

CRITERIA FOR A MULTIFUNCTIONAL, MONOLINGUAL  
DICTIONARY IN JUNIOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

Phillipus Adriaan Louw

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Promoter: Prof. R.H. Louw

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**Addendum I****Result page: Abbots grade 10s**

Total: 12

3 Do you use an English-only dictionary ...

Never	1=8%
Hardly ever	2=17%
Sometimes	7=58%
Often?	2=17%

5 If you use the dictionary in your English classroom, do you use it mainly ...

To look up strange words while reading?	7=58%
To help you while you are writing?	9=75%

6 What types of information do you look up?

Spelling	7=58%
Pronunciation	1=8%
Meaning	12=100%
Parts of speech	2=17%
Morphology (plurals, past tense, etc.)	2=17%
Other (please specify) Etymology	1=8%

7 Do you think that a school dictionary should show you exactly how each headword can be *pronounced*?

Yes	10=83%
No	2=17%

8 Do you think that it is necessary to give the *scientific names* of animals, plants, etc. in a school dictionary?

Yes	10=83%
No	2=17%

9 a) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of the word **elephant** the best?

A.	3=25%
B.	5=42%
C.	4=33%

9 b) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **oribi** the best?

A.	1=8%
B.	5=42%
C.	6=50%

9 c) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **rake** the best?

A.	5=42%
B.	3=25%
C.	0
D.	4=33%

10 Do you prefer a dictionary that includes *pictures* to speed up your identification of the objects, actions, etc. that are being defined?

Yes	8=67%
No	4=33%

## **DECLARATION**

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

## **Summary**

The decision to move away from a content-based education system to an outcomes-based system has necessitated a fresh look at the role of dictionaries in the South African classroom. The current metalexicographical literature clearly shows that there are two areas of particular concern. Firstly, the dictionary culture in schools needs to improve. The acquisition of better dictionary skills needs to be aggressively pursued, as dictionaries are not only vital instruments in the classroom but also in the life-long learning process. Teacher training will play an important role in the fulfilment of this vision. There are, however, also serious concerns regarding the user-friendliness of the current school dictionaries and other dictionaries employed in South African classrooms.

In this dissertation the structural deficiencies of monolingual dictionaries with English as a treated language and used in the junior secondary learning stage will be discussed. Furthermore, a model for a new monolingual school dictionary that balances innovation with the adherence to dominant procedures and practices will be presented. Such a dictionary must not only be a powerful communicative tool, but will also have important pedagogical functions that, in adherence to the user perspective, shape its typological and structural profiles.

Possible typological and structural profiles for the proposed dictionary will be discussed in detail in this dissertation. It is important that the lexicographer ensures that the user reaches the information he/she is looking for, as swiftly as possible. Accordingly, the role of the macrostructure will be discussed cursorily and the role of guide structures and accessory texts in more detail. The focal point of this dissertation will, however, be the role of the microstructure in ensuring both communicative and pedagogical success. The role and value of data on pronunciation and grammar, and pragmatic and etymological data will be discussed, but the transfer of semantic data will be emphasised. More comprehensive microstructural treatment than is found in

the current school dictionaries will be pleaded for throughout. In this regard the findings of an empirical probe conducted in three schools will be employed to support some of the assumptions and proposals. The need for more comprehensive items giving the meaning paraphrase is one of the most prominent findings in this probe, and an innovative way of constructing such items scientifically, yet, with the user's needs in mind, will be presented.

Ultimately the vision is for a junior secondary school dictionary that can function as a powerful communicative and pedagogical tool to aid in the linguistic empowerment of both mother-tongue and non-mother-tongue learners of English in an OBE-classroom context. An integration of a study of existing literature, analysis of material from the current school dictionaries and data obtained empirically should, however, not only lead to criteria useful for dictionaries with English as treated language. The criteria given in this dissertation also provide valuable guidelines for the broader South African and international pedagogical lexicography.

## **Opsomming**

Die besluit om weg te beweeg van 'n inhoudsgebaseerde onderrigstelsel na 'n uitkomsgebaseerde onderrigstelsel noodsaak 'n vernuwende blik op die rol van woordeboeke in die Suid-Afrikaanse klaskamer. Die huidige metaleksikografiese literatuur dui veral op twee probleemareas. Eerstens moet die woordeboekkultuur in skole verbeter. Die verwerwing van beter woordeboekgebruiksvaardighede moet op 'n aggressiewe wyse nagevolg word, want woordeboeke is baie belangrike hulpmiddels in die klaskamer asook in die lewenslange leerproses. Die opleiding van onderwysers sal 'n belangrike rol speel om te verseker dat hierdie visie deurgevoer word. Daar is egter ook ernstige voorbehoude aangaande die gebruikersvriendelikheid van die skool- en ander woordeboeke wat tans in Suid-Afrikaanse klaskamers gebruik word.

In hierdie proefskrif word die strukturele tekortkominge van eentalig verklarende woordeboeke met Engels as behandelde taal wat op junior sekondêre vlak gebruik word, bespreek. 'n Model vir 'n nuwe eentalig verklarende skoolwoordeboek wat vernuwing en 'n behoud van dominante prosedures en praktyke met mekaar balanseer, word dan aangebied. So 'n woordeboek moet nie net 'n kragtige kommunikatiewe werktuig wees nie, maar het ook belangrike pedagogiese funksies wat in navolging van die gebruikersperspektief, die tipologiese en struktuurprofiële daarvan bepaal.

Moontlike tipologiese en struktuurprofiële van die voorgestelde woordeboek word in detail bespreek in hierdie proefskrif. Dit is belangrik dat die leksikograaf verseker dat die gebruiker so vinnig moontlik die inligting waarvoor gesoek word, bereik. Derhalwe word die rol van die makrostruktuur vlugtig, en die rol van gidsstrukture en hulptekste in detail bespreek. Die fokuspunt van hierdie proefskrif sal egter die rol van die mikrostruktuur in die versekering van kommunikatiewe en pedagogiese sukses wees. Die rol en waarde van uitspraakdata, grammatikale, pragmatiese en etimologiese data sal bespreek word, maar die oordrag van semantiese data sal beklemtoon word. Meer omvattende mikrostrukturele bewerking as wat tans in die

skoolwoordeboeke aanwesig is, sal deurgaans bepleit word. In hierdie verband sal die bevindinge van 'n empiriese steekproef wat in drie skole onderneem is, benut word om sekere van die aannames en voorstelle te ondersteun. Die noodsaak vir meer omvattende items wat die betekenisparafrase aanbied, is een van die steekproef se prominentste bevindinge en 'n innoverende manier om sodanige items wetenskaplik saam te stel, sal derhalwe bespreek word.

Dié visie is uiteindelik vir 'n junior sekondêre skoolwoordeboek wat beide as 'n kragtige kommunikatiewe en pedagogiese hulpmiddel kan optree om te help met die linguistiese bemagtiging van moedertaal- en niemoedertaalleerders van Engels in 'n UGO-klaskamerkonteks. 'n Integrasie van 'n studie van bestaande literatuur, analise van materiaal uit huidige skoolwoordeboeke en data verkry deur middel van empiriese studie behoort egter nie net te lei tot die vasstel van kriteria wat van nut kan wees vir woordeboeke met Engels as behandelde taal nie. Die kriteria uiteengesit in hierdie tesis bied hopelik ook waardevolle riglyne vir die breër pedagogiese leksikografie in Suid-Afrika en wêreldwyd.

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### **Abbreviations of sources**

BLD. *Tweetalige Aanleerderswoordeboek / Bilingual Learner's Dictionary.*

CIDE. *Cambridge International Dictionary of English.*

COBUILD. *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary.*

COD. *The Concise Oxford English Dictionary.*

DSAE (hist.). *Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles.*

ENCARTA. *Encarta World English Dictionary.*

LDOCE. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*

Lighthouse. *Kenkyusha's Lighthouse English-Japanese Dictionary.*

OALD. *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.*

RD. *Reader's Digest Afrikaans-Engelse Woordeboek/ English-Afrikaans Dictionary.*

SADJS. *Chambers-Macmillan South African Dictionary Junior Secondary.*

SAOSD. *The South African Oxford School Dictionary.*

WAT. *Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal. (Vol. XI).*

## **Chapter 1: Structural possibilities for improved user-friendliness: A critical evaluation of existing junior secondary school dictionaries for English.**

### **1.1 General research problem**

The establishment of a successful dictionary use climate depends on (a) the user-friendliness of dictionaries and (b) the strength of the dictionary culture in a community. Currently, much of the metalexicographical debate centres on the ways in which innovative methods can increase the user-friendliness of dictionaries. Very little research has been done in South Africa on initiatives that will improve a notoriously poor dictionary culture, however. From the little research that has been done locally (cf. Carstens 1995) it has become clear that one root of the weak dictionary culture is the school system. This echoes the findings of several international studies, including Béjoint (1989) and Kirkpatrick (1989).

In this dissertation the focus will be mainly on proposals for the improvement of school dictionaries, specifically monolingual dictionaries that target junior secondary learners. The framework within which such proposals will be made will be mapped out in 1.2 and 1.3. Suggestions will, however, also be made for the improvement of the dictionary culture. Metalexigraphy provides the broad framework within which this study will be situated, both for its main focus on the improvement of dictionary user-friendliness and the discussion of the dictionary culture. A cursory examination of the changing educational climate is a vital first step to understanding current dictionary culture and, correspondingly, the needs of the target users of school dictionaries, which, in turn, will necessarily help to shape the proposals for dictionary improvement.

With the South African education system at a crossroads, a decision was taken to transform the old content-based system into outcomes-based education, henceforth OBE. In this new system, the emphasis shifts from the old approach

of "covering the curriculum" (Killen 1996: 3) to a system of outcomes – "what the learner becomes and understands" (Curriculum 2005). The dictionary culture can only improve with such a shift in emphasis. The new curriculum, however, does not only provide a fertile breeding ground for enhanced dictionary skills. Dictionaries can also play a crucial role in the success of OBE's individual learning areas as well as the critical cross-field outcomes.

Firstly, dictionaries are aids in the communication process. They will act as functional tools for language empowerment within the learning area called "Communication, Literacy and Language Learning". For dictionaries to reach their maximum potential, though, learners need to be taught basic dictionary skills and basic dictionary typology in order to find the desired information "in the first place [they] look" (Haas 1967: 48). With the emphasis in OBE resting on life-long learning, such skills could themselves be important outcomes, because learners will be dependent on dictionaries for vital linguistic and pragmatic information for the rest of their adult lives. Furthermore, dictionaries can also be of use in the other learning areas where the right type of dictionary can be a useful reference tool. The learning areas interact and adequate, clear communicative skills are necessary for success in each area. From the list of essential outcomes it becomes clear that the teaching of dictionary and reference skills can also enhance learners' abilities to solve problems, work effectively with others, collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information, etc. This does, however, imply that much more creativity is needed in the teaching of dictionary use (cf. Carstens 1995: 105-116).

The theory can only be put into practice by teachers who can transfer the necessary skills effectively. Unfortunately teachers are often apathetic to dictionary use and/or are poor and uncreative dictionary users themselves. Another part of the solution to the problem will therefore be the lexicographical education of prospective teachers and the re-education of current teachers. The training of teachers should be part of the transformations OBE necessitates.

As mentioned before, the new role of dictionaries should lead to a brighter future for the dictionary culture. Yet, dictionaries also need to change in order to meet the learner half way.

### **1.2 Structural changes to existing junior secondary school dictionaries**

In this dissertation specific monolingual dictionaries available in South Africa will be critically evaluated as to their structural suitability for use in the junior secondary phase of the learning process. It will be shown that the dictionaries that are used are often not structurally compatible with the needs of learners. Therefore an attempt will be made to provide a workable typological and structural profile for a monolingual dictionary necessary in this vital phase. This profile will be set up to take into account the successes and failures of current dictionaries, the needs of the target users and the constraints that practical lexicographers have to face.

In the critical evaluation of current school dictionaries it is necessary to take cognisance of Hartmann's (1992:152) "background against which any new dictionary must be evaluated", i.e. "to see each of these projects in their own contexts. Dictionaries are the products of a particular age and location: they reflect the lexicographer's assumptions about potential information needs to be met, the productive resources that are available, the professional skills of the compilers, and the reference skills of the users".

In the course of these evaluations, broad guidelines will be set up for each of the aspects that will be evaluated. These guidelines will provide the framework for establishing a model for a new monolingual, multifunctional school dictionary with mother-tongue and non-mother-tongue learners of English who are in the junior secondary school phase of the learning process as its target user group. Though the dictionary proposed will have English as its treated language and though

some language specific problems and issues will be discussed, the model proposed will, for the main, be a generic model. This model can, with some adaptation, also be employed in the compilation of multifunctional, monolingual, junior secondary school dictionaries with treated languages other than English.

### **1.3 Aspects that will be evaluated**

Several aspects of the present dictionaries will provide a framework for dictionary criticism in this dissertation. Their typological profiles will be discussed first. In this discussion the focus will be on the needs of the target users of the proposed dictionary.

Secondly, the way in which these needs can be met in the different structures of the dictionary will be looked at. An exhaustive structural analysis of the dictionary is, however, beyond the scope of this study. Therefore some salient structures and types of data within structures will be identified and discussed, which will then provide the base for the model of the proposed dictionary. The macrostructure will be the first focal point. The emphasis will then shift to the way in which data on semantics, pronunciation, grammar, pragmatics and etymology is represented in the microstructure. In the discourse on semantic data four problem areas will be identified: the treatment of two prominent lexicographical hurdles - homonymy and polysemy - the construction of effective items giving paraphrases of meaning in monolingual school dictionaries, the adequate representation of the semantic relations between a lexical item and others in the lexicon and the use of illustrative examples to support the item giving the paraphrase of meaning in the transfer of meaning. Syntactic and morphological data will be the main subtypes of grammatical data evaluated.

Finally, guide structures and accessory texts will be evaluated. The role that three prominent guide structures - the access structures, the addressing structure and the mediostructure - will play in the look-up process, will be

critically evaluated. Furthermore, the interaction between the central list and the outer texts in the front and back matter (especially the user's guide) as well as the interaction between the central list and the inserted inner texts (where used) will be emphasised.

#### **1.4 Terminological and procedural issues**

There are some terminological and procedural issues that need explication before the process of critical evaluation and proposal of innovation can commence. Firstly, the use of the term "learner" must be disambiguated. In the new educational terminology, as manifested in literature spread in preparation of the implementation of OBE in South Africa, the term "learner" refers to anyone receiving formal instruction in the identified learning areas. This frame of reference will be adhered to in this dissertation. The term "learners' dictionary" will, however, be used in its traditional application, i.e. a dictionary that primarily targets adult, often foreign, learners of a language, whereas "school dictionary" will be the preferred term to refer to a dictionary targeting learners at school.

A second terminological issue pertains to the use of the terms "data" and "information". The current metalexical distinction between data, as that which the lexicographer enters in the dictionary, and information, as that which the user extracts from the dictionary, will be maintained in this dissertation.

