**TITLE : A MODEL TO ACHIEVE COMMUNICATIVE EQUIVALENCE IN TRANSLATION DICTIONARIES**

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# DECLARATION

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

Signature Date

**Abstract**

Bilingual dictionaries often do not satisfy the requirements of the dictionary users because they contain a relatively small percentage of articles displaying absolute equivalence between the source and the target language. This impedes the users from retrieving the required information. Communicative equivalence is a relation holding between source and target language entries in translation dictionaries. A translation equivalent should not be seen as a statement about the meaning of the lemma, but it should be regarded as an item that represents the target language and can be used to translate a specific occurrence of the source language item. If semantic and communicative equivalence do not hold between the source and the target language dictionary users will not be able to use the target language successfully. Instead of achieving communicative equivalence, the dictionary user is confused and ends up using language in an unacceptable way. Relying on translation dictionaries to improve their language skills and to learn more about the target language, dictionary users often come across haphazardly arranged articles in dictionaries that do not lead to communicative equivalence. In this case, the dictionary users are confused and end up using language in an unacceptable way.

This thesis explores and investigates different ways to achieve communicative equivalence in translation dictionaries. The research formulates some of the needed guidelines for the lexicographers of translation dictionaries. It intends to assist lexicographers to compile user-oriented translation dictionaries that can foster multilingualism amongst the dictionary users. As a result of this research, lexicographers will be able to compile translation dictionaries that will assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success. These dictionaries will establish semantic and communicative resemblance between the source and the target language forms. As a lexicographic problem, communicative equivalence is being addressed in the thesis and the researcher aims to make lexicographers aware of the mistakes in translation dictionaries. The objective of the thesis is to help lexicographers with the compilation of dictionaries where the users can achieve an optimal retrieval of information. The research focuses on metalexicographic issues in order to enhance the quality of practical lexicography. By doing so both the practical and theoretical lexicography can benefit from this research.

**Opsomming**

Tweetalige woordeboeke voldoen dikwels nie aan die behoeftes van hulle gebruikers nie omdat hulle 'n beperkte aantal artikels bevat met absolute ekwivalensie tussen bron- en doeltaal. Dit weerhou die gebruikers daarvan om die verlangde inligting te onttrek. Kommunikatiewe ekwivalensie is 'n verhouding tussen die bron- en doeltaalinskrywings in vertalende woordeboeke. 'n Vertaalekwivalent moet nie beskou word as 'n uitspraak oor die betekenis van die lemma nie maar dit moet gesien word as 'n item wat die doeltaal verteenwoordig en wat gebruik kan word om 'n bepaalde optrede van die brontaalvorm te vertaal. As semantiese en kommunikatiewe ekwivalensie nie tussen bron- en doeltaal bestaan nie sal woordeboekgebruikers nie daartoe in staat wees om die doeltaal suksesvol te gebruik nie. In stede daarvan om kommunikatiewe ekwivalensie te behaal, is die gebruiker verward en gebruik hy taal op 'n onaanvaarbare manier. Wanneer woordeboekgebruikers op vertalende woordeboeke staatmaak om hulle taalgebruik te verbeter en meer oor die doeltaal te leer, vind hulle dikwels arbitrêr geordende artikels in woordeboeke wat nie tot kommunikatiewe ekwivalendie lei nie. Dit verwar gebruikers en lei tot foutiewe taalgebruik.

Hierdie tesis ondersoek verskillende maniere waarop kommunikatiewe ekwivalensie in vertalende woordeboeke bereik kan word. Die navorsing lei tot die formulering van sommige riglyne wat nodig is vir die opstellers van vertalende woordeboeke. Dit poog om leksikograwe te help om gebruikersgerigte woordeboeke saam te stel wat veeltaligheid tussen die gebruikers kan bevorder. As gevolg van hierdie navorsing sal leksikograwe daartoe in staat wees om vertalende woordeboeke saam te stel wat gebruikers kan help om kommunikatiewe ekwivalensie te bereik. Hierdie woordeboeke sal 'n semantiese en kommunikatiewe ooreenkoms tussen bron- en doeltaalvorme vestig. In hierdie tesis word kommunikatiewe ekwivalensie as 'n leksikografiese probleem behandel en die navorser poog om leksikograwe bewus te maak van foute in vertalende woordeboeke. Die mikpunt van hierdie tesis is om leksikograwe te help met die samestelling van woordeboeke waar gebruikers 'n optimale inligtingsherwinning kan behaal. Die navorsing fokus op metaleksikografiese aangeleenthede ter wille van 'n verhoging in die gehalte van die praktiese leksikografie. Sodoende kan sowel die teoretiese as die praktiese leksikografie by hierdie navorsing baat vind.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## Introduction

Communicative equivalence refers to the semantic resemblance that holds between source language (lemma) and target language forms (translation equivalent). Communicative equivalence is when the lemma is translated into target language forms without any shift or loss of meaning or usage possibilities. This means that an article of a dictionary has to display absolute equivalence between the source and the target language forms so that a user will be able to achieve communicative success.

Equivalence is one of the main principles of bilingual lexicography. It forms the axis of translation and underlies the most dominant microstructural element in the article of a bilingual dictionary, i.e. a translation equivalent. Translation equivalents are central in any discussion of a bilingual lexicography. A translation equivalent is not a statement about the meaning of the lemma, but represents an item in the target language that can be used to translate a specific occurrence of the source language item. A task of a bilingual lexicographer is to find appropriate equivalents in the target language to the units of the source language. A one-to-one semantic relationship between the lexical items of two languages is the exception rather than the rule. Bilingual dictionaries contain a relatively small percentage of articles displaying absolute equivalence between the source language and target language. The articles that do not display absolute equivalence between source language and the target language cannot assist the user of a dictionary to achieve

communicative success, because semantic resemblance does not hold between these articles. Communicative equivalence is a lexicographic problem that appears in translation dictionaries. This problem makes it difficult or even impossible for users of translation dictionaries to retrieve the required information.

This thesis seeks to explore and investigate different ways to achieve communicative equivalence in translation dictionaries. The aims and objectives of bilingual lexicography are to enable dictionary users to achieve communicative success. If semantic and communicative equivalence do not hold between the source language and the target language, dictionary users will not be able to speak the target language successfully. The aims of the bilingual lexicographers are not met because their translation dictionaries do not help target users to retrieve the required information. The problem is that instead of achieving communicative equivalence, the dictionary user is confused and ends up using language in an unacceptable way.

The average members of a speech community regard a translation dictionary as the most important source of linguistic information. These people rely on the translation dictionary to improve their language skills and to learn more about the target language. Because translation dictionaries do not meet the demands of the target users, the researcher's aim is to formulate some of the needed guidelines for lexicographers of translation dictionaries. Such a model will assist compilers/lexicographers to compile user-oriented translation dictionaries that can foster multilingualism amongst the dictionary users. This model will help lexicographers to compile translation dictionaries that will assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success.

The researcher intends to establish guidelines on how to compile user-oriented bilingual dictionaries that successfully coordinate source language and target language forms. The main focus of the research is the transmission and presentation of the meaning of the source language form into the target language forms which results in communicative equivalence. The thesis consists of different sections that share a common aim of establishing a model to assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success. The

first chapter investigates the way in which usage information (contextual guidance) can assist the dictionary users to achieve communicative success. Examples of articles that do not have contextual guidance are corrected in this section. This chapter is followed by the chapter that deals with ostensive addressing as another method of solving the problem of communicative equivalence in translation dictionaries. The reader will see how ostensive addressing contributes to the establishment of semantic resemblance between the source and target language. Lexicographic definitions are also important in translation dictionaries. The contribution of lexicographic definitions in assisting the dictionary user to obtain communicative success will be discussed. It is emphasised that lexicographic definitions are allowed in translation dictionaries as long as they assist users to retrieve the required information with ease. Relevant examples are given and analysed in this chapter. Non-lemmatic addressing assists dictionary users to achieve communicative success. A detailed discussion of non-lemmatic addressing as another way of assisting the user to achieve communicative equivalence is presented in this chapter. The reversibility principle, when used correctly, enables dictionary users to use the target language in a successful way. The way in which the reversibility principle can assist the user to obtain communicative success in the target language is investigated. This chapter is followed by the section on the retranslation method. This method is seen by the researcher as another way of assisting a user to see absolute coordination between the source and the target languages.

The reader will see how lexicographic labels play an important role in assisting the target users of the dictionaries to retrieve the required information. The researcher will show how these labels make communicative equivalence to hold between the source language and the target language. Cross-reference also plays an important role in assisting users of translation dictionaries to achieve communicative success because the related words function in coordination with each other.

The homonyms, sublexical elements and multilexical elements must be given an independent status in the macrostructures of translation dictionaries. This sums up our research on communicative equivalence as a lexicographic problem. The

compilers/lexicographers of translation dictionaries will benefit from the findings of the research. Metalexicography is the focus of this research. That is, the thesis is aimed at a lexicographical pragmatic approach that is geared at users of translation dictionaries.

The aims and objectives of this thesis is to assist lexicographers to compile good and user-oriented dictionaries that can enable the dictionary users to achieve communicative success. The existing translation dictionaries do not meet the demands of their users because they have been compiled in a haphazard way. That is, the lexicographers have not taken the needs of the users as their priority. The thesis aims to guide the lexicographers to compile translation dictionaries that establish semantic and communicative resemblance between the source and target language forms. That is, the thesis' objective is to make dictionary compilers to compile with the aim of enabling dictionary users to retrieve the required information.

As a lexicographic problem, communicative equivalence is being addressed in the thesis and the researcher aims to make lexicographers aware of the mistakes they are committing in their translation dictionaries.

Applying the theoretical criteria, I would like to analyse different articles from existing dictionaries. This means that the existing translation dictionaries will be investigated so that the problem of communicative equivalence could be solved. Articles of these dictionaries are the researcher's point of departure. In analysing these articles, I will comment on the mistakes committed by the lexicographers.

# CHAPTER TWO

## Contextual guidance

### 2.1. Introduction.

Translation equivalents are target language items with more or less the same meaning as the source language item functioning as lemma. Besides the translation equivalents, an article of a translation dictionary could include some other linguistic as well as a certain amount of extralinguistic information. A dictionary article has to contain information on the usage of a word (translation equivalent) and there has to be a clear indication of the linguistic context in which the translation equivalent can occur in a typical occurrence.

This chapter investigates the way contextual guidance could assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success.

Contextual guidance is given by means of words or phrases typically written in brackets next to each translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. These entries serve an important purpose in a translation dictionary because they assist the dictionary user to choose the correct and appropriate translation equivalent from the translation

equivalent paradigm. They are referred to as "items giving contextual guidance" because they point to a specific contextual use of the translation equivalent. The problem with many of the existing translation dictionaries is that they enter the translation equivalent without additional supporting entries giving contextual guidance. The additional entries are very important in the microstructure of a translation dictionary because every translation equivalent in a translation equivalent paradigm cannot replace the lemma in all contexts.

The use of contextual guidance by the lexicographer will help the target user of a dictionary to communicate successfully. In other words, the use of contextual guidance assists the dictionary user to choose the correct equivalent and to achieve communicative equivalence. Gouws writes, "Translation equivalence, the first aim of the lexicographer of a bilingual dictionary, implies a semantic co-ordination between a lemma and its translation equivalent paradigm. Unfortunately, lexicographers often restrict their attempts to ensure translation equivalence to the mere listing of a number of target language items. Although these items represent the semantic value of the lemma and create a relation of semantic equivalence, the dictionary user receives no assistance in choosing the correct equivalent for a specific context. The lack of additional information impedes the possibility to reach communicative equivalence; the form of equivalence that should be the lexicographer's first priority" (1996:16-17). Yes, the lack of additional information impedes the user's chances of achieving communicative equivalence. If a dictionary compiler is not giving contextual guidance in his dictionary, that particular dictionary will not lead the target user anywhere. Not only semantic equivalence but also communicative equivalence have to be obtained in the lexicographic procedure of coordinating source and target language forms. The main aim of the dictionary should not only be the establishment of semantic equivalence between the source and the target language, but also to establish communicative equivalence and to lead the user to obtain communicative success. This is achieved when the user chooses a form to substitute the source language form without the loss of semantic, register and usage information.

The dictionary's assignment to establish communicative equivalence fails when there is no register and usage correspondence between a lemma and translation equivalent. This problem is not restricted to divergence but can also prevail when there is only one translation equivalent which does not maintain a relation of absolute equivalence with a lemma. A relation of absolute equivalence implies that a translation equivalent can replace a lemma in all contexts. From a communicative point of view, it is important that the semantic value of the source and the target language is the same in a specific context. This could be facilitated by supplying the additional entries in the microstructure. The semantic comment of a translation dictionary should not be limited to a mere listing of translation equivalents. In helping a user to make the correct choice of equivalents for a specific context, additional information is needed and necessary. This means that an extended translation profile where translation equivalents interact with other microstructural items is necessary for the optimal retrieval of information. This then contributes to a successful transfer of meaning. For dictionary users to achieve communicative equivalence, lexicographers should enter a translation profile that has a 'high density' of information. That is, there should be an expansion of the semantic comment so that the user can achieve communicative success.

Lexicographers of translation dictionaries have to include enough illustrative examples in the semantic comment. Gouws writes, "One of the major functions of these examples is to recontextualise the lemma."(1992:41). If the lemma is successfully recontextualised there is no doubt that a dictionary user should achieve semantic and communicative equivalence. Lexicographers should know that the lack of contextual guidance confirms the decontextualisation of the translation equivalents. The closer the semantic difference between two or more translation equivalents gets, the tougher it is for the user to choose the correct equivalent. This is to say that contextual guidance is needed even when translation equivalents are closer to each other in meaning, i.e. near synonyms. When the target language synonym paradigm consists of near synonyms, it is advisable for the lexicographer to include contextual guidance because these synonyms often make it tougher and more difficult for the user to choose the correct and suitable equivalent for a specific context. The inclusion of contextual guidance in this case helps the dictionary

user to choose the most appropriate translation equivalent and of course, this will help him to achieve communicative equivalence. When translation equivalents in a target language synonym paradigm are not supplemented by additional information, the dictionary makes unfair demands on the user because he has to distinguish between near synonyms. When semantic correspondence between synonyms is not supported by stylistic correspondence, the lack of additional information may have a detrimental effect on a communicative process. Lack of contextual guidance to mark stylistic restrictions of the near synonyms impedes the correct use of language by the dictionary user and this could lead to what Gouws (1999) calls 'communicative embarrassment'.

It is important to mention here that in order for the user to achieve communicative success, a lexicographer must enter the translation equivalent that has the highest usage frequency as the first translation equivalent in a synonym paradigm. This translation equivalent that has the highest usage frequency should also be supplied with contextual guidance. The translation equivalent with the highest usage frequency is often known to dictionary users and its ordering will encourage users to comprehend the remaining equivalents that are found in a paradigm. In other words, the dictionary user is guided from the "known" to the "unknown" translation equivalents. This therefore is a good method of teaching a learner in any teaching-learning activity.

The following presentation illustrates my point:

**[(Beledig-**offend, insult, injure.)**]**

The translation equivalent **offend** presumably has the highest usage frequency and this presentation can assist the user to understand the remaining translation equivalents that are found in the translation equivalent paradigm. That is, in this domain, i.e. as translation equivalent of **beledig**, **offend** has the most typical occurrence and the highest usage frequency.

## 2.2. What is divergence?

According to Gouws, "Divergence is a prevailing equivalent relation where one lemma has more than one translation equivalent."(1999:23). This means that divergence prevails when a lemma has more than one translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. Divergence is a result of either a polysemic lemma which needs a separate translation equivalent for each polysemous sense or the presentation of a target language synonym paradigm.

Divergence can be divided into two sub-categories. An article of a polysemous lemma displays a relation of 'semantic divergence' and the occurrence of the target language synonym paradigm displays a relation of 'lexical divergence'. In an article that displays a relation of semantic divergence, it is obligatory that the lexicographer includes contextual guidance.

Gouws writes, "The lack of contextual guidance is especially troublesome in articles displaying an equivalent relation of semantic divergence."(1999:24). This means that in a case of divergence, there shouldn't be a mere listing of translation equivalents but a higher density of information is needed in order to help the dictionary user to retrieve the required information easily. This could then assist the user to achieve communicative success in the target language. Lexicographers must supplement the translation profile with entries directed at contextual guidance. They must expand the semantic comment in a translation dictionary so that a target user will be able to achieve communicative success. The expansion of the semantic comment may be in the form of illustrative examples or glosses. Glosses are single words used to indicate the context of a translation equivalent. Lexicographers must make sure that there is no arbitrary choice of glosses in an article. The arbitrary choice of glosses will confuse dictionary users and will ultimately impede the possibility to establish communicative equivalence. The existing translation dictionaries are poorly structured and will often leave a user confused and in doubt regarding the choice of the translation equivalents. As a result of this problem, dictionary users often end up choosing wrong and inappropriate translation

equivalents for a particular context. This problem impedes the users of a dictionary in their endeavour to be competent speakers of the target language. In meaning discrimination, contextual guidance is economical as it saves space. Al-Kasimi puts it, " it goes without saying that the briefer discrimination, such as context words are preferable because space is an essential practical and economic consideration in lexicography." (1977:72). This is true because in bilingual dictionaries, lexicographers should always consider words such as glosses as they are economical. Glosses could be used more than illustrative examples in translation dictionaries because they are space-saving. Quite often, the need arises for a more comprehensive supporting entry. In this regard an illustrative example can play an important role because of its multifunctional nature.

Let us critically look at Kritzinger and Steyn's (1970) translation dictionary:

[**Aanneem**-accept, adopt, assume, admit; confirm.(1970:3)]

The above article displays an equivalent relation of poli-equivalence because there is heterogeneous divergence. That is, there are both lexical and semantic divergence in the article. The article is very problematic because there are no glosses or contextual guidance after the translation equivalents. How can a user of the dictionary achieve communicative success if a translation equivalent paradigm consists of a mere listing of translation equivalents? According to Zgusta, "In his practical work, the lexicographer will see an endless variety of types of near synonymy. When comparing near synonyms, the most important thing is to analyse their respective lexical meanings into the single senses, to find the criterial semantic features, to establish the connotation (which may differ from one sense to another) and the respective ranges of application (which may also differ from one sense to another). Only by a comparison of all the observable components of the lexical meaning in the respective near synonyms can we perceive how far and in what respect they are identical (similar) or not." (1971:95). This means that even near synonyms may sometimes differ in context. I would like to agree with Zgusta because a mere listing of the translation equivalents cannot help the dictionary user to

obtain communicative fluency and equivalence. Translation dictionaries that consist of a mere listing of translation equivalents are now abandoned by their users who have to seek help elsewhere. The functions of these dictionaries should be restored and this could be done by compiling translation dictionaries that include entries giving contextual guidance or glosses in the semantic comment even if translation equivalents are near synonyms. The above article by Kritzinger and Steyn should have looked as follows:

[**Aanneem**-accept (*proposal*), adopt (e.g. *constitution*); assume (*duty, position*); admit *(student);* confirm *(explanation).*]

This is an acceptable way of presenting translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm. The presentation will assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success in the target language. A mere listing of translation equivalents will not serve any purpose because translation equivalents cannot replace each other in all contexts. The above article displays a comprehensive way of dealing with a relation of lexical and semantic divergence. This article is user-friendly because it has a good presentation of glosses. The above article will attract a dictionary user because of a higher density of information in the translation equivalent paradigm.

