
The comment on form

The comment on form deals with items indicating the form of the lemma sign, such as phonetic items, spelling items, syllabification items and inflectional items. The FFBSD will present data such as orthography, spelling, pronunciation, morphology and grammar.

A. Spelling

According to Hartmann and James (1998:130), spelling refers to the conventionalised system of representing speech by writing in a particular language.

Presentation of the French system

In this dictionary, the spelling will be given according to the International Phonetic Alphabet (**IPA,** revised in 1993, updated 1996). French uses the same alphabet of 26 letters used by languages like English and Spanish, amongst others. In French, the dictionary will give indications on the use of the diacritics on certain letters. These are a few of them on vowels and consonants:

Vowels:

é , à, ê, , ú, ï, ô, ù, û, î, ë

Consonants:

ç

The indication of these diacritics does not impede the access alphabet in French. The diacritics have no influence on the alphabetical order because they are not taken into consideration when it comes to the alphabetical order. The front matter of the FFBSD will have an exhaustive presentation of both the French and the Fang systems. The approach will guide the teacher to help the pupils in their understanding of French.

Presentation of the Fang system

In this school dictionary, spelling will be kept simple and friendly for the users. Although there is not a long tradition of dictionary compilation in Gabon, the fact is that the existing dictionaries in Gabonese languages have adopted the word tradition

and users are acquainted with it. In the case of a school dictionary such as the one planned here, pupils will not be required to adapt to a new presentation because it could become confusing. According to Van Wyk (1995), the word tradition presents lexical items in their complete forms, with the prefix and the stem, while the stem tradition presents lexical items under the stem without their prefixes. The goal of the FFBSD is to empower the children in their first language and second language in parallel. The emphasis is thus on the quality of the material and the presentation of data in the future dictionary.

Like most Gabonese languages, the system of Fang is based on the *Orthographe des Langues Gabonaises* (OLG), which is the most recent alphabet developed for Gabonese languages. It derives from the International African Alphabet for African Language conceived by the International African Institute (IAI).

Vowels

i [i], **u** [ɥ], **e** [ɛ], e [e], ∂ [∂], a [a], **o** [ɔ], o [o] and u [u]

Consonants

b [b], c [c], d [d], f [f], g [g], h [h], j [ʒ], l [l], m [m], n [n], **n** [ŋ], p[p], r [r], s [s], t [t], v [v], w [w], y [y], **gh** [γ], **jh** [ɗʒ], **vh** [β], **sh** [ʃ], **ny** [η]

The phonetic symbols have the same representation in French and in Fang, except for certain vowels and consonants that have different phonetic symbols. These are represented above in bold.

B. Pronunciation

Hartmann and James (1998:112) define pronunciation as the form, the production and representation of speech. This research would like the pronunciation to reflect the actual usage of speech, except for particular cases as discussed below.

It is common practice in dictionaries to indicate the pronunciation of a lemma. Pronunciation help is given in square brackets immediately after the lemma. In a school dictionary meant for small children, the pronunciation is indicated for some lemmas. It is presented in different ways:

- When a word ends with the same sound as another word, it rhymes with the other word. This pronunciation help will mention '*rhymes with*'; the indication of the pronunciation comes after the lemma sign for example:

  goal [rhymes with **hole**]

- When a word sounds exactly like another word, the pronunciation help says 'sounds like', for example:

  buy [sounds like **by**]

- Sometimes pronunciation help tells the children how to say the word, for example:

  architecture [say *arki-tek-tsha*]

The FFBSD will be a bi-directional dictionary that has two sections. The first section will be French-Fang and the second section will be Fang-French. In the FFBSD, pronunciation will be very prominent in both sections although it might be more in the Fang-French section because of the communicative functions of the FFBSD; children are required not only to be able to read and write in Fang, but first to acquire a basic vocabulary. The FFBSD approach will be to draw attention with a typographic indicator when the lemma is difficult to pronounce to the homophony and spelling difficulties for the purpose of clarification in special cases. For example, a learner should be shown the pronunciation in French of a lemma like **plantation** where **tion** is pronounced as [**sjõ**]. The pronunciation will be by means of phonetic transcription for both languages, but Fang tones, when they occur, will be added to the pronunciation. The choice for the phonetic transcription is motivated by the needs of the users. Pupils need to learn how to pronounce words in the acquisition of language. The phonetic transcription gives the sounds that the words make to the children, which makes it easy for them to internalise and memorise.

Pronunciation of lemmas in Fang will be indicated and kept as simple as possible in the representation of the phonology of the language represented by the lemmas. When there is interference between French and Fang, the pronunciation will indicate the actual usage by the speakers. This phenomenon, if it occurs occasionally, will be indicated in the back or front matter.

C. Inflectional items

The FFBSD as a school dictionary will include the inflectional forms of nouns, adjectives and verbs. This will empower the children to grasp the functioning of the words in active language.

D. Plural and gender forms

In Fang the plural or singular is indicated mostly by prefixes of the word as in most Bantu languages, for example **abo (foot)** and **mebo (feet**). In French there are several forms of plural, not only adding **–s**. This will be presented as follows:

---

abo.[abô].nom. **mebo** plur. **Pied**

Abo ene ekila nyu bot bawule do.

Zake sop abo. Viens laver ton pied.

The female or male forms determine the gender. For example **cousin (***male)* **(**cousin**)** and **cousine (***female***)** both indicate the same English equivalent **cousin**, but the change in form is made whether you are indicating a female or male person. The category form of gender is not limited to persons only, but extends to animals and things. It is therefore essential for this dictionary to make provision for the presentation of these forms. For example: **chat** *male* **(cat) chatte** *female;* **ami** *male* **(friend) amie** *female;* **maitre** *male (***teacher) maitresse** *female.* This will be presented in the FFSBD as follows:

---

chat nom masc. **chatte.** Nom. Fem. **Esinga**

Le chat est un petit domestique animal à

 poil doux. Esinga ene mane tsit atabe menta.

 Le chat miaule dehors. Esinga ta yue atane.

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> **ami** nom. masc. **amie.** nom. fem. **Angome.**
>
> Un ami est quelqu'un avec qui on s'entend et
>
> on aime. Angome ene more wa tzing ye wakane.
>
> *Les enfants jouent avec leurs amis.*
>
> *Bone ba vyue ya mengome mo.*

E. The comparative and superlative forms

Many adjectives have a *comparative form* and a *superlative form.* These also have to be indicated in this dictionary whenever applicable for both French and Fang.