The term "regional variety", which will be used throughout, also demands some clarification. In this dissertation only those internationally-based, often standardised, varieties of English, such as American, British, Australian, Indian and South African English, will be referred to as "regional varieties". Varieties within the borders of a country will be referred to as "dialects".

A procedural issue that needs to be clarified is the relationship between this dissertation and previous research undertaken by this researcher at the



University of Stellenbosch. There is no direct correspondence between the scope and subject matter of this dissertation and this researcher's M.A.-thesis, which focussed on criteria for a new standard translation dictionary. However, some of the research done during that study on the improvement of a dictionary's user-friendliness did provide, to some degree, a foundation on which to build the structural and textual profile of the dictionary proposed in this dissertation. The recommendations for optimising the use of guide structures and inner and outer texts were particularly useful in the preparatory phase of the writing of chapter five of this dissertation.

Lastly, some comments regarding the nature, scope and distribution of a questionnaire that was circulated by this researcher in some schools are necessary. This questionnaire cannot be regarded as an exhaustive empirical study into the needs of the target users of the proposed dictionary, but should rather be seen as a prestudy to a comprehensive, empirically justifiable study of user needs and expectations. Throughout this dissertation a call will be made for such a detailed study to be conducted, yet, it is this researcher's view that such a study should be conducted with the aid of larger organisations (such as READ or the Molteno Project) that can reach a more representative cross-section of the potential target user group. Such a study should be the responsibility of the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary and undertaken as part of the dictionary planning phase.

This researcher's questionnaire did not, owing to its cursory nature, provide the base for the assumptions, findings or conclusions contained in this dissertation. It did, however, serve to support some findings and indicated some important trends in the dictionary culture, which the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary will need to be aware of. Three schools, in which there were learners with diverse cultural backgrounds, were included in this prestudy, in order to gain some insight into the demographically diverse target user group. 54 mother-tongue learners of English in grades 8 and 9 were probed at Brackenfell High

School, whereas 53 non-mother-tongue learners of English in grades 8 and 9 were probed at Stellenbosch High School. A small group (12) of mother-tongue learners of English in grade 10 at Abbots College (Durbanville campus) provided some insight into the expectations of slightly older dictionary users and their results will be listed separately.

The unabbreviated questionnaire will be provided as Addendum A at the back of this dissertation, followed by abbreviated result pages (addenda B-I), which list, in order, the results from the whole test group of grades 8 and 9, only the mother-tongue component, only the non-mother-tongue component, each individual class probed and the grade 10 class. Only the answers to questions directly pertaining to the textual and structural profile of the dictionary are included on these result pages and these results will be referred to at appropriate points in the dissertation.

## **Chapter 2: Suggested typological profile of the proposed junior secondary school dictionary**

### **2.1 Introduction**

In this chapter the typological criteria for a new junior secondary school dictionary with English as treated language will be discussed. The typological classification system that is applied to the dictionary under discussion is a composite classification. The most important influences in this system are, however, the frameworks as set out by Svensén (1993: 18- 22), Al-Kasimi (1977: 20), Zgusta (1971: 197-221) and the discussion of Zgusta's classification in Gouws (1989: 60-72). In many of the typological decisions, a choice will have to be made between typological counterparts, usually set up in a contrasting pair. It is important not to see these counterparts as mutually exclusive, as a dictionary which can be typed as belonging predominantly to one, may also contain elements of the other. Often there are "fuzzy borders" between these typological counterparts. The point of departure before these contrasting pairs are employed should, however, always be the user perspective.

### **2.2 Target users**

According to Al-Kasimi (1977: 18) typology cannot be separated from the "purpose" of a dictionary. Within the current metalexicographical discussion, however, a distinction is made between the dictionary's "genuine purpose" and its "functions". The term "genuine purpose" therefore has a broad application. It could be argued that the "genuine purpose" of the proposed dictionary is much the same as that stated by Gouws (2001a: 66) for the broad category of linguistic dictionaries, i.e. "to transfer, by means of lexical data, information regarding the set of lexical items included as treatment units in order to ensure the linguistic empowerment of the intended target user".

In the context of Al-Kasimi's statement, the term "purpose" should rather be substituted by "functions", in order to avoid terminological confusion, and these functions will play a significant role in determining the dictionary's typological profile. One can also add that there are certain goals that are set during the dictionary compilation process, which the dictionary is expected to meet. The proposed dictionary will, for example, have to meet certain pedagogical goals (see 2.4.3.2). The functions and goals of a dictionary are determined by *the needs of the target user* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 66) and the default usage situation. Al-Kasimi (1977: 18), Martin (1967: 154) and Gouws (1989: 49) agree that dictionary typology and a user-oriented approach must always be in a symbiotic relationship. Gouws (1989: 49) goes even further by asserting that *dictionary typology ... must ... be defined in terms of the user profile* (own translation).

It is vital that the lexicographer adapts to the needs of the user. This core principle determines any further choices, proposals or decisions regarding the proposed dictionary, which will have junior secondary school learners of English as its target user group. This is a broad target user group incorporating, on the one hand, mother-tongue speakers of English with an intermediate to advanced competence in English and, on the other hand, non-mother-tongue speakers with at least an intermediate second-language competence in English. In the rest of this chapter the decisions under discussion include those regarding the broader typological picture (linguistic vs. non-linguistic, semasiological vs. onomasiological, monolingual vs. bilingual) and the detailed typological profile of the dictionary.

### **2.3 Broad typological profile**

One of the first distinctions that needs to be made in accordance with the functions, goals and, in this case, the genuine purpose of the proposed dictionary is whether the dictionary should be linguistic or encyclopaedic in nature. As will



be shown in 4.2.2.5, the boundaries between encyclopaedic and linguistic data are not always discrete. Yet the overall character of a dictionary can be classified as linguistic, even if it contains what is traditionally viewed as encyclopaedic data. A junior secondary school dictionary needs to be "primarily concerned with language, i.e., with the lexical units of language and all their linguistic properties" (Zgusta 1971: 198), and therefore can be categorised under linguistic dictionaries. A description of these "linguistic properties" can be regarded as one of the proposed dictionary's primary goals (see 2.4.3.2) and forms part of its genuine purpose. In the context of language acquisition and the improvement of language skills, linguistic data should be the cornerstone of the school dictionary.

The needs of the target users and the corresponding functions of the dictionary also determine a next important typological decision. In the current dictionary culture it would be advisable that the macrostructure of a school dictionary has a predominantly strict initial alphabetical ordering, as this is what users would be most familiar with and would guide them best on the standard outer search path (see also chapters three and five). This strict initial alphabetical ordering would place the proposed dictionary in a broad category with other "semasiological dictionaries" (Svensén 1993: 17). As will be pointed out in chapter four, the microstructure of such a dictionary must accommodate both semasiological and onomasiological presentations of especially semantic data, but the dictionary can still be described as predominantly semasiological.

Lastly, the fact that the target users are mother-tongue speakers of English or second-language speakers with a functional knowledge of English, combined with the need for linguistic (especially semantic) description leads to the choice of "monolingual descriptive" as another broad typological classification for the proposed dictionary. There can be no doubt that, in South Africa's multilingual context, bilingual dictionaries will play an important role, but even for second-language junior secondary learners studying English, a generic English

monolingual dictionary is a vital teaching aid and will probably be used interactively with a bilingual dictionary in the classroom. Not only can the proposed dictionary flesh out the fast transfer of data provided by bilingual dictionaries, it will, more importantly, provide the detailed information necessary during encoding or re-encoding activities. The microstructural deficiencies of current South African bilingual dictionaries with English as one of the treated languages (see e.g. Louw (1998) for a detailed discussion) further underline the need for an adequate, yet easily understandable, monolingual descriptive school dictionary with English as treated language.

The question can be asked whether a hybrid dictionary, which supplements descriptive elements with translation equivalents, would not be a viable option. The fact that mother-tongue speakers are an important target user group and that the rest of the target users can be drawn from the speech communities of all ten other official languages (and that such a dictionary would therefore need to present at least ten translation equivalents), make this suggestion impractical for the time being. Not all the languages are adequately standardised either and some are undergoing comprehensive restandardisation, which could further complicate the search for viable translation equivalents. The hybrid dictionary is a concept that needs to be explored in the future and the National Lexicography Units can play an important role in bringing such a product (or products) into being co-operatively.

## **2.4 Detailed typological profile**

### **2.4.1 Synchronic contemporary**

The practice of choosing between typological counterparts is also valid and effective when determining the detailed typological profile of the proposed dictionary. Svensén (1993:18) states as joint contrastive pairs "synchronic and diachronic, historical and contemporary". The junior secondary school dictionary

must be "synchronic contemporary" by nature. It must focus on the language as used during a restricted time period (therefore synchronic) and that time period needs to be close to the present of the lexicographer at the time the dictionary is being compiled (therefore contemporary). If the project is correctly and adequately computerised using a powerful editing tool (preferably storing the data in a relational database), the revision of such a dictionary should be relatively easy and inexpensive. If the term contemporary is not viewed too narrowly, regular editions produced every five to ten years can maintain the dictionary's contemporary nature.

#### **2.4.2 General dictionaries vs. restricted dictionaries or dictionaries for special purposes**

In the category of synchronic dictionaries a further distinction pertains to the functions and goals *a lexicographer has in mind for the specific dictionary and accordingly the choice and organisation of the elements of the macrostructure* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 67). It could be argued that a synchronic dictionary is, per definition, restricted in its coverage of the lexicon. General synchronic dictionaries, however, cover as many of the lexical items within the synchronic contemporary scope as their functions, goals and size allow. They usually restrict the macrostructure strictly according to the frequency of use of the lemmas and the choice between whether lemmas are selected from only the standard variety or from all dialects. In restricted dictionaries the restrictions on the macrostructure are far greater, e.g. in dictionaries for a certain dialect or, in the case of dictionaries for special purposes, for jargon belonging to a certain discipline.

Restricted dictionaries such as thesauri can also follow a predominantly onomasiological approach, which leads to a thematically ordered macrostructure and can produce an almost exclusively onomasiological dictionary.

Restrictions may also be placed on the microstructural treatment of lemmas in restricted dictionaries, e.g. in pronunciation dictionaries where only one type of data is usually emphasised.

Whereas a junior secondary school dictionary is certainly compiled for a very "special purpose", the criteria employed in both the macro- and microstructure will be shown in chapters three and four to be as "general" as its synchronic contemporary brief, its pedagogical goals, communicative functions and its size will allow it to be. This is also true of most other monolingual pedagogical dictionaries and they are usually categorised as general dictionaries.

### **2.4.3 Pedagogical dictionary**

In the category general monolingual descriptive dictionaries a further subdivision can be made between comprehensive dictionaries, dictionaries with the standard language as default subject matter and pedagogical dictionaries. This categorisation pertains mainly to the user group and the functions and goals of the dictionaries in each class. Comprehensive dictionaries deal with as much of the synchronic contemporary lexicon in as microstructurally comprehensive a manner as possible and target adult, mother-tongue speakers (often including academics or subject specialists). Dictionaries with the standard language as default subject matter seek to describe the standard variety of a language, in as far as such a standard variety can be identified, to mainly adult mother-tongue speakers who are not searching for advanced technical terms. It is important to see these categories as superordinates, which can include true subtypes or, alternatively, subtypes where size and extent, and not necessarily functions, determine separate classification. An example of subtypes that differ in size and the extent of the macro- and sometimes even the microstructure, but share many functions and even goals can be provided in the category of dictionaries that describe the standard language to adult, mother-tongue users. Standard, desk, pocket and even mini dictionaries are identified here. Lombard (1990: 11)



correctly surmises that *a difference in size and extent do not necessarily imply different types of dictionary. Size and extent point to varying criteria for macro- and microstructural inclusion, rather than to different types of dictionary* (own translation). It is in this light that the distinctions mentioned above in the category of dictionaries with the standard language as default subject matter, important as they may be, should not be seen as true subtypes. In the pedagogical category, however, two true subtypes with very different functions and goals, as well as very different target user groups, exist, i.e. learners' and school dictionaries.

#### **2.4.3.1 Learners' dictionaries**

Lombard (1990: 14-15) confirms that the major typological differences between school and learners' dictionaries relate to their user group and functions. In the South African context a monolingual school dictionary needs to target both mother-tongue speakers and non-mother-tongue speakers who are on a second-language level of competency. A monolingual learners' dictionary, on the other hand, has adult learners of a foreign language as its primary target user group.

This difference in user group necessitates a difference in functions. A learners' dictionary must essentially be a powerful tool for communication, geared towards helping to speed up the acquisition of a foreign language as much as possible and providing detailed, correct answers to user questions in specific situations. This brief has led many compilers of learners' dictionaries to create structural profiles that are quite unique and innovative. Some general trends can be identified, though. A learners' dictionary often has a more comprehensive macrostructure than, for example, a school dictionary (see Lombard 1990: 15 and Gouws 1989: 71). In order to point out potential errors in language use, a learners' dictionary can also contain more examples and therefore have a larger syntactic component than a school dictionary (see Lombard 1990: 15 and Otto 1989: 33-34). Lastly, the guide structures, especially the access structures, of learners' dictionaries often bear witness to a much more innovative approach,

rather than conforming to the systems which are generally used in English dictionaries with the standard language as default subject matter.

#### **2.4.3.2 The functions and goals of a monolingual school dictionary**

The task of the compiler of a school dictionary - and in particular a dictionary for secondary school use - is very complex, especially with regard to the pedagogical goals which must be kept in mind during its compilation. Firstly, the linguistic properties of a specific lexical item must be described with as much detail as the teacher/facilitator needs to convey to the learner in the relevant learning stage. Secondly, it must give as detailed an account of the onomasiological data pertaining to the lexical item (i.e. its relationships with other lexical items in the scope of the dictionary) as is needed in the relevant learning stage. Thirdly, the dictionary must be suitable for the teacher/facilitator to use it to illustrate salient concepts from lexical semantics such as homonymy, polysemy and synonymy, which are often included in syllabi. Fourthly, it must facilitate in the acquisition of life-long dictionary skills, in order that learners may progress seamlessly from being users of monolingual school dictionaries to being independent, competent users of dictionaries with the standard language as default subject matter.

It is probably due to the fourth goal and the descriptive nature of school dictionaries that many of them can be described as *basically a desk dictionary aimed at a restricted user group* (own translation) (Lombard 1990: 14). This view has led to a woeful lack of structural innovation in school dictionaries. Svensén (1993: 22) responds to this as follows:

Language learning imposes its own requirements on the format of a dictionary, and the user has a more limited capability of making use of its contents. The student does not need a description of the language so much as an effective tool for communication.

He (1993: 22) adds that:

Children are less able to make use of a complicated format, and it is more difficult for them to determine whether the information given is relevant to their needs of the moment. A dictionary for children must therefore be not just an abbreviated dictionary for adults.