Gouws writes "The translation equivalents that are given should be supported by contextual guidance, enabling the dictionary user to utilise the dictionary in an encoding manner." (1992:41). This is true because the lack of contextual guidance will end up confusing a dictionary user because he will not know which translation equivalent is appropriate for a specific context.

Let us look at the following presentation by Kritzinger and Steyn:

[**Daling**-descent; fall, drop, slump. (1970:46)]

The above article displays a relation of poly-equivalence. That is, there are both lexical and semantic divergence in the paradigm. The problem with the above article is that it

also consists of a mere listing of translation equivalents. The lexicographers have not included contextual guidance in the above semantic comment. We cannot assume that a dictionary user knows the typical use of all the translation equivalents that are found in the above semantic comment. Since translation equivalents are not in the first language of the dictionary user, it is advisable for the compiler of the dictionary to include usage information regarding the translation equivalents. In order to help dictionary users in achieving communicative equivalence, Kritzinger and Steyn should have included contextual guidance in this translation profile. The following presentation would have been better:

[**Daling**-descent (aeroplane); fall(*money market*); drop(*blood pressure*); slump(*price, trade*)]

This suggested article displays a user-friendly semantic comment. Unfortunately, this kind of presentation is not consistently used in existing translation dictionaries. The user of a dictionary is presented with a semantic comment that includes little or no contextual guidance. If a translation dictionary only gives translation equivalents, the target users' aims to obtain communicative success will not be met.

The following example from Kritzinger and Steyn is also problematic:

[**Kies**-choose, elect, pick.(1970:115)]

The above article displays a relation of lexical divergence. The article will not assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success because the lexicographers have not included contextual guidance in the semantic comment. Lexicographers should have included contextual guidance because there is no absolute synonymy between members of the target language synonym paradigm. Even if the translation equivalents were absolute synonyms, usage information would still have been necessary. The lexical items **'choose'**, **'elect'**, **'pick'**, are not absolute synonyms. That is, they cannot replace each

other in any context. The following example would have served an important semantic purpose:

[**Kies**-choose (*chairperson* ), elect (*government*), pick (*winner)*.]

A lexicographer should always make sure that his translation dictionary's semantic comment is expanded so that the user can contextualise words that are not familiar to him. Even if translation equivalents are near synonyms, the lexicographer must give the usage information regarding the translation equivalents.

Let us look at the following example from the same dictionary:

[**Onbedorwe**-innocent, pure, unspoiled.(1970:165)]

There is a serious problem in the above article. Besides the lack of contextual guidance, Kritzinger and Steyn are assuming that the translation equivalents that are found in the above paradigm are synonyms. For the dictionary user to achieve communicative success, the lexicographers should have included usage information regarding translation equivalents. The problem with this article is that the compilers are assuming that translation equivalents that are found in the above paradigm can replace each other in all contexts. This not true. The lexical items **innocent**, **pure**, and **unspoiled** cannot replace each other in all contexts and even if they were absolute synonyms, usage information would have been necessary. This is because "it is not easy to establish absolute corrrespondence between the related words in two different languages." (Al-Kasimi. 1977:62)

The following article would have assisted the dictionary user to retrieve the required information:

[**Onbedorwe**-innocent (*child*), pure (*person*), unspoiled (*nature*).]

This article is far better than the article that was not furnished with contextual guidance. The Afrikaans word **onbedorwe** is used in a figurative sense and can have any of the three target language forms as translation equivalent. They will then represent more or less the same sense of the lemma. The three target language forms are partial synonyms. That is, they share the sense which in Afrikaans is conveyed by the word **onbedorwe**. Only that sense of these equivalents is activated.

## 2.2. What is Poly-equivalence?

Gouws writes, "Poly-equivalence is the result of a relation of heterogeneous divergence; i.e. where both lexical and semantic divergence prevail in the same article." (1999:23). This means that in a case where both lexical and semantic divergence are found in one article, such an article displays a relation of poly-equivalence.

The following article displays a relation of poly-equivalence.

[**Oorbring**-convey; transmit, carry forward, transfer, transport.(1970:178)]

The above-mentioned article contains both lexical and semantic divergence and consequently displays a relation of poly-equivalence. The important question to be asked here is whether this presentation can lead a dictionary user to obtain communicative success. No, when poli-equivalence prevails in an article and that article is not supplied with microstructural entries such as glosses, it would really be difficult for the dictionary user to use the target language successfully. Such an article is posing unnecessary demands to the dictionary user. Ultimately, the dictionary user does not know which translation equivalent to choose. I would like to argue here that the current translation dictionaries expect more from target users and these unnecessary demands end up confusing and frustrating the users. A dictionary user cannot know whether the translation equivalents **convey** and **transmit** are absolute synonyms. How can a dictionary user deduce that the translation equivalents **transmit** and **carry forward**, are

absolute synonyms? The fact that these translation equivalents are not absolute synonyms should be clearly represented in an article, and this should be done by means of glosses or contextual guidance. If this is done, a dictionary user will be able to retrieve the required information easily. An article of **Oorbring** should have looked as follows:

[**Oorbring**- convey (*condolences*); deliver (*message, parcel*); transmit (*disease*); carry forward (*bank balance*); transfer (*amount of money*); transport (*furniture*).]

The above presentation is user-friendly because the user is able to deduce that the translation equivalents cannot replace each other in all contexts. In other words, a dictionary user will be able to deduce that a *disease can be transmitted* and that *a parcel and a message can be delivered.* After going through this kind of an article, the user is able to retrieve the required information and this will enable a native speaker of Afrikaans to use the dictionary as an encoding aid to produce fluent English. For this to happen, our translation dictionaries should be transformed from the "lexicographer based" to the "user-oriented" lexicography. In other words, lexicographers must stop trying to satisfy their demands and rather focus on the needs of well-defined target users. This will then ensure a condition of successful dictionary consultation, i.e. the target users will be able to consult their dictionaries if there are words they want to use in the target language. The existing problem should be seen as a problem for today and the future dictionaries should display articles that are friendly to the users. That is, we must solve this problem so that future dictionaries will be well-compiled and be directed at well-defined target users. It is important to mention here that this problem should stimulate the sustained development of lexicography as an academic discipline.

Let us look at the following articles from Grobler's *English-Northern Sotho translation dictionary* (1991):

[**Study**-bala, hlahloba, lebeledisisa, ithuta.(1991:82)]

According to this presentation, this article displays a relation of lexical divergence. This is not true. Grobler is assuming that the presented translation equivalents are synonyms. To make matters worse, Grobler has not included usage information regarding the translation equivalents. The truth is that the above translation equivalents stand in a relation of semantic divergence to the lemma. This means that Grobler should have used semicolons in the above article to show that semantic divergence prevails. Microstructural entries such as glosses should have been included in the comment on semantics to indicate usage information regarding translation equivalents. Failing to specify the contextual use of the translation equivalents cannot make communicative equivalence to hold between source and target language forms.

The following improvements would have assisted dictionary users to achieve communicative success:

[**Study**-bala(*pampiri*); hlahloba (*mongwalo*); lebeledišiša (*lephepe*); ithuta (*Sekgowa*)]

The user of a translation dictionary will be assisted by the above given usage information. That is, the non-native speaker of Northern Sotho will be able to learn more words than those presented in the translation equivalent paradigm. A dictionary user will be able to see coordination between source and target language forms and will be able to choose the correct translation equivalent for a given situation.

Let us look at the following presentation by Grobler:

[**Gate**-sefero, lesoro, mpshiko (1991:45) ]

The above translation equivalent paradigm displays a relation of lexical divergence. That is, mono-equivalence prevails. I would like to point out here that the omission of contextual guidance in the translation equivalent paradigm implies that the three synonyms **sefero**, **lesoro** and **mpshiko** can replace each other in any context. This is not true. The three translation equivalents are partial synonyms and they cannot replace each

other in every context. This is to say that Grobler should have indicated usage information of the translation equivalents to show that they can replace each other in some contexts. If the above translation equivalents are not supplied with contextual guidance, dictionary users will replace them interchangeably and this will make him an incompetent user of the Northern Sotho language. If the translation equivalents **sefero**, **lesoro**, **mpshiko** are used interchangeably, this will result in what Gouws calls 'communicative embarrassment'.

Lexicographers are often not sensitive enough to language when compiling translation dictionaries. Language sensitivity is very important in bilingual lexicography. The success of lexicography depends on language sensitivity. That is why dictionaries that are compiled by insensitive lexicographers rarely assist their users to achieve communicative equivalence. What is important in bilingual lexicography is that lexicographers must be able to distinguish between target language synonymy and source language polysemy. Lexicographers must bear in mind that dictionaries are regarded as authoritative sources of linguistic information. If dictionary compilers are not sensitive to language their dictionaries will not reach or achieve the aims of fostering multilingualism because the source and the target languages are not coordinated successfully. According to Al-Kasimi(1977), the lexicographer has to follow certain procedures to determine whether the equivalents he chooses are absolute or not. He suggests that a broad range of typical contexts in the source language in which the entry word occurs may be collected in order to have an accurate and good choice of equivalents.

The following improvements would have assisted the non-native speaker of Northern Sotho to retrieve the required translation equivalent:

[**Gate**-sefero (*lapa*), lesoro (*ngwako*), mpshiko (*lešaka*)]

If translation equivalents were supplied with contextual guidance, it would have been much easier for users of translation dictionaries to use the target language successfully. Translation dictionaries should be assisting dictionary users to meet their demands but

unfortunately, they are not designed to meet the demands of well-defined target users because of the stereotyped approached that is found in them. According to Al-Kasimi, the research for equivalents should be preceded by a contrastive analysis of the source and the target languages in order to determine the ranks in grammatical hierarchy, to determine corresponding grammatical categories and to determine reciprocal parts of speech. If this research is done, the lexicographer will have a good and accurate presentation of the equivalents and their usage information.

It is still difficult for the users of translation dictionaries to use the target language because when they consult the translation dictionary, they come across translation equivalents that are listed without contextual guidance.

It is unfortunate that speakers of the eleven official languages in South Africa cannot rely on translation dictionaries in order to achieve communicative equivalence. These speakers learn more about the second language through their friends and neighbours. Are these people isolated from the communication world? Are they not part of the multilingual society? That is, it is their duty to make sure that these people are supplied with comprehensive, detailed and user-friendly translation dictionaries that will assist them to learn more about their second language. Translation equivalents are not isolated words that function independently in a dictionary, but they depend on other lexical items to form meaningful sentences. If lexicographers of translation dictionaries use a textual approach to their dictionaries, dictionary users will not have problems to use the translation equivalents in the correct combinations.

The semantic comment should always be expanded with additional information regarding the use of the translation equivalents. This expansion of the semantic comment makes a translation dictionary to be user-friendly.

# CHAPTER THREE

## Ostensive addressing

### 3.1. Introduction.

There seldom is a complete agreement between the lemma and the translation equivalents in the article of a translation dictionary. The lexicographer has to include additional entries in order to achieve a relation of communicative equivalence between source and target language. This additional information, e.g. contextual guidance, enables dictionary users to speak a target language successfully.

Pictorial illustrations can be employed as microstructural elements to assist the user to achieve a relation of communicative equivalence between source and target language. These illustrations have a semantic importance in the articles of translation dictionaries. They (pictorial illustrations) are used extensively where a lemma has a low degree of translatability.

This chapter discusses the way in which pictorial illustrations assist the dictionary user to achieve communicative success.

## 3.2. What is Ostensive addressing?

Ostensive addressing is a lexicographic procedure where pictorial illustrations are used in a dictionary in the treatment of the lemma. In ostensive addressing, "Pictorial illustrations have the function to show something or to point it out."(Gouws:1999:30). This means that pictorial illustrations can be used by lexicographers to point or show the object which is referred to by a lemma. Pictorial illustrations can be used as microstructural entries to enhance semantic disambiguation. They are very important because they enhance comprehension of the source language form. Although the inclusion of translation equivalents can be regarded as the most important component of the lexicographic treatment in translation dictionaries, a complete semantic agreement between source and target language is seldom found.

In a case where a lemma has no direct translation equivalent, that is, a case where surrogate equivalence prevails, a lexicographer can often apply pictorial illustrations in order to assist dictionary users. The use of pictorial illustrations assists dictionary users in their search for a better comprehension of a lemma. If a dictionary user has a better comprehension of a lemma, he (the user) will be able to communicate easily. The use of pictorial illustrations complements the verbal presentation in the target language. This allows the illustrated lemma to be stored in the minds of people who are using the dictionary that contains pictorial illustrations. The lemma that is illustrated will remain in the minds of target users as an image. Pictorial illustrations are very important because they enhance semantic disambiguation and this results in a maximal retrieval of information. Al-Kasimi (1977:98) points out that pictorial illustrations in a dictionary should also be expanded to include the verbal modifier which goes with it. According to Al-Kasimi, these verbal modifiers usually consist of nonsentences (labels, titles and legends) and sentences. This means that each and every picture that is used should have a title or name in order to motivate dictionary users to learn more about the target language.

If a lemma has a low level of translatability, it is advisable for the lexicographers to include pictorial illustrations. The following examples illustrate my point:
[below is reseacher's examples]

[**assegai** – asakgai ]

The above presentation will not convey meaning sufficiently. Pictorial illustrations should been used so that users of the Northern Sotho language who are not familiar with the referent will be able to comprehend the lemma. An illustration like the following would have assisted the user:

**Assegai -**

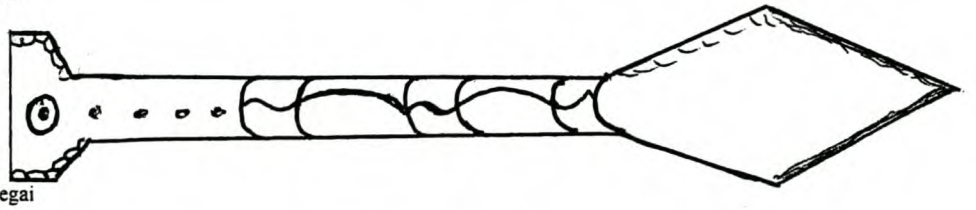

Table.1 Assegai

In the above presentation, a dictionary user is able to see what is being referred to by the lemma. After seeing the illustration, the dictionary user will be able to know how the object to which the lemma **assegai** refers looks like. In other words, the dictionary user is able to see that assegai is a traditional weapon which is used by the Zulu warriors. This will therefore empower him to communicate successfully in all contexts where the lexical item **assegai** is to be used. Therefore, we may rightly point out that the use of a pictorial illustration facilitates coordination between source and target language. Pictorial illustrations can be employed as microstructural entries to enhance semantic disambiguation. They have a semantic and pragmatic function in the dictionary.

Lexicographers must know that ostensive addressing should not be used excessively because it could loose its value. Ostensive addressing may never be used with a mere decorative function. The inclusion of every picture in a translation dictionary should be meaningful. That is, these pictures should not duplicate the information presented

verbally but should introduce new information needed by the dictionary user. After looking at an illustration, a dictionary user should be able to understand the meaning and the use of the lexical item. Al-Kasimi stresses that pictorial illustrations should be used when verbal equivalents cannot show spatial or sequential relationships effectively. This emphasises the fact that pictorial illustrations should not duplicate the presented meaning because then they will be of little use.

I would like to argue here that the verbal presentation in a dictionary article remains of prime importance and should only be complemented and not duplicated by pictorial illustrations. A correct application of pictures and verbal entries make semantic equivalence to hold between source and target language.

Dictionary compilers must know that semantic equivalence and communicative equivalence are not the same. If a translation equivalent paradigm consists of a mere listing of translation equivalents, dictionary users will not obtain communicative success because the semantic comment will be demanding too much from them (users). A mere listing of translation equivalents only enables the user to achieve semantic equivalence between the source and the target language forms. A lexicographer has to expand the semantic comment by giving usage information for each translation equivalent. This enables the user to see the differences between the translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm. That is, members of the translation equivalent paradigm will be distinguishable from each other because of the additional information.

As we shall see, too many lexicographers of translation dictionaries have not taken any effort to use ostensive addressing in their dictionaries where a relation of zero-equivalence preveils. Many articles need ostensive addressing so that communicative equivalence can be established between the lemma and the target language form. For example, in the treatment of cultural items in African languages, ostensive addressing should be used to enable target users of the dictionary to retrieve the required information. In this case, they will be able to understand the lemma that is represented by the picture.

I would like to argue here that ostensive addressing is a user-friendly method that can be used by lexicographers of translation dictionaries to assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success. But the lexicographers must avoid using meaningless illustrations that duplicate the presented information. They must always bear in mind that their pictures have a semantic and communicative function. According to Al-Kasimi, pictorial illustrations, "cue and reinforce the verbal equivalents, especially when the dictionary user can identify, attend to, and respond differentially to the picture." (1977:98). He continues, "they serve as generalising examples when several different but relevant pictures are given in order to establish the concept they are intended to illustrate." In other words, pictorial illustrations assist the user to remember the content of the lemma because these pictures reinforce what is read.

Bosman, Van der Merwe and Hiemstra in their ***Tweetalige woordeboek*** (1984), present no pictorial illustrations. Although the semantic comment in the articles of this dictionary consists mostly of usage information regarding translation equivalents, it was actually necessary for them to use ostensive addressing because some of the lemmata have a low level of translatability. Some of these source language forms are not translatable. In a case of intranslatable lemmata, ostensive addressing should have been used.

Al-Kasimi (1977) gives three criteria for ideal pictorial illustrations, i.e. compactness, fidelity and interpretability. According to Al-Kasimi (1977), compactness is when a pictorial illustration is reduced to its essential and irrelevant information is eliminated. Fidelity of pictorial illustrations deals with the realistic nature of the pictures. According to Al-Kasimi, photographic details and realistic color increase the fidelity of a picture. The dictionary user can understand the message conveyed by the picture by means of intepretability. In other words, the dictionary user's mind becomes busy after he has seen the picture. A mind becomes active as it interprets, reflects and remembers something about a language.

I would like to argue here that it is not only words of a language that assist the user to achieve communicative success but also pictorial illustrations (if used correctly) contribute to the achievement of communicative success. The traditional approach which believes that pictorial illustrations belong in an encyclopaedia should be replaced by a model which focuses on the needs of the user. According to recent research in metalexicography, entries (including pictorial illustrations) should be employed if they can lead to a better understanding on the side of the dictionary user.