> **bien** adv.,adj.,n.**. Nbeng.**
>
> D'une manière satisfaisante. *Elle*
>
> *conduit bien .Abo edzam ene nbeng*
>
> *mieux* comp, *meilleur sup.*

In the above example the lemma **bien** (good) is an adjective, a noun and an adverb. It has **mieux** (better) as a comparative and **meilleur** (best) as a superlative. The lemma **bien** is treated in its different parts of speech and the comparative and superlative forms are indicated. They receive full treatment under their alphabetical stretch as lemmas.

F. Verbal forms

The form of a verb depends on:

- The noun or pronoun that it is used with

Whenever a verb is treated in this dictionary, the verbal forms are given in the following order: present tense, present participle, past tense and past participle. In dealing with French, this dictionary will present in the front matter an appendix of

verb conjugation of different groups of verbs as they are in the language and seen in some of the applications. The pupils will learn these with the help of their teachers because it is also part of the curriculum for primary school with French as medium of instruction. It is a crucial step in every French teaching level to master these.

The dictionary articles of the FFBSD will present the above elements, which are part of the comment on form. The simple dictionary article will appear as follows:

---

fardeau [fardo]nom. masc. **n'bege**

Un fardeau est une chose loured qu'il

faut porter. *Le cheval est chargé d'un*

gros fardeau. Ekabela ebege azit n'bege.

The lemma (French) **fardeau** is given pronunciation indication so that the users will not be confused with the pronunciation of this lemma. The decision has been taken to give French pronunciation only to the lemmas that are difficult to pronounce. The part of speech of the lemma is given as: **nom and masculine.** The translation equivalent in Fang is **n'bege.** The next line gives meaning or definition in French. Finally examples sentences are presented in French and Fang.

The dictionary article of the same lemma in the Fang-French section of the FFSBD will be presented as below:

---

n'bege [nbegue].nom. **fardeau**

n'bege ene tzom adzit more abele.

Fame abele n'bege nvus dzya. Un homme

porte un lourd fardeau sur son dos.

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The lemma Fang **n'bege** is followed by a pronunciation indication between brackets, after it comes the part of speech **nom** and the translation equivalent in French **fardeau.** The next line gives the meaning in Fang, followed by example sentences in both languages.

The illustrations below show the composition of most of the dictionary articles as presented in the envisaged dictionary.

pronunciation, part of speech

lemma (French)

translation equivalent **(Fang)** meaning, *illustrative examples*

pronunciation, part of speech

lemma (Fang)

translation equivalent **(French),** meaning, *illustrative examples*
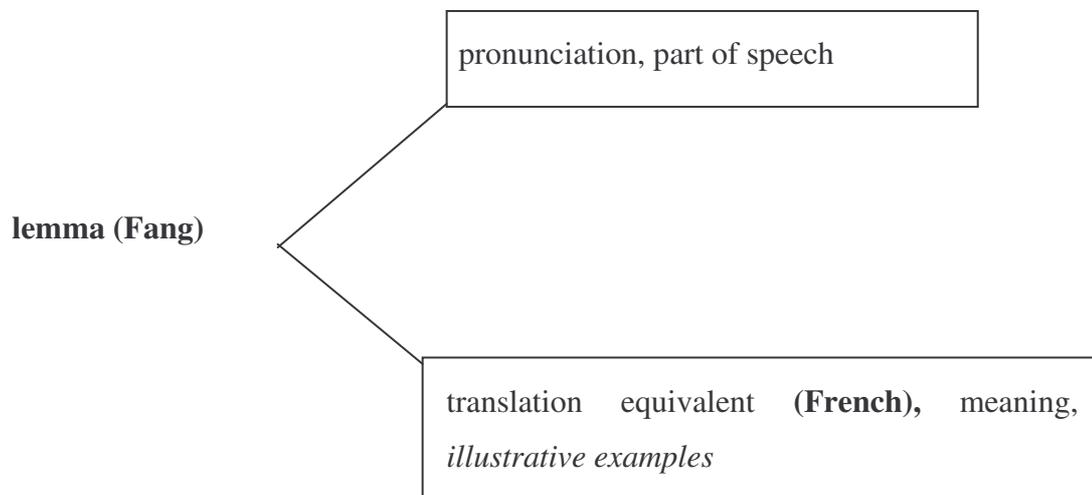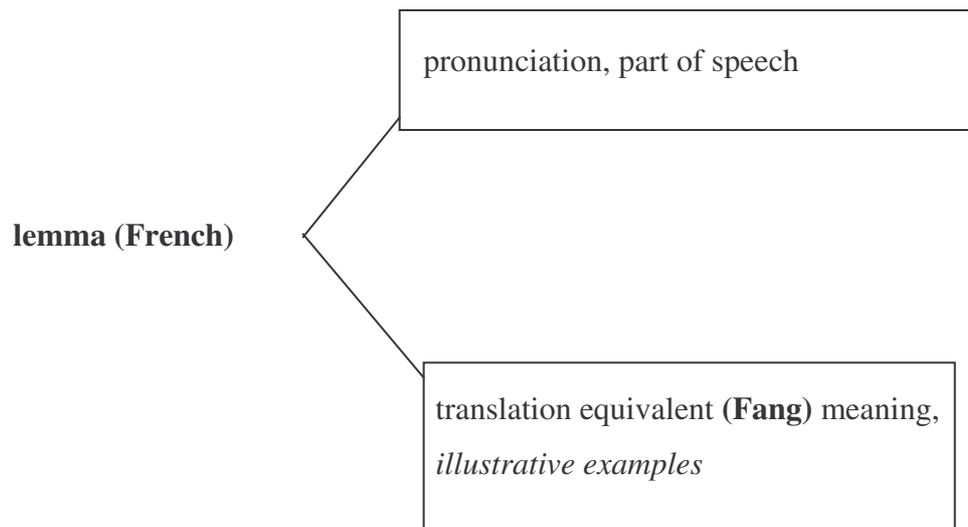
The comment on semantics

The comment on semantics in the FFBSD will deal with the following: paraphrase of meaning, translation equivalents, synonymy, polysemy, illustrative examples, pictorial illustrations and usage notes.