These statements bring to light a very important function of the school dictionary, i.e. that it must be "an effective tool for communication". As was the case with the learners' dictionary, adequate, detailed answers must be provided to specific questions in a specific look-up operation, be it for decoding or encoding purposes (see 2.4.6). More structural innovation is required and Lombard (1990: 15) is correct in asserting that *school dictionaries can incorporate some attributes of learners' dictionaries fruitfully* (own translation). This predominantly communicative function must, however, be reconciled with the preceding four goals, which are predominantly educational in nature. This means that the lexicographer will have to maintain a careful balance between innovation and the adherence to generally used systems in a dictionary intended for junior secondary school use with English as treated language. In this way the demands set by the needs of the target users and the corresponding functions of the dictionary, can be met.

A last goal that pertains to the usage situation of the proposed dictionary also demands clarification here. Whereas many dictionaries are designed for home use, it would perhaps be idealistic to expect that, in the South African situation, all the target users of the proposed dictionary could afford to own one. It is therefore advisable that the proposed dictionary be designed specifically to be used under supervision or in structured activities in the OBE-classroom by junior secondary learners. A dictionary designed for home use by historically disadvantaged non-mother-tongue learners of English, would, for example, need

to be much more comprehensive in its microstructural treatment than the dictionary described in this dissertation. Home use should, however, not be excluded completely from the functional profile of the proposed dictionary and, where possible, the greater demands set by home use should be kept in mind in the compilation process.

### **2.4.3.3 Subtypes of school dictionaries**

True subtypes and subtypes based on size and extent can also be identified within the broader category of monolingual descriptive school dictionaries. The learning stage the user is at may lead to the creation of separate true subtypes of school dictionaries. Chambers-Macmillan's series of "South African Dictionaries" consists, for example, of four dictionaries: one each for junior primary, senior primary, junior secondary (SADJS) and senior secondary/tertiary learners. Some dictionaries attempt to meet the needs of learners in more than one of these learning stages. SAOSD (1996: vii), for example, purports to have been "specially written for senior primary and secondary school students". The proposed dictionary will chiefly target junior secondary learners of English.

Learners can be presented, in one learning stage, with a range of dictionaries with the same broad functions and goals (see 2.4.3.2), but which differ in size. As has been shown in 2.4.3 size cannot necessarily be seen as a typological issue and neither can extent, be it macro- or microstructural extent.

A point that would further complicate a typological classification according to size and extent is that these two do not necessarily correspond with one another. SAOSD and SADJS can, e.g., be classified as being roughly of the same size (A5-format, between 500 and 600 pages), but they differ greatly in terms of extent. SAOSD emphasises the macrostructure with "35000 headword entries" and only "6000 phrases and sentences to show how words are used in context". SADJS, on the other hand, emphasises the syntactic component with "21000

example sentences", but only claims to have "18000 words and phrases" as treatment units. Size should therefore not directly form part of the typological profile of the proposed dictionary, but should rather be a natural product of decisions taken and criteria set when determining the structural profile of the dictionary.

The compilers of a future junior secondary school dictionary may, however, come under pressure from the publishers to give an estimated size. In fact, some publishers may even go so far as to suggest or even prescribe a size limit to the lexicographer. The dictionary plan must provide an estimate and, in this regard, the "rough classification" according to size provided by Svensén (1993: 36-37) can be consulted. It must always be kept in mind that portability will be a great asset of the proposed dictionary and the compilers should perhaps attempt to keep it in A5 format (or slightly bigger) and try to restrict it to between 600 and 800 pages, thus placing it in group 3 in Svensén's classification. This should not be seen, though, as anything more than a broad guideline and the preferred size of a school dictionary should be probed in an empirical study conducted as part of the theory of organisation of the proposed dictionary.

#### **2.4.4 Prescriptive vs. descriptive**

In section 2.4.3 pedagogical dictionaries were classified in the category of general synchronic dictionaries alongside comprehensive dictionaries and dictionaries with the standard language as default subject matter. A monolingual junior secondary school dictionary would in at least one sense be closer akin to dictionaries with the standard language as default subject matter than to comprehensive dictionaries. Its macrostructural elements should be drawn mainly from the standard variety of the treated language. In this regard it plays an important role in maintaining and cultivating the standard variety of a language by describing at least a significant portion of the standard language to young speakers of the language. The following statement by Gouws and Ponelis

(1992:87), made regarding standard dictionaries, is also relevant to the functions of a junior secondary school dictionary: "The standard dictionary is aimed at the language as it is used in the present, establishing a norm for the immediate future". Despite the descriptive nature of a junior secondary school dictionary, it also has a normative purpose, which means that it must, to some degree, be regarded as prescriptive. This shows yet again that the boundary between typological counterparts is not always discrete and in this case the proposed dictionary can be placed somewhere on the continuum between the two typological counterparts identified by Svensén (1993:18), i.e. descriptive and prescriptive. As will be shown in chapters four and five other types of normative data will be provided (e.g. pronunciation and usage notes), but the dictionary will still be predominantly descriptive.

#### **2.4.5 Language variation and spoken vs. written language**

Al-Kasimi (1977:23) makes an important distinction between dictionaries describing the written language and those describing spoken language. As has been shown in 2.4.4 the proposed dictionary mainly seeks to describe the standard language, but further clarification is needed as to what this standard is and what its relationship is with spoken language. One could argue that the standard is a variety that reflects the generally accepted norm for written language (compare Ponelis 1992: 71 on this point) in a business, academic or other formal or public context and a corresponding idealised vision of formal spoken language adhering to that norm. This norm may be approached in informal written or spoken language, but is seldom, if ever, used in its fully idealised form. An equation of the standard language with formal written language would exclude stylistically marked lexical items (such as expletives, offensive lexical items, etc.) as well as dialectal forms, lexical items that have fallen into disuse, etc. from this variety. They would then also be excluded from a dictionary exclusively reflecting such a standard variety, but the proposed

dictionary must adopt a somewhat more inclusive approach (see chapter three for a more detailed discussion).

A further obstacle faced by the lexicographer is the tendency of "regional varieties" (Zgusta 1989: 71), such as South African, Australian or Canadian English, to develop into standard varieties of English (see chapter one for a further clarification of the term "regional variety"). A compiler of a junior secondary school dictionary with English as treated language should mainly reflect Standard South African English (henceforth SSAE), but this variety is by no means a static entity. Cultural cross-pollination results in SSAE continually assimilating lexical items, pronunciations, etc. from standard varieties such as those used in Britain and the USA. These assimilations must be reflected in the proposed dictionary.

It is not, however, only cultural cross-pollination from outside South Africa that needs to be reflected. Wade (1995:191) states that a restandardisation of SSAE has already started: "What I am referring to is a gradual, and I would suggest, inevitable process whereby SABLE (South African Black English) usage influences what is regarded as acceptable in spoken and written English in South Africa". This conclusion is drawn from a strongly pragmatic assumption: social (especially socio-economical) change causes language change. As SABLE gains prominence as the language of, among others, politicians, businessmen, journalists and teachers, SSAE will have to adapt on, e.g., phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical level.

At present the impact can most clearly be seen in the SABLE-pronunciations which are used and accepted in formal spoken contexts such as political speeches, radio and television news reports and business meetings. The corpus used in the compilation of the proposed dictionary will therefore need to include transcripts of such formal spoken language, as well as phonetic transcriptions, which should be used when giving a list of pronunciations in the microstructure of

each dictionary article (see 4.3.1.3). These microstructural additions may need to be complemented by macrostructural additions. The transcripts mentioned above, as well as formal written texts by authors who are speakers of SABE should be carefully scrutinised to find lexical items which have entered SSAE from SABE, and these should be lemmatised in the proposed dictionary if they meet the frequency requirement (see 3.2.2.1).

It is in the best interests of the target user to reflect the restandardisation of SSAE in the proposed dictionary. Many target users will be speakers of SABE and even those who are not need to recognise and accept the natural, ongoing process of restandardisation. The dictionary must, therefore, describe both written and spoken language, but it must be restricted, as far as possible, to the standard language used in formal contexts.

#### **2.4.6 Encoding vs. decoding**

Al-Kasimi (1977: 20) identifies another typological contrasting pair, i.e. dictionaries to be used in text production and dictionaries to be used in text comprehension. This contrast is a reworking of Scerba's "active/passive" contrasting pair and, in the context of Al-Kasimi's book, is applied mainly to bilingual lexicography. Scerba's terminology is retained in Svensén's (1993: 21) typological model, but used in more or less the same way as Al-Kasimi's "production/comprehension" contrastive pair. It is, however, interesting that Svensén sees these counterparts as points on a continuum. In this interpretation he (1993: 21) finds a place for monolingual dictionaries by stating that "monolingual dictionaries, whether they are intended for native speakers or not, are generally somewhere near the middle of the scale", i.e. that they attempt to strike a balance in fulfilling these two important functions.



Gouws (1989: 72) brings the discussion into the realm of pedagogical dictionaries, but uses the "active/passive" contrastive pair differently. He states that:

A passive dictionary only tries to help the reader to understand the target language, while an active dictionary has both understanding and use as its functions. The active dictionary therefore presents the information in such a way that the user can understand and apply the underlying set of language rules (own translation).

This should also be one of the functions of a future junior secondary school dictionary.

In current and recent research on pedagogical lexicography the terminology "production" or "encoding" vs. "reception" or "decoding" seems to be preferred to "active" vs. "passive". Furthermore, it does not seem to be in dispute that an adequate pedagogical dictionary must fulfil both these roles. The discussion has moved away from the overall functions of the dictionary to determining which specific data categories in the microstructure fulfil which functions (see e.g. Aarts 1999: 15-32 for a discussion of the role that syntactic data plays in a learners' dictionary in aiding text production). It should suffice, therefore, to conclude by saying that the microstructure of a future junior secondary school dictionary must maintain a healthy balance between providing data useful for encoding/productive purposes and data useful for decoding/receptive purposes. More detail on how this can be achieved will be supplied in chapter four.

#### **2.4.7 Paper vs. electronic dictionary**

A last possible typological detail pertains to the choice of format of the dictionary. Paper and electronic dictionaries can be identified as typological counterparts as these currently have (though not always intentionally) different target user groups. There can be no doubt that electronic dictionaries have revolutionised every aspect of lexicography, particularly the way access and mediostructures

were conceptualised. There can be incredible added value in designing and distributing an electronic school dictionary. In the current South African dictionary culture, where access to a computer is still the exception rather than the rule, there is, though, a more pressing need for a low-cost, mass-produced paper dictionary with content of a high quality. This statement should not be read as precluding the compilation of an electronic school dictionary. In fact, if the proposed dictionary is compiled using a state of the art computerised lexical workbench that allows multiple output formats, it will be relatively easy to convert the paper dictionary to an electronic format. The structural profile would have to be altered and these changes would mostly be made systematically by using computer scripts. A detailed discussion of such an altered profile does not fall within the scope of this dissertation, but the compilers of a future junior secondary school dictionary would be well-advised to include such an altered structural profile in their dictionary plan.

## **2.5 Conclusion**

In conclusion, a junior secondary school dictionary should have the following typological profile. It will have to be a compact, linguistic, alphabetically ordered, monolingual descriptive, general, synchronic contemporary school dictionary. It will have to be in paper format and address both the encoding and decoding needs of its target users, namely junior secondary school learners who are either mother-tongue speakers of or have a second-language level of competency in English. Furthermore, it would be placed on a typological continuum between (a) prescriptive and descriptive and (b) representing written and spoken language. Such a dictionary should fulfil a valuable role as an early facilitator in the acquisition of vital linguistic and lexicographic skills, which would be in keeping with the objectives set at this learning stage and a prerequisite for its use in an OBE-classroom. If marketed well, it could also be an aggressive competitor in a sparsely populated niche.

## **Chapter 3 The macrostructure**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The difficult decisions that need to be taken during the compilation of a typological profile of the proposed dictionary should be reflected in the careful consideration given to designing its macrostructure. The selection of macrostructural elements and the decisions regarding ordering principles and procedures in the proposed dictionary should, in particular, correspond to the user-friendly, user-oriented approach followed in the dictionary plan design process.

### **3.2 Selection of macrostructural elements**

#### **3.2.1 General principles and corpus requirements**

One of the most pressing requirements during the dictionary design phase is to find an appropriate inclusion policy. Thereafter the compiler(s) face the arduous task of applying this policy consistently. The inclusion policy and selection procedure will be determined by the typological profile of the proposed dictionary, with, among others, the user orientation, functions and goals, extent and size of the dictionary playing a decisive role (see Magay (1984: 221)).

The typological profile of the proposed dictionary suggests that the standard variety of English will provide the base for the macrostructure (see 2.4.2). Yet, as is explained in 2.4.5, regional varieties of English can themselves become standardised. Gouws (1995: 299) surmises that "South African English ... shows a high degree of resemblance to Standard British English. Due to the language contact situation in which SAE is used there are more than enough differences to qualify SAE as a variant of Standard English". In fact, as was shown in 2.4.5, Standard South African English (SSAE) has previously achieved a high measure

of standardisation, but is currently in a process of inevitable restandardisation (incorporating especially SABE). The proposed dictionary (which targets the South African market) must, as far as possible, seek to reflect SSAE in its macrostructure despite the current fluidity in standardisation. The compiler(s) will need to rely quite heavily on a balanced corpus of SSAE in this difficult task.

The compiler(s) should, however, not seek to build such a corpus in isolation. Several corpora of SSAE are currently being compiled by commercial lexicographers (e.g. at Pharos) and by lexicographers at state-run institutions (e.g. at the Dictionary Unit for South African English and at the University of Pretoria). In the spirit of co-operative lexicography, these potential partners should be contacted and an arrangement for corpus-sharing effected. The compiler(s) should seek to create an own corpus only if a suitable arrangement cannot be agreed upon or if the combined corpora prove not to be well-balanced. With the advent of the Internet, English texts (even SSAE newspapers, magazines, technical texts and book texts) have become more readily available and could be imported into a corpus. The process from then on (checking the text, preparing it for the specific software, etc.) is, however, a time-consuming one and it would be preferable if this could be avoided.

There are some prerequisites which must be adhered to by any corpus that can be employed in the construction of the proposed dictionary. Firstly, it must maintain a healthy balance between older and more current texts. Co-operation with the Dictionary Unit for South African English could go a long way in helping to attain this ideal, as the work done on the *Dictionary of South African English based on Historical Principles* reflects such a balance. Secondly, the appropriate corpus must contain a suitable amount of texts written by SABE-speakers, in order to adequately reflect the restandardising of SSAE on a lexical level. Thirdly, its text base should also be made up of texts containing the appropriate technical language (see 3.2.2.3). A last prerequisite does not pertain directly to the quality of the corpus, but rather to the means of extracting data from it. The

software, in particular the corpus querying tool, needs to allow for advanced sorting around the search term, thereby ensuring that concordance lines can be arranged to provide fast access to compound nouns and multilexical lexical items (see 3.3.2.3 and 3.4.4). Though this is not the primary function of concordance lines, sorting capacity is an important by-product that needs to be managed properly.