Colour pictorial illustrations are better than black and white illustrations because they depict real objects with their typical colours. Where possible, lexicographers must make sure that colour pictures are used so that their dictionaries assist users to retrieve the required information successfully. If dictionary compilers are not able to find a picture for a lemma that has a low degree of translatability, they must ask for a cartoonist to draw a relevant picture to illustrate a particular lemma. What I want to bring to picture here is that even black and white pictures are far better than the absence of ostensive entries.

The only exception is that lexicographers may sometimes find it difficult to represent verb lemmata because these lemmata do not represent objects but actions. This is to say that it is difficult to represent a verb lemma in a picture. In this case, a lexicographer may describe the meaning of the verb lemma or alternatively, an action of the verb may be represented in a picture. For example, in the treatment of the verb lemma, **kick**, a picture of a boy kicking a ball may be given.

Angela Crawley (1997), used pictorial illustrations in the *Children's Pocket Dictionary.* This dictionary (descriptive) attracts young users because its outer cover is decorated with beautiful pictures and also, there is a statement that says, "with over 200 full-colour illustrations". This is a good effort by Crawley. In the Front Matter of the dictionary, Crawley writes, "Pictures help you to understand the meanings of words and they are often labels which give you extra vocabulary"(1997:iii). This means that pictures are used in a dictionary to help in assisting the user to improve his/her vocabulary and also to enable him/her to achieve communicative success.

It is obvious that ostensive addressing play an important role in assisting the target users of dictionaries to achieve their aims of using the target language in a successful and acceptable way. Future lexicographers must make sure that their dictionaries include meaningful pictorial illustrations that successfully support the source and the target language entries.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## The use of lexicographic definitions in a case where zero-equivalence prevails.

### 4.1.Introduction.

The lexicographic definition, as employed in descriptive dictionaries, should also be used in translation dictionaries in a case where a lemma has a zero degree of translatability or no target language equivalent. This is because the lexicon of a language differs from that of other languages. The lack of translation equivalents in the target language obliges the lexicographer to give something that will serve as a surrogate equivalent. This surrogate equivalent may be in the form of a definition.

This chapter discusses the way in which lexicographic definitions can assist the dictionary user to achieve communicative success. The chapter also deals with different types of definitions which the lexicographer must use in his translation dictionary.

4.2. What is zero-equivalence?

As briefly discussed in the previous chapter, zero-equivalence is a case where there is no direct translation equivalent for a lemma. Zero-equivalence is sometimes referred to as surrogate equivalence. In zero-equivalence, a lemma cannot be translated into the target language. In other words, the source lemma is intranslatable by means of a single target language item. Some of the scholars would refer to the lemma as a lemma with a low degree of translatability. The lexicographer may indicate the use of an established borrowing and after this indication, he may describe the meaning of a loan word given as a translation equivalent. It must be understood here that borrowing is not initiated by the lexicographer, but the lexicographer just presents the use of words by speakers of both the target and source language. The fact is that translation dictionaries must present accurate information so that users will be able to trust them as sources of linguistic information.

Gouws writes "The zero-equivalence entails the lexical gap. That is, the lexical item that was supposed to be presented as a translation equivalent is not present. The absence of a translation equivalent usually indicates the existence of a lexical gap in the target language."(1999:26). According to Gouws, when a lemma does not have a translation equivalent, it indicates the existence of a lexical gap. This is true because the lexical item is not present in a place where it is expected. That is why this relation is called one of zero-equivalence. Gouws continues, "In order to cope with this problem, lexicographers of translation dictionaries should be familiar with certain aspects of lexical semantics."(1999:26). This means that lexicographers must know the rules that govern the study of meaning. If this is up to standard, lexicographers will be able to deduce whether a lemma has a low level of translatability or not.

Zero-equivalence often occurs when translation dictionaries are treating culture-bound lexical items. The culture-bound lexical items cannot be translated into the target language because the target language has no items with the same reference. In this case,

lexicographers end up borrowing these culture-bound lexical items as translation equivalents. The direct borrowing of the source language items does not assist the user in his quest to achieve communicative success because in most cases, the user does not know the referent. This borrowing is nothing but the repetition or duplication of the presented lemma. That is, the repetition of the presented information.

Zero-equivalence does not only prevail in the treatment of culture-bound lexical items, but it may also prevail in the treatment of general lexical items. English, for example, consists of many general words that do not have direct translation equivalents in many other languages. For example, in an English – Northern Sotho translation dictionary, most of the English words will not have translation equivalents in the target language. Therefore, I may rightly point out that zero-equivalence may also prevail in the treatment of general words from spoken languages like English, a language with "half a million words" (*The Star*, Wednesday, March 29 2000).

**What should lexicographers do if zero-equivalence prevails**?

According to Al-Kasimi, a major problem which confronts the bilingual lexicographer is that he does not always find the required equivalents in the target language. Al-Kasimi differentiates between two types of vocabulary which contribute to this problem, i.e. culture bound words and scientific and technological terminology. The fact that a lexicographer does not find the required equivalent does not mean that he has to borrow. In a case where zero-equivalence prevails, lexicographers should bear in mind that direct borrowing of the source language by the lexicographers cannot serve any semantic purpose. That is, a borrowed word which has not been established in general use cannot help the user to communicate successfully.

Lexicographers must rely on lexicographic definitions in their translation dictionaries if some of the lemmata are not translatable. The use of lexicographic definitions will facilitate the process of semantic transmission from the source language to the target language. According to Gouws "The nature of the lexical gap which leads to the inclusion

of a surrogate equivalent, determines the extent of the description offered as surrogate equivalent."(1999:27). In other words, the definition of the lemma depends on the nature of the lexical gap that prevails in the target language. He continues, "The distinction between linguistic and referential gaps plays a vital role in this regard. A linguistic gap is established where a given referent is known to the speakers of both language groups but the one language has no lexical item to express that particular meaning while the other language does have such a lexical item.... This constitutes a linguistic gap. Referential gaps are formed when the referent is known to the speakers of one language while the speakers of the other language are unfamiliar with it."(1999:27). This means that a lexicographer has to deduce the kind of gap that prevails in the target language. This also brings into picture the fact that lexicographers' language must be up to standard if they want to compile a translation dictionary. There is no way in which a dictionary can be user-friendly if its compiler's knowledge of the language is not up to standard.

Gouws guides "In the case of a linguistic gap, a brief description of a source language form will be quite sufficient. However, where a referential gap exists, the lexicographer will have to include a more comprehensive description as surrogate equivalent because the users need more information to understand the meaning of the source language form."(1999:27) . In other words, the definition of the lemma representing the referent that is known to the target user will be brief whilst the definition of the lemma representing a referent that is not known to the target user will be more comprehensive because the target user needs more information about the lemma. This is what lexicographers of translation dictionaries should do.

Blunders that are committed by lexicographers in the treatment of the lemmata that have a low level of translatability occur in many translation dictionaries. Let us critically look at how Kritzinger and Steyn (1970) have accounted for zero-equivalence in their Afrikaans-Engels/English-Afrikaans translation dictionary. Did they rely on a brief description of the meaning of the source language in a case where a linguistic gap exists? Did they rely on a more comprehensive description of the source language form in a case where a referential gap prevails?

Afrikaans-English section

[**apartheid**-apartheid .(1970:16)]

This treatment of the lemma is done by means of a standardised borrowing. A linguistic gap prevails in the above presentation because the speakers of both languages are familiar with the referent. The following brief description of the lemma would have been sufficient:

[**apartheid**-apartheid - a government policy of racial segregation.]

The above presentation will assist the user of a dictionary to achieve communicative equivalence. In this case, the native speaker of English will know the meaning of the lemma **apartheid**. A direct borrowing used by Kritzinger and Steyn will not help the dictionary user to obtain communicative success because there is no semantic resemblance between source and target language.

[**bakkie**-bakkie .(1970:20)]

The above article is acceptable. This is an established borrowing. **Bakkie** is a recognised loan word in English and it is being used frequently by the speakers of English. As an established loan word, **bakkie** has a semantic value in English. The folllowing definition can serve as a bonus to the translation equivalent:

[**bakkie**-bakkie – an open pick-up van.]

It is very important to mention here that the established loan words should not be seen as new words that are found in the target language. The fact that they are established simply means that they have a semantic value in the target language. The established loan words fall in a different class.

The other section of Kritzinger and Steyns' dictionary consists of English-Afrikaans translations. This section is populated by the same problem of borrowing. Let us look at the following articles:

[**chauffeur**-chauffeur (1970:375) ]

**Chauffeur** is an established loan word in Afrikaans. The speakers of Afrikaans know the meaning of **chauffeur**. This means that Kritzinger and Steyn have not blundered in entering **chauffeur** as a translation equivalent.

Kritzinger and Steyn have made few blunders in the treatment of the lemmata that are intranslatable. As we have seen, an article of **chauffeur** should have received a surrogate equivalent. On the other hand, they have done a good job by not confusing the established loan words with the intranslatable lemmata. That is, they know that the established loan words have a semantic value in the target language. They are also aware that the established loan words are known and understood by the speakers of the target language that is why they did not give surrogate equivalents in the treatment of the established loan words.

Let us critically look at the issue of surrogate equivalence in other N.Sotho translation equivalents. I will give a free English translation in brackets so that the reader can follow.

Let us look at the following treatment:

[**puppy**- papi.]

The word **papi** does exist in Northern Sotho as an established form. It is important for lexicographers to include this established loan word as a translation equivalent. In other words, including **papi** as a translation equivalent for an English lemma, **puppy** would

have been a good job by the lexicocographer. If a loan word exists in the target language, it may be given as a translation equivalent. Should the lexicographers include a definition after a translation equivalent, such a definition will be regarded as a bonus complementing the translation equivalent. If a loan word has been established as lexical item of a lexicon, it has to be reflected in a dictionary.

There is also a need to include some complementing entries in the translation equivalent paradigm. These entries complement the translation equivalents and they often assist the dictionary users to understand the semantic value of the translation equivalent.

[**welpie**- belpi.(1991:43)

The linguistic gap exists in the above article. A referent is known to the speakers of source and target languages. A brief definition of the meaning of the lemma would have been better than a mere entering of **belpi** as a translation equivalent. A loan word should have been followed by a meaning description. I regard the following as an appropriate surrogate equivalent:

**welpie**- belpi- ngwana wa tau, yoo yo a tsebjago ka tawana.
(a baby lion or a cup )

If a Northern Sotho speaker is not familiar with the Afrikaans lemma **welpie**, he/she will easily understand the meaning of the source language form because of the definition that has been given. This would then contribute to the user's chances of achieving communicative equivalence. The lexical item **belpi** is an Afrikaans borrowed form and it is an established form in Northern Sotho. In this case, the lexicographer must enter it in the semantic comment and this must be followed by a definition. The provision of meaning description of that lemma as a surrogate equivalent should coordinated the source and the target languages successfully. Illustrative examples could also be used to indicate the actual differences between the source and target language forms.

[**gallon**-galone.(1991:45)]

The inclusion of **galone** as a translation equivalent for the lemma **gallon** is an indication of borrowing. This mere indication of borrowing cannot serve any meaningful purpose. We can claim that the lemma is known to the speakers of Northern Sotho but at least, this loan word should have been supplemented with a meaning description because the speakers of the target language need more information about the lemma. This meaning description of the lemma **gallon** would have facilitated the process of meaning transmission:

[**gallon** (obsolete)- galone - seswaro sa morwalo le makhura, gantši se dirišwa go rwala makhura ke boradifatanaga.]

( a measure of capacity equal to eight pints and equivalent to 4,55 litres, used for liquids ) ]

The above description familiarises the speakers of the target language with the referent. The referent is fully described so that its meaning is comprehensible to the dictionary users. This will of course assist the user to have good communication when he/she refers to the lemma. In other words, the user will be able to know the meaning and the function of the source language form because of the usage information that has been furnished in the definition. If lexicographers feel that a particular lemma needs a detailed description, they must feel free to do so because without this description, the lemma cannot be understood by the people who are consulting a translation dictionary. Translation dictionaries do not oblige lexicographers to use single words as translation equivalents, modern lexicography permits the description of meaning in the translation dictionaries. This meaning description should primarily be used as a surrogate equivalent in the case where zero-equivalence prevails.

[**gas**-gase.(1991:45)]

A lexical gap prevails in the above presentation. A referent is known to the speakers of English and Northern Sotho. The word, **gase** is an established form in Northern Sotho and it has been entered in the translation equivalent paradigm. This is a good effort by Grobler. This means that Grobler is aware that the word, **gase** exists in Northern Sotho.

It is very important that lexicographers of translation dictionaries make use of what Feinauer (1999) refer to as the **Genus differentia definition** (G-d definition) in the description of meaning of the lemmata that are intranslatable. That is, in the case of zero-equivalence, lexicographers should make use of the G-d definition especially when a referential gap exists because the target language user needs more information about the lemma. The Genus differentia definition is the best and most adequate definition because it consists of a **genus** word which places the lemma (definiendum) into a specific semantic field or category and the **differentia** which differentiates and distinguishes the lemma from all other related members within those semantic fields. In a case where a referential gap prevails, dictionary users need more information about the source language form and the G-d definition will assist the user to get this information. It is because of this comprehensive information transfer that semantic equivalence can hold between the source and the target language.

The following examples from Wilkinson's *Afrikaans – English Translation Dictionary* (1986) display surrogate equivalents that have been entered correctly :

[**Fantasie** – fantasy - something imaginary or fantastic (1986:164)]

The two lexical items **fantasie** and **fantasy** are established forms in both Afrikaans and English. This is good lexicography because the inclusion of a meaning description after a translation equivalent gives the user a better understanding of the meaning of the lexical item **fantasy**. This surrogate equivalent has been entered correctly and this is what is expected from the lexicographers. In the above presentation, a brief meaning description is sufficient because the lexical item **fantasy** is an established form in English. That is, a brief description complements a translation equivalent **fantasy**.

[**Bloes** – blouse – a garment like shirt (1986:40)]

A lexical item, **blouse** is an established form in English. In this case, it cannot be regarded as a loan word. A meaning description is very important because it serves as a surrogate equivalent that expands a user's knowledge of the lexical item, **blouse**. I may rightly point out here that a brief meaning description has been entered correctly.

**Verb lemmata that are intranslatable.**

In the previous chapter, we discussed pictorial illustrations (ostensive addressing) as a way of assisting dictionary users to achieve communicative equivalence and success. In the same chapter, I mentioned that the subject of ostensive addressing is related to the section on zero-equivalence.

Ostensive addressing is related to surrogate equivalence in the sense that both deal with the lemmata that have a low degree of translatability. In ostensive addressing, we did mention that lemmata that have low levels of translatability should be illustrated so that the dictionary user can be able to see the semantic and usage information of the lemmata. The important question to be asked here is whether the verb lemmata that are not translatable can be illustrated. It is difficult to illustrate a verb because a verb does not refer to an object but to an action. In the case of intranslatable verb lemmata, the lexicographers may choose between two options: to describe the meaning of the verb lemmata in a form of a G-d definition, or if the lexicographer feels that the intranslatable verb lemma cannot receive a comprehensive definition, he may make use of pictorial and other illustrations to show the activity that is represented by the intranslatable lemma.

I may give an example here that if an English word **cook** is intranslatable, a lexicographer may include a picture of a person cooking food. The illustration will assist the user of a dictionary to communicate successfully because he/she will know what the lexical item means because of the illustration that has been supplied in the semantic comment. The

illustration is comprehensible because it also includes the usage information of the verb lemma.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## Structural markers in the translation equivalent paradigm.

### 5.1. Introduction

The translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm are usually separated by commas and semicolons. In order to ensure communicative equivalence, a lexicographer should not choose commas and semicolons haphazardly. A consistent use of commas and semicolons as structural markers in the translation dictionary ensures communicative equivalence because a dictionary user will be able to know, for example, that a particular paradigm consists of synonyms because of commas that have been used in the separation of the translation equivalents.

Commas and semicolons are very important structural markers that ensure a clear and easy transfer of meaning. They are features that ensure communicative equivalence between the source and target languages.

Commas and semicolons can be regarded as important structural markers in the translation dictionaries. Certain semantic relations between translation equivalents in the paradigm are indicated by commas and semicolons. Dictionary users are able to deduce that a translation equivalent paradigm contains target language synonyms if commas are used to separate the translation equivalents. Translation equivalents that are separated by

semicolons represent different polysemous senses of the lemma. A semicolon indicates the polysemous nature of the lemma. A consistent use of commas and semicolons as structural markers in the separation of the translation equivalents in a paradigm leads to communicative equivalence.

5.2. Structural markers in the existing translation dictionaries.

Lexicographers may not assume that dictionary users know the function of commas and semicolons in a translation dictionary. The user should be assisted in making a correct choice of translation equivalents that will render the same semantic value of a lemma in the specific context. Gouws points out, "The choice of commas and semicolons is not done arbitrarily. They are also structural markers which make a definite contribution on microstructural level to ensure the transfer of semantic information. These markers indicate the occurrence of two different types of semantic information, i.e. polysemy and synonymy."(1999:12). Communicative equivalence can only be achieved if commas and semicolons are used consistently to separate target language forms in the translation equivalent paradigm. It must be stated clearly in the front matter of the translation dictionary that translation equivalents that represent different polysemous senses of the lemma are separated per lexicographic convention by means of semicolons; and that the translation equivalents which represent different target language synonyms are separated per lexicographic convention by means of commas. This method of meaning discrimination is also emphasised by Al-Kasimi when he writes, "synonyms or near synonyms are separated by commas and different meanings by semicolons." (1977:70). If this is clearly stated in the front matter of the translation dictionary, lexicographers have a challenge to conform or to follow this rule when presenting translation equivalent paradigms in their dictionaries. This kind of presentation in the translation equivalent paradigm will enable the user of a dictionary to achieve communicative success because the user will be able to interpret the translation equivalents correctly regarding their relation to one another or to the lemma. It will be clear whether it is a relation of semantic, lexical or polydivergence. I would like to argue here that a consistent use of commas will enable the user to see the relation between translation equivalents in the

paradigm. If the user is able to see the relation between the target language forms, it is obvious that his/her chances of choosing the correct equivalents are not limited because he/she will not confuse synonyms with other words. The inconsistent use of these structural markers could lead the user to communicative embarrassment as the user will often choose the wrong translation equivalent.

[**takseer**-estimate, value, appraise, assess.(1970:251)]

The above article is problematic because lexicographers have presented the translation equivalents **estimate**, **value**, **appraise** and **assess** as synonyms. This is a lexicographic blunder because the translation equivalents are not synonyms but represent different polysemous senses of the lemma. This is to argue that semicolons should have been used in the separation of the translation equivalents. Then, the dictionary user would have been able to deduce that the translation equivalents represent polysemous senses of the lemma. He/she will know that the translation equivalents cannot replace each other in all contexts. The inconsistent use of commas and semicolons in this case will not only affect the user of a dictionary but the translation dictionary's aim of assisting the user to have a good choice of equivalents will also be impeded. Instead of assisting the user to have good communication, the inconsistent use of commas and semicolons could lead the user to communicative embarrassment.