A. Definition

The definition explains the meaning of the word or words that the user looks up in French in the French-Fang section and in Fang in the Fang-French section of the dictionary. The FFBSD gives the most prominent and most occurring senses of the words determined by the high frequency of usage that will be tested from the dedicated corpus. The sense of a lemma that is used most frequently is given first. This means that there will be subcomments on semantics in the dictionary article due to the polysemous senses of lemmas. The frequency of usage test will be done on the corpus made from the material study in the curriculum and the core vocabulary. In this dictionary, every word used in a definition will also be defined in the dictionary so that it does not hinder the understanding of the word for which the dictionary is consulted.

In the following article of the lemma **asu** (face, front, extremity) the plural form is **mesu**. The pronunciation is indicated between the brackets. The first translation equivalent is the most frequently used followed by the other polysemous senses in number 2 and 3. The second article shows the lemma **visage** (face) in the French-Fang section of the dictionary and its treatment.

---

asu [àsù] nom pluriel **mesu**

1. **visage, figure, face.** *Me nga non asu tare,* j'ai le visage de mon père.

2. **devant.** *Asu dam*, devant moi. *Asu nda*, le devant de la maison, terrasse,veranda, devanture.

3. **extremité., bord.** *Asu ntum,* extrêmité de la canne*. Asu eto*,bord d'une etoffe coupée*.

The same lemma (**asu, visage**) in the French-Fang section of the FFSBD will appear as follows:

> **visage** nom masculine. **asu.** Le visage est le devant de la tête: tu as un beau visage, *obele nbabe asu.* Synonymes: **face, figure.**

The definitions will deliberately be kept simple and the tone friendly. Thorndike (1991) advises that the definitions in a children's dictionary should more often be simple cases of actual use where the context teaches the meaning. Every conscientious dictionary maker seeks to avoid circular definitions such as "**bravery** is courage"; "**courage** is bravery". An ordinary pupil will give up the consultation at this point. The definition of a word cannot be given in words unknown to the user. It will be far better not to give a definition, but to take the necessary effort to devise example sentences in which the context reveals the meaning. Some lexicographers think that the best form of definition is probably an approximate synonym with the needed limitations and qualifications. In the FFBSD, the transfer of semantic data is the focal point because most of the dictionary consultation is motivated by enquiries on semantics. The presentation of semantic data is essential to the success of the FFBSD in achieving its goal of being a tool to be used for the acquisition of Fang. Example sentences will play a central role in the transfer of the data on semantics in the FFBSD because the meaning will be better conveyed through the illustration examples where the meaning is revealed by the context.

Finally, for this school dictionary compilers must consider the pupil when devising the definitions. A definition should obviously be a means of learning what the word means, as well as assisting the pupil to remember it and use it correctly. A definition should enable the pupil to make the word real and vivid and fix it in his/her memory. The definitions will be well written as ordinary sentences, as if they were replies to a child's questions rather than in the usual dictionary telegraphese.

For example:

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What is a ruby?

Ruby

A ruby is a red jewel.

Definitions for young children concentrate on the main features of a word describing what children will identify with. In a sense, it is seeing through the eyes of a child. What do you think of when you hear the word *owl*?

Article for owl from *My First Oxford Dictionary*

Owl (owls)

An owl is a bird with large eyes.

Owls hunt small animals at night.

Article for mushroom from *My First Oxford Dictionary*

Mushroom (mushrooms)

A mushroom is a living thing that

grows in the earth and looks like

a little umbrella.

Obviously the vocabulary used in the definitions will be at a level appropriate to the age group, but the information content will also be pitched at what a young child can identify with, not loaded down with detail that is not useful to them at that stage.

B. Different types of definitions

According to Hartmann and James (1998:35-36), a definition is:

a component part in the microstructure of a reference work which explains the meaning of a word, phrase or term. The definition provides an essential function: it is the place where compilers locate and users find semantic information.

The definition is the most important lexicographical means of conveying information about the meaning of a lemma. There is a variety of types of definitions used in the

process of explaining meanings. For general descriptive dictionaries, four types of definition can be found mostly in a more explanatory dictionary.

- ▪ **Genus-differentia definitions**

A genus-differentia definition consists of two parts. The definiendum is first placed in the semantic class (the genus) to which it belongs. After that, the differences (differentia) between the definiendum and the other members of the class concerned are indicated, for example:

A genus-differentia of leopard is:

> **Leopard** predator, panthera pardus (fam. Felidae), of the cat family smaller than a lion or tiger, and with spots.

This example is suited for a general descriptive and explanatory dictionary. It is directed at a sophisticated user group. When it comes to a school dictionary that has children as target group, the need for the genus-differentia will still be relevant and it could be very functional to use this type of definition. In the FFBSD, the choice will be to present in a way that is accessible to children and that corresponds to their level of language. The definition by genus-differentia is appropriate when it comes to define animals. In this category, the FFBSD will make use of language that is at the children's level, unlike the first illustration where the language is too complex for children's understanding. This is best illustrated in the following examples from existing school dictionaries, *Chambers Primary Dictionary* and *Illustrated School Dictionary for Southern Africa*:

> **leopard.** noun. Leopards are animals of the
>
> cat family with spotted skin.

> **Leopard.** *Noun*
>> a wild cat which is very
>> strong and has a yellow skin with
>> black spots on it.

In the first example, the **genus** is *animal* and in the second example, the **genus** is cat.

- **Synonym definition**

The synonym definition gives an account of the meaning relationships of synonymy. Synonym reference refers the user to a synonym of the lemma under which the definition occurs. For example:

> **fragrance** n. a pleasant or sweet smell. A perfume *Lavender has a delicate fragrance. They sell a wide range of fragrances.* See perfume

> **perfume** n.**1.** a sweet smelling liquid, often made from plants, used on the body: *He caught a faint with some expensive French perfume.* **2**.a pleasant smell: *the fragrant perfume of the flowers.*

In the FFBSD, the decision is to treat each lemma that is included in the macrostructure fully because of the type of dictionary and, more importantly, bearing the target user group in mind (more details on synonym treatment follow later in this chapter).

- **Circular definition**

In a circular definition, the paraphrase of meaning or explanation contains part of a lexical item represented by the lemma or a derivation or root-word of the lemma, or

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even the lemma itself, or other lexical items that do not clarify the meaning. For example:

Jump act of jumping

For a children's dictionary, a circular definition is of little help, contributing in most cases to confusion because it does not give a clear definition of the lemma. For example:

bravery is courage, and **courage** is bravery.