It can probably be accepted that the corpus chosen will contain more than just SSAE-elements and the lexicographer will have to use discretion in selecting the appropriate items for the proposed dictionary. Here the size and projected macrostructural extent of the dictionary play an important role, as the dictionary can include only a core vocabulary. SAOSD and SADJS provide some polar guidelines, as they differ in their macrostructural approaches (SAOSD includes more macrostructural elements, whereas SADJS provides more comprehensive microstructural treatment). As was shown in 2.4.3.3 the constraints that publishers are likely to place on the size and extent of the proposed dictionary will probably place it in the same class as SAOSD and SADJS, and therefore a similar approach to one of these dictionaries can be adopted. The macrostructural extent will depend on the choice of approach, but in either case a significant segment of SSAE will be excluded, owing to the size constraints.

Inclusion based on frequency of use (or occurrence in the corpus) is a possible method to refine selection within the broader guideline of selecting elements from SSAE. A core vocabulary consisting of only the SSAE lexical items with the most corpus-generated "hits" can be selected and then reflected as macrostructural elements in the dictionary. Yet, as Zgusta (1971: 247) aptly states, "respect to the purpose [sic] of the dictionary should be the guiding principle in these decisions". The functions and goals of the proposed dictionary and the criteria for its use in an OBE-classroom do open the possibility for an inclusion policy that looks beyond SSAE. Possible exceptions to inclusion from the standard

variety therefore need to be identified and decisions taken as to the feasibility and appropriacy of inclusion from these categories.

### **3.2.2 Possible exceptions to inclusion from the standard variety**

#### **3.2.2.1 Dialectal and regional language variation**

As has been stated in 3.2.1 the proposed dictionary must seek to reflect SSAE in its macrostructure. Yet, it was also explained that SSAE is still undergoing a process of restandardisation, incorporating especially items from SABE (see also 2.4.5). The compiler(s) should therefore rather err on the side of caution and include high-frequency SABE-items that appear in the corpus as part of the macrostructure. This principle of wider inclusion also applies to specific senses or syntactic usage that SABE-speakers have added to an existing lexical item (e.g. the predicative use of **late** as an adjective as a euphemistic replacement for "dead"). These items or senses need to be demarcated well by means of a lexicographical label.

In addition to dialectal variation, it was also suggested in 2.4.5 that regional variation should form part of a wider macrostructural base for the proposed dictionary. American spellings may often have to be presented, despite SSAE being closer to Standard British English (henceforth SBE), as texts being read by learners can contain these spellings. In some cases, such as the **-ise/-ize** variation, a general rule presented in the mini-grammar may be more effective, but in cases such as **favor/favour**, the variation could be shown by means of spelling variants (see 3.3.2.1) with adequate labelling, with the less frequent one being contained in a reference article.

American/South African spelling variation is treated inconsistently in SAOSD and SADJS. In SAOSD preference is given to SSAE/SBE spellings throughout (with no American variants listed), with the exception of lemmas ending in **-ise/-ize**

where, curiously, only the American -ize-spelling is given. This procedure is qualified in the user's guide, where the compilers state that "both spellings are equally correct", yet, only one spelling is given. In SADJS only the SSAE/SBE spellings are presented, also in the case of words ending on **-ise**, and no mention is made of American spelling, either in the central list or in the front matter texts. These inconsistencies need to be addressed by the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary.

One aspect of regional variation to which SAOSD and SADJS seem equally committed, is the inclusion of what can be viewed as uniquely South African English. In the preface to SAOSD it is stated that the dictionary "includes many words that are used exclusively in South Africa" (SAOSD vii). Many of these are loan words that have entered SSAE via other South African languages. SADJS is even more explicit in its statement of its inclusion policy regarding South African English. It states that "the South African English content of this dictionary has been developed from South African sources in association with the English Language Teaching Information centre (ELTIC), to make this dictionary suitable for all speakers of English in South Africa today" (SADJS v). SADJS's statement also points to a healthy inclusion policy in that, in addition to the lexicographer's judgement, "South African sources" are employed and a partnership is formed with an outside specialist body, which is in line with the ever-growing mood of co-operative lexicography.

SAOSD's policy statement is somewhat misleading, in that it gives the impression that only uniquely South African "words" make up its South African content. It is true that "words" will probably form the bulk of the list of South African lemmas. These would mainly be loan words (see 3.2.2.4) or words with a uniquely South African frame of reference (e.g. common names of plants and animals). South African content can, however, also encompass, for example, multilexical lexical items, or even the addition of senses to an existing lemma (see the discussion of **robot** under 4.2.1.3.2). A last potential dilemma regarding

regional variation is whether lexical items or senses that are uniquely South African should be labelled as such, or even given limited etymological data, but this issue will be addressed in 4.6.

### 3.2.2.2 Stylistic variation

Standard descriptive dictionaries often make another alteration to an inclusion policy based solely on the standard regional variety. In learners', desk and larger dictionaries stylistically marked items such as colloquialisms, slang and even lexical items that can be experienced as offensive (especially swear words) are often included. A good argument in favour of their inclusion in these dictionaries is that these lexical items may very well be discovered during decoding activities and accurate guidance as to their appropriateness in discourse situations needs to be given, especially to adult learners. This argument is, however, not as convincing when considering such lexical items for inclusion in a junior secondary school dictionary. The environment in which such a dictionary will be used (i.e. the classroom) should be controlled by the teacher/facilitator and stylistically marked lexical items should not occur frequently in decoding situations. In fact, their inclusion of especially potentially offensive lexical items is a strong reason not to employ learners', desk or larger dictionaries in the junior secondary classroom, as their inclusion policies are often inappropriate for this age group and can lead to disruption in the classroom.

Both SADJS and SAOSD adhere to a policy that excludes stylistically marked lexical items, but they do make exceptions for some colloquialisms. These lexical items are demarcated well by means of the label (*informal*). In SAOSD the user finds this label at, among others, the lemma **gig**, the sublemma **ghetto-blaster** (under **ghetto**), the idiom **in a stew** (sublemmatized under **stew**<sup>2</sup>) and at specific senses of lemmas that are only colloquial in those particular senses (see e.g. **sticky** senses 3 and 4). SADJS uses the same label at, for example, **whack** and **come to a sticky end** (sublemmatized under **sticky**).



The decision on whether an item has been incorporated into standard language is often a difficult one for the lexicographer who relies on a corpus (especially a corpus which includes data from newspapers and magazines). Colloquialisms present a dangerous grey area and it is perhaps better for the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary to emulate SADJS and SAOSD by including some colloquialisms. Yet, only colloquialisms that adhere to the frequency requirements of the proposed dictionary should be considered, as learners can possibly encounter these items in decoding situations. These lemmas, sublemmas, etc. should, however, be labelled explicitly as *colloquial* or, as is the case in SAOSD and SADJS, as *informal* (see 4.5.2).

The criteria set in the preceding paragraph for colloquialisms (which can be viewed as part of substandard language use) also applies to items belonging to a variety elevated above the standard. SADJS sets a correct example, in this regard, by presenting the label (*formal*) at **hitherto**.

### **3.2.2.3 Technical terms and curriculum words**

Identifying and including appropriate technical terms may prove to be another difficult obstacle for the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary to overcome. Frequency counts do not always provide the necessary help and other methods need to be explored (see Magay 1984: 222). A possible countermeasure sees the incorporation of the relevant secondary school textbooks into the corpus, which will lead to, at least, some hits for technical language. Subject specialists may also be contacted to act as consultants on the proposed project. Lastly, terminology lists and LSP-dictionaries covering the relevant subjects need to be consulted.

The question that needs to be uppermost in the lexicographer's mind is which technical terms are relevant to junior secondary school learners. The first part of

a possible answer lies in the identification of what various sources (including Lombard (1990)) calls *curriculum words* (own translation), i.e. lexical items that are necessary for a better understanding of all the relevant learning areas. Lombard (1990: 51) rightly expects that *the compiler of a school dictionary must take note of all the subject areas that are presented at school, in order to ensure that his dictionary is truly meaningful and relevant to its target users* (own translation). The compiler(s) need(s) to include as many lexical items appearing in junior secondary textbooks as the limited scope of the dictionary will allow. In this regard, consultation with teachers/facilitators as to which terms are most frequently used or which are considered problematic, is also vital. The dictionary not only needs to be useful in the language classroom, but also in other classrooms to provide quick explanations for problematic terms. In this way the ideal of an integrated approach to the use of the dictionary, which is in line with the focus on practical outcomes placed in OBE, can be approached.

The compilers of SAOSD seem to have taken the educational value of including these terms to heart and state explicitly that "an important feature of this dictionary is that it includes key words and phrases used in school subjects and at the senior primary and secondary levels. Entries have been selected from a range of disciplines ...". Hence, lexical items such as **doge** (history) **mesembryanthemum** (biology), **ordinal number** (mathematics) and **sulphuric acid** (physical science) are lemmatised and comprehensively treated, whereas they may not have been included simply in terms of their frequency. Unfortunately, SADJS does not explicitly state whether special effort has been put into identifying such lexical items. Its more miserly approach to the macrostructure only allowed for the inclusion **ordinal number** from the group above. The compilers of the proposed dictionary should consider emulating SAOSD's more inclusive approach and also its explanation of this inclusion policy.

It may, however, be necessary to look beyond textbooks in the inclusion policy for technical terms. In the information technology and computer studies fields, for example, certain technical terms have pervaded the standard language and need to be considered for inclusion. Both SADJS and SAOSD have included such terms, e.g. **RAM** and **CD-ROM** and SAOSD goes even further to include the less familiar **VDU** (visual display unit). Most of these terms would probably be present in the corpus (from newspaper texts, etc.), but may have a lower frequency than some lexical items from general language that are considered for inclusion. Yet, frequency should, in some cases, not be the determining factor and technical terms should be included in the dictionary, providing they are relevant to the target user market. As has been mentioned above, teachers/facilitators and subject specialists can be consulted to help decide which of these terms should be included.

#### **3.2.2.4 Loan words and neologisms**

In 3.2.2.1 both SAOSD and SADJS were shown to emphasise South African content and, in particular, the inclusion of loan words from Southern African languages. Examples of the practical application of this inclusion policy include **dolos**, **dorp** and **Ubuntu** in SADJS and **eina**, **kgotla** and **khaya** in SAOSD. The fact that neither etymological data nor geographical labels are presented at these lemmas probably reveals that the compiler(s) view(s) these lemmas as entrenched in SSAE, or at least in colloquial South African English. Only detailed corpus data would reveal whether frequency counts further justify their inclusion, but another possible justification could be found in both SADJS and SASD's compilers' commitment to South African content, in order to make the macrostructure relevant to their young user group.

The inclusion criterion of relevance to the target user group may also tempt the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary to include neologisms. Yet, the lexicographer should take heed of Magay's (1984: 223) warning that not all

neologisms are durable and that the lexicographer should therefore be cautious not to include words that may swiftly disappear. This warning can also be extended to decisions regarding loan words. The lexicographer must determine an inclusion policy based on corpus data that shows a sustained usage of the particular lexical item. Target users can also be probed on this issue as part of the broader empirical study that must precede the compilation process. Questionnaires can be set up that present the different lexical items and the respondents can give feedback on which terms are generally used in their communities. Once an inclusion policy for loan words and neologisms has been formulated, it must be implemented consistently and adequately explained in the user's guide.

#### **3.2.2.5 Names**

A consistently applied inclusion policy is also critical in the treatment of names in the proposed dictionary. It could be argued that the inclusion of names of people, places, festivals, etc. would be more appropriate in an encyclopaedia or encyclopaedic dictionary, or, to a lesser degree, in a comprehensive or standard descriptive dictionary. In a small school dictionary, with its restrictions on space, names are not usually included in the macrostructure, though some may find their way into the back matter texts (see 5.3.4.2). There are some exceptions, though, that may demand lemmatisation. One such exception, i.e. the names of religious holidays, will be examined and employed to illustrate the problems that accompany the inclusion of names in the macrostructure of a school dictionary.

Cultural bias and sensitivity are two obstacles in the path of even the most well-intentioned lexicographer. Both SAOSD and SADJS include names of religious holidays or festivals. In SAOSD a healthy balance is maintained between names from three prominent religions, Christianity, Islam and Judaism. The names of two prominent Christian holidays are lemmatised, i.e. **Christmas** and **Easter**, as are two Islamic holidays, i.e. **Ramadan** and **Eid**, and one Judaic holiday, i.e.

**Hanukkah.** SADJS does include **Christmas** and **Easter**, but of the other three only **Ramadan** has been selected. This could give the impression that there is Christian bias in SADJS. Unfortunately the inclusion policy regarding names is not stated explicitly in either dictionary and this oversight does expose the compiler(s) to possible criticism. The inclusion of names is a sensitive and potentially explosive issue that must be defused by means of a fair, consistently applied inclusion policy that is clearly stated in the user's guide.

### **3.3 Ordering procedures**

#### **3.3.1 Introduction**

Typological decisions that are based on the user perspective not only influence the selection of macrostructural elements, but also the ordering principles at work in the macrostructure.

#### **3.3.2 The standard outer access structure**

In the proposed dictionary the macrostructure and standard outer access structure will, to a large degree, correspond to one another. This makes it imperative that the ordering principles enable the target users to gain access to the data contained in the dictionary article as swiftly as possible. As was suggested in 2.3 and will be confirmed in 5.2.2.1.2 an initial alphabetic ordering system is the only system that can meet the needs of junior secondary learners in the current dictionary culture. Initial alphabetical ordering presents immediate access, especially to the less advanced user of school dictionaries, whereas thematic ordering, albeit a semantically satisfactory system, is too abstract to provide swift access to all the target users in a paper-based dictionary.

A system following strict initial alphabetic ordering is, however, not without possible disruptions. As will be shown, sublemmas and idioms treated as

sublemmas can cause a disruption from within the dictionary article. There are also potential disruptions at the head of the dictionary article, e.g. variant spelling forms, homonyms, compound lexical items with the lemma as a constituent part and abbreviations.

### **3.3.2.1 Variant spelling forms**

The compilers of a junior secondary school dictionary may very well find that more than one variant spelling form need to be lemmatised, as all these forms meet the frequency requirements for inclusion. In order to deal with these cases effectively the lexicographer must decide on a uniform system and apply it consistently. A possible approach would be to group all the variant spelling forms together in one article. Though this is lexicologically a satisfactory system, it clashes with the practical ideal of a strict initial alphabetic macrostructure, especially as the varying components can cause significant alphabetical distance. Should the option be taken to further save space by indicating the varying component between brackets on the lemma sign (as is the practice in many general dictionaries), it could result "in a certain loss of information, as it is not possible to tell which is the main form and which is the variant" (Svensén 1993:65).

One possible alternative to the listing of variant spelling forms in one article is to create separate articles with full microstructural treatment for all the forms. Frequency indicators, labels or other entries could then be used to point out differences in frequency. Such a system may be the ideal system for use in, for example, a comprehensive dictionary, but in the proposed dictionary (where space is at a premium) it is not practical.

The use of lexicographical cross-references presents a third, more viable alternative. The lexicographer can use the corpus data to identify the primary spelling variant. From here Schnorr's (1991:2814) suggestion can be

considered, i.e. that "a non-normative dictionary will list both forms, treat the word in one place, and cross-refer the other form". The lexicographer can give a microstructural treatment, including an item giving the meaning description at the most frequently used form, mention the less frequent forms there and create reference entries with limited microstructural treatment for those forms.