In a case where both commas and semicolons are used in the same translation equivalent paradigm, the user's guidelines in the front matter of a dictionary should make the user aware of this aspect of presentation. This guideline will enhance the user's chances of achieving communicative success.

5.3. A problem in distinguishing between synonymy and polysemy.

If the lexicographer uses a comma instead of a semicolon in the separation of translation equivalents representing different polysemous senses, meaning transfer and communicative success cannot be achieved because the user will regard the translation

equivalents as synonyms. In order to have an accurate choice of structural markers, the lexicographer's knowledge of a target language should be up to standard. If his/her knowledge of a target language is not up to standard, the lexicographer will still commit the same mistakes of an inconsistent use of commas and semicolons where synonyms are confused with translation equivalents representing polysemous senses of the lemma.

The important question is whether semantic relations like synonymy and polysemy are accounted for systematically or haphazardly by lexicographers of translation dictionaries. Does the presentation of a translation equivalent paradigm confuse the user of a dictionary because of the inconsistent use of commas and semicolons? Is the choice of these structural markers consistent and accurate?

The problem is that most of the lexicographers use commas instead of semicolons in the separation of translation equivalents representing different polysemous senses of the lemma. This inaccurate and poor presentation cannot help dictionary users to achieve communicative equivalence. Let us examine the following examples from Kritzinger and Steyn's dictionary:

[**kar**-cart, car.(1970:111)]

The use of a comma in the separation of the above translation equivalents denotes that **cart** and **car** are synonyms. Is this true? The Concise Oxford dictionary (1995) defines car as, "*a four-wheeled road vehicle, able to carry a small number of people and powered by an internal-combustion engine*". (1995:195). In the same dictionary **cart** is defined as, "*a strong vehicle with two or four wheels for carrying loads, usually drawn by a horse*". (1995:201). These two definitions show that **cart** and **car** are not synonyms but polysemous senses of the lemma that cannot replace each other in any context. In other words, **cart** and **car** refer to two different vehicles with different functions. Kritzinger and Steyn should have separated the two translation equivalents with a semicolon not a comma. The above presentation will confuse the user because he (user) will regard **car**

and **cart** as synonyms and this will ultimately compel the user to use the two lexical items interchangeably.

When Gouws writes, "The semantic comment in a translation dictionary has to be comprehensive enough for a user to detect the mutual relationship between members of the target language synonym paradigm without any problem" (1999), he is warning that there are semantic comments that are not comprehensible and this is the case with Kritzinger and Steyn's translation dictionary. The translation equivalent paradigm in many articles in this dictionary does not assist the user to retrieve the required information easily. Lexicographers must make sure that their dictionary gives users enough and accurate information about the target language. Gouws continues, "the ordering of the synonym clusters, i.e. the target language synonym paradigm, have to reflect the usage frequency of the different senses of the lexical item in its polysemous senses. The internal ordering of the translation equivalents in a target language synonym paradigm has to reflect the usage frequency of the target language forms."(1999:15). Unfortunately, our lexicographers are not ordering the translation equivalents in their order of usage frequency. The translation equivalents are presented in the paradigm in an unsystematic way. For example, in a translation equivalent paradigm, you may find that the translation equivalent that is frequently used has been ordered after the equivalents that are not commonly (frequently) used. This presentation will make it difficult for the user to understand the semantic comment because the first translation equivalents are not known. The ordering of a translation equivalent that is frequently used in the first position of a synonym translation equivalent paradigm gives a user a chance of understanding the whole semantic comment because in this case, the user is led from the known to the unknown.

The following presentation in Kritzinger and Steyn's translation dictionary is also confusing:

[**meer'derheid**-majority, superiority.(1970:145)]

[**meld**-mention, communicate.(1970:145)]

[**na'deel**-injury, disadvantage, damage.(1970:155)]

Really, Kritzinger and Steyn have a problem in distinguishing between synonymy and polysemy. Commas have been used instead of semicolons. It is wrong to separate the translation equivalents **majority** and **superiority** with a comma because the two are not synonyms but represent polysemous senses of the lemma. In the above articles, the target language paradigm is not comprehensible because it is not easy for the user to detect a mutual relationship between members of the target language paradigm. This will lead to communicative failure and embarrassment. In presenting a semantic comment, lexicographers of translation dictionaries should endeavour to succeed with a presentation that leads to an optimal retrieval of information.

Let us look at how Kriel has used commas and semicolons in presenting the target language paradigm in his *Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary-N.Sotho-English* (1976):

[**aba**-divide, distribute.(1976:3)]

The above presentation is problematic and it will not lead a user to achieve communicative fluency. Kriel separated the two translation equivalents with a comma instead of a semicolon. The use of a comma in the above article will make a dictionary user to assume that the lexical items **divide** and **distribute** are synonyms. This will confuse a user and ultimately the lexical items **divide** and **distribute** will be used interchangeably. The result is that a user becomes the incompetent user of the target language because of a translation dictionary that presents wrong information.

[**jok**-lie, tell stories.(1970:107)]

The above article denotes that "**lie**" and "**tell stories**" are synonyms because they have been separated by a comma. This is true. **Lie** and **tell stories** are synonyms that can replace each other in many contexts. This means that Kritzinger and Steyn are correct in separating the above translation equivalents with a comma. The above article can make the user of a dictionary to use the target language in an acceptable way because

he/she will replace "**lie**" with "**tell stories**". If the user replaces the statement, "**the accused lies in his trial**", with "**the accused tells stories in his trial**" he is correct because the translation equivalents **lie** and **tell stories** are synonyms.

When the user utters the latter statement, he speaks a correct form of the former statement because the dictionary has taught him that **lie** and **tell stories** are synonyms. This accurate and consistent use of structural markers must be used in translation dictionaries so that a user can have a good use of synonyms and polysemous senses of the lemma. The above article shows that Kritzinger and Steyn sometimes has accounted for synonymy and polysemy in a good way. However, lexicographers should have included usage information regarding the translation equivalents to ensure a maximum transfer of meaning, because **lie** and **tell stories** are only partial synonyms.

I may rightly argue that just like Kritzinger and Steyn, Kriel has an inconsistent use of commas and semicolons in his dictionary. Future lexicographers must know that translation dictionaries' are to lead dictionary users objectively to communicate successfully in the target language and that elements of the semantic comment should be presented accurately in order to achieve this aim. This is to say that if structural markers like commas and semicolons are not employed consistently and accurately, the presented information in the semantic comment will be wrong.

The lexicographers must know that commas and semicolons represent one way of marking the specific values. Other structural markers could be used for the same purpose. The lexicographer has to explain the system he/she has opted for in the user's guidelines of his/her dictionary. The system he has opted for should be applied consistently. This will then assist the dictionary users to achieve success.

# CHAPTER SIX

## Non-lemmatic addressing

### 6.1.Introduction.

A lemma is an entry that appears as macrostructural element in a dictionary. Lemmas are the most commonly addressed elements of a dictionary. In a descriptive dictionary, a lemma is addressed by an entry giving a paraphrase of meaning whilst in a translation dictionary, translation equivalents and other entries address a lemma. The addressing procedure is the way in which a form and information relating to that form are brought together. The addressing procedure occurs when an entry is directed at the lemma. The lexicographic term, "addressing" refers to the fact that an entry is directed at another entry.

### 6.2.What is lemmatic and non-lemmatic addressing?

Lemmatic addressing is when entries are directed at the lemma. In a translation dictionary the translation equivalents usually have a lemmatic address because they are

directed/addressed at the lemma. According to Gouws, "The lemma is the most typical lexicographical address and is always the target of lemmatic addressing."(1996:25). This means that a dictionary has the lemmas as its main treatment units.

Non-lemmatic addressing is when entries are directed at forms other than a lemma. Non-lemmatic addressing occurs e.g. when a translation equivalent is addressing another translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. In other words, a lemma does not function as the address when we speak of non-lemmatic addressing but e.g. the target language forms address each other in the semantic comment. Non-lemmatic addressing procedures in bilingual dictionaries are mostly directed at translation equivalents. All translation equivalents of the lemma have a lemmatic addressing but some can also display procedures of non-lemmatic addressing. Although a lemma is the main treatment unit of a dictionary, dictionary users should also be given information regarding translation equivalents. The addressing of the translation equivalents by other microstructural entries is a procedure of non-lemmatic addressing.

Gouws writes, "Within a textual approach ..., the lemma, the treatment unit, is referred to as the topic of the article. A dictionary article displays a typical thema/rhema structure. The way in which the form (the lemma, the topic) and information regarding the form (the lexicographic treatment) are brought together, is known as the "addressing structure of the specific dictionary."

"In lexicography, the term addressing refers to the fact that an entry is directed at another entry. The majority of entries have a lemmatic addressing, i.e. they are directed at the lemma because they are part of the treatment of the lemma. However, entries can also be directed at forms other than the lemma. This would constitute an example of non-lemmatic addressing."(1999:17). A condition where entries are directed at forms other than a lemma (non-lemmatic addressing) helps the dictionary users to see coordination between entries in the translation equivalent paradigm. This secondary addressing procedure assists the user to communicate in a successful way because the entries in the paradigm function in coherence. The coherence of translation equivalents often displays a

clear relationship between these members of the semantic comment. In other words, a user of a dictionary is able to see a relationship between the translation equivalents because they also display non-lemmatic addressing procedures.

Non-lemmatic addressing occurs in different ways in translation dictionaries. The translation equivalents may function in the non-lemmatic procedures especially when a translation equivalent paradigm consists of more than one translation equivalent. Other microstructural entries such as contextual guidance participates in non-lemmatic addressing procedures.

6.2.1. Translation equivalents in non-lemmatic addressing procedures.

Existing translation dictionaries do not include enough applications of non-lemmatic addressing. Even where non-lemmatic addressing does occur, it comes accidentally and it is often not planned by the lexicographer. A big problem that impedes the occurrence of non-lemmatic addressing is that lexicographers do not include as many translation equivalents as the language can offer in the semantic comment. In this case, one translation equivalent cannot activate a process of non-lemmatic addressing. The use of only one translation equivalent often impedes the necessary transfer of semantic information. The inclusion of enough entries in the paradigm enables the user to achieve communicative success because he(user) will be able to see a coherence between the entries in the translation equivalent paradigm. In this case the user of a dictionary uses the translation equivalents interchangeably. It is because of non-lemmatic addressing that a user is able to deduce whether a particular equivalent can replace the other translation equivalent in most cases or not. This therefore makes the user to be a competent user of target language. The way in which equivalents participate in procedures of non-lemmatic addressing is discussed below.

Non-lemmatic addressing occurs when the second translation equivalent serving as synonym of the first translation equivalent addresses the first translation equivalent. That is, the second translation equivalent has a dual purpose of addressing both the lemma and

the first translation equivalent. The following article from Kritzinger and Steyn illustrates my argument:

[**groot**-large (shirt), big (tree) (1970:86)]

In this article, a lexical item **big** serves as a translation equivalent for the lemma **groot**. It also serves as a synonym for the translation equivalent **large**. This denotes that the translation equivalent **big** has a dual purpose, i.e. a purpose of a lemmatic addressing and a purpose of a non-lemmatic addressing. This kind of presentation enables dictionary users to achieve communicative equivalence because a relationship between a lemma and translation equivalents is displayed while on the other hand translation equivalents address another equivalent. We can also deduce that the above translation equivalents are synonyms and that they can replace each other in most cases. It is because of non-lemmatic addressing that the user is able to apply the translation equivalents **large** and **big** interchangeably. The problem with our translation dictionaries is that non-lemmatic addressing is not used consistently. That is, this secondary addressing procedure is found in few dictionary articles. This lexicographic problem impedes the users' chances to obtain communicative fluency.

Let us briefly look at Tsolwana's *New Xhosa Phrase Book and Vocabulary* (1996):

[**course**-umendo.(1996:49)]

The above article is problematic because Tsolwana has included one translation equivalent for the lemma, **course**. In Xhosa, the lexical item **umendo** has synonyms. It would have been a better presentation if at least one synonym for the lexical item **umendo** had been supplied in the above semantic comment. Supplied with contextual guidance, the following presentation would have enabled dictionary users to be more competent in isiXhosa as a target language:

[**course**-umendo, umgaqo.]

In this case, it is obvious that translation equivalents **umendo** and **umgaqo** are synonyms that can be used interchangeably in most cases. Given that these translation equivalents cannot replace each other in all contexts, usage information regarding these synonyms can ensure a maximum retrieval of semantic information. The use of non-lemmatic addressing should be encouraged in bilingual lexicography because this approach regards translation equivalents as part of a lexicon of a language and elevates them to treatment units.

The following example from Tsolwana's dictionary shows why our translation dictionaries need attention:

[**condition**-ubume.(1996:49)]

A Xhosa lexical item **ubume** has three synonyms, i.e. **imeko**, **isimo** and **intlalo**. If these lexical items have been ordered together with **ubume** in the translation equivalent paradigm, the most interesting semantic comment would have resulted. That is, a non-lemmatic addressing would have resulted from this ordering of four translation equivalents that have more or less the same meaning. The non-initial synonyms in the semantic comment would have addressed the first equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. Supplied with contextual guidance, the following semantic comment would have facilitated a comprehensive transfer of semantic information:

[**condition**-ubume, intlalo, isimo, imeko.]

The lack of secondary addressing procedures in an article of a translation dictionary will impede a successful transfer of semantic information. The primary addressing procedure is a point of departure for every lexicographer of a translation dictionary, but these dictionary compilers should know that when the two addressing procedures are found in

an article, the whole article becomes user-friendly. In this case, an article assists the user to retrieve the required information and to achieve communicative fluency.

Our translation dictionaries should not limit users' chances of obtaining the required information but they should lead to a successful retrieval of the semantic information. This can be done only if non-lemmatic addressing becomes a focus of compilers of translation dictionaries. The lexicographers must use primary and secondary addressing procedures in their dictionaries. They must also know that if an article does not follow the secondary addressing procedures (especially in the presentation of synonyms), a primary addressing procedure will minimise the transfer of information. The application of non-lemmatic addressing gives a user information regarding the lemma and translation equivalents. The lemma is being addressed by the translation equivalents (primary addressing) whilst the first translation equivalent is addressed by its synonyms in the translation equivalent paradigm (secondary addressing). Non-lemmatic addressing is also aimed at equivalent discrimination and this is indicated fully in section 6.2.2. below.

The most important function of non-lemmatic addressing is that it leads to a change in the topic. Translation equivalents become addresses. Non-lemmatic addressing implies a topic switching because every new address is a new topic within the article. Gouws writes, "Although topic switching increases the density of information, the new comment is directed at a topic with which the user is unfamiliar, being a translation equivalent in the target language. The additional information adds communicative value and empowers the user with better comprehension."(1996:26). The use of non-lemmatic addressing procedures increases the density of information in an article. The non-lemmatic addressing creates a topic switch (a new topic within an article) and article internal shift in focus. Although some scholars are against a piling up of synonyms and near synonyms in the target language paradigm, I regard this as very important as it increases the density of information in an article. Al-Kasimi points out "When a person wants to say something in a foreign language he might consult a bilingual dictionary. But instead of finding one word which expresses his meaning, he is frequently confronted with several words which he cannot distinguish one from another."(1977:67). The fact is that these several words (equivalents) may be distinguished from one another if the lexicographer includes usage

information for each translation equivalent. I therefore argue that where possible, more than one translation equivalents should be entered so that non-lemmatic addressing takes place. These equivalents should be provided with meaning discriminations which enable the user to select the appropriate equivalents.

6.2.2. Contextual guidance in non-lemmatic addressing procedures.

Usage information, which is included after each translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm is known as contextual guidance. Contextual guidance can participate in non-lemmatic addressing procedures. This entry addresses translation equivalents in a semantic comment. Additional entries in the translation equivalent paradigm are mostly directed at translation equivalents. This equivalent discrimination implies the transfer of semantic information and even the discrimination of meaning. The dictionary users get familiar with the target language items because of contextual guidance.

Let us look at how contextual guidance participates in non-lemmatic addressing procedures : (Below is researcher's example)

[ **(namaak** – imitation (product), counterfeit(money) ]

The translation equivalents **imitation** and **counterfeit** receive contextual guidance as addresses of non-lemmatic addressing procedures. This clearly indicates that contextual guidance can participate in non-lemmatic addressing procedures. The transfer of semantic information and discrimination of meaning is enhanced in this article. From a communicative point of view, it is important that the semantic value of the source and target language forms is the same in the specific context; and this could be facilitated by supplying the additional entries in the microstructure. According to Kuhn, "the use of examples represents a pragmatic non-lemmatic address and offers an interaction of semantics and grammar in order to equip a user with encoding and decoding skills. It can also help to differentiate between a stylistic adequate text presentation and the mere

understanding of foreign text."(1989:117-118). This means that contextual guidance is very important because it gives a user enough information regarding the target language.

[ (**teegaan** – oppose(views), prevent(disease), check(person)]

In the above presentation, contextual guidance participates in non lemmatic addressing procedures. The target language forms **oppose**, **prevent** and **check** are addressed by contextual information entries **views**, **disease** and **person**. This non-lemmatic addressing procedures give a dictionary user enough information regarding the target language.

6.2.3. The equivalent relation of congruence.

In the equivalent relation of congruence, a lemma is addressed by a single translation equivalent. In this case, a user is not confronted with serious problems because he does not have to choose between alternative translation equivalents. The non-lemmatic addressing procedures are not important in the equivalent relation of congruence. There is little need for additional information (e.g. contextual guidance) to illustrate the correct usage of the translation equivalent. In other words, it is not important for non-lemmatic addressing procedures to be used in an equivalent relation of congruence

# CHAPTER SEVEN

## The Reversibility principle

### 7.1.Introduction.

A single dictionary cannot be everything to everybody. Different dictionary types are designed according to the needs of their target users. There is an extended dictionary family. Each dictionary fits into the typological structure and should be evaluated in terms of the criteria applicable to this typological category.

Translation dictionaries can be either monodirectional or bidirectional. In a mono-directional translation dictionary, one language is presented as the source language throughout the dictionary and the other language is presented as the target language throughout the dictionary. A bi-directional translation dictionary treats the two languages (source and target language) equally in its two sections. It consists of two alphabetical components, i.e. one in the first section and the other in the second section. Although a monodirectional translation dictionary does not offer an equal treatment of both languages, the bidirectional translation dictionary often tries to treat two languages equally. A bidirectional translation dictionary is often used by speakers of both languages treated in the dictionary. In this case, these dictionaries are bi-functional.

A dictionary article must enable one to understand translation equivalents and also make it easy for the user to test the translation equivalents by translating them to the original source language. This is done to ascertain whether a particular translation equivalent can

be used in a communicative functional way. This is known as the application of the **reversibility principle**.