In the FFBSD, the decision is to make meaning very explicit to the learners. Circular definition, as illustrated above, cannot help in the goals assigned to the dictionary. The solution will be to explain the lemma in the children's language. The best way in the FFBSD is to define by an example that reveals the meaning in the context of usage of everyday communication. In this way, circularity can be effective for compound words when components have to be defined under their article stretch. Some circular definition will be functional in the dictionary. For instance, in a compound like **lorry driver**, the circular definition will be:

lorry driver is someone who drives a lorry.

The circularity is appropriate in a school dictionary to give the meaning of this compound.

- **The definition by example**

The definition by example is a type of definition where the definition consists of an example of the entry to which the definiendum refers. In French, verbs are a category often defined by an example in a dictionary. The definition by example refers to the word usage.

Definition by example of a verb from *Larousse des Débutants*

effacer verbe. *À la fin de la journée nous **effaçons** le tableau*, nous faisons disparaître ce qui est écrit sur le tableau.

faillir verbe. *J'ai glissé et j'ai **failli**
tomber,* je suis presque tombé.

C. Polysemy

In the FFBSD, the polysemous lemmas will be presented and treated as stated below. Many words have more than one sense. When a lemma has two or more than two senses, the definition at each of the senses has a number in front of it (**1, 2, 3**) as a polysemy marker.

Where a lemma functions in more than one part of speech and for each part of speech occurrence, it has one or more senses. The part of speech is given at the beginning of the dictionary article just after the lemma before the numbering starts. For example:

ball   *noun*
>   **1** an object which is usually round and which is
>   used to play many different kinds of games.
>   **2**. something which has a round shape

In the case of the example above, the part of speech of the lemma **ball** is *noun* in both senses. In the example below, each part of speech is presented not after the lemma, but after the numbering for each sense. In the case of a given part of speech has more than one sense the marker (a cross in a square) will signal the other sense.

For example:

kick
>   **1** *verb* (**kicks, kicking, kicked**) to hit someone or
>   something with your foot.
>   **2** *noun* a hard hit with your foot.

The second case is common in English, but with French as one member of the language pair in this dictionary, it is difficult to find a word that is a verb and a noun. In Fang, however, the stem can be the same for verb and noun, but the difference will occur in the prefixes. For example, **bidzi** *noun* (**food**) and **adzi** *verb* (**to eat**). In this case, the treatment for each lemma will occur under the first letter of each word. The approach adopted in this study when it comes to the particularities of a Bantu language like Fang is to simplify and not indulge in unnecessarily complex linguistic debates, but to serve the user-perspective. In this case, the pupils need to master their mother tongue in the oral and written form. Bearing in mind the target user group for this dictionary, the representation and treatment of Fang words will be kept as simple as possible, whether it is as lemmata or as equivalents.

D. Synonyms

The decision for the planned dictionary is that when synonymy occurs, a treatment is given for each synonym. The synonym is given in bold and presented as follows:

- When the synonyms are nouns, the synonym indication says '*also called*'. For example:

dad *noun*
a man who has a child or children, a male
parent
(also called **father**)

father *noun*
a man who has a child or children, a male
parent
(also called **dad)**

*U*n homme qui a un enfant.

ravin *nom masculin* **ebe**

Un trou très profond qui descend à pic. *Il* y a un

ravin au pied de la colline. Ebe ene ngol atsi.

(aussi appelé **precipice**)

précipice *nom masculin* **ebe**

Un trou très profond qui descend à pic.

Nous avons marché à côté d'un

précipice. Bi vaghe wulu a bibi ebe.

(aussi appelé **ravin**)

▪ When the synonyms are words which are not nouns, the definition at each word says 'another word for'. For example:

Decay *verb* (**decays, decaying, decayed**)

To become bad and soft because something is not

fresh

or because it has become wet (another word for **rot**)

Rot *verb* (**rots, rotting, rotted)**

To become bad and soft because something is not fresh

or because it has become wet (another word for **decay**)

---

terminer verbe. **aman.** J'ai terminé mon exercice.

*A*man ese ya nlo.

(aussi:**achever,finir**)

---

achever verbe **aman.** J'ai achevé le dessin comme

sur le modèle. *Aman nveghle avale ene eveghle.*

(aussi: **terminer, finir**)

E. Example sentences

The example sentences come after the definition and they illustrate how to use a word in a context. Examples of the word in context are included in most articles, helping to identify both the meaning and how the word is used. In many cases, these examples will be taken directly from our corpus of children's literature. It is another source beside the curriculum that will help the compilers to make informed decisions about the words a child is likely to meet in his or her reading. For example, from the *Larousse des Débutants*:

> **crayon** nom masculine. Un crayon est un petit baton de bois qui contient une mine pour écrire ou pour déssiner:
>
> *Chloé fait de beaux coloriages avec ses crayons de couleur.*

In this dictionary article, the lemma sign **crayon** is followed by the comment on form (nom, masculin). The meaning is given after the part of speech and it is followed by an example sentence (***italics***) to illustrate the meaning in usage context of the language.

An example sentence can also show how to use the forms of a word. Sometimes more than one example sentence will be given for one sense of a word. The example sentences are essential in a school dictionary as they put the words in action in the context of usage to enable the children to identify and internalise the words efficiently. In general, example sentences should be used very often to supplement definitions. It requires not only a sound psychology, but also great inventive skills to find or create sentences that lead pupils inevitably to the right meaning for a word.

The function of example sentences in a school dictionary is central. The examples have a pedagogical function to illustrate the use of the lexical item or to show the grammatical behaviour of a certain lexical item. Their function is to give a

precise indication in a concrete realisation of the lexical item. It allows the children to grasp not only the use of the treated lemma, but also its usage context when it comes to polysemous lemmas. The example sentences help to fix in the learners' mind the meaning and the usage context of the lexical item. They provide a platform for the children to interpret the data presented correctly and to facilitate the dictionary consultation.

In the FFBSD it will appear as follows:

---

evele [évéle] adjectif

1. rouge. *Dzir ene nye evele.* Il a l'oeil rouge*.*

2. clair. *Bivele bi bo,* Les homes de teint clair*.*

   Evele munegha. Une femme de teint clair.