The system proposed above is based solely on frequency and commits the lexicographer to no normative judgements regarding the validity of different spelling forms. This fact will be very important to the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary, as this dictionary will probably, as was shown in 2.4.5, contain some dialectal and other variation that must be dealt with sensitively and in a non-judgemental way. On a macrostructural level it also solves the problem of a potential disruption of initial alphabetic ordering.

### **3.3.2.2 Homonyms**

In addition to dealing with variant spelling forms, the macrostructure should allow relisting of the same spelling form in some cases, particularly when dealing with homonyms. The creative use of structural indicators and the adequate explanation of these markers in the user's guide must aid the user to understand this potentially confusing practice. The lexicographer needs to be particularly careful in dealing with the indication, explanation and ordering of homonyms.

#### **3.3.2.2.1 The indication and explanation of homonymy in junior secondary school dictionaries**

A solid case can be made out for innovation in the indication of homonymy in learners' dictionaries. Innovative measures are also taken in some learners' dictionaries such as COBUILD and CIDE. In both these dictionaries no distinction is made between homonymy and polysemy. In CIDE, though, both proper senses and those that could have been seen as representing different

homonyms, are introduced by a very powerful, communicative aid, i.e. the guide word (see 5.2.2.1.2).

Very little research has been done on the merits or demerits of indicating homonyms in school dictionaries. There are, however, good arguments in favour of the consistent indication of homonyms in a junior secondary school dictionary. This view can be supported by a sound pedagogical argument. Learners are expected to master the concept of homonymy at this stage of learning. A clear separation of homonyms provides an easy platform for facilitating the learning of this concept. Neither the denial of the difference between homonymy and polysemy (as practised in CIDE), nor a simple separation of entries provide this platform. Both systems fail to present unique, clear systems of dealing with homonymy. In the case of CIDE the guide words that introduce each search zone are powerful indicators, but the same system is used to discriminate between homonyms, senses and different syntactic functions. This can create uncertainty in the minds of learners and lessen the dictionary's value as an interactive, pedagogical tool, especially in an example such as **fail** in CIDE, where keywords are applied in abundance to discriminate between all three. A simple separation of entries, where homonyms are relisted without a differentiating structural indicator to introduce them, may also cause confusion, as an accurate, unambiguous, early indication of the reason for the separation of entries is then not given. This can create an additional problem, as some dictionaries present homographs as separate entries without further indication on the lemma sign. Ideally, homonyms and homographs should be presented differently, so that it is easier for the learner to internalise the distinction between the two concepts.

The above argument clearly states the need for a clear indicator of homonymy, but the lexicographer also needs to decide on what type of structural indicator to use. It could further be argued that numerical indicators are the appropriate choice for introducing homonyms. Firstly, one can argue that the numerical



indication of homonyms is the dominant international system. A school dictionary not only has a vital role to play in the transfer of linguistic knowledge. It must also prepare the user to be a life-long user of dictionaries. In order to achieve this it needs to balance innovation with the use of dominant international structural conventions. In the case of the indication of homonyms, one could argue that it would serve the pedagogical purpose better to maintain the numerical indication of homonyms. However, the communicative value of the dictionary could be enhanced if an innovative non-typographical structural indicator, such as a danger sign, triangle, etc., is employed. Not enough research has been done yet to weigh up the advantages and disadvantages of numerical as opposed to more explicit indicators. Such a study should form part of the empirical research that precedes the compilation process.

Should a numerical indication system be adopted for use in the proposed dictionary, a further choice needs to be made. A very common practice in international lexicography is to have a superscripted number following the lemma to indicate a homonym. Another viable option is to place the superscripted number in front of the lemma, as is the practice in WAT. Users would then encounter the homonym number sooner on their search path, thereby improving the user-friendliness of a junior secondary school dictionary even further. More research needs to be done, though, to determine whether it is of any consequence to the target users of the proposed dictionary to first receive the indication and then the lemma sign, or first the lemma sign and then a clear indicator.

Both SADJS and SAOSD employ a numerical indication, with a superscript number following each homonym. This system is applied consistently and in both cases detailed explanations are provided in their respective user's guides. The explanations given for the use of these numbers are adequate, but they do raise questions regarding another problem the lexicographer faces, i.e. explaining the nature of homonymy to the target user. Without a detailed,

accurate explanation of homonymy, the user cannot be expected to grasp the macrostructural implications of this concept.

SAOSD's treatment of homonyms is explained in the key to entries under the heading "Entries" as follows, "Words with the same spelling but with a different meaning or origin are given separate entries numbered with raised figures". Various sources including De Stadler (1989: 62), Louw (1998: 41) and Zgusta (1971: 77) point out that homonyms simply differ in meaning, and not necessarily in origin (see Louw 1998: 46). SAOSD's explanation errs by saying too much.

SADJS's corresponding explanation is simpler and less restrictive, simply stating that "when two or more words have the same spelling, they are numbered". Neither of these explanations clarifies the difference between homographs and homonyms, though. Furthermore, both use the term "words", thereby negating the possibility of homonymy existing between multilexical or sublexical lexical items. Lastly, the terms "homonymy" and "homonyms" are never mentioned, but only explained.

A future South African junior secondary school dictionary should correct these errors by employing a clear indication of homonymy (possibly numerical indicators with the number preceding the lemma) and by using a clear explanation in the user's guide. This explanation must incorporate the term "homonym" and must be usable in a classroom context.

#### **3.3.2.2 Determining a sort order of homonyms in junior secondary school dictionaries**

In addition to a sound system of indicating homonymy, a future South African junior secondary school dictionary should employ an equally sound, well-conceived method of ordering the homonyms. Very little has been written in metalexicographical sources about which principles this system should be based

on. Yet the accepted lexicographic practice is that the homonyms will be arranged according to either historical or empirical criteria.

Most diachronic dictionaries such as historical and etymological dictionaries opt for a historical sort order for homonyms, mainly ranging from the oldest homonym to the newest. This presupposes the use of a well-balanced corpus to authenticate the ordering. Since the start of the explosive growth in computerised lexicography, adequate, well-balanced corpora for English have become increasingly easy to obtain or construct and currently few mainstream dictionaries are compiled without the use of a corpus. This holds true for diachronic as well as synchronic dictionaries. In synchronic dictionaries preference is usually given to the empirical ordering of homonyms, thus necessitating the use of a well-balanced corpus to determine the frequency of use of each homonym.

The empirical system is implemented across the spectrum of synchronic contemporary descriptive dictionaries including the WAT, a comprehensive synchronic dictionary, the COD, a standard descriptive dictionary and LDOCE, a pedagogical advanced learners' dictionary. In LDOCE (1987: F30) it is stated that the ordering of homographs (in this sense the term "homograph" also encompasses homonyms) "depends on how common they are: the most frequently used words come first". This is in accordance with the guiding lexicographic principle that one must preferably find the lemma one searches for "in the very first place you look" (Haas 1967: 48) on the outer search path.

The target users of SADJS and SAOSD have the right to expect the same measure of explicitness shown by LDOCE concerning the explanation of the ordering of homonyms. Unfortunately SADJS and SAOSD fail them in this regard, and the users are left to deduce a pattern from the entries themselves.

The entries show that these dictionaries do seem to adhere to an empirical system of ordering homonyms, at least in cases where the difference in frequency of use is obvious enough not to have to be determined by consulting a corpus. This is the case, for example, in a homonym group such as **pile**, where both dictionaries list the frequently used noun **pile**, which can, among other things, be paraphrased as "a number of things on top of one another" (SAOSD), before another noun **pile** that refers to "the upright threads of a carpet that give it a soft raised surface". The case is far less clear cut in a homonym group such as **post** where it is unclear which homonym is more frequently used.

Both dictionaries list **post**, defined in SADJS as "a long piece of wood, metal, etc., usually fixed upright in the ground", first. However, they differ on the ordering of the homonyms to follow, with SADJS giving preference to **post** meaning "a job" or "a place of duty" over the **post** concerning, for example, letters and parcels. SAOSD defines this last **post** as "1 the collecting and delivering of letters, parcels, etc." and "2 these letters and parcels etc." and then lists it before SADJS's second **post**. The fact that neither dictionary justifies its decision based on corpus material leaves the user to deduce that the lexicographers based their choices either on personal preference or on lexicographic tradition. Neither of these principles is justifiable in modern lexicographic practice. In COBUILD, which is based on the authoritative Bank of English corpus, the ordering differs substantially. The homonym group also consists of three homonyms and these are arranged and broadly categorised as follows: "**post 1** letters, parcels and information", "**post 2** jobs and places" and "**post 3** poles". COBUILD stresses that this is mainly valid for British English, but the general adherence in South Africa to British English as norm (as is illustrated by the general preference of **post** over **mail**) would suggest that this is also the ordering most South Africans would find closest to their frequency of use. Any future South African junior secondary school dictionary needs to be compiled with the aid of an authoritative, well-balanced corpus of South African English. This is the only method that would ensure a consistent, easily understandable

ordering of homonyms. This system must then be explained clearly in the user's guide.

### **3.3.2.2.3 Homonyms that do not have the same part of speech**

The lexicographical treatment of **post** as a homonym group in SADJS and SAOSD also points to two salient obstacles in the path of learners. Not all lexical items necessarily have a single syntactic function and not all homonyms in a homonym group necessarily have the same syntactic function or functions. The first obstacle will be dealt with comprehensively in 4.4.2.2.5.

The second obstacle a lexicographer has to overcome when confronted with different parts of speech is to determine whether there are two or more lexemes of one lexical item, or whether there are separate lexical items to consider. If there are true homonyms, the lexicographer must again face the challenge of indicating and ordering them as separate lemmas in a user-friendly way.

Whereas the indication of grammatically diverse homonyms is usually the same as the indication of grammatically equivalent homonyms, the ordering systems used may differ in synchronic dictionaries. The historical system of ordering may still be discounted (for the same reasons stated in section 3.3.2.2.2), but it cannot automatically be replaced by an empirical ordering. A fixed, hierarchical ordering according to parts of speech can be a viable alternative to empirical ordering.

The merit in using an empirically determined sort order mainly depends on the balance of the corpus used. Even in cases where a well-balanced corpus is used, though, it is not clear whether learners would prefer this system. It can be argued that learners would prefer the empirical system because they would expect to find the most frequently used homonym first and that they would intuitively gauge this frequency. On the other hand, it may be argued that learners would gain more from the consistency offered by a fixed, hierarchical

ordering according to parts of speech, as they would then be able to anticipate the order before entering the standard outer search path. This is further supported by the view that learners, especially second-language speakers, do not necessarily have the linguistic intuition to be able to gauge frequency and would therefore prefer a more predictable ordering system. The presentation of data on frequency of use in the proposed dictionary could, however, dispel this concern.

It is important, though, that these assumptions are supported empirically. The compilers of a future junior secondary school dictionary will benefit from a detailed study of user expectations regarding ordering, with the ordering of homonyms that do not have the same part of speech as an important component. Such a study has unfortunately not yet been done with junior secondary school learners as test subjects, but can be conducted as part of the dictionary plan of a future junior secondary school dictionary. This study will also benefit pedagogical lexicography and metalexicography as a whole.

Neither of the dictionaries under discussion makes any mention of such a study being conducted in the planning process. Furthermore, they do not explain the ordering system in their user's guides. Once again the dictionary user, who is probably going to be a lexicographically inexperienced learner, is left to deduce the ordering used from the treatment in the central list.

One can easily deduce that a fixed, hierarchical ordering according to parts of speech was not employed in either of these dictionaries. At **defect** in SAOSD, for example, the verb precedes the noun, but at **match** this order is reversed. At **stick** and **use** in SADJS the verb precedes the noun, but the noun precedes the verb at **loom**.

The dictionary user can therefore reasonably assume that the lexicographers based their ordering on estimated frequency. As was the case with the ordering

of homonyms with the same parts of speech their ordering decisions are not always the same as those taken by COBUILD, which is based entirely on corpus data. In a case such as **spell** where the verb is proven by COBUILD to be the most frequently used word in the homonym group, both SADJS and SAOSD have chosen to lemmatise the noun first.

The number of inconsistencies in SADJS and SAOSD show that neither ordering system was rigidly applied. It could be that a hybrid system came into being either intentionally or unintentionally in the compilation process, but this is lexicographically unacceptable as it confuses the dictionary user and undermines the principle of user-friendliness. The compilers of a future junior secondary school dictionary must rectify the errors of SAOSD and SADJS by (a) choosing a user-friendly system of ordering homonyms with different parts of speech (b) based on an empirical needs assessment study, (c) apply this system consistently and (d) explain the system well in the user's guide.

### **3.3.2.3 Compound lexical items**

The inclusion of compound lexical items provides another difficult macrostructural challenge to the compiler of a monolingual English dictionary. This challenge is rooted in, especially, the variation in spelling of these compound lexical items, the appropriateness of sublemmatisation to the target user group and the question of transparency. In the following paragraphs the treatment of compound nouns will be used as an example, as this category best illustrate the variety of problems faced in the macrostructural treatment of compound lexical items.

Béjoint (1999: 81) comments that using "graphic cohesion" as a criterion to distinguish compound nouns "is difficult to apply, particularly in English, because of the variations in spelling: an English compound noun like *paper clip* can have the forms XY, X Y, or X-Y". He (1999: 82) adds that "this makes the automatic

extraction of compounds particularly difficult in English". The lexicographer should obviously not have trouble identifying those compounds of the type "XY" or "X-Y" and considering them for lemmatisation or sublemmatisation, but those of the type "X Y" can be a more challenging prospect. As is hinted at by Béjoint, it is often difficult to extract these from corpora, especially if one does not have sophisticated software with corpus-querying tools that can sort according to context on the right of the search term. This problem underlines, once again, the need for such software in the compilation of the proposed dictionary. Furthermore, it can be very difficult to determine whether the combination dealt with is a compound noun or a collocation. Here the lexicographer's intuition, as an advanced language user, will play an important role, but more scientific criteria can be identified to aid in the task. Béjoint (1999: 82) lists some of these criteria as "non-compositionality", "position of the stress", "frequency", and "lexical unity". For a more detailed discussion of these criteria, see Béjoint (1999: 82).

Once a method of distinguishing between collocations and multi-word compound nouns has been found, the treatment of this type of compound noun in the proposed dictionary can be contemplated. These compound nouns should be treated in the same way as single-word or hyphenated compound nouns, because "despite the blank, these compounds will be identified as one concept and therefore one base form ..." (Schnorr 1991: 2815). The question then arises whether compound nouns should be included as lemmas or sublemmas.

As will be shown in 3.5, the use of sublemmas can be an important space-saving mechanism when they are given a limited microstructural treatment (e.g. just part-of-speech indication). Yet, there are serious reservations regarding their appropriacy for use in a school dictionary, which must be addressed by any prospective compiler. Firstly, either nesting or niching must be identified as the user-friendliest ordering method. Secondly, the compiler(s) must discern which types of morphologically complex items can be sublemmatised. Thirdly, the level



of textual condensation of the specific sublemma signs must be addressed, as, for example, omitting the part of the sublemma that corresponds to the lemma can save space, but could also alienate the target user group if they do not understand this procedure. Compound nouns present a particularly taxing task to the lexicographer when being considered for sublemmatisation.