It is the duty and responsibility of lexicographers to apply the reversibility principle in their translation dictionaries. The primary objective of the reversibility principle is to ensure an inclusion and treatment of all the lexical items included in one section of a dictionary as translation equivalents, as lemmas in the other section of the dictionary. This method makes target users of translation dictionaries to be sure of the semantic resemblance that occurs between the source and target languages because semantic resemblance that occurs between the two languages is retested. The reversibility principle gives users the opportunity to test the communication aptness of a given translation equivalent. This principle equips the user with an instrument to help him gain a better understanding of the coordination between the source and target language. It is an innovative attempt to assist the user with the choice of equivalents. Gouws writes "According to the reversibility principle, a lexical item A included as a translation equivalent of the lemma B in the X-section of a bi-directional translation dictionary, has to be included as a lemma in the Y-section of a dictionary with at least the lexical item B, the relevant lemma from the X-section, as one of its translation equivalents. Each lexical item included as a translation equivalent in the Y-section of a bi-directional dictionary has to be included as a lemma in the X-section of a dictionary with at least the respective lemma from the Y-section as a translation equivalent."(1999:19). The reversibility principle assists the user of a translation dictionary to retest the meaning of the lemma. For example, if a lemma in the English-Afrikaans section has a translation equivalent, **dors**, the same lexical item, **dors** must be used as a lemma in Afrikaans-English section of the same dictionary. The translation equivalent for the lemma, **dors** should be the same as the lemma in the English-Afrikaans section. The following examples illustrate my point:

<u>English-Afrikaans section</u>.

[**thirst**-dors.]

Afrikaans-English section.

[**dors**-thirst.]

The above examples show the way the reversibility principle functions in a bi-directional translation dictionary. It is important for lexicographers to note that the reversibility principle functions only in bi-directional translation dictionaries. This means that this principle cannot be used in mono-directional translation dictionaries. This retesting method assists dictionary users to have an optimal retrieval of information and ultimately the user is able to use both languages in a communicatively functional way. The reversibility principle makes both the target and the source language to be equal because these languages are awarded a source and target language status in a dictionary. This method of ordering equips a user with an instrument to help him gain a better understanding of coordination between the two treated languages. Kritzinger and Steyn's dictionary is bi-directional, i.e., it consists of an Afrikaans-English section and English-Afrikaans section. Let us see whether the reversibility principle has been applied in this dictionary:

Afrikaans-English section

[**beledig**-insult, offend, injure.(1970:26)]

As we can see, the Afrikaans-English section contains a lexical item **insult** as one of the translation equivalents. According to the reversibility principle, the English-Afrikaans section of the same dictionary must have a lexical item **insult** as a lemma and at least the Afrikaans word **beledig** should be one of the translation equivalents for the lemma **insult**. Let us see whether this procedure has been followed in the English-Afrikaans section of the same dictionary:

English-Afrikaans section

[**insult**-beledig, beskimp, krenkend.(1970:474)]

The above presentation is acceptable because it allows the user to retest translation equivalents. In the above case, the user is able to see that a translation equivalent **beledig** is an Afrikaans equivalent for the lemma, **insult**. This means that the user is now quite sure that the lexical items **insult** and **beledig** can substitute each other in many contexts as they are coordinated in both sections of the bi-directional dictionary. In other words, the two lexical items have been retested and it is true that they share the same meaning. The user is able to achieve communicative equivalence because he/she has no doubt that there is a meaning relationship between **insult** and **beledig**.

The reversibility principle assists with retranslation but primarily accounts for the use of lexical items both as lemmata and translation equivalents in a bi-directional dictionary.

Let us look at the following example:

Afrikaans-English section

[**aanlok**-attract, charm; invite.(1970:3)

In the article of **attract** in the English-Afrikaans section, the Afrikaans lexical item **aanlok** should appear as one of the translation equivalents. This will enable the user of a dictionary to retest a translation equivalent. Is this the case in Kritzinger and Steyn's dictionary? Let us see whether a lexical item **aanlok** appears as one of the translation equivalent of the lemma, attract in this dictionary:

English-Afrikaans section

[**attract**-aantrek; aanlok; boei.(1970:350)]

The above presentation of the English-Afrikaans section is acceptable. The dictionary user will be sure that a lexical item **attract** is a true communicative equivalent for **aanlok.** This means that an Afrikaans lexical item, can be used to translate an English word **attract** in many contexts and vice versa.

In using the reversibility principle, lexicographers must not forget to include contextual guidance in both sections of their bi-directional dictionaries. That is, translation equivalents must have usage information in both sections of the dictionary. If the reversibility principle is used together with contextual guidance, there will be a good transfer of semantic information in these sections and this will facilitate communicative success.

The above articles could have been improved as follows:

Afrikaans-English section

[**aanlok**-attract (attention), charm (people); invite (suggestions)]

English-Afrikaans section

[**attract**-aantrek (mense), aanlok (bewonderaars), boei (gehoor)]

There is a good transfer of semantic and usage information in the above articles. Each translation equivalent has been furnished with contextual guidance. This means that after retesting the translation equivalents, a user will continue to learn about the usage information of the retested translation equivalents. The function(usage) of the translation equivalent is very important because without this usage information, a person who consults a dictionary will only know the meaning of the lemma without being able to apply it to a specific context. That is, a user will not use these words in his/her daily communication.

The following articles are not good but fair because of the lack of contextual guidance in the translation equivalent paradigm. They are fair in the sense that a rule or procedure for the reversibility principle has been followed:

Afrikaans-English section

[**insig**-insight, view, opinion.(1970:103)]

English-Afrikaans section

[**insight**-insig; begrip; blik.(1970:473)]

Afrikaans-English section

[**verkies**-elect; choose; prefer.(1970:277)]

English-Afrikaans section

[**elect**-verkies, verkore, eleksie.(1970:416)]

Afrikaans-English section

[**rang**-rank, class, grade.(1970:203)]

English-Afrikaans section

[**rank**-rang; ry; gelid; staanplek.(1970:561)]

The above examples should have been supplied with usage information so that a user could be able to use the translation equivalents in a suitable way. The reversibility principle should always be complemented by contextual guidance otherwise it cannot lead the user to achieve communicative equivalence. The use of the reversibility principle together with contextual guidance will enhance the linguistic and semantic quality of lexicographic practice.

7.2. The reversibility principle: a balanced lexicographic function.

The reversibility principle is a balanced lexicographic macrostructural presentation of elements from both the treated languages. The two languages that are found in a dictionary are treated equally. The lemmas in the first section of the dictionary become the translation equivalents in the other section of the same dictionary. The translation equivalents in the first section become the treatment units (lemmas) in the other section of the dictionary (bi-directional). This balanced lexicographic macrostructural presentation of elements from both the treated languages makes the bi-directional dictionaries to be used by the speakers of both languages. For example, in a Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bi-directional dictionary, the native speakers of either Northern Sotho or English will primarily use the dictionary. This is to say that the speakers of one of the two languages become the primary target users of the bi-directional dictionary. The typical target users of a bi-directional dictionary, are the native speakers of both languages (English and Northern Sotho) treated in a dictionary. The reversibility principle endeavours to serve the speakers of both languages on an equal basis.

The following examples display a balanced lexicographic function of the reversibility principle:

Afrikaans-English section.

[**aanlok**- attract(attention), charm(people), invite(suggestions)]

English-Afrikaans section.

[**attract**-aantrek(mense) aanlok(bewonderaars), boei(gehoor)]

I may rightly point out here that the Afrikaans-English section endeavours to serve the speakers of both Afrikaans and English whilst the English-Afrikaans section serves the native speakers of both English and Afrikaans. In other words, a balanced lexicographic function is displayed by the reversibility principle as macrostructural presentation of elements in a bi-directional dictionary.

# CHAPTER EIGHT

## The retranslation method

### 8.1. Introduction

The choice of translation equivalents in the semantic comment is not easy. Dictionary users may face a difficult task of choosing translation equivalents. In most cases, the use of illustrative examples or contextual guidance assist the users to choose the correct translation equivalents.

Besides the use of illustrative examples and usage information, the lexicographers may also employ innovative attempts to assist the user with the choice of translation equivalents. The innovative attempts employed by the lexicographers can assist the user of the dictionary to achieve communicative success. The dictionary users are able to choose the correct translation equivalents when these innovative attempts are employed in a translation dictionary.

The retranslation method is not a common lexicographic procedure in translation dictionaries and should not be confused with the reversibility principle.

In the primary macrostructure, a lemma is given its translation equivalents. The secondary macrostructure is the other macrostructure where the translation equivalents are being retested and in this macrostructure the translation equivalents are being addressed by other equivalents. That is, they are entered and retranslated into the original source language. Commas and semicolons as structural markers in the translation dictionary ensures communicative equivalence. *The Reader's Digest Afrikaans-Engelse Woordeboek/English/Afrikaans Dictionary*(1987) (RD) employed the retranslation method. In this dictionary, "the lexicographers have added two extra columns on each page ...Two types of additions can be found in these columns. The first new inclusion is that of the so called *inserted texts*, these texts are boxes with the titles *words in action* (in the Afrikaans-English section) and *Woorde in aksie* (in the English-Afrikaans section..." (Gouws 1999:19-20). In using the retranslation method, few lexical items included as macrostructural elements in the central list on the specific page, are also included in the second section. The following example illustrates this point:

<u>Primary macrostructure</u>

[**fiks**, fit, healthy, robust; active, stalwart, vigorous, energetic...]

<u>A secondary macrostructure</u>
(The presentation of the retranslation)
[**fiks**... **fit** liggaamlik voorberei; **healthy** gesond; **robust and stalwart** sterk en gesond; **active** bedrywig; **energetic** hups, vol energie en lewenslus; **quick** rats; **vigorous** fors]

As we can see, the translation equivalents in the primary macrostructure are being retranslated into the original source language. The secondary macrostructure consists of translation equivalents that are also retranslated. This presentation enables dictionary compilers to reveal or discover the mistakes that are committed in the presentation of

translation equivalents. Gouws writes, "Retranslation method does not only help the user to choose the correct equivalent but it also shows some inaccuracies and carelessness regarding the identification of the synonyms in the original translation equivalent paradigm."(1999:20). This means that this method of ordering assists lexicographers to be careful in entering members of the translation equivalent paradigm. Accuracy can be achieved by lexicographers if they use the retranslation method in their translation dictionaries. It is through this method of ordering that dictionary users are able to see that translation equivalents presented as synonyms in the paradigm cannot replace each other in all communicative contexts. Even if translation equivalents appear to be absolutely synonymous, a user can see that it is still important to have the usage information of these synonymous lexical items because sometimes usage information can indicate differences. Therefore, this differentiation is very important to ensure the achievement of communicative success and fluency.

The carelessness and inaccuracies regarding the identification of synonyms can be seen in the above original (primary) macrostructure. For example, translation equivalents **fit**, **healthy**, **robust**, **active**, **stalwart**, **vigorous** and **energetic** are unfortunately represented as synonyms. A secondary macrostructure that brings the retranslation of these translation equivalents indicates that the above translation equivalents are not synonyms but represents polysemous senses of the lemma. This indicates that it is through the retranslation method that inaccuracies and carelessness regarding the choice of translation equivalents is exposed. A given primary macrostructure cannot assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success because the user can use the lexical items **healthy** and **robust** interchangeably. This therefore leads to communicative embarrassment. I must mention here that the retranslation method has a limited use. The Reader's Digest Afrikaans-Engelse Woordeboek/English-Afrikaans(RD) applied the retranslation method as an additional lexicographic procedure. This means that the retranslation method is not a standard procedure in translation dictionaries. The lexicographers of translation dictionaries may opt for the retranslation method as an alternative method. It is a new method worth exploring.

The following examples display how the retranslation method can be useful to lexicographers. This method makes translation equivalents to be the target of a translation process and this promotes a transfer of semantic information.

A primary macrostructure

[**boef**-rogue, villain, knave ]

According to the above translation equivalent paradigm, the translation equivalents, **rogue**, **villain** and **knave** are synonyms which means they can substitute each other in many contexts. Is this true? Let us retranslate these lexical items to make sure that they can substitute each other in many contexts. If these lexical items have the same translation equivalents in Afrikaans, it is then that we can be sure of their absolute synonymy. Let us look at the following secondary macrostructure:

[**boef-rogue**-skurk, **villain**-skurk, booswig, **knave**-skurk, skelm.]

The above retranslation enables the user to see the accuracy in choosing translation equivalents in the central list. These translation equivalents can replace each other in many contexts because each of them has the Afrikaans word **skurk** as a translation equivalent. In other words the three lexical items can rightly be used interchangeably in many situations. A primary macrostructure does not always give detailed information about the members of an article. A secondary gives more detailed information about translation equivalents but unfortunately this article is not furnished with usage information regarding translation equivalents. This will impede a user's chances to retrieve the required information. The use of the retranslation method does not mean that a lexicographer has to forget about contextual guidance in his articles. The use of the retranslation method together with contextual guidance promote a maximum transfer of semantic information. In other words, if the retranslation method is further supplied with contextual guidance, this kind of lexicographic treatment will be user-friendly and of course, the user will be able to achieve communicative equivalence. This is because an

article in the secondary macrostructure is clear and comprehensive. A clear and comprehensive article promotes the user's chances of language competency.

The following application of the retranslation method is acceptable:

A primary macrostructure

[**arrange**-skik, rangskik, orden, afspreek, reël, inrig.]

The above article suggests that the translation equivalents in the semantic comment can replace each other in some contexts. This is because of commas that have been used to separate these translation equivalents. Is this true? Let us look at the following secondary macrostructure:

[**arrange-skik** arrange(order); **rangskik** arrange, classify(people); **afspeek** agree upon(negotiation); arrange; **reël**-rule(leader); regulate(operation); arrange; **inrig**-arrange; organise(function, party)]

As we can see, the above secondary macrostructure shows some inaccuracies and carelessness regarding the identification of the synonyms in the primary macrostructure. The primary macrostructure presents all translation equivalents as synonyms and this is not true. In the retranslation of these translation equivalents, we can see that the Afrikaans lexical items, **skik**, **rangskik**, **afspreek**, **reël** and **inrig** cannot replace each other in all contexts. Although the English word, **arrange** appears as translation equivalent of some lexical items, we cannot say that the above Afrikaans lexical items are absolute synonyms. They are only partial synonyms. Usage information regarding these words does not show that they can replace each other in many (if not all) contexts. This means that the retranslation method is one of the best methods of ensuring a good and accurate presentation of semantic information. But it must always be regarded as an additional lexicographic procedure

I would like to argue here that the retranslation method should always be used together with usage information regarding translation equivalents. This presentation enables the user to achieve communicative success because of semantic equivalence and resemblance that holds between the two languages. The addressing of translation equivalents by other translation equivalents in the secondary article makes an article functional and user-friendly. Retranslation could also be applied within the primary microstructure as part of a non-lemmatic addressing procedure.

The retranslation method could also be used by lexicographers in the treatment of African languages. Let me briefly show how the retranslation method can work in a Xhosa-English translation dictionary:
(Usage information will be written in English so that the reader can follow the discussion)

A primary macrostructure

[**access**-ukungena, ukufikelela.]

A secondary macrostructure

[**access**-ukungena-**enter**(door, competition); ukufikelela-**access**(a facility, to a technology)]

The above retranslation method shows that the primary article is problematic. This is because the translation equivalents have been separated by a comma which indicates that they are synonyms. This is not true because a retranslation method in the above secondary macrostructure shows that the Xhosa words **ukungena** and **ukufikelela** are not synonyms but represent the polysemous senses of the lemma. In other words, these lexical items cannot replace each other in any context as they represent different polysemous senses of the lemma. If the retranslation method was not used in the above

presentation, dictionary users would have regarded the lexical items **ukungena** and **ukufikelela** as absolute synonyms that can replace each other in all contexts.

The application of the retranslation method by lexicographers who compile bilingual dictionaries with an African language as one of the treated language will play an important role because the users of African languages need fair and clear semantic information regarding either English or Afrikaans. English and Afrikaans are not closer to the users of African languages and I think that if a clear and comprehensive retranslation method is presented to these users, much more communicative success can be achieved in these languages. For example, a user can deduce that a single lexical item in his language can have a meaning relationship with many lexical items in the target language. This is because languages such as English have so many words that result in synonymy and unrelated usage information. For example, a Xhosa lexical item, **ukungena** simply means **to enter by a door or gate**. In English, a lexical item **enter** does not only mean **to enter by a door or gate** but different usages can be deduced, i.e. **entering a competition**, **enter for examinations** etc. Dictionary users have also a chance of learning this usage information in English because of the retranslation method that is presented in their dictionaries. Ultimately, a user is able to use synonymous words interchangeably in his/her communication. He is therefore able to use appropriate language in different situations because he is now able to interpret English. In this case, I may rightly point out that a native speaker of Xhosa has achieved communicative equivalence. The application of usage information in the secondary macrostructure enhances a user's ability to achieve communicative success. If this usage information is applied in the primary macrostructure, much more communicative success and fluency may be achieved. In other words, I would like to argue that contextual guidance should be applied in the primary macrostructure because this is the position where the initial consultation procedure is performed.

The objective of translation dictionaries should not only be to supply translation equivalents but also to enable users to retrieve the required information in the easiest way. This can be done by the inclusion of more information regarding translation

equivalents so that the demands of target users can be met. Lexicographers should not try to satisfy their own demands and objectives when compiling translation dictionaries but the demands and needs of the target users.

The retranslation method is not compulsory in bilingual lexicography. It is the decision of a compiler to choose this procedure if he/she thinks it can assist his/her target user to arrive at communicative success. There is no problem with mono-directional translation dictionaries that does not employ the retranslation method.

The retranslation method can be used in both mono-directional and bi-directional dictionaries. The lexicographers should bear in mind that this method can be applied as an additional lexicographic procedure and not as a standard procedure in translation dictionaries. The retranslation method could be used in the primary and only macrostructure in mono-directional dictionaries.

# CHAPTER NINE

## Lexicographic labels

### 9.1. Introduction.

Besides the lemmas, the translation equivalents and illustrative examples, a translation dictionary (especially a standard translation dictionary) should contain other important information, including pragmatic information, indicated by means of labels.

The lexical items in a translation dictionary do not all have a standard usage. Some of these lexical items (lemmas and translation equivalents) are restricted to a particular situation of usage. These restrictions should always be indicated so that the dictionary user can know words that can be used in formal and non-formal situations. The restricted lemmas and translation equivalents should be indicated in a translation dictionary because if this is not done, a user will end up using the inappropriate language in specific

situations. The language deviation should be marked by the lexicographic labels. Some of the lexical items that are found in the standard translation dictionary may be restricted. Therefore, the lexicographer has a task of identifying the lexical items that deviate from the standard use in standard translation dictionaries. These lexical items that deviate from standard use must receive a label.

This chapter offers a discussion of some of the lexicographic labels and the way in which these labels can assist the user to achieve communicative success.