3. mur. *Andokh ene evel.* La mangue est mure.(synonym: **etsogele**)

The lemma sign **evele** is an adjective that has polysemous senses. Each sense is numbered and is given its translation equivalent in French, which is followed by example sentences in *italics* in Fang and in French. Sense **2** has been given two example sentences to illustrate its meaning in different contexts of usage. The number **3** sense is also treated with example sentences in Fang and French, and a synonym to that particular sense is referred to and will have full treatment in the dictionary.

F. Usage note

A usage note is a note about the way a word is used or how one of the senses of a word is used. The usage note comes after the definition and the example sentence. In this dictionary, a usage note will be given when a headword or lemma has a special grammar rule or a special meaning or use, for example:

interested *adjective*

wanting to know about something, eager to learn
about something: *Chayana is interested in drawing.*

The usage note will be marked in this dictionary as follows. It is presented at the end of the dictionary article:

> (**i**) The word ***interested*** is usually followed
> by the word 'in'.

(**i**) tells the user that there is specific information on the lemma. It would be in a colour to signal and draw the user's attention to it.

In this dictionary, a usage note will be used to alert the user about a homonym, homophone or other data concerning the lemma and the translation equivalent.

G. Homonymy

Homonyms are words that have an identical form but differ in meaning. The planned dictionary will treat homonyms separately; each will be lemmatised and treated in a dictionary article as an independent lemma. The numbering method will be used for each article of the homonymy. For example, from *Larousse des Débutants:*

1. **vase** nom masculin. Un vase est un
récipient que l'on remplit d'eau pour
mettre des fleurs.

2. **vase** nom feminine. La vase est de la
boue qui se trouve au fond des étangs,
des rivières et parfois sur les plages.

The dictionary article 1. **vase** is the English equivalent of **vase**, while the following dictionary article 2. **vase** is the English equivalent of **mud**.

From the envisaged dictionary the following articles:

---

n'kol[1] [nkôl] nom. **Corde, ficelle.**

N'kol ane etsome ba kake ya ze. *Tsile ya*

nkol na ayem. Il faut une ficelle pour attacher

les deux bouts.

---

n'kol[2] [n'kòl]. nom. **Montagne, colline, montée**.

n'kol ane evom mekok nfulane si abet eyo. *Ba bete*

n'kol ayo. Ils vont en montagne.

The dictionary article n'kol[1] the English equivalent of cord, the second dictionary article n'kol[2] is the English equivalent of mountain, hill. In Fang these two words are homonyms with different meanings.

H. Homophony

Homophony occurs when words sound the same but are spelled differently and have different meanings. In the planned dictionary, homophones will like the homonyms receive a full lexicographic treatment as lemmas.

> **Voix (voice) and voie (a way)**
>
> **See and sea.**

I. Labelling

Labels are markers that indicate the lexical item in a particular context or a language variety. Labels are important and useful in many types of dictionaries such as comprehensive dictionaries. Labels can be markers of style in a language. Stylistic labels mark information on the register, levels of the language, etc. Labels can indicate the location where a particular usage of the language occurs. They are known

as geographical labels, which indicate the different locations and areas for a specific language use and for dialectal variations in a language. Labels also indicate the time of usage of a lexical item, whether it has become archaic or obsolete from the current usage, and give the sphere of usage, such as technological, medical, etc.

In the FFBSD, the decision is to use labels very sparingly. As a school dictionary, the labelling system will be kept simple to avoid hindering the retrieval of information by the children and learners. The label will only concern the variants when it comes to Fang with its different dialects. When a word has variants, it will be indicated between brackets. The fact that the FFBSD is dealing with two different languages means that it also deals with two different cultures. Therefore, explicit guidance will be given when it comes to culturally bound lexical items in both languages. As a school dictionary, the FFBSD will give the level of the language that is the norm, the standard level, and add information about stylistic values.

J. Pictorial illustrations

According to Stein (1991), of the five senses sight plays a dominant part in the cognitive and linguistic development of the human mind. The pre-eminent role of this sense has always been recognised and thus education systems are based on it. Their main medium of instruction is writing, supported by all kinds of illustrations, whether schematic, diagrammatic, pictorial, etc. How basic visual perception is to our understanding also becomes clear from our everyday behaviour when people do not understand what we are saying. In our rephrasing, we often accompany our words by gestures, outlining shapes, relations or distances, or by drawings, attempting to capture those aspects of the verbal message that seem to us to block understanding.

Pictorial illustrations in lexicographic works seem to have started in the Middle Ages. Hupka's (1989) study on the pictorial illustrations in dictionaries, focusing on French, Spanish, Italian, English and German, begins with the bilingual word lists. It is known that bilingual dictionaries historically preceded monolingual ones. The first pictorial illustrations thus occurred in bilingual vocabularies and dictionaries. In a school dictionary, illustrations or pictures appear beside a dictionary article or a meaning to help understand the meaning.

Labelled pictures will be chosen not just to lend attractiveness to the page, but also to illustrate, for example, the parts of a flower and the planets in the solar system. In a school dictionary, pictorial illustrations aim to motivate the pupil to learn words through discovery. The observation of situations, contexts and activities give the pupil the ability to comment. It therefore bridges the passage from the oral form to the written form in the language learning process. The FFBSD will include a number of pages with only illustrations and pictures on a few themes and subjects. They will appear in between the pages of the central list, forming the middle matter of the dictionary. The middle matter section will be composed with illustrations on themes like the human body, activities in a farm, cultural activities, plants etc. The middle matter will serve as a reference to both Fang and French section of the dictionary.

The present practice of illustrating dictionaries should be improved. A frequent criticism is the apparently random selection of words to be illustrated. Ilson (1987) recommends considering the function of these illustrations, whether they are taken in the strict sense of pictorial illustrations or the wider sense to include tables and diagrams as well. He goes on to say that, if this function is assumed to be merely aesthetic, more, bigger, better and more colourful illustrations might be the simple answer. If, however, lexicographers regard this function to consist in the complementary explication of the meaning provided in the definition, then the bases of the investigation on illustrations have to be lexical items.

In the intended dictionary, the approach is to support the definition by pictorial illustrations that will enable the pupil or the adult illiterate to grasp the meaning of the words. Pictorial illustrations enhance the user's visual understanding of the lexical items defined in the definitions.