In many dictionary projects the decision to lemmatise or sublemmatise depends on the level of transparency of the compound noun. Should a compound noun be deemed transparent, i.e. that the sum of the meanings of its constituent parts is equal to the meaning of the whole, it is often sublemmatised and given a limited microstructural treatment. Transparency is, however, a highly subjective criterion that requires the lexicographer to make assumptions as to which compound nouns the target users of the dictionary may experience as transparent. Béjoint (1999: 84) correctly surmises that "the actual transparency of a compound noun varies according to the ability of each language user to understand its elements".

The assumption of transparency is particularly difficult in the compilation of a junior secondary school dictionary, as there is a considerable difference between the linguistic skills and intuition of the lexicographer and the target user group. Furthermore, the target user group is a diverse group with great variation anticipated in the linguistic skills and intuition of its individual members. One could add to this dilemma that, even if the constituent parts of a compound noun are recognised by the user, confusion could still arise as to which senses of the constituents are activated by their functions in the whole. A good case can therefore be made out that the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary should not readily assume transparency, but rather give a full microstructural treatment to each compound noun that meets the frequency requirements for inclusion. The lemmatisation of compound nouns, as guiding elements of default single articles, would be one way of achieving this goal.

Both SADJS and SAOSD have a somewhat unusual approach to the treatment of compound nouns. In both dictionaries compound nouns of the variety XY and X-Y are usually lemmatised, whereas those of the variety X Y are sublemmatised, but, curiously, given detailed microstructural treatment. Examples of this type of treatment are provided by **grandfather clock** (sublemmatised under **grandfather** in both SADJS and SAOSD), **further education** (sublemmatised under **further** in SADJS) and **rat race** (sublemmatised under **rat** in SAOSD). This treatment is not always applied consistently. SAOSD, for example, gives **sulphuric acid** full lemma status, whereas it could (following similar examples in SAOSD) have been sublemmatised under **sulphur**.

The sublemmatisation procedures for compound nouns that are followed in SADJS and SAOSD can be motivated from the point of view that it places these items where they morphologically belong. More research does, however need to be done to determine whether the target users of the dictionary would expect to find these items as sublemmas. It may be contended that giving these items full lemma status and ignoring the space when ordering them in with single-word lemmas would better meet the user expectations and be less confusing. It would also solve the problems presented by decisions based on perceived transparency. These assumptions do, however, need to be tested empirically as part of a broader study of the users' needs and expectations, which should, in turn, lead to a decision that must be consistently applied throughout the dictionary. Such a decision should also then apply to all compound lexical items, and not just compound nouns.

#### **3.3.2.4 Abbreviations**

Abbreviations may play an important role in the proposed dictionary. Not only should the editorial abbreviations used in the dictionary itself (if any) be included as a separate list in the front matter, but common abbreviations and

abbreviations from that sphere of technical language that fall within the dictionary's inclusion policy, should also be included.

Svensén (1993: 67) shows that there are predominantly two ways in which abbreviations can be included in a dictionary and he comments that "in the past the commonest way was to list them separately in an appendix". He goes on to state that "nowadays there is an increasing tendency to include them in their alphabetical places in the main list", in which case the full stops that separate some abbreviations are ignored in the sort order. There is also a third method, whereby abbreviations are listed and treated in bulk at the start of each alphabetical article stretch. More research still needs to be done to determine which method suits the users of the proposed dictionary best, but there is no evidence to suggest that the initial alphabetic ordering system should be disrupted in this case. In both SADJS and SAOSD abbreviations are included and treated in their alphabetical places and this system could be emulated in the proposed dictionary.

However, a case could be made on pedagogical grounds for a return to listing the abbreviations as a separate outer text. As abbreviations and their full forms are often taught as a subject of study in and of themselves, it may be advantageous to the user to find them listed separately where rapid access can be gained. The relevance of this procedure as well as the preferential placement of such an outer text needs to be probed as part of the proposed empirical research and should be stated clearly in the dictionary plan.

### **3.3.3 Advanced ordering strategies**

In addition to clearing up any potential disruptions to a strict initial alphabetical ordering strategy, the lexicographer must also plan the advanced ordering strategies within this broader ordering strategy carefully. It can happen that the orthographic forms of some separate main or sublemmas differ only because of

upper or lower case, diacritics, full stops (e.g. at abbreviations), spaces or hyphens in the lemma, or a hyphen at the end. For these cases the lexicographer needs to either set up a fixed sort order, or decide to make frequency the determining factor. Advanced ordering strategy is yet another aspect of dictionary use and user expectations that needs to be clarified through empirical research. Once clarified it needs to be systematised in the form of a carefully designed access alphabet that must be applied consistently throughout the central list and explained well in the user's guide.

### **3.4 Lexical, sublexical and multilexical lemmas**

#### **3.4.1 Introduction**

The fact that lexicographers find it difficult to employ a consistent approach to multi-word compound lexical items that have to be included as treatment units (as discussed in 3.3.2.3), points to an underlying conundrum in macrostructural selection. Single words included as lexical lemmas have traditionally dominated the macrostructural selection policies of many dictionaries. Gouws (1989:84) tries to present an alternative model, by suggesting that *the lexicographer, in the selection of macrostructural elements, shifts the focus from headwords that represent the words of a language to lemmas that represent the lexical items of that language* (own translation). It needs to be ascertained to what extent such a paradigm shift has taken hold in SAOSD and SADJS and to what extent sub- and multilexical lexical items need to be included in the proposed dictionary.

#### **3.4.2 Lexical lemmas**

Single words can be expected to provide the bulk of the lemma-base of the proposed dictionary. In most cases the lexicographer will then strive to reduce a lexical lemma to the base form of the word. "To arrive at the base form writers and users of a dictionary have to transform a given word form by a process of

deinflection and disambiguation" (Schnorr 1991: 2813). Schnorr (1991: 2814) does mention that variant spelling forms, male and female forms and homonyms are exceptions to this rule and that, in cases where a word is only used in the plural or diminutive, deinflection is impractical.

### **3.4.3 Sublexical lemmas**

#### **3.4.3.1 Introduction**

Sublexical lexical items provide a second possible lexical source from which lemmas can be extracted. Sublexical lemmas can be of particular importance in a pedagogical dictionary, as is attested to by Svensén (1993: 67), when he states that:

These types of headword have a special function in that they do not directly give the meaning of words which may be encountered in a text. Instead they equip the user with a key to the systematics of word-formation and provide a means of working out by analogy the meaning of words which are not included in their complete form.

Though most of these sublexical lemmas have their own meanings (that need to be reflected in the dictionary), their most important function in a pedagogical dictionary lies in the fact that they "have a high word-generating potential for the encoding user" (Stein 1985: 38). As was asserted in 2.4.6 the proposed dictionary must facilitate encoding use, especially in the classroom context and therefore sublexical lemmas should form part of the lemma base.

The discussion that follows will focus on two types of sublexical lexical items, i.e. stems and affixes, and their treatment in SAOSD and SADJS. Detailed discussion and classification are beyond the scope of this dissertation, but salient problems for the compiler of the proposed dictionary will be discussed. For more detail on the lexicological distinction between and lexicographical treatment of these types of sublexical lexical items, see Gouws (1989: 85-96).

### 3.4.3.2 Stems

Stems can be considered for inclusion as sublexical lemmas, provided the criteria for their inclusion are clearly defined and strictly adhered to. Gouws (1989: 88-89) sets some useful criteria in this regard, by referring to the differences between the stem and the corresponding free lexical item that could lead to the stem having a "marked lexical value". This could be caused by (a) the stem variant having (an) additional sense(s) or (b) the dominant sense of the corresponding free lexical item not being present in the sense paradigm of the stem. Such a marked lexical value could represent a reason for the inclusion of the stem as a sublexical lemma. The compilers of SAOSD recognise, for example, a marked lexical value at the sublexical lemma **self-**, which is given "automatic" as a so-called synonym definition in its second sense. This lexical value is not present in the main lemma and justifies the inclusion of **self-** (albeit wrongly indicated in SAOSD as a prefix).

Another, more pragmatic criterion for the inclusion of stem lemmas, pertains to their productivity. In dictionaries that have a very wide range of the lexicon as their potential lemma base, stem lemmas can be employed to systematically introduce large sublemma paradigms or to introduce sublemmas that act as a representative collection of examples of the combinatory potential of the stem (as is the practice in WAT, for example). In a school dictionary, however, where the lemma base covers only the core lexicon and an immediate transfer of data is emphasised, the productivity criterion is not necessarily valid.

In summary, Gouws's (1989: 89) general warning provides a good guideline for the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary to adhere to:

In his treatment of lexical items the lexicographer must take heed not to include a sublexical lemma that cannot be motivated either semantically ... or grammatically. The article of a sublexical lemma may not duplicate the data in that of the lexical lemma (own translation).

### **3.4.3.3 Affixes**

Affixes are particularly important in the encoding use of school dictionaries. Prefixes need consistent treatment, but it is often in the search for suffixes or other affixes that do not appear at the beginning of a word that dictionary users are thwarted.

Prefixes and suffixes that meet the frequency requirements need to be lemmatised in the proposed dictionary, but it will be a challenge to extract the necessary data from the corpus or corpora used in the compilation process. Thankfully corpus querying tools are becoming more advanced and can go some way in helping to provide frequency counts of affixes, but a high measure of morphological knowledge is still a prerequisite for the lexicographer to recognise the affixes. Where corpus querying tools are inadequate, advanced text editors (such as those used for creating CD-ROM dictionaries) can, with some programming input, provide detailed data about affixes and their use, should the corpus be imported into such a software application. This will enable the compiler(s) to make judgements on inclusion based solely on empirical grounds.

The lexicographer faces some more difficult decisions after choosing the affixes to be lemmatised, mainly pertaining to their microstructural treatment. Data on morphology (i.e. which types of lexical items the affixes join with) and semantic data are particularly important. Semantic data should be presented consistently, specifically items giving paraphrases of meaning, as well as data on polysemy (see Gouws 1989: 96), synonyms, antonyms, etc. Other data types such as data on pronunciation and pragmatic data should also be given.

The presentation of data on morphology can have macrostructural implications. In some dictionaries (such as WAT) examples of potential derivatives are listed after a broader description of which word classes the affixes join with. Some of

these derivatives are lemmatised elsewhere, in which case they are given in italics, but most are simply sublemmatised under the sublexical lemma with very limited microstructural treatment of their own. However, as was suggested in 3.4.3.2 and will be explicated in 3.5, sublemmatisation is not necessarily the best choice in a school dictionary and should be used sparingly.

What users do need, though, "are collocation restrictions with respect to the semantic classes" (Stein 1985: 39) of the words that the lemmatised affix can combine with. An early indication of which part of speech the affix combines with and which part of speech results from this merger is a prerequisite, but this does not do enough. Examples of derivatives already lemmatised elsewhere can be listed in the article of the affix to aid in making the patterns of combination clear, e.g. to help distinguish why some adjectives take **un-** (e.g. *unwise*) and some **im-** (e.g. *improper*, *impractical*). The items giving paraphrases of meaning can further aid in pointing out nuance differences between seemingly synonymous affixes. Yet, even after all these mechanisms have been employed, it is reasonable to expect that a user's linguistic intuition will still play a part in ensuring that affixes are not wrongly combined with certain words.

There is, however, another way in which the lexicographer can accommodate the user. Should the proposal of an expanded mini-grammar (see 5.3.2.3) be accepted for the proposed dictionary, rule formulations and examples of word-formation processes can be presented there. At the sublexical lemma, cross-references can then be given to guide the user who needs more guidance, to the correct place in the mini-grammar. The consistent implementation of such text-external cross-references will be imperative to the success of the dictionary as an interactive communicative and pedagogical aid.



#### **3.4.3.4 Current treatment in SAOSD and SADJS**

SAOSD and SADJS do include sublexical lexical items as lemmas, but their methods bear witness to some of the problems caused by the lack of consistent editorial procedures based on empirical data. This includes the lack of consistent inclusion policies that are adequately explained in the front matter. Firstly, the two dictionaries do not include the same types of sublexical lexical items. SAOSD mainly includes stems and prefixes, whereas SADJS opts against including stems, but contains a large number of prefixes and some suffixes.

Secondly, the fact that the two dictionaries often do not include the same prefixes as sublexical lemmas and that relatively high-frequency affixes are not included in especially SADJS, attests to the dilemmas faced when dictionaries are not compiled based on solid corpus data. COBUILD (a corpus-based learners' dictionary) includes, for example, the prefix **re-** as a sublexical lemma. SAOSD also contains **re-**, but it is a notable omission from SADJS.

Thirdly, the limited microstructural treatment and especially the lack of detailed data on combinatory possibilities can be detrimental to the user-friendliness of these dictionaries. To their credit, both dictionaries do provide items giving the paraphrases of meaning and also examples of possible combinations. Yet, combinatory restrictions are not dealt with extensively, whereas other grammatical issues, e.g. irregular verbs, spelling rules, etc., do receive extensive treatment in the outer texts of the dictionaries.

The compilers of the proposed dictionary can break new ground in the treatment of stems and affixes, not just by merely following an inclusion policy based on empirical data and state of the art data extraction techniques, but also by ensuring that this inclusion policy and the corresponding microstructural treatment of the selected items, takes into account the needs of their target users.

### **3.4.4 Multilexical lemmas**

A third category of lexical item should also be considered for inclusion in the proposed dictionary: multilexical lexical items can be lemmatised as multilexical lemmas. *As a lexical item a multilexical lemma represents a single semantic unit, and the meaning of this unit cannot be deduced from the sum of the meaning of the constituent parts* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 97). Zgusta (1971: 154) adds that "for the lexicographer, the detection and correct presentation of multiword lexical units is one of his most important tasks". Yet, what this correct presentation should be is a polemic issue. It may depend on the type of dictionary and may even differ for different types of multilexical lemmas, as will be illustrated in the following discussion. On a macrostructural level the lexicographer needs to decide whether these items should be lemmatised as main lemmas, or whether they can be listed under the first prominent constituent of the multilexical lexical item. Should the latter option be preferred, methods should be found not to perpetuate the confusing practice of grouping multilexical lexical items with collocations and examples.

#### **3.4.4.1 Loan groups**

Loan groups are perhaps the multilexical lexical items that are most consistently lemmatised as main lemmas. They are lemmatised in full and the space simply ignored when determining their place in the dictionary's sort order. This is also the practice in SADJS and SAOSD, where loan groups such as **et cetera** and **post mortem** are lemmatised in full.

#### **3.4.4.2 Group prepositions**

The lexicographical treatment of group prepositions is a more disputed matter. Generally, the status of group prepositions as lexical items is not fully recognised

in current monolingual standard and school dictionaries. They are often included as collocations and not as lemmas. Furthermore, even in dictionaries where their value and search priority are recognised and they are given sublemmatic status (e.g. SADJS and SAOSD), the group preposition is often not sublemmatised under its first constituent part.