## 9.2. What is a lexicographic label?

A lexicographic label is a label that indicates the restrictions concerning usage of a specific lexical item either geographically, temporally, technically or stylistically. A lexicographic label indicates the deviations of the prototypical information that should appear in general dictionaries. According to Feinauer, "Labels mark amongst other things the suitability or not of a lemma for a given discourse situation, and they are directed at a guarantee of communicative success by the user of a particular lexical item."(1999:35). This means that lexicographic labels assist dictionary users to communicate successfully because a user will not use unacceptable language in e.g. formal situations. Feinauer continues, "A lexicographic label is a dictionary entry that performs as a marker to indicate the restriction of the lemma or another microstructural element regarding its style, field of application, acceptability etc."(1999:35). A lexicographic label may also be used as a marker of microstructural elements to indicate their restrictions.

Translation dictionaries are dictionaries that provide translation equivalents for each lemma ordered in the macrostructure. Amongst these dictionaries, there are translation dictionaries that accommodate a selection of lexical items representing the full lexicon. The standard translation dictionaries endeavor to reflect the standard variety of the target language(s). They are normative in their approach. Gouws writes, "Standard dictionaries

are the linguistic reference sources most commonly used by the average members of a speech community and these users rely on a dictionary as an authoritative source of linguistic information. Although the restricted language use is not the target of these dictionaries, one often finds some items from these varieties in a standard dictionary. This inclusion can be motivated on the grounds of usage frequency in ordinary communication situations."(1999:15). This means that a restricted language use may be found in standard translation dictionaries. It is expected that standard translation dictionaries should contain labeling. This is because some of the lemmata that appear in the macrostructure of general translation dictionaries are not standardised forms of a particular language. In this case, lexicographic labels are required and necessary.

Besides semantic information, general translation dictionaries have to accommodate information on the usage of the lemma. That is, these dictionaries must give a clear indication of the linguistic context in which a specific lexical item can occur in a typical utterance. A lemma must be placed in its syntactical context in an article of a general translation dictionary. This placement of a lemma will make the target user to see that a specific lemma is restricted for standard use. When a lemma is labeled, translation equivalents for this lemma may also be restricted. In most cases, some of the translation equivalents of a labeled lemma are not restricted in terms of standard use. This therefore requires a careful application of labels in the translation equivalent paradigm because a careless application may result in the labeling of translation equivalents that follow standard usage. In other words, the fact that a lemma has been labeled does not automatically mean that all its translation equivalents are not suitable for standard use. A relationship between a marked lemma and its labeled equivalents makes semantic equivalence to hold between source and target language forms and this encourages communicative success. The unlabeled restricted lemma can confuse the user because he(user) will assume that such a lemma is standardised. As a result, the user can e.g. use coarse language in formal situations such as at meetings and conferences.

A problem with many existing translation dictionaries is that they do not include pragmatic information (labeling) in their articles. These dictionaries do not include

lexicographic labels to indicate restrictions of the lemmata and their translation equivalents. Given this problem, users of dictionaries are not able to differentiate between standardised lexical items and those with restricted use. This confusion makes the user to use the acceptable language (coarse slang) without knowing that it offends the audience or listeners. According to Al-Kasimi (1977), there are two major issues which the lexicographer should attend to before he uses restrictive or usage labels. The first one is how to record usage and the other is what labels to use. This means that a lexicographer should always know how to record usage of dictionary entries, and also, he must know what lexicographic labels to use. This means that the lexicographic labels should not be used haphazardly or at random. The inconsistent use of lexicographic labels cannot assist the user to achieve communicative equivalence.

Labeling should be used to indicate restrictions and standard lemmata should not receive any label. This means that a standard language item will seldom receive a label whilst deviations should be labeled. If a restricted lemma does not receive any pragmatic information, there is no way in which the target user can see that such a lemma deviates from the standard use. Therefore, translation equivalents for such a lemma will unfortunately be regarded as standardised. In this case semantic and communicative equivalence cannot hold between the source (lemma) and target language forms.

Let us look at the following examples from Tsolwana's *New Xhosa Phrase Book and Vocabulary* (1996):

[**bitch**-injakazi, usfebe.(1996:45)]

The above article is problematic because the lemma **bitch** is coarse language. In the above presentation, a user cannot obtain communicative equivalence as he/she will use a translation equivalent **usfebe** in situations such as conferences etc. The unlabeled lemma poses a problem to a user of a dictionary because he (user) does not even think that a lemma might be deviating from the standard use. For the dictionary user to communicate successfully, Tsolwana should have presented the above article as follows:

[**bitch**(*coarse slang*)-injakazi; usfebe (*coarse slang*)]

In this case, we are able to see that the lemma **bitch** is coarse slang which means that it must not be used in formal situations as it is offensive (strong language). The label cautions the user to be careful when using the lemma because it is not applicable to all situations. It is from the above example that we can deduce a restriction of the translation equivalent **usfebe** because of the label that has been used. Tsolwana (1996) recorded general language but unfortunately did not furnish pragmatic information in the dictionary. This lexicographic blunder appears in most translation dictionaries. Kritzinger and Steyn's dictionary has the same problem. Let us look at the following example:

[**piss**-water, pis.(1970:540)]

The lemma **piss** does not receive a lexicographic label. Kritzinger and Steyn have committed a blunder because the lexical item **piss** is stylistically restricted. This means that it is coarse language and it cannot be used in all situations. The absence of a labeled lemma has affected the interpretation of the translation equivalents as the user can regard an equivalent **pis** as a standard language item. The result here is that unsuitable language is used. This therefore leads to communicative embarrassment because a user will not be using proper and appropriate language in a particular situation. Kritzinger and Steyn should have presented their article as follows:

[**piss**(*coarse slang*)-water; pis(*growwe sleng*)]

We can easily deduce that the lexical item **piss** is coarse slang and that its Afrikaans equivalent **pis** is also coarse slang(growwe sleng). This kind of presentation will enable a user to achieve communicative equivalence. Given that Kritzinger and Steyn treat standard language in their dictionary, it would have been advisable and important for them to have used lexicographic labels to mark deviating language because now each word is regarded as belonging to the standard variety in this dictionary. The lack of labels

in this kind of a dictionary poses a serious problem because target users can use vulgar and coarse language without any knowledge of the mistakes they are making. There are different kinds of labels that can be used by the lexicographers i.e. technical labels, temporal labels, geographical labels and stylistic labels. These labels should be used to mark language deviations in general dictionaries.

In supporting the use of lexicographic labels in dictionaries, Feinauer writes, "Usage information in dictionary articles should also indicate which restrictions exist concerning a usage of a specific lemma either geographically, socially or temporally. This information is indicated by lexicographic labels. Labels are also used to indicate deviations of the prototypical information that should appear in general monolingual dictionaries. Labels mark, amongst other things, the suitability or not of a lemma for a given discourse situation, and it is directed at a guarantee of a communicative success by the use of a particular lexical item. A lexicographic label is a dictionary entry that performs as a marker to indicate the restrictions of the lemma or of another microstructural element regarding its style, field of application, acceptability etc".(1995:35). This means that lexicographic labels are important entries that should be used in a standard dictionary (descriptive and translation) to show the acceptability and restrictions of a language. If labels are used in a dictionary, we are able to see the particular restrictions of a lemma or translation equivalent. For the dictionaries to be fair and not be prescriptive, labeling should follow vocabulary of a language. In other words, labeling should not be done with a censorious tone. According to Al-Kasimi, labeling should not be done as censorship of other words but should be done in accordance with general and standard usage of a language. Al-Kasimi also stresses that descriptive dictionaries are objective recorders of the language and tend to use a semantically neutral terminology in describing usage.

In standard dictionaries, standard language is a point of departure. This means that a standard language form will not receive a label in standard dictionaries whilst forms which deviate should receive a label. Lexicographers should bear in mind that when labeling is done in a dictionary, it must be consistent since "the omission of a label carries

usage information as well."(Feinauer,1999). This is to say that the inconsistent use of labels will impede the user's chances to obtain the required information because the unlabeled lemmata with restricted use will be regarded as normal and standardised. Gouws writes, "Communicative equivalence is achieved when the target language forms substitute the source language forms without the loss of semantic register and usage information".(1999:28). If the lemmata with restricted use are not labeled, usage information will be lost because we (users) cannot deduce that such a lemma and some of its translation equivalents are excluded from standard use. Ultimately, dictionary users use the restricted translation equivalents in situations where they are not allowed. The issue is that some of the translation equivalents for a lemma with a restricted use are also restricted, so if the lemma is not labeled this poor lexicographic treatment affects translation equivalents. In a case where the unlabeled lemma is a slang form, you may find that the audience does not understand the speaker because of the slang he/she will be using. This poor communication results from a translation dictionary that is not consistent in the application of lexicographic labels.

**Labeling of translation equivalents.**

Lexicographers must not only label the lemmata that deviate from the standard use, they must also supply lexicographic labels to the translation equivalents that do not follow standard use. Before labeling these translation equivalents, lexicographers must note that translation equivalents for a labeled lemma are different, i.e. some may be restricted whilst some may follow standard use. This is because a translation equivalent paradigm may consist of different lexical items. Some of the translation equivalents may have a restricted use because they represent the polysemous sense of the lemma. In partial synonyms, some of the synonyms may have a restricted use. These lexical items (synonyms) should be labeled. A compiler must label only those equivalents that deviate from the standard use. It is important to state that the type of lexicographic labels that are given to translation equivalents should be accurate. For example, if a translation equivalent is a slang form it must be labeled as such, if a translation equivalent is a coarse slang form, it must be labeled just like that. The inappropriate use of lexicographic labels

affects the presentation of semantic information because if a translation equivalent is wrongly labeled as **slang** instead of **coarse language**, a user may use a particular translation equivalent without knowing that it is offensive. The fact that some of the translation equivalents receive labels whilst some of them do no receive labels in a translation equivalent paradigm shows that these equivalents cannot replace each other in any context, even if these lexical items have been presented as synonyms. This is because labeled and unlabeled translation equivalents are used in different contexts.

The following article shows how translation equivalents with a restricted and those with an unrestricted use should be presented:

[**nigger**-(*offens*)-neger (aanstootlik), swart man.]

A standard translation equivalent is not labeled whilst the translation equivalent with the restricted use receives a label . This is good lexicography. The above article indicates to us that the lexical item **nigger** is offensive language and that translation equivalents for the lemma, **nigger** differ with regard to their standardised usage. That is, the first translation equivalent **neger**, is restricted and the second translation equivalent **swart man** represents standard use. This presentation is user-friendly because it assists us to distinguish between restricted and standard language. After consulting the above article, we are able to use the lexical item **swart man**, in formal situations without any fear that it might be offending the other person. We are also able to deduce that the lexical item **neger** is offensive and if we are sensitive enough, we cannot attempt to use it in any situation.

It is not sufficient for lexicographers to label the lemmata only. For optimal retrieval of the required information, translation equivalents should also be awarded this pragmatic information. If lexicographers do not label translation equivalents, target users of their dictionaries cannot achieve communicative success.

I would like to mention here that the use of lexicographic labels in the translation equivalent paradigm does not mean that lexicographers have to forget to supply usage information (contextual guidance) regarding translation equivalents. A translation equivalent paradigm should always be supplied with contextual guidance. This is to argue that lexicographic labels perform different functions compared to contextual guidance and both should be supplied as additional entries without one compromising or replacing the other. Usage information should be supplied to labeled and unlabeled translation equivalents and this is an important form of non-lemmatic addressing.

The following example illustrates this argument:

[**hoer** (*grof sleng* )-sex worker (often professional), prostitute (*offens*)(street sex worker), harlot (*coarse slang*) whore (*offens*) (promiscuous woman)]

This article shows that most of the translation equivalents for Afrikaans lemma, **hoer** deviate from standard use. Labeling in the above translation equivalent paradigm is supplemented with usage information. In this case, a user is able to deduce that a translation equivalent, **sex worker** does not deviate from the standard use and that **prostitute**, **harlot** and **whore** deviate from the standard use. This is user-friendly and it can enable a user to be a competent user of a target language.

Labels are not only used to indicate restrictions regarding the usage of the lemma but also that of other dictionary entries like translation equivalents, synonyms or examples. Examples should be labeled in cases where they deviate in any way from the prototypical or normal language use. There should be an interaction between a label and an example in the article of a dictionary. This means that these two microstructural entries should complement each other. According to Feinauer, "If a lemma is labelled, the example should illustrate the restriction or the deviation in the usage thereof."(1999:38). This means that illustrative examples have a supportive function in the article. The translation dictionary should be fully descriptive. It must record objectively various dialects and different styles and also inform the users about the attitudes of the linguistic community

towards particular linguistic forms. This is important because the user of a dictionary wants to know whether a particular form or word is formal or informal.

# CHAPTER TEN

## Cross-referencing

### 10.1. Introduction

A dictionary contains different lexical items. These lexical items represent the entire lexicon of a language. The lemmata and translation equivalents are part of the whole dictionary and they function in coherence with each other. No lexical item functions independently in a dictionary, but as a dependent member of a lexicon. As a book of knowledge, a translation dictionary must be seen as a text which consists of lexical items that are coordinated with each other.

The interaction of various structural components in a dictionary promotes textual cohesion. This textual cohesion makes the target users of the translation dictionary to regard the lemmata and translation equivalents as part of the lexicon of a language treated by a specific dictionary.

10.2. What is cross-referencing?

Cross-referencing is a lexicographic procedure where a lexicographer refers the user from a reference position to a reference address. This is done by means of a reference entry and gives the user access to additional relevant lexicographic data. A lemma that has a high usage frequency often receive a lexicographic treatment whilst the related lemmata (synonyms) that are ordered in the same dictionary are not supplied with translation equivalents but receive cross-references to the lemma that has a comprehensive treatment.

**Cross-reference leads dictionary users to achieve communicative equivalence.**

Lexicographers of translation dictionaries should bear in mind that a lexical item is part of the entire lexicon of a language. In his/her translation dictionary, the lexicographer must regard each lemma as part of the whole dictionary. That is, the lemma should not be treated in isolation from other related lemmata in the dictionary. To make sure that these related lemmata are treated in co-ordination with each other, cross-referencing should be applied in translation dictionaries. In other words, cross-references should be used in the treatment of e.g. synonym lemmata to show the interaction between the related lemmata. If a lexical item functions in a dictionary as part of the lexicon, this would then enable users of dictionaries to achieve communicative success. Cross-referencing makes the users of a dictionary to learn more words in a shorter space of time. In other words, these users are able to see that two or more lemmata share the same translation equivalents. Therefore the related words can be used interchangeably by dictionary users.

Let us look at the following examples:

<u>English-Afrikaans translation dictionary</u>

[**begin**-begin; aanvang, ] (Kritzinger and Steyn, 1970:357)

The synonyms for the lemma **begin** are **start** and **commence**. In the articles of the lemmata **start** and **commence**, lexicographers must not include translation equivalents that are found in the article of the lemma **begin**. Since the three words are synonyms, the articles of **start** and **commence** must look as follows:

[**start**-*sien* begin(om te lees, praat)]

[**commence**-*sien* begin]

The above treatment helps to explicate the relation of synonymy in the source language. A reference marker *sien* was used to show that the lexical items **start** and **commence** are synonyms. This kind of lexicography is user-friendly because we are able to see that the article of **begin** has the same translation equivalents as the lemmata **start** and **commence**. In other words, the three source language items are absolute synonyms. A user can also deduce that a lexical item **begin** is frequently used as it has been given a full lexicographic treatment. Contextual guidance should always be furnished in the translation equivalent paradigm. In a case of cross-referencing, contextual guidance should be supplied in an article of a lemma that receive a full lexicographic treatment. In other words, an article of **begin** should receive usage information regarding translation equivalents. Supplied with contextual guidance, an article of a lemma **begin** should look as follows:

[**begin**-begin (om te lees, praat), aanvang ( van 'n jaar )]

The usage information that has been supplied in the above translation equivalent paradigm clearly shows that the translation equivalents cannot substitute each other in all contexts. Without this usage information, dictionary users would have regarded translation equivalents as absolute synonyms. This means that cross-reference cannot assist a user to retrieve the required information if contextual guidance has not been supplied in the article which accommodates the full lexicographic treatment. The

lexicographers should know that if the source language items are not absolute synonyms they should receive a full treatment, including illustrative examples.

Cross-referencing is user-friendly in the sense that related macrostructural items are linked. In the above articles, the user is able to see that the lexical items **begin**, **start** and **commence** are synonyms and he/she will know that translation equivalents, **begin** and **aanvang** can be used to replace English lexical items, **begin**, **start** and **commence**. This means that cross-referencing enables a user to be familiar with related lemmata and related translation equivalents in a dictionary and allows a user to communicate successfully. Cross-referencing enables a dictionary user to increase his vocabulary in his source language because he becomes familiar with synonyms in a language. In a shorter space of time, a user learns more about his language and the target language. Cross-referencing promotes active participation of words in a lexicon. This makes a translation dictionary a text that co-ordinates items in both the source and target language. In using cross-referencing, a lexicographer applies a textual approach to his/her dictionary.

Words can be meaningful if they are not used in a sentence, but the context can further determine a specific interpretation.

The following examples display a relation between macrostructural elements in a translation dictionary:

<u>The first article</u>

[**frustrate**-verydel, teleurstel]

<u>The second article</u>

[**thwart**-*sien* frustrate]

The above example shows coherence between the two articles because of the reference marker that have been used. We can deduce that the lemmata **frustrate** and **thwart** are synonyms and that they can replace each other in many contexts. It is through cross-referencing that we are able to see that translation equivalents for **frustrate** are applicable to the lemma **thwart**. A coherence between these two articles enables a user to learn more about his language and the target language. An article is not comprehensive enough until usage information regarding translation equivalents have been furnished. In other words, an article of **frustrate** should have been supplied with contextual guidance.

Gouws distinguishes between the lemmata with a limited lexicographic treatment and lemmata with a complete lexicographic treatment. According to him, orthographic variants and synonym lemmata receive a limited lexicographic treatment. The lemmata with a limited lexicographic treatment do not receive a comprehensive lexicographic treatment but receive a cross-reference entry, guiding the user to another lemma. He writes "Some lemmata receive a very limited treatment. Where two variants of a lexical item exist and both forms have to be included in the dictionary, the full treatment will only be given in the article of one of these lemmata. The other lemma will have a treatment consisting mainly of the cross-reference to the lemma where the full treatment is given."(1999:24). What has been presented in the articles of **frustrate** and **thwart** above is confirmed by Gouws' statements. This means that it is a lexicographic blunder to give all variant and synonym lemmata a full lexicographic treatment. One of the variant or synonym lemmata should receive a full lexicographic treatment and the other related lemmata must have a treatment consisting of a cross-reference to the lemma where a full lexicographic treatment is given.

In order to enter the lemmata with a limited lexicographic treatment and the lemmata with a complete lexicographic treatment, the lexicographer has to rely on a representative corpus. A lexicographer also has a task of ascertaining whether a word is a synonym or not. If he lacks linguistic expertise, this task will be difficult for him. The ability to differentiate between lemmata with high usage frequency and the lemmata that are not

frequently used will enable a compiler to apply cross-referencing in the most acceptable way.