The pictorial illustration will be necessary when the need to explicate a definition is linked with the fact that the meaning of the word might be complex or complicated, and therefore diagrammatic representations may be felt to contribute to the clarification. The need may also arise because the objects in the real world that the words refer to cannot really be defined. The crucial factors are of course the age, cultural background and education of the user group, based on which the lexicographical team assesses the presupposed knowledge of the world and the languages.

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In the FFBSD, pictorial illustrations will be treated as fully-fledged components of the dictionary article. In a school dictionary, pictorial illustrations can determine the efficiency of the dictionary. Therefore, pictorial illustrations will be helpful to explain culturally bound lexical items. Smit (1996:94) argues that using pictorial illustrations is an ideal way to supplement the treatment of culture-specific lexical items in the microstructure as well as in the outer texts of the dictionary. The FFBSD will present pictorial illustrations as an essential lexicographic device. According to Al-Kasimi (1977:98), pictorial illustrations can serve two functions: They cue and reinforce verbal equivalents, especially when the user can identify and respond differently to the picture they serve as generalising examples when several different but relevant pictures are given in order to establish the concept they are intended to illustrate. Pictorial illustrations help the user to understand and remember the content of the accompanying verbal equivalent because they motivate the user, reinforce what is read and symbolically enhance and deepen the meaning of the verbal equivalent. In the FFBSD, pictorial illustrations will complement or expand the semantic value of ideas or objects that are of a different appearance or value in the Fang culture. For example, in the article of the lemma **panier** (basket), the children will not be aware of the difference in appearance of the lemma in Fang and in French. A pictorial illustration will portray the difference between the two culture-specific items. The FFBSD will give great importance to pictorial illustrations because they have the capacity to complement the meaning of any given lexical item. In the Fang situation, the pictorial figures will help to represent specific cultural values that are part of the daily language usage. Children will not be confused with lexical item like the French **grenier** (loft, attic) which has **angune** as the translation equivalent in Fang, representing something that is very different although the use remains the same.

panier/nkwegne

This pictorial illustration above represents the basket **panier** in the Fang rural community **nkwegne** which is different from the French **panier** in the urban milieu is **ekat** (as a picnic basket).
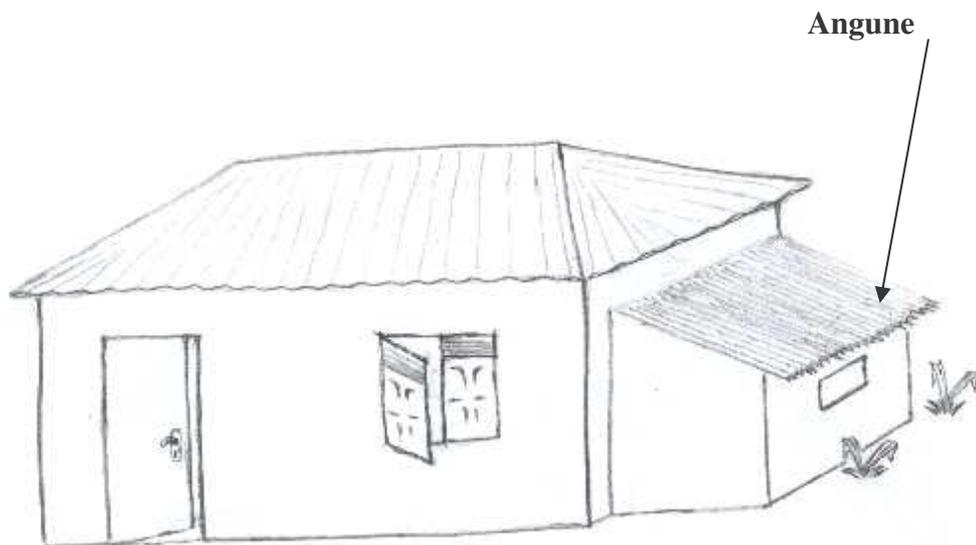
Angune

Angune is the small room on the side of the house. In Fang culture (rural area exclusiively) it is used as storeroom for food and mostly for crops in or out of season

but it is translated in French as **grenier** (attic/ loft). This pictorial illustration of **angune** will help the learner to understand the cultural and physical differences between these realities.

6.10. Dictionary Articles of the Planned School Dictionary

Each paragraph in the central list of the dictionary treats one lemma. Each of these paragraphs is called a dictionary article. The lemmatisation is in alphabetical order. There will be a space between each dictionary article and the following one. This structuring of the dictionary article represents the micro-architecture.

A dictionary article will be structured as follows:

a **lemma**

pronunciation indication mostly for Fang lemmas

part of speech

a **definition**

a **translation equivalent of the lemma**

an **example sentence** (both source and target languages)

an **illustration picture** (when needed)

a **usage note** (when necessary in source language)

a **collocation** (when under both the base and the collocutor)

6.10.1. The presentation of the lemma

Each lemma is printed in bold (in this dictionary colour will be indicated in red or blue) and is larger than the words in the rest of the dictionary article. A lemma is usually one word, for example **ndwa** (fire). Sometimes a lemma is made up of two or

a group of words, for example **coffer-fort** (safe), or **pique-nique** (picknick) In a few cases where a school dictionary is concerned, one dictionary article can accommodate all the words that derive from the main lemma, for example **electric** and **electrical.** Although the last lexical item forms a sublemma, it is given and indicated attached to the article of the main lemma **electric** as a derivative. The sublemmata in the FFBSD, although they are generally guiding elements of subarticles, will not be treated. The user-perspective aspect in this particular school dictionary demands clarity and not condensation in the presentation of the lemma in the dictionary article. The lemmas will be selected by frequency of occurrence in reading and writing at a particular age group targeted. Familiar words are entered (not only "hard words") as it has been found that young children develop dictionary skills more quickly and more easily when searching for information they are familiar with.

6.10.2. The form of the lemma

The spelling of a word often changes, depending on how the word is used. The different ways you say or write a word are called the *forms*. The forms are written in round brackets and in **bold**.

The general idea of a dictionary as a resource that provides explanations of words and how they are used has mostly remained the same. This current envisaged dictionary will keep the same purpose in mind. The children's need is to acquire their mother tongue, Fang, while learning French as well. I believe that it is of the outmost importance to give them the data and to present that data in such structures that the aim of the dictionary will be achieved successfully.