If one takes the group preposition **in aid of** as an example, it soon becomes obvious that lexicographers identify **aid** as its main element and accordingly use that lemma as the point of inclusion. This is the case in both SAOSD and SADJS where **in aid of** is given as a sublemma under **aid**. This practice unfortunately leads to the disruption of the initial alphabetical ordering principle adhered to elsewhere in these dictionaries. As will be shown in 3.4.4.3 such a disruption may be justifiable in the case of idioms, where the dictionary culture leads users to look up idioms under the first constituent that is prominent. In the case of group prepositions, though, it is uncertain whether the dictionary culture dictates this practice to the same measure. It could therefore be contended that the users of a school dictionary may well be better served by listing group prepositions consistently as full multilexical lemmas. This would also be a lexicologically sound lexicographic practice.

#### **3.4.4.3 Idioms**

Should the model employed for other multilexical lexical items be perpetuated, idioms should also be lemmatised as multilexical main lemmas. However, this is not a practical solution for the proposed dictionary. Firstly, it will not always be possible to identify the initial component of the idiom. Articles are often interchangeable or optional at the start of an idiom and other subtle variations can occur. Secondly, lemmatisation of idioms can take up more space than alternative methods. Thirdly, the current dictionary culture (perpetuated by the available dictionaries) is one in which users of school dictionaries will probably expect to find the idiom as a sublemma under the lemma corresponding to the

first word in the idiom that is considered to be semantically prominent, especially a noun, verb or adjective. This practice probably stems from the assumption that words function as independent lexical items in an idiom, rather than as constituent parts of an encompassing multilexical lexical item.

A case could be made out that a junior secondary school dictionary is the ideal place to start changing the dictionary culture in subtle ways and that the lemmatisation of idioms should therefore be considered, as it is a lexicologically and lexicographically sounder method. However, the practice of including idioms as sublemmas is so strongly entrenched that such a move may be experienced as too unconventional and therefore lead to users not finding the data they are looking for. Furthermore, the standard dictionaries, which these users are likely to use when school dictionaries stop meeting their needs, also predominantly make sublemmas of idioms and one of the functions of the junior secondary school dictionary is to prepare its users for a seamless transition to standard dictionaries. It may, therefore, be more advisable to work within these confines by making sure that idioms are clearly marked and to make the microstructural treatment of these idioms as user-friendly as it can be. It would be advisable, though, for the compilers of the proposed dictionary to test these assumptions empirically before the compilation process ensues.

SAOSD and SADJS have opted to conform to the often-used practice of including idioms as sublemmas. There is, however, a problem with their approach. As has been suggested in the previous paragraph, should idioms be included as sublemmas, they need to be clearly distinguishable from microstructural data categories. This is unfortunately not the case in SADJS and SAOSD. Multilexical compound lexical items, idioms and collocations are treated similarly, making it difficult for the user to discern between these data types. See, for example the mixed presentation of sublemmas under **love** in SADJS. The lemmatisation of multilexical compound lexical items (as proposed in 3.3.2.3) will help to alleviate this situation, but the problem of possible confusion between

collocations and idioms remains. SAOSD bears witness to this confusion at the lemma **stick**, where the idiom **stick up for** is presented in exactly the same way as the collocations **stick out** and **stick to**. All three are included as sublemmas and given near-full microstructural treatment. As neither the collocations nor the idiom are deemed as fully transparent, items giving the meaning description are provided throughout.

Gouws (1996a:5) proposes the following solution:

Belonging to separate information categories the collocations and idioms ... should be accommodated in different article positions which will leave the user with different search areas allocated to each information category. By using different typefaces or structural markers the user could be lead to a clear distinction between these two information categories.

This solution can be modified in that idioms should rather maintain their lexical item-status and function as sublemmas instead of entries within data categories in the microstructure. Collocations, on the other hand, will fit into that part of the comment or subcomment on semantics reserved for examples, but, as will be shown in 4.4.2.3.2, the possibility should still be there for less transparent collocations to be treatment units. Compilers of the proposed dictionary can also consider using an explicit structural indicator to indicate the start of the idiom group, as is practiced in WAT and HAT, for example, to ensure swift access. In terms of micro-architecture, it would also be advisable that each idiom, as well as the structural indicator that introduces the idioms, start on a new line.

### **3.5 Sublemmas**

From the preceding discussions it should be clear that not all macrostructural elements have to be included as main lemmas. Some elements, especially morphological derivatives, may be sublemmatised, either nested or niched, usually attached to the article of a lexical lemma.

In 3.3.2.3 it was shown that sublemmatisation is not necessarily the appropriate solution for dealing with compound lexical items in the proposed dictionary. Yet, other morphological derivatives that require less microstructural treatment can be considered for sublemmatisation.

Both SADJS and SAOSD include morphological derivatives as sublemmas, but, as will be shown in 4.4.3.2, inflexion is treated microstructurally in designated zones in the comment or subcomment on form. Examples of the sublemmatisation of morphological derivatives are **aptly** and **aptness** under **apt** (SADJS), **sternly** and **sternness** under **stern** (SAOSD) and **temptation** under **tempt** (SAOSD).

In these cases a limited microstructural treatment, usually consisting of part of speech indication (mainly if the sublemma differs from the lemma in this regard) and, in the cases from SADJS, data on main stress and line breaks, is provided. The logic behind this limited treatment seems to be assumed semantic transparency. SADJS states that "some words are given without definitions or examples, if their meaning is clear" (SADJS, vi) and SAOSD follows suit, stating that "words derived from the main word are often included in the same entry without definitions if their meaning can easily be worked out from that of the main word".

Nesting seems to be the ordering principle of choice in both dictionaries for sublemmas with a limited microstructural treatment. Compound lexical items are usually given fuller microstructural treatment and listed in a separate search zone to derivatives. In fact, there are very few derivatives sublemmatised in each article. Nesting is therefore not as confusing a method of ordering as it can be when more sublemmas (including compound lexical items) fall in the same search zone. The result in SADJS and SAOSD should therefore have been an uncluttered paradigm of sublemmas that can easily be accessed by the users. However, as was shown in the preceding discussions, the presentation of

compound lexical items, collocations and idioms as sublemmas without clear distinguishing structural indicators has severely impeded the accessibility of sublemmas in these dictionaries. A further complication is that there seems to be no preset, predictable order in which these different entries are listed. This will probably add to the confusion of the target user.

Once the problems regarding compound lexical items, collocations and idioms have been resolved, the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary should consider emulating the procedure of nesting morphological derivatives, as employed in SADJS and SAOSD. Two possible points of concern should, however, be heeded. Firstly, the micro-architecture within these search zones can be improved by starting the first sublemma on a new line. Though this procedure may cost some space, its benefits in facilitating easier access and increasing user-friendliness outweigh the cost. Secondly, it cannot readily be assumed that nesting is an appropriate choice for the target users of the proposed dictionary. Questions such as whether users would expect to find these items as nested sublemmas or even whether derivatives are as transparent to these users as the compilers of SADJS and SAOSD apparently believe them to be, need to be addressed in detailed empirical research that precedes the compilation of the proposed dictionary.

In some cases the sublemmatized derivative demands a more comprehensive treatment. In SAOSD these sublemmas are still presented in a run-on line and given additional microstructural treatment. The sublemma **combatant** (under **combat**), for example, not only receives the usual part of speech indication but is directly followed by an item giving data on pronunciation. In SADJS there is an improvement in the micro-architecture, with this type of sublemma being presented on a new line and given additional microstructural treatment. In this regard see **disappointed** (under **disappoint**), where examples are given to complement the part of speech indication, or **immediately** (under **immediate**), where there is an item giving the paraphrase of meaning and examples. In some

cases these morphological derivatives even obtain full or near-full microstructural treatment (see e.g. **measurement** under **measure**).

It could be argued that sublemmatisation with an intermediate microstructural treatment is useful in dealing with some derivatives deemed less transparent than those only given part of speech indication. Yet, this argument could be countermanded by the assertion that less transparent derivatives would be dealt with in a user-friendlier way if they were lemmatised as main lemmas.

The criteria according to which the extent of microstructural treatment of sublemmas in SADJS and SAOSD is determined, are unfortunately not clarified in the user's guides of the respective dictionaries. As it stands, one is left to assume that estimated transparency (which implies some measure of guesswork on the part of the lexicographer) was the principal criterion. Yet, the assumption of transparency in the compilation of the proposed dictionary has been shown in the discussion of compound nouns (see 3.3.2.3) to be a dangerous and potentially alienating practice. Should research prove that some morphological derivatives are truly deemed transparent by the target users, these items can be sublemmatised with part of speech indication (where necessary). Where there is any doubt regarding transparency, however, lemmatisation as main lemmas would present, as in the case of compound nouns, a safer, user-friendlier option.

### **3.6 The lemma and sublemma signs as macro- and microstructural elements**

From the preceding discussions it should be clear that lemmas and sublemmas have a very important macrostructural function. Lemmas *represent ... that collection of lexical items that should receive treatment and that function as the head of a dictionary article* (own translation) (Gouws 1989:75).



Yet, lemma and sublemma signs can also have several important microstructural functions. Svensén (1993:64) indicates three types of data discernable from the lemma sign, which are also relevant to the target users of the proposed dictionary: "They give information about spelling ... They ... show the use of a small or capital initial letter ... They can also show the recommended way(s) of dividing a word at the end of the line". In some dictionaries the lemma signs also present data on pronunciation, but, as will be shown in 4.3.2.2.3, the presence of transcriptions will obviate the need to perpetuate this erroneous practice in the proposed dictionary.

Lastly, the lemma or sublemma acts as the primary address of many microstructural and other elements (e.g. in outer texts). Much of the success of the microstructural and other treatment of the lemma and sublemma will depend on how clearly this fact is interpreted by the target users of the dictionary during dictionary look-up procedures. The lexicographer therefore has the responsibility to ensure that lemmas and sublemmas are prominent beacons that can easily be found and understood.

## **Chapter 4 The microstructure**

### **4.1 Introduction**

In order to construct an effective microstructure for the proposed dictionary the compiler(s) must, necessarily take note of three important aspects of the current dictionary culture. Louw (1998: 38) states these as follows:

Firstly, the dictionary user comes to the dictionary with a clear question in mind, to which he/she wants a relevant answer. Secondly, this answer should be available immediately and should thirdly be easily understandable. There is simply no time for a long, interesting expedition through a thick dictionary jungle (own translation).

In such a dictionary culture it is little wonder that the microstructural leg of many dictionary consultations begin and end with the lemma or sublemma sign. As was indicated in 3.6, one of the microstructural functions of the lemma or sublemma sign is to provide data on spelling. The results of the questionnaire distributed as part of this study show that 89% of the respondents in the grade 8 and 9 test group consult the dictionary to find the correct spelling of lexical items (see the abbreviated result page presented as Addendum B). Thankfully the results also indicate that the respondents do, during other dictionary consultations, extract other types of information from the microstructure, with, for example, 91% of them using the dictionary to find the denotative meaning of a specific lexical item. These results do, however, highlight the need for an accessible, user-friendly microstructure in which data is transferred as rapidly as possible. In order to construct such a microstructure the lexicographer first needs to plan the nature of the microstructure carefully as part of the theory of organisation of the proposed dictionary.

The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary must choose between an integrated, non-integrated, semi-integrated, primitive or rudimentary microstructure as the

main type of microstructure to be constructed. For the purposes of this dissertation, a brief discussion of two of these, i.e. the integrated and rudimentary microstructures will follow, as these are the types relevant to this study. As will be shown in the rest of this chapter, the compiler(s) should consider employing an integrated microstructure as the predominant microstructure, but in places it will be necessary to change to a rudimentary microstructure.

In an integrated microstructure what belongs together is grouped together throughout. Gouws (2001a: 87) characterises this type of microstructure as one in which "each paraphrase of meaning... is immediately followed by the co-text entry illustrating the typical usage of the lexical item in question". A rudimentary microstructure can be employed at those articles that require less than the compulsory microstructure prescribed by the dictionary plan for prototypical articles. The limited microstructural treatment of certain sublemmas (such as transparent derivatives) and condensed data transfer in reference articles provide examples of a rudimentary microstructure.

The order in which the data is presented, the type of data that needs to be grouped together and the default data categories to be present in the microstructure also need to be determined and meticulously set out in the dictionary plan. When determining the default data categories the lexicographer will further have to make a distinction between the compulsory microstructure (those default data categories present in all articles except those requiring a rudimentary microstructure) and the extended compulsory microstructure (those default data categories that are only compulsory under certain circumstances). These vital decisions that form part of the construction of the article and data distribution structures need to be documented in detail. The lexicographer will benefit greatly from the compilation of a style guide as summary of the dictionary plan. Such a style guide should not only plot the prototypical microstructural treatment, but should also be detailed enough to make provision for exceptional cases.

The following chapter will, in a sense, be a precursor to such a style guide in its detailed focus on some salient microstructural aspects of the proposed dictionary. As the results from the questionnaire have proved, the search for data on semantics is the most frequent motivation for dictionary consultation situations (see the abbreviated result page presented as Addendum B). Therefore the effective transfer of semantic data will be emphasised in this chapter. Yet it will also be shown that data on pronunciation, grammatical data, pragmatic data and etymological data should be presented in the proposed dictionary, in order for it to adequately fulfil its communicative functions and pedagogical goals.

## **4.2 Semantic data**

The concept of early exposure to internationally acceptable lexicographical practices, which was mentioned in chapter three, is also relevant to the presentation of semantic data in a junior or senior secondary school dictionary. Furthermore, as is the case with the skills necessary to find the relevant entry, the acquisition of the skills needed by the user to decode the semantic data is a difficult, time-consuming process.

### **4.2.1 Homonymy and polysemy**

The above-mentioned postulation is especially true of the attempts to understand the lexicographical application of the distinction between homonymy and polysemy in monolingual school dictionaries. Even learners on an advanced level have difficulty understanding these fundamental distinctions. It is therefore a defiance of user-friendliness if dictionaries aimed at secondary school learners do not adhere to international norms of presentation.

These norms of presentation apply most importantly to the indication and ordering of homonyms and senses and the mechanisms employed to indicate the boundary between homonymy and polysemy. Homonymy has been dealt with in detail in 3.3.2.2 and the discussion to follow will therefore be limited to the boundary between homonymy and polysemy and the indication and ordering of senses.

#### **4.2.1.1 Determining the boundary between homonymy and polysemy in junior secondary school dictionaries**

A potential stumbling-block that the lexicographer must deal with is the fluidity of meaning. This primarily impacts on the lexicographer's treatment of homonymy and polysemy, as it complicates the process of determining the boundary between homonymy and polysemy.

In this regard, Gouws (1989:125) correctly identifies a continuum with homonymy and polysemy at different poles. This continuum is valid in cases where a semantic link between senses can wither over time, so that *two senses develop into two separate lexical items* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 125). This view reiterates the point that separate etymology cannot be a prerequisite in the identification of homonyms.