Most of the existing translation dictionaries do not apply cross-referencing sufficiently. In the treatment of variant and synonym lemmata, lexicographers of these translation dictionaries give all the synonym lemmata a comprehensive lexicographic treatment. This blunder cannot assist the user to see coordination and cohesion of the articles in a dictionary. A user will regard the lemmata as independent of each other in a dictionary. This approach can never facilitate a process of language learning. The repetition of the same translation equivalent paradigm in many articles is nothing but a waste of time and a duplication of the presented information. Let us investigate this problem in Kritzinger and Steyn's dictionary:

<u>English-Afrikaans section</u>

[**groan**-steun; kerm.(1970:450)]

[**moan**-gekerm; steun.(1970:504)]

This is a duplication of the presented information. If the lexicographers knew that the lemmata **groan** and **moan** are synonyms, they should have given a complete lexicographic treatment to the lemma that has the highest usage frequency. For example, if a lemma **moan** has the highest usage frequency, it should have received a complete lexicographic treatment whilst the article of **groan** should have received cross-reference to the lemma **moan**.

The following treament would have assisted the users to see cohesion between the two articles:

[**groan**- gekerm; steun]
[**moan**-*sien* groan]

This clearly indicates that the two lemmata are closely related. The translation equivalents in the article of **moan** can be used to substitute **groan**. It is important for lexicographers not to include these translation equivalents in the article of **groan** because it (**groan**) is not used frequently like the lexical item **moan**. Louw writes, "Without the cross-reference, a synonym definition will not be acceptable or adequate because a meaning is not another word, another word is translation. A meaning is a set of semantic features."(1991:118). This is to denote that a synonym definition is not acceptable unless cross-referencing is used to refer to the original lemma that has a complete lexicographic treatment. In saying, "a meaning is a set of semantic features", Louw is cautioning against a mere listing of translation equivalents without usage information. Louw's statement is important because we can deduce that cross-referencing should always be associated with the treatment of synonym lemmata and also that a translation equivalent paradigm should always be supplied with contextual guidance.

The alphabetical ordering and positioning of a lemma should not determine whether it receives a full treatment or only a cross-reference entry. This should be determined by the usage frequency of the members of the synonym pair. Whether a lemma is ordered in the beginning of a translation dictionary or not, a rule for cross-referencing is that only those variant or synonym lemmata that are the most frequently used must be supplied with a complete lexicographic treatment. The articles of **moan** and **groan** above illustrate this point because **moan** does not receive a comprehensive lexicographic treatment as it is not so frequently used.

For dictionary users to achieve communicative equivalence, the microstructural entries in an article should not only display 'article internal cohesion' (a cohesion within an article ) but they should also display 'article external cohesion'(a cohesion with other elements outside an article). Article external cohesion means that an article interacts with other articles in the dictionary. As another way of assisting dictionary users to achieve communicative success, cross-references lead to article external cohesion. It promotes an idea that dictionaries have to display a textual approach.

The following articles from Tsolwana's dictionary do not display a textual approach:

[**cry**-ukulila; ukukhala.(1996:50)]

[**lament**-ukukila; ukukhala.(1996:69)]

These articles present a serious problem. Firstly, usage information has not been given in the translation equivalent paradigm. Secondly, there is a duplication of meaning in these articles. That is, one article should have received a complete lexicographic treatment whilst the other article should have received a limited lexicographic treatment, i.e. cross-referencing. There is no coherence between the two articles. If Tsolwana had been sensitive to language, he would have seen that the lemmata **cry** and **lament** are synonyms as they have the same translation equivalents. A lemma with a high usage frequency must receive a comprehensive lexicographic treatment. The lexical item **cry** is more frequently used than **lament**. This means that the lemma **cry** should have received a comprehensive lexicographic treatment and in the article of **lament** a cross-reference should have been made to the lemma **cry**.

The following would have been a better presentation:

[**cry**-ukulila (umundwana), ukukhala (sizwe)]

[**lament**-*Bona* (*see*) cry.]

The above presentation is acceptable because translation equivalents are supplied with usage information. The lemma **cry** receives a complete lexicographic treatment because it is frequently used. In the article of a lemma **lament** there is a cross-reference to the lemma that receives a complete lexicographic treatment. A coordination between these articles is displayed and this can make a user to realise that words of a language do not function in isolation but in coordination with others.

**Cross-referencing should be explained in the front matter of a dictionary.**

The information regarding the functioning and use of cross-referencing should be included in the front matter of a dictionary. This information is very important for dictionary users because without it users cannot understand how cross-referencing functions. If a translation dictionary consists of English-Afrikaans translations or Afrikaans-English translations, the lexicographer must explain that **SEE** or **SIEN** are reference markers establishing cross-reference to a lemma that is a variant of or synonymous with the treated lemma. The lexicographer must also explain that translation equivalents for a lemma that receives a comprehensive lexicographic treatment are the same as those of the lemma that receives a limited lexicographic treatment, and that it is not necessary to repeat the same translation equivalents in both articles. If cross-referencing is explained in the front matter of a dictionary, it will assist the user to understand a style which is used in a particular dictionary.

The following extract from **City Press** (2000) explains how a lack of explanation of cross-referencing in the front matter can affect a dictionary user:

*My wife, who teaches young learners, hoped to encourage her pupils to use dictionaries by giving them few words and ask them to find the meanings so she could test pupils the following day.*
*One of the words she gave them to look was "**ate**".*

*The next day when she asked whether anyone find the meaning of "**ate**", nearly all of the pupils' hands shopped up.*
*Surprised and pleased that the learners were using dictionaries, she pointed to one girl.*

*"**See eat**", she said confidently.*(City Press, March 2000)

In the above extract, we can see that a young learner is conditioned to regard any entry that appears after the lemma as a meaning or translation equivalent. The above extract shows that a dictionary that has been consulted by the child did not explain cross-referencing in the front matter. Unfortunately, the young learner did not retrieve the

required information because she regards "**see eat**" as a description of the meaning. This is because the learner does not know how cross-referencing is used in dictionaries. If cross-referencing had been explained in the front matter of the dictionary, the girl would have known that "**see eat**" is a cross-reference to the lemma "**eat**", which receives a complete lexicographic treatment. This would have assisted the girl to retrieve the required information and to use the target language in a successful way.

Cross-referencing should always be considered by lexicographers because it is very economical. That is, it saves time and space because the lexicographer does not have to repeat the same translation equivalents in the treatment of variant and synonym lemmata. Text segments like **see**, **compare**, **bona** (Northern Sotho) and arrows may be used as reference markers.

Gouws and Prinsloo (1998) distinguish between three important types of reference addresses. The first category is the internal reference address. The second category is the external reference address. The third category is the dictionary external reference.

**The internal reference address.**

With internal reference address, the mediostructural relation does not exceed the boundaries of the article. Gouws writes "This type of cross-referencing is used to establish cohesion between different microstructural entries in one article."(1998:20). This means that the internal reference address functions as the coordinator between different microstructural entries in the same article. It does not refer to entries outside an article.

The following article for the lemma sign, **om'ry** displays an internal reference address:

[N.B A reference marker(>) was used by researcher to adapt an article which had(=) as a reference marker]

[**Om'ry**-drive down; drive round; knock down (>drive down); overrun. (1970:163)]

In the above article, the dictionary user is able to see that the translation equivalents **drive down** and **knock down** participate in the internal reference address and that they are

related to the second translation equivalents. The lexical item **knock down** is followed by a reference marker (>) which refers the user to the translation equivalent **drive down**. This kind of cross-referencing enables the dictionary user to understand the relation between entries in the translation equivalent paradigm. As a result, the user becomes a competent target language user.

**The external reference address**

An external reference address exceeds the boundaries of the article. This means that the external address can be located elsewhere in the dictionary or in a separate text outside the central word-list.

The following examples illustrate this point:

[**speak**-sien talk]
[**talk**-gesprek, gerug, praatjie]

The external reference address is shown in the above articles. An article of a lemma sign **speak** has an external address which is located elsewhere in the dictionary. This cross-referencing enables the dictionary user to see coherence between different articles in a dictionary.

**The dictionary external reference address.**

This type of reference address links a text segment in a dictionary to a source outside the dictionary, e.g. where a dictionary contains a bibliography of sources in which more information regarding the terminology treated in the dictionary can be found. Other sources become the reference address to which the user is guided. A user has to consult other sources for extra information. This means that a dictionary contains bibliographical references which lead the user to the bibliography in the back matter. The lemma sign in the dictionary is linked to the external source.

The following is an example of the dictionary external reference address:

[**witch-** moloi (See **Matsepe** 1988)]

(NB. The above example does not come from a dictionary but displays how the dictionary external reference address functions)

The dictionary user will see that comprehensive information that is related to the article is found in the source outside the dictionary. This means that a user has to consult other sources for extra information. In this case, other sources become the final reference address. But the full reference should appear in the bibliography included as a back matter text of the dictionary. The lexicographers must make sure that the dictionary external reference address is more specific, if possible, than the above example.

# CHAPTER ELEVEN

## The presentation and treatment of homonyms

### 11.1. Introduction

Homonyms differ from polysemes. Homonyms are words entered as separate lemmas with one or another type of typographical distinction. These typographical distinctions may be in the form of a bold superscript figure before or after the lemma. In many dictionaries, the superscript figure is written after the lemma.

Homonyms are not always easy to distinguish. They may sometimes be confused with polysemic items. This is because a language is always developing. The language evolution results in some of the polysemic items developing into homonyms. What enables the lexicographer to distinguish between homonymy and polysemy is when he treats the language synchronically. His language sensitivity will also help him to make the differentiation.

This chapter investigates the way in which the presentation and treatment of homonyms lead the dictionary user to achieve communicative success.

11.2. What is a homonym?

Homonyms are words with the same spelling and pronunciation but with different meanings. They are different words which coincidentally look and sound identical, but they are totally unrelated regarding meaning.

Words such as **rake**, **rake**; **lean**, **lean** etc. are homonyms. If we look closely at these pairs of words, they look and sound the same. Each word in a pair has a different meaning and it must be treated as a separate lemma in the macrostructure of a dictionary. The first **rake** means *a gardening tool with a row of short spikes fixed to a long handle* whilst the second **rake** means *a man who lives an irresponsible life*. The first **lean** is an adjective which means *thin* or *no fat* whilst the other **lean** means *bending a body towards something* or *be in a sloping position.*

11.3. Lemma status for the homonyms leads a user to achieve communicative success.

Homonyms should be given independent status as lemmata in the macrostructure of a dictionary. Lexicographers must not give one homonym an independent status as a lemma whilst the other homonyms are treated in the microstructure (semantic comment) as additional entries. In other words, if there are two homonyms, each homonym should be awarded an independent status as a lemma. It is wrong to treat homonyms in the same article because the two homonyms have different meanings. They must be regarded as different irrespective of the fact that they look and sound the same. The purpose of the translation dictionary is to treat the lemmata with the translation equivalents, so if the translation equivalents of homonyms have been entered in the same article, their status will be hidden from dictionary users. The dictionary user may then regard a homonymous lexical item as a polysemous sense because of its ordering in the semantic comment. The

lexicographers must know that homonyms are different from polysemous senses in the sense that homonyms have unrelated meanings while polysemous senses are related.

The following example illustrates how homonyms and polysemes should be treated in the translation dictionary:

**A treatment of the homonyms.**

[**album**1-album]
[**album**2-gedenkboek, fotoboek]
(NB. **album** could also be a polysemous lexical item)
(A strong case in favour of album 1 and 2 as homonyms is in the succeeding paragraphs)

**A treatment of polysemous senses.**

[**school**-skool; skoolgebou; leerskool]

As we can see, the homonyms have been given an independent status as the lemmata in the macrostructure whilst **skool**, **skoolgebou** and **leerskool** are the translation equivalents of the polysemous senses entered in the microstructure. This is what lexicographers of translation dictionaries must do. If homonyms are not awarded independent status, a user cannot achieve communicative equivalence because he will regard all the translation equivalents for these homonyms as semantically related.

The problem with the existing translation dictionaries is that instead of awarding all homonyms an independent status, only one homonym is often given an independent status as a lemma. For example, the lexical item **album** has two different meanings. Instead of awarding independent status for these two different senses, lexicographer ends up entering one lemma as follows:

(This is just an example from the researcher and it displays a lexicographic blunder)
[**album**-album, gedenkboek, fotoboek]

This lexicographic treatment is unacceptable. We cannot deduce whether the translation equivalents, **album**, **gedenkboek** and **fotoboek** are semantically related. As usual, a user just assume that the above translation equivalents can replace each other in all contexts; an assumption which is wrong. Ultimately, a target user of a dictionary ends up saying, "***Die musikus het `n nuwe gedenkboek vrystel***". In this case, a user does not achieve communicative success because he/she wants to say , "**A musician has released a new album**". In other words, a user has replaced an Afrikaans lexical item, **album** with **gedenkboek**. This communicative embarrassment is the result of a lexicographic blunder committed by lexicographers. A user should have said, "***Die kunstenaar het 'n nuwe album vrystel*** ". The translation equivalents in the article of **album** should not have been included in one article because only two translation equivalents, **gedenkboek** and **fotoboek** represent polysemous senses.

A dictionary compiler/lexicographer who is sensitive to language will always satisfy the needs and the requirements of the target users. A lexicographer whose language is up to standard will always compile a user-friendly dictionary. A good lexicographer will include usage information regarding translation equivalents in the article of each homonym. The following presentation of homonyms will assist a user of a dictionary to achieve communicative equivalence:

[**album** 1-album (musiek) ]

[**album** 2-gedenkboek(herinnering); fotoboek(fotografie)]

In the above case, we are able to see that the first **album**(**album**1) is an album for music because of contextual guidance that has been given. We are also able to deduce that the second **album** (**album**2) deals with polysemous senses, **gedenkboek** which means a

book of remembrance and **fotoboek** which means a photo album. These two translation equivalents are polysemous senses because they share a meaning of reminding a person. For example, **gedenkboek** reminds a person of something because it often contains files, copies etc. It may be used as a book of reference. A **fotoboek**, contains photographs and these photographs may remind a person of good or bad things that happened a long time ago. This book may also be used as a book of reference. The difference between these lexical items can be deduced from usage information that has been supplied in the semantic comment. This usage information leads us to see that the lexical items **gedenkboek** and **fotoboek** cannot replace each other in any context.

It is a common problem that homonyms and polysemous senses are often not clearly differentiated. Dictionary compilers often confuse homonyms with polysemous senses. An ability to differentiate between these types of words enables a lexicographer to order homonyms in the macrostructure of a dictionary.

A language is always developing. New words are discovered and introduced into the lexicon of a language. Language evolution results in some of the polysemes developing or changing into homonyms. In this case, lexicographers will be able to distinguish between polysemes and homonyms only if they treat language synchronically. The lexicographer's language sensitivity can also assist him to make a differentiation between these words. In a condition of language evolution, a problem which is faced by lexicographers is whether to enter a lemma as a polyseme or homonym. Unfortunately, lexicographers often end up entering a homonym as a polyseme in the article of a dictionary. A lemma may appear to be polysemic when treated diachronically and a homonym when treated synchronically. This therefore leaves a dictionary compiler in a dilemma. That is, a compiler does not know whether to enter a lemma as a polyseme or homomym. Feinauer writes, "What was considered polysemes at one time need not always be polysemes, but it could develop into homonyms when the primary meaning is not evident any longer."(1999:15). The implication here is that language evolution causes the development of polysemes into homonyms. Lexicographers must treat a language synchronically to distinguish between polysemes and homonyms. They (compilers) must

have language judgement and sensitivity whenever boundaries have to be established between polysemy and homonymy.

Let us investigate homonymy in Bosman, Van der Merwe and Hiemstra's *Tweetalige Woordeboek:*

[**brander**-burner; fireship; pressing; wave; billow; breaker; surf (1984:82)]

**Brander** is homonymous. That is, different lexical items with distinctive meanings that are not related to each other can be identified. **Brander** should have been awarded two independent lemmata in the macrostructure. The meanings of **brander** in the above article are not related. Lexicographers have misrepresented all translation equivalents as polysemic distinctions of the lemma. The lexical items **burner** and **billow** have no meaning relationship. It is therefore wrong to include these translation equivalents in one paradigm because they are neither synonyms nor polysemous senses. The above article is misleading because semantic and communicative equivalence do not hold between a lemma and its target language forms. This is poor lexicography because it is not use-oriented.

The above article should have been presented as follows:

[**brander**1-burner(*gas cooker*), fireship(*war*)letter (letter of demands)]

[**brander**2-wave(*water curling*), surf(*water foam*), breaker(*breaking wave*), billow(*sea wave*) golf (wave)]

This presentation is user-friendly because a user is able to see that there are two lexical items **brander** with unrelated meanings. A user is able to see that translation equivalents in the first article are different from translation equivalents in the second article. The placement of translation equivalents in their semantic categories makes semantic and communicative equivalence to hold between a lemma and target language forms. As we

can see, the first translation equivalent paradigm consists of translation equivalents that are more or less related to fire. The second article consists of translation equivalents that are more or less related to water. The above presentation will make a user to trust his/her dictionary because that dictionary is enabling him to retrieve the required information.

Let us look at the following article:

[**blaar**-leaf(*of tree*), husk(*of maize*), blister, bleb, blain.(1984:70)]

The lexical items **blaar** are homonyms. That is, they have unrelated meanings. This article is problematic because dictionary users will not be able to retrieve translation equivalents that are appropriate for their linguistic demands. The semantic difference of translation equivalents should have obliged lexicographers to give **blaar** more than one lemma. This means that our lexicographers were not sensitive to language because if they were very sensitive to language, they should have known that the lexical items **blaar** are homonyms.

The following presentation would have been better:

[**blaar**1-blister(*of skin*), bleb(*of skin*, *of water*) ]

[**blaar**2-leaf(*plant*), husks(*maize*)]

[**blaar**3-omasum(*of stomach*)]

The three lexical items (lemmata) look and sound the same but they have different meanings. This therefore makes these lexical items to be given independent status in the macrostructure of a dictionary. The above presentation will result in communicative success. Lexicographers must note that if they present homonyms in the article, they must still supply usage information regarding translation equivalents in the paradigm.

This supplement the of semantic comment by contextual guidance ensures a maximal retrieval of the required information.

Tsolwana's dictionary displays the same problem of not distinguishing properly between polysemy and homonymy. Let us look at the following presentation:

[**companion**-umlingane, umkhaphi, ikholwane.(1992:49)]

The lexical items **companion** have two meanings that are not related. This means that they are homonymous lexical items. The article of **companion** is problematic because meanings that are not related are treated in the same semantic comment. At least, each lexical item **companion** should have been awarded lemma status in the macrostructure. The following presentation would have been better:

[**companion**1-umlingane(*umhlobo*), umkhapi(*impelesi*)]

[**companion**2-ikholwane.]

A dictionary user is able to see that the lexical items **companion** are homonyms with two different meanings. As we can see, the two lemmata look and sound the same but they have unrelated meanings. This is a user-friendly presentation of homonymous lexical items.