It has been decided that, in the first section of the dictionary, the source language will be French and the target language will be Fang. Fang will become the source language and French the target language in the second section of the dictionary. This approach is motivated by the large corpus available for the French language, which is composed from numerous sources available. Most importantly, French as the official language of Gabon and the medium of instruction has all the literature and textbooks in the curriculum for primary schools and all the other levels of education. The FFBSD as a bi-directional dictionary will help the children in their

learning of Fang and French. It will be an aid to young adults and adults engaged in the literacy programme so that they can have access to French through Fang.

The dictionary articles in this dictionary will have the following layout:

a) This example presents a noun (female):

> **abeille** [abêye]nom féminin. **f<u>o</u>f<u>o</u>n, ab<u>e</u>**
> Une abeille est   un insecte volant jaune et
> noir que l'on élève dans une ruche.
> *Les abeilles produisent du miel.*
> ─────────────────────────────
> (**:**) Dans une ruche, il n'y a qu'une seule
> Abeille qui pond les œufs : c'est la reine.
> ─────────────────────────────
> voir aussi **essaim**.

Abeille (bee) is the lemma in French, followed by the part of speech (nom feminine) and the translation equivalent in Fang, **f<u>o</u>f<u>o</u>n** and **ab<u>e</u>.** The definition is given in French for the section French-Fang of the dictionary, followed by an example sentence. The usage note starts with the typographical mark to signal complementary information on the lemma. The last line "voir aussi **essaim**"(swarm) indicates a cross-reference to another lemma in the dictionary where more details and encyclopedic data is given on bees.

b) The following example presents the treatment of a noun (male):

> **métier** nom masculin. **es<u>e</u>**
> Un métier est le travail que l'on
> fait pour gagner de l'argent:
> *médecin, instituteur, plombier*
> *sont des noms de métiers.*
> *Dokira, n'yagele,emot a kome*
> *medzim bene biyola bi ese.*

c) This example presents the treatment of a polysemous verb:

> **séparer** verbe **kane**
>
> **1.** Je mets un espace entre les mots. *Quand j'écris, je sépare les mots. Eyong matsile ma kane biviè.*◊ **espacer**
>
> **2.** Il les a éloignés l'un de l'autre. *Le maitre a séparé deux élèves. N'yagele ava kane bongue be sicolo.* ◊ **éloigner**
>
> **3.** Ils se sont quittés. *. Les deux amis se sont séparés. Megome me mena kane.*◊ **quitter**

The verb **séparer** (to separate) is polysemous in French **espacer** (to space out); **éloigner** (to move away), **quitter** (to leave), but in Fang all the three senses have one translation equivalent, **kane**. In the dictionary, the French-Fang side will present as lemmas all the other senses and in the Fang-French side of the dictionary, the lemma **kane** will represent all these three senses. The reference will be given in the French part as in the example above. The ◊ is a marker that indicates the existence of a synonym for that sense of the lemma.

The following examples present dictionary articles in the Fang-French section of the dictionary:

d) This example treats a verb in Fang for which the equivalent in French is polysemous with lexical and semantic divergence:

> **yagha** verbe
> **1. promettre**   aghage dzam. Wa yane *yagha meghage .Il faut tenir ta promesse.*
> **2. prendre conger.** Eyong mot a kore vome. *Ma ke yagha kale. Je vais prendre conger de quelqu'un.*
> **3. marcher à quatre pattes.** wulu biname ya mebo. *mon a yagha. Le bébé rampe.*
> **4. payer**   Ake mone. *Ma ke yagha biom. Je vais payer ces choses.*
> **5. s'étonner** A dzam ene nfefe. M*a yagha nkobe vi. Je m'étonne de ce langage.*

In the example above, the verb in Fang **yagha** (**1.**to promise; **2.** to leave; **3.** to get paid; **4.** to crawl; **5.** to astonish) is the lemma treated, and the different senses with examples to clarify and define the usage context are given in Fang. The translation equivalents are given for each sense in French.

e) The next example shows the treatment of a culturally bound lemma in Fang:

---

ab<u>e</u>[1] [abe] nom **case, corps de garde**
Ab<u>e</u> ene a nta befam ezezan nlam.
Le corps de garde est une case de reunion des hommes au milieu du village.
Befam bene abe. Les hommes sont au corps de garde

(:) ab<u>e</u> dans la culture Fang indique une case particulière qui est batie au milieu du village où les hommes discutent les affaires du village. Ils partagent aussi les repas et reçoivent les hotes dans cette batisse.

The lemma **ab<u>e</u>** indicates a specific hall in the village in Fang communities where all the affairs of the village are discussed; it serves also to welcome strangers and as a place where the men of the villages share their meal after a day of work in the plantations. Women go in only on call and on special occasions.

f) This example treats a lemma that is a homonym of the lemma in the previous illustration:

> **ab<u>e</u>**[2] [abè] nom (pluriel **meb<u>e</u>**) **abeille**
> 1. ab<u>e</u> one nlo. Bal<u>e</u> fe wena **f<u>of</u>on.** *Mebe mene ele ayo. Il y a des abeilles sur l'arbre.*
> 2. ene wa ve yvi ab<u>e</u>. *Abe ebele beba yvi*. Les abeilles donnent du miel.

In this example, the lemma **ab<u>e</u> (bee)** is followed by the part of speech and the indication of the plural form in brackets **meb<u>e</u>**. The first sense represents the **bee**,

which is also called **fofon**, and the second sense indicates the product of the bee, which is **honey**.

g) The following example is the treatment of a noun:

zingol.[zingôl] nom **caméléon**
Zingol ane tsit da sanla megnol na a sobe.
Bi wa yen zingol asizen. Le caméléon est sur
le chemin.

This lemma **zingol** (chameleon) is treated very simply, giving just the description and the particular fact that it changes colour to hide. In the dictionary, an illustrative picture might be more useful to show what a chameleon looks like.

6.11. Concluding Remarks

In this chapter, it has been pointed out that a dictionary intended for children should take into account this specific target user group. All the proceedings should have the children as the central figures. This is valuable for all lexicographic activities. Finally, as Thorndike points out,

> the truth is the highest thing a man seeks in a school dictionary or any other instrument of instruction, and it should never be sacrificed in our zeal for teachabilty or convenience. Truth, and truth in a form which fits the learner, should be the aim of the school dictionary and of every other instrument of instruction.