11.4. A numbering of homonyms in the macrostrucrure.

The numbering of homonyms is very important because it enables a user to distinguish between the presented homonyms. Numbering should be in superscript after or before each homonym. The information regarding a numbering of homonyms should be included in the Front Matter of a dictionary. This information is helpful because a user will be able to understand how homonymous lexical items are presented in a dictionary.

The lack of this information will make a user to be confused because he can regard different homonyms as lexical items that are related to each other.

The fact that language evolution results in the development of polysemous lexical items into homonyms may bring difficulties for those lexicographers who are not sensitive to language. These lexicographers will not be able to cope with language development unless they treat language in a synchronic way. Language evolution compels all lexicographers to update their dictionaries because sometimes, what has been presented or entered as a polyseme is no longer a polyseme but a homonym. To update a dictionary simply requires a lexicographer to compile a new one. This is to say that a work of a practical lexicographer is never complete because he/she has to compile updated dictionaries time and again.

# CHAPTER TWELVE

## Sublexical and multilexical lexical items

12.1.Introduction.

The choice of macrostructural elements to be included in a dictionary may not be done at random but this should be determined on a linguistic basis. The traditional lexicography employed a word-based approach where only words were chosen as macrostructural elements. Other elements such as sublexical and multilexical lexical items were not included as macrostructural elements. This word-based approach compels the lexicographer to favour the inclusion of words in his dictionary. Other elements (sublexical and multilexical lexical items) were mostly ignored.

The macrostructural elements should reflect the lexicon of a language. Not only words, but also sublexical and multilexcal elements should be included as macrostructural elements in a dictionary. The word-based approach should be defied and be replaced by a lexical-based approach.

This chapter investigates the way in which lemma status for sublexical and multilexical lexical items can lead the dictionary user to achieve communicative success.

12.2. Lemma status for sublexical and multilexical lexical items leads dictionary users towards communicative equivalence.

Sublexical lexical items are items that are smaller than words. Most of these items are productive in word-forming processes and they constitute a part of the active lexicon of the language. *Stems* and *affixes* are examples of sublexical lexical items. Multilexical lexical items are lexical items that consist of more than one word. *Circumpositions* and *group prepositions* are examples of multilexical lexical items.

A language consists of different kinds of lexical items. These lexical items form a complete lexicon of a language. Sub-word and multi-word units also function as lexical items. The English lexicon can be divided into three categories, namely, lexical, sublexical and multilexical elements. These elements should be selected as macrostructural entries to be included in a dictionary.

The problem with traditional lexicography is that it does not include or enter sublexical and multilexical elements as macrostructural entries. Instead, these elements are entered in a microstructure as additional entries. This approach displays a word-bias because it regards words as macrostructural elements (lemmata) and sub-words and multi-lexical items as microstructural elements. This approach does not allow a user to achieve communicative success because some of the important members of the lexicon are not treated as lemmata. Gouws writes, "To give a valid account of the complete lexical stock of a language, the selection of the lexical items included in a dictionary should represent the typological variety of that language. Because words constitute the largest component of the lexicon, the tradition has been established to treat a large selection of headwords. This approach has led to word-based dictionaries, i.e., dictionaries displaying a word bias by narrowly construing lemmas as words. Multiword units and morphemes also function

as lexical items. To ensure a sound treatment of all these lexical items, the traditional word-based lexicography should be replaced by a broader lexicon-based approach that offers a more comprehensive reflection of the lexicon by listing and treating multilexical and sublexical lemmas." (1991:75) . This means that words are not the only lexical items that should be included in the macrostructure of dictionaries, but also, subword and multiword units should be treated as macrostructural entries in dictionaries. The word-based approach confronts dictionary users with a serious problem. Dictionary users want to learn the lexicon of a target language, so if some of the members (sub-lexical and multilexical lexical items) of a lexicon are not treated as lemmata, a user cannot achieve communicative success in the target language. In order to learn about the target language, a user must know the meanings of sublexical and multilexical items.

12.3. Sublexical lemmata.

Most of the sublexical lexical items are productive in word-forming processes and they constitute a part of the active lexicon of the language. Sublexical lexical items are often called **stems** or **affixes**.

The following elements are examples of sublexical lexical items in English:

Dis – (as in **disallow**)

Dia – (as in **diameter**, **diabase**)

-ly – (as in **annually**)

-ed – (as in **performed**)

-ence – (as in **existence**)

-tion – (as in **education**)

-ing – (as in **doing** ,**ending** )

-age – (**percentage**)

-ance – (**assistance**)

-graphy – (**bibliography** ) etc.

These sublexical elements should be entered in the macrostructure of English translation dictionaries because they form part of the English lexicon. Each sublexical element should be given lemma status in a dictionary. If lexicographers see that a particular sublexical item does not have appropriate equivalents in the target language, they may enter a word which is close to an item so that a user will be able to retrieve the required information. The inclusion of a word which is closest in meaning to a source sublexical item is better than leaving a semantic comment empty. The article could contain a brief description of the morphological function of the lemma. The surrogate word will serve an important purpose. Lexicographers must know that the incluson of specific sublexical lexical items can explain different word formation processes in a language. Where applicable sublexical lexical items that are included as translation equivalents in the paradigm will enable dictionary users to achieve communicative fluency. There is also a need for contextual guidance in the translation equivalent paradigm of this kind. If a sublexical element is intranslatable, a relevant surrogate word or information should be supplied.

Let us see how sublexical elements can be treated in a translation dictionary:
English – Afrikaans translation dictionary

[**dis-**, on- (*onbekwaam*, *ongemak* ); ont- (*ontnugter*, *onbind*, *ontken*)

A dictionary user will see that the English sublexical item, **dis-** is equivalent to Afrikaans sublexical items **on-**, and **ont-**. In this case, a user can achieve communicative success because there is semantic resemblance between the lemma and its translation equivalents. Words that are written in brackets will guide a user to see the usage information of translation equivalents. This is user-friendly lexicography and our dictionary compilers should have taken efforts to address sublexical elements in the macrostructures of their dictionaries. A word-based approach is detrimental to lexicography because it does not present sublexical lexical items as lemmata.

Let us see how Kritzinger and Steyn have treated sublexical items in their dictionary:

[**dirty**-bevuil, bemors, besmeer ]

[**disable**-onbekwaam maak; ongeskik maak; vermind; onbruikbaar

**disabuse** -...

**disaccustom** -... (1970:405)]

If we look closely at the above articles, we can see that a sublexical item **dis-** has not been given an independent status as a lemma. This treatment impedes the target users' chances to retrieve the required information. Between the articles of **dirty** and **disable**, Kritzinger and Steyn should have entered sublexical item **dis-** as a macrostructural element. This means that the sublexical item **dis-** should have been ordered before a lemma, **disable**.

[**dirty**- ...

**dis-**...

**disable**- ... ]

In Kritzinger and Steyn's dictionary, all words that begin with sublexical item **dis-** have been awarded a status as lemma. Unfortunately, the sublexical item itself has not been given lemma status. If this item does not appear in the macrostructure, how can dictionary users know its equivalents in the target language. For people to communicate successfully, a word-based approach should be abolished in dictionaries. This traditional approach must be replaced by lexicon-based lexicography which regards sublexical items as fully-fledged lexical items.

A sublexical item, **-tion** should be seen as a fully-fledged lexical item. It must be entered in the macrostructure of a dictionary and be given a complete lexicographic treatment. If this item is not treated as a lemma, its equivalents in the target language will not appear in a dictionary. Ultimately, people who are consulting a dictionary are not able to speak good Afrikaans because of a lack of enough information regarding the language. Have

Kritzinger and Steyn given the sublexical lexical item **-tion** an independent status in the macrostructure? Let us look at the following articles:

[**tiny-**…]
[**tip-**… ] (1970:635)

This shows that the sublexical item **-tion** has not been entered as a lemma. Alphabetically, this item should have been entered immediately after the lemma **tiny** in the vertical position (macrostructural position). The following example would have assisted a user to obtain communicative success:

[**tiny-** … ]
[**-tion** _ -ing (*inligting*; *mededeling*; *stuiting*); -sie (*informasie*;*inflammasie*); -heid (*verstoktheid*; *geneigdheid*)]
[**tip-**… ]

This treatment is user-friendly because a user is able to deduce that sublexical items **-ing**, **-sie**, and **–heid** are equivalents to English sublexical item, **-tion**. It is also displayed in the above article that these Afrikaans sublexical items cannot replace each other in word-forming processes. This is indicated by items having been separated by semicolons. The semantic comment have also been supplied with contextual guidance for each sublexical item. This is to say that all information that a user needs is found in the translation equivalent paradigm.
The following example where English sublexical item **-tion** appears with derivatives will also assist the user to achieve communicative equivalence

**-tion -** -ing (information- inligting; apposition-bystelling; arrogation-aanmatiging)
**-tion -** -sie (correlation- korrelasie; edition- edisie)
**-tion -** -heid (inclination- geneigdheid)

Sublexical items must not appear in the microstructure of other lemmata. They must be seen as fully fledged members of a lexicon. These items should not be included in the entries of other lexical lemmas that represent single word lexical items. The ordering of sublexical lexical items in the semantic comment is defying the status of these items. Single words and sublexical lexical elements must be treated equally in a dictionary. If sublexical lexical items are ignored in a dictionary, such a dictionary does not represent or deal with the entire lexicon of a language but deals with a part of the lexicon which cannot satisfy all the needs of the target users.

The African languages are different from English and Afrikaans. In the treatment of sublexical lexical items, a lexicographer will see that most sublexical lexical items in English and Afrikaans are intranslatable to African languages. This implies that lexicographers who treat English or Afrikaans together with an African language in a translation dictionary will be confronted with a problem of intranslatability. This problem of intranslatability of sublexical lexical items should not be seen as an excuse to adopt a word-biased approach. There is an option for lexicographers. A surrogate equivalent should be given in the semantic comment so that a user will be able to communicate successfully. The following presentation illustrates my point:

[**-ed**; - ile (godile; lahlile); -etše (wetše; nametše )]

A user will see that in Northern Sotho, the affixes **-ile** and - **etše** are nearly equivalent to English affix, **-ed** which denotes past tense.

12.4. Multiword lemmata.

Multiword lemmata are lexical items that consist of more than one word. Examples of multilexical lexical items are e.g. **circumpositions** and **group prepositions**.

Circumpositions are multilexical lexical elements that consist of a fixed combination of a preposition and a postposition. This combination is always used as a single unit and should be treated likewise in a dictionary. Circumpositions should be treated as lemmata in the macrostructure of a dictionary. If a dictionary does not treat the circumpositions, such a dictionary is not treating the complete lexicon of a language. Even if these items are treated in the microstructure of a dictionary, we cannot assume that the user will get the necessary information. Gouws writes, "The semantic resemblance that often exists between a lexical element and a component of a multilexical element misleads lexicographers to accommodate the multilexical element as part of the article of a lexical lemma."(1989:66). The treatment of multilexical lexical elements in the microstructure of a lexical element impedes dictionary users' chances to retrieve the required information.

The following multilexical elements are examples of Group prepositions in English:

**On the basis of, in place of, in spite of, in view of, in accordance with, in consideration of, in relation to, in respect of, with reference to, with regard to**, etc.

These group prepositions should be presented in the macrostructure of a dictionary. In Kritzinger and Steyn's dictionary, not even a single group preposition has been entered in the macrostructure. The microstructure does not have group prepositions. In other words, group prepositions have been ignored in this dictionary.

Traditional lexicography must be replaced by user-oriented lexicography that see the demands of target users as a priority. A word-based approach to lexicography should be replaced by modern lexicography that see sublexical and multilexical lexical elements as fully-fledged lexical items. This is to say that our translation dictionaries should be restructured in such a way that sublexical and multilexical lexical elements are accommodated in the macrostructure.

# CHAPTER THIRTEEN

## Conclusions

Communicative equivalence is a semantic and pragmatic relation that holds between source and target language forms. It is when a lemma is represented comprehensively in the target language paradigm without any shift or loss of meaning. The aims of users consulting translation dictionaries is to achieve communicative success. Communicative success can be achieved if there is a semantic resemblance between source language and the members of the translation equivalent paradigm. An absolute resemblance should be seen between two treated languages in a translation dictionary. This semantic resemblance assists dictionary users to use a target language in a successful way.

The research proves that communicative equivalence can be achieved in different ways. The results of this investigation do not mean that all different ways of achieving communicative success should be included in one translation dictionary. Lexicographers must firstly try to identify the needs and demands of target users of their dictionaries before opting for ways that can enable users of their dictionaries to achieve communicative success. In other words, it is not possible for all methods/ways of

achieving communicative equivalence to be included in a single translation dictionary. The dictionary design and typology determine the suitable method/s to be used in the particular translation dictionary.

The research proves that the use of contextual guidance (usage information) regarding translation equivalents assists dictionary users to achieve communicative success. It is proven in the research that a mere listing of translation equivalents cannot lead a user towards the achievement of communicative fluency because translation equivalents in the semantic comment cannot substitute each other in all contexts. The investigation confirms that pictorial illustrations, if used properly, can assist dictionary users to retrieve the required information. The representation of a lemma in a form of a picture proves to be the best method of assisting a user to have optimal retrieval of information where other methods fail because a picture has all the necessary information a user needs. Usage information of a lemma can also be retrieved from illustrations. This usage information regarding the intranslatable lemma enables dictionary users to know both the meaning and contextual use of illustrated lemma. This therefore makes them (users) competent users of the target language. The investigation warns against excessive use of pictorial illustrations because it may then be regarded as decorative examples.

Lexicographic definitions are very important in translation dictionaries especially when there is no direct translation equivalent for a given lemma. That is, when a lemma cannot be translated into a target language, lexicographic definitions serve an important purpose in the semantic transfer. The research proves that the use of lexicographic definitions assists dictionary users to obtain semantic coordination between a lemma and target language form. The use of short or long sentences helps a user to understand the meaning of a lemma. The research reveals that inconsistent use of commas and semicolons in the translation equivalent paradigm will frustrate dictionary users. This is because commas and semicolons are not used appropriately but haphazardly in the translation equivalent paradigms. For a user to achieve communicative equivalence, commas should be used to separate synonyms and semicolons should be used to separate the translation equivalents representing the polysemous senses of the lemma. Non-lemmatic addressing, it is

proven, can assist dictionary users to communicate fluently as translation equivalents address other translation equivalents in the semantic comment. This article internal coherence promotes an optimal retrieval of the required information.

The reversibility principle assists dictionary users in achieving communicative success. The research reveals that when a lemma and its translation equivalents in one section of a bidirectional translation dictionary correspond with an article in the other section of a dictionary (bidirectional) it helps the user to have an optimal retrieval of information. This is because a user becomes sure of the meaning of the lemma. The research confirms that the retranslation method contributes to users' chances to obtain communicative success. Retranslation of translation equivalents in the secondary macrostructure helps dictionary users to retest the presented translation equivalents. This retesting often displays carelessness and inaccuracies regarding the identification of synonyms in the primary translation equivalent paradigm. Therefore, the retranslation method makes a user to perform the correct choice of target language forms. The investigation reveals that semantic and communicative equivalence hold between source and target language after the retranslation method has been used.

A dictionary user cannot be able to speak a target language fluently unless language deviations in translation dictionaries are marked. Lexicographic labels should be used to mark unstandardised lemmata and their translation equivalents in a standard translation dictionary. The research proves that labels can assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success because they will be able to use the correct and suitable form in all situations. Words of a language do not function in isolation. They interact with each other as members of the lexicon of a language. The research proves that when cross-referencing is used in a translation dictionary, the related words (synonyms) interact with each other. This article external coherence enables users to understand synonyms in a short space of time. Dictionary users are therefore able to use these related words interchangeably. The investigation suggests that cross-referencing should be explained in the front matter of a translation dictionary.

The study reveals that if each homonym is awarded an independent status in the macrostructure, dictionary users will be able to use the target language forms in a good way. This is because they will have a proper choice of translation equivalents in the semantic comment. Sublexical and multilexical elements should be given an independent status in the macrostructure of a translation dictionary. The research reveals that if these elements are given lemma status, a user could obtain communicative excellence. It is proven that the exclusion of these elements in the macrostructure can impede a users' chances to retrieve the required information.

The identification of the needs and skills of well-defined target users should precede dictionary design. Lexicographers must know the needs of the target users before compiling their dictionaries. The dictionary users' level of understanding should be taken into consideration so that their demands can be met in that particular dictionary. Lexicographers must also study and do research about the requirements for translation dictionaries so that he/she will be able to compile a well-designed, user-oriented translation dictionary. Communicative equivalence should always be seen as an objective for translation dictionaries.

The research comes with questions to lexicography: whether the existing translation dictionaries should be replaced by new dictionaries that are user-oriented. There is always language evolution, will the lexicographers' job ever be complete? The objective of bilingual lexicography is to promote multilingualism. Will this objective be met if traditional lexicography still exists?

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**Glossary**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Bala** | - | a sepedi verb for read. |
| **Belpi** | - | a slang for a cup. |
| **Dithuto** | - | asepedi noun for studies. |
| **Galone** | - | a borrowed wod for gallon. |
| **Gase** | - | a borrowed word for gas. |
| **Godile** | - | a apast tense for grow. This means grew in English. |
| **Hlahloba** | - | a sepedi verb for examine or careful reading. |
| **Ikholwana** | - | an escort. |
| **Imeko** | - | a Xhosa noun for condition or state. |
| **Injakazi** | - | a female dog. |
| **Intlalo** | - | a Xhosa noun for condition. |
| **Isimo** | - | a Xhosa noun for condition or state. |
| **Ithuta** | - | to study. |
| **Lapa** | - | a Homestead. |
| **Lahlile** | - | a past tense for throw. This means threw in English. |
| **Lebeledišiša** | - | a sepedi verb for a close look. |
| **Lephephe** | - | a sepedi noun for a page. |
| **Lesaka** | - | a kraal. |
| **Lesoro** | - | a traditional gate made of wood. |
| **Mongwalo** | - | a sepedi noun for a handwriting. |
| **Mpshiko** | - | an entrance to the kraal. This is made of pieces of wood. |
| **Nametše** | - | a past tense for climb. |
| **Ngwako** | - | a house. |
| **Pampiri** | - | a sepedi noun for paper. |
| **Papi** | - | a sepedi slang for puppy. |
| **Sefero** | - | a thouroughfare. |
| **Sekgowa** | - | a sepedi noun for English. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Ubume** | - | a Xhosa noun for condition. |
| **Ukukhala** | - | to cry, lament or an outcry. |
| **Ukulila** | - | to cry. |
| **Umendo** | - | a Xhosa noun for course or progression. |
| **Umkhapi** | - | a Xhosa noun for companion or an escort. |
| **Umlingane** | - | a friend. |
| **Usfebe** | - | unpleasant woman. This is a coarse language. |
| **Wetše** | - | to fell into |