The structure of the FFBSD has the function to help learners in the process of vocabulary acquisition, text production and text reception in Fang through French, the official language and the language of wider communication. The type of a bilingualised school dictionary is therefore justified by the needs of the user group to learn their mother tongue. This dictionary is a necessary instrument to complement mother tongue education in Fang.

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Chapter 7: GENERAL CONCLUSION

7.1. Conclusion

The second chapter of this research dealt with the user-perspective in dictionary planning and design, which could help solve many problems in the practice of lexicography. The user recovers his place as the central figure of all lexicographic endeavours. One should plan the dictionary according to the needs of the potential users and the genuine purpose of the dictionary. Lexicographers have to be aware of the different ways of designing dictionaries if they want to respond to the target user's needs. In the case of a school dictionary like the one investigated in this research, one has to be conversant with the approaches and methods relevant to the making of such a dictionary, like data collection and processing, etc. Research in the user orientation of existing dictionaries provides useful information. It helps to determine the limitations and advantages of these dictionaries. Thus, it may enable lexicographers to compile better dictionaries to fulfil the needs of the target users.

Dictionary users need to know how to retrieve the maximum from any data available in the dictionary. They need to know that they may not find the desired information at first sight. Most importantly, the users need to cope with the time-consuming and potentially distracting task of consulting the dictionary and getting back to the context. Therefore, teaching reference skills and educating users on dictionary culture is an important aspect not to be neglected. No new dictionary should be compiled for an unspecified user; every dictionary should have a definite target user.

Pedagogical lexicography, which is the subject in this research, has a specific and well-defined goal. Within this field, the different types of pedagogical dictionaries are aimed at their respective target users. In compiling a dictionary, not only the needs of the target users but also their ability to retrieve information from the dictionary should be considered. The emphasis on the user, his/her needs and his/her reference skills must have an influence on both the compilation of new learner's dictionaries and new projects in metalexicographical research.

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The user-perspective necessarily plays an important role in the conception of new learner's dictionaries. The conception of future dictionaries will have to adhere to a lexicographical-pragmatic approach orientated at following three parameters at least: the user, the situation in which the dictionary will be used, and the nature and extent of the data treated in it. This approach deviates from the tradition of focussing only on the transfer of data and illustrates how important the user is in current lexicographic trends.

In planning dictionaries for schoolchildren, lexicographers must realise that a school dictionary is a typological category on its own. It does not have to be a smaller version of a standard or other desk dictionary. It could be small but functional to add value for users. It is important that the children must be enthusiastic and stimulated for their first experience in looking up words in the dictionary.

The bilingualised school dictionary will give the pupils instructions. The position of the target user should never be underestimated when drawing up the dictionary plan. Dictionaries are compiled to be used; therefore, the target user should be placed in a position where he/she can utilise a dictionary for a successful retrieval of linguistic information. The user-perspective, determines the selection, presentation and treatment of lexical items, compels the lexicographer to include those lexical items in the macrostructure that can contribute to the aims of the typological category to which the specific dictionary belongs. This process requires careful and thorough planning, which is why the third chapter of this study focused on the different phases of the planning process.

Dictionary making is a long, complex and time-consuming activity. As the work involved is vast, it is necessary that detailed planning be done before the work begins. The compilation of every dictionary has to be preceded by the formulation of a lexicographic plan directed at the aims of the typological criteria of that specific dictionary, and aimed at the specific needs and reference skills of a well-defined target user. This plan must not be haphazard but has to be rooted in a general theory of lexicography.

According to Wiegand (1984:14-15), one of the components of a general theory of lexicography is the theory of organisation. This includes all activities leading to the

drawing up of a plan that has to precede the compilation of every dictionary. There are some issues crucial to the lexicographic planning to that must be considered, for example the type of dictionary.

Planning cannot start without a decision about the type of dictionary, because the macrostructure and microstructure of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries differ, particularly in the case of school dictionaries. The lexicographer should decide about the language of the dictionary, also considering the social and stylistic variations of it. In this regard, all the structural components of a dictionary, including the macrostructure, microstructure, mediostructure and access structure, come into play.

7.2. Recommendations

- The user and his/her needs should be the central focus of all lexicographical activities. The determination of the user group and its needs direct all the other endeavours: planning, typology and structures of the intended dictionary. In this case, children at primary school are the target users. In addition to them, there are also young adults and adults involved in literacy programmes.

- A sound lexicography theory is necessary for the practicability of a lexicographic project. A corpus-based dictionary is the best way to respond to the needs of the target group. The development in lexicography in recent years allows the compilation of dictionaries of quality that respond to the specific needs of the target users. Their needs are to acquire their mother tongue, Fang, through French. The pursuit of this goal becomes the turning point in the compilation of dictionaries that will be instrumental in the implementation of mother tongue education. The type of dictionary that responds to these needs for this specific group of users is the French-Fang bilingualised school dictionary.

- The French-Fang bilingualised dictionary is structured in a way that helps children to learn Fang through French. It responds best to the needs of young adults and adults in the literacy programme as they master Fang and learn

French through Fang mainly from the Fang-French section of the dictionary. It is an adaptable and efficient tool to promote mother tongue education in Fang via French. The users benefit from this specific twofold purpose.

- Information technologies have become a reliable and indispensable aid to the compilation of dictionaries of any type. Dictionary making projects should make use of these tools that reduce the time and cost of lexicographic projects.

- For the case of Gabon, multilingualism should be viewed as an advantage and turned into a positive element to promote all languages equally. A multilingual education will be the way to guarantee a better education via the different mother tongues. The mother tongue education concept is not exclusive of other languages like French. This research supports the principle of learning through the first language and at the same time accommodating other languages, which forms the richness of the Gabonese culture.

- A school dictionary has to reflect the needs of the target pupils and empower them through their learning process. School dictionaries are essential tools in the acquisition of the oral and written code of the language.

- Dictionaries will contribute to the preservation and promotion of Gabonese languages. Therefore, the establishment of lexicographic units for these languages is possible and necessary.

- The French-Fang bilingualised dictionary is a product of a concept in lexicography that promotes the adaptability of a sound theory to the practicality and specification of a situation and a context but mostly to the target users. The FFBSD responds to the needs of children to have access to formal education in their mother tongue, Fang.

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