The concepts of homonymy and polysemy still form part of many secondary school syllabi. Learners need to grasp this important distinction in lexical semantics in order to understand adequately the lexicon of the language learnt. They also need to be familiar with the lexicographical application of this distinction in order to obtain effective dictionary lookup skills. The lexicographer of a school dictionary must therefore reflect the difference between homonymy and polysemy in a consistent, user-friendly manner.

This is not always the case in SADJS or SAOSD. See, e.g. the treatment of **degree** in both these dictionaries.

**degree** *noun* ... **1** an amount or extent ... **2** a unit of temperature ... **3** a unit by which angles are measured ... **4** an award given by a university to a person who has passed their final examinations ...

SADJS

**degree** *noun* **1** a unit for measuring temperature. **2** a unit for measuring angles. **3** extent, *to some degree*. **4** an award to someone at a university who has successfully finished a course.

SAOSD

In both cases sense 4 is problematic. There is no discernible contemporary semantic link between it and the other senses, despite their shared Latin etymology (via the French *degré*). If these dictionaries stayed true to their typological brief, sense 4 should have been presented as a separate homonym. If it is treated as a homonym in future school dictionaries, the new homonym pair could be used effectively to illustrate the fluidity of meaning.

#### **4.2.1.2 The indication of polysemy in junior secondary school dictionaries**

##### **4.2.1.2.1 A numerical indication of polysemy**

As has been shown in the previous section, it is important that a clear distinction be made between the treatment of homonyms and that of polysemous lexical items. Senses of polysemous lexical items must be demarcated in the subcomments on semantics of a single article, preferably by means of a clear, unique system of indication. Louw (1998: 47) shows clearly how problematic the use of a weak system of indication, such as the use of semi-colons in bilingual

desk dictionaries with Afrikaans and English as a treated language pair, can be. It is further shown that clear, numerical indicators are superior structural indicators and are internationally accepted as the norm (Louw 1998: 48–49). This is especially so in monolingual dictionaries, where a standard Arabic numeral is the indicator of preference. This also manages to create an effective contrast to the superscripted, Arabic numeral often used to denote homonymy.

This system is used to good effect in both SADJS and SAOSD, with both opting for a bold Arabic numeral to introduce each sense. It is, however, questionable whether this is a distinctive enough marker to act as a beacon on the user's rapid inner search path. Firstly, it can be asked whether a more innovative structural indicator would not have captured the attention of learners better. Coloured typeface could have been employed to good effect, as was done in *Collins Pocket School Dictionary (secondary)*, where a red numeral presents an effective contrast to the black definition. If colour is not a viable option, owing to the cost involved, the compilers of a future junior secondary school dictionary could employ a system similar to the one used in BLD, where polysemy is indicated by means of a white number in a black block. Any innovation regarding sense indication can only enhance the user-friendliness of the school dictionary, but the use of an Arabic numeral, in a distinctive, innovative form or colour, could be maintained to ensure that a common international practice is conformed to. The effectiveness of a numeral as a polysemy indicator rather than other innovative structural indicators, such as danger signs, triangles etc., should, however, be probed in the empirical research preceding the compilation process of the proposed dictionary. It could be tied in with the probe into the use of superscripted numerals as homonymy indicators, which was proposed in 3.3.2.2.1.

In addition to possibly erring regarding the form of the structural indicator, both SADJS and SAOSD err by not placing this structural indicator on a new line. It can be argued that spacing each sense on a new line would take up too much

space. It can, however, be correctly counter-argued that having each new sense in a run-on line makes the rapid inner search path more arduous and detracts from the user-friendliness of the dictionaries' micro-architecture. In the two dictionaries in question the lack of an innovative structural indicator and the spacing problem conspire to make each sense relatively indistinct from the other. In *Collins Pocket School Dictionary (secondary)*, an even smaller dictionary with more space constraints, the red numeral is supplemented by the placement of each new sense on a new line. This creates a very effective, user-friendly demarcation of senses. These principles of innovation, clarity and user-friendliness should be followed in the compilation of any new school dictionary, especially in crafting the inner access structure.

#### **4.2.1.2.2 A further subdivision of senses**

The numerical system works well in practice and has been discussed extensively in metalexicographical sources, but a question which is not often raised in metalexigraphy pertains to a further subdivision in senses. Subsenses are often identified in practice, though, and the dominant method used in comprehensive and standard monolingual dictionaries seems to be a lettering system to combine with the numerical system, see e.g. **chief** from COD.

**chief** ... *n.* **1 a** a leader or ruler. **b** the head of a tribe, clan, etc. **2** the head of a department ...

COD

In comprehensive dictionaries such as the WAT, there may even be additional subdivisions. The WAT, for example, employs four levels of senses and subsenses, denoted in order by Arabic numerals, Arabic letters, small Roman numerals and Greek letters.



In smaller dictionaries, such as pocket and school dictionaries, a subdivision of senses is rarely made and much research still needs to be done to determine whether the target users will benefit from such a subdivision. In most articles with more than one sense, subsenses will probably not need to be identified as the limited microstructural scope of these dictionaries prevents large sense paradigms. Subtle differences can be dealt with in the item giving the paraphrase of meaning, usually by employing conjunctions such as "and", "or", etc. In some cases, such as **go**, it will, however, be necessary to consider subdividing the senses.

In the treatment of **go** in SADJS the user will find it difficult to identify the underlying relationships between the senses, as they are given as hierarchically equivalent senses, numbered 1-17. The user may deduce that the proximity of senses displays their related nature (e.g. sense 1 is closer on the scale of polysemy to sense 2, than to sense 17), but as there is no indication in the user's guide that senses are ordered logically, this may be a misconception.

COD treats the polysemy of **go** more sensibly, with detailed subdivisions of senses. It implies, for example, that subsenses **1 a** "start moving or be moving from one place or point of time to another" and **1 b** "proceed in order to" are closer on the continuum of polysemy to one another than to sense **2** "make a special trip for". This approach can be adopted in the proposed school dictionary for those cases in which lumping in one item giving the paraphrase of meaning would lead to a confusing, frustrating data transfer process. It should, though, be used sparingly and explained well in the user's guide. No further subdivisions should be necessary, but an exception to this rule could be dealt with according to the model employed by the WAT. It should, however, be kept in mind that an overuse of sense-subdivision could unnecessarily complicate a pedagogical dictionary's structure, which should rather be kept as easily understandable as possible.

### **4.2.1.3 Determining a sort order of senses in junior secondary school dictionaries**

Whereas there is some consensus that a numerical indication is the single most effective system of indicating polysemy in descriptive dictionaries, there is no such single system that can be used as a model for the ordering of senses. The two approaches mentioned in the ordering of homonyms, i.e. ordering according to frequency of use and a historical ordering, are also not necessarily the only ones to be considered in finding a solution to this problem.

As was the case with the ordering of homonyms, a historical sort order is not the ordering method of choice in synchronic dictionaries. Lombard (1990: 171) underlines this fact in his metalexicographical conceptualisation of the dictionary plan of a synchronic, pedagogical, monolingual dictionary for secondary school learners. Such an ordering system would defy the linguistic intuition of more advanced learners and could lead to less advanced learners misinterpreting the semantic spectrum of a given lexical item. It would therefore not be a viable option for the proposed dictionary and should be reserved for diachronic dictionaries.

#### **4.2.1.3.1 An empirical approach to the ordering of senses**

The user of a descriptive junior secondary school dictionary is more likely to anticipate, whether consciously or subconsciously, an ordering system in which senses are ordered according to frequency of use, with the senses arranged from most to least frequent. Should learners not yet have developed this intuitive anticipation, the dictionary can be an important aid in facilitating the cultivation of such intuition.

This basic notion of ordering senses according to frequency of use has evolved through the years, both in practice and theory, into a scientifically acceptable ordering system, i.e. the empirical system of the ordering of senses. The basic tenets of this system are based on a belief that, in addition to the lexicographer's intuition of what is most frequent and elementary corpus data, scientific criteria such as the register and style of the sense also play a role in determining its place in the hierarchy. Svensén (1993:213) suggests the following pattern to determine a hierarchy of use:

1. unmarked general language
2. current but stylistically marked general language
3. technical language
4. regional language
5. archaic and literary language

Svensén adds that this order is relative, especially in terms of items 2 and 3, but it does present a useful guideline for the lexicographer. An alternative to this pattern was provided by Mostert (1984:83 and following pages):

1. general and frequently used senses
2. archaic senses
3. colloquial and dialectal senses
4. slang
5. technical senses

Gouws (1989:135) comments on this pattern as follows,

By using this ordering, lexicographical prominence is given to those senses that are best known and the typical dictionary user will want to look up ... This method is geared to the fast retrieval of the semantic data (own translation).

Of the two ordering hierarchies, Svénson's seems to suit the typological profile of the proposed dictionary best. Archaic language will have very little prominence in the proposed dictionary and should therefore be at the bottom. It can also be argued that the emphasis on the representation of SSAE would necessitate the

placement of "unmarked general language" at the top. The allocation of the three places in the middle are, however, debatable as all three types of language have been identified as important exceptions to an inclusion policy based solely on reflecting the standard variety. A solid case could be made for the inclusion of regional and dialectal language in the second place, as the proposed dictionary must reflect the restandardisation of SSAE (see 2.4.5 and 3.2.2.1). It will be difficult to decide between "technical language" and "current but stylistically marked general language" for the third place. It could be argued that the importance of technical language drawn from the school curricula could necessitate its prominence in the proposed dictionary, with "current but stylistically marked general language" placed fourth. Such an ordering hierarchy could then meet the specific needs of the proposed dictionary's target users.

#### **4.2.1.3.2 Regional language and sense ordering**

One potential problem shared by the arrangements of Svensén and Mostert is the position in the hierarchy of regional language. As Svensén (1993:213) points out, "in English dictionaries even regional language has a high ranking in so far as American English is concerned". It is, however, not only senses which are predominantly or uniquely American that should be considered for a higher ranking in the pattern. As Hartmann (1992: 152) states, one must approach a dictionary "in its own context. Dictionaries are the product of a particular age and location". It is entirely possible that learners using a South African dictionary with English as the treated language would expect senses which are predominantly or uniquely South African to have a high ranking in a sense paradigm.

A good example is provided by the lemma **robot**. It can be used to refer to "a group of three lights that change colours to control traffic at intersections etc." (SADJS). COD marks this sense of the word as predominantly or uniquely South African and orders it in the last position. SAOSD, which purports to be a South African dictionary, also orders it last. However, it could be argued that speakers

of South African English would recognise this sense as the most frequent. SADJS concurs and places this sense first, before "a machine that works like a human being". The principle of placing frequently used, regional senses first should be considered carefully before a new South African school dictionary is compiled.

#### **4.2.1.3.3 The role of corpora in determining a sort order of senses**

The exact sequence of the senses may differ in the patterns set up by Mostert and Svensén, but they did provide an important, objective ordering guideline for lexicographers. Since these patterns were drawn up the lexicographical landscape has, however, changed dramatically. Reliable, well-balanced, computer-based corpora of contemporary English have become readily available or, alternatively, increasingly easy to generate in-house. Vast improvements in the concordance components of corpus-querying tools or software have further allowed the lexicographer to extrapolate senses more effectively from a vast example base and to group with relative ease examples illustrating each individual sense.

These improvements could be interpreted as making the ordering patterns redundant, as a completely objective, scientific foundation for determining frequency has now been laid. In practice, though, frequency counts can be very close between the different categories set out in the patterns, in which case the lexicographer needs to rely on objective criteria such as those suggested by Mostert and Svensén, and the modified hierarchy presented in this dissertation, to resolve the issue.

#### **4.2.1.3.4 Using more than one method of ordering senses**

There will, however, be cases where a strict frequency count combined with other empirical criteria will not be adequate. Several metalexigraphers have

pointed out that a single system of ordering is not sufficient (See e.g. Gouws 1989: 123, Lombard 1990: 176, and Svensén 1993: 213). Kipfer (1984: 107) comes to the conclusion that "there is no single system which would be both powerful and detailed enough to be used unequivocally and alone as the basis for ordering senses and which could command general authority and recognition".

Kipfer (1984: 103) presents a possible solution when stating that "the reader should be given either historical or usage ordering, possibly coupled with a logical ordering for clarification only". The choice of historical or usage ordering would of course depend on the type of dictionary being compiled and in the case of a junior secondary school dictionary empirical and logical criteria could be combined.

#### **4.2.1.3.5 Logical ordering**

The method of logical ordering should, however, be employed with great care. Gouws (1989: 134) describes this method as being based on "a sense that serves as base, from which the other senses can be deduced by logical procedures". See e.g. **rampart** from COD, where sense **1 a** can be seen as the base sense.

**rampart** ... *n.* **1 a** a defensive wall with a broad top and usu. a stone parapet. **b** a walkway on top of such a wall. **2** a defence or protection

COD

Gouws (1989: 134) adds as warning, though, that the vagueness of this method causes it to be "linguistically unsatisfactory". Kipfer (1984: 102) also comments that "most lexicographers arranged meanings according to their alleged logical order without being able to explain what they did in the process" and concludes that "this kind of treatment should not be accepted in these scientific times".

In order to use this system a lexicographer must therefore think carefully about which sense to use as base, research this decision well, explain the criteria used in the user's guide and apply the method as sparingly as possible. If this is done, logical ordering can be very effective in the ordering of two senses relatively close to one another in frequency and in the identification and ordering of subsenses in larger sense paradigms.

#### **4.2.1.3.6 Ordering according to primary senses**

In addition to ordering according to frequency and logical ordering, another method, which is similar to logical ordering, may be employed to ensure that a balanced approach to sense ordering is followed. Senses can also be ordered according to their metaphorical value (See Gouws 1989:134-135). In this approach the literal value is recognised as the base form and ordered before the figurative or metaphorical sense (which is often derived from it). Take, for example, the treatment of **gallop** in SADJS.

**gallop** *noun* the fastest pace of a horse ... *verb* ... **1** to move at a gallop ... **2** to do something very quickly: *He galloped through the work.*

SADJS

In this case sense 2 of the verb can be seen as a metaphorical extension of sense 1, and is therefore ordered after it. This ordering method can also be extremely useful in the identification and ordering of subsenses.

An ordering approach with empirical ordering as its main component, supplemented when necessary by logical and metaphorical ordering, can be a user-friendly system beneficial to advanced and less advanced learners of English, providing it is implemented consistently and explained in simple terms in the user's guide.

#### **4.2.1.3.7 Sense ordering in SADJS and SAOSD**

Unfortunately, neither SADJS nor SAOSD provide such an explanation, nor do they achieve the desired consistency. This leaves the user guessing as to what the dominant ordering methods in these dictionaries are. From cases such as **fork** (n) in SADJS and **rag** (n) in SAOSD one can reasonably deduce that estimated frequency was employed.

In other cases, though, it does seem as if estimated frequency has made way for logical or even historical ordering. SAOSD places **burgundy** referring to "a rich red or white wine" before "a purplish-red colour". The assumption here is that the name of the colour was derived from the name of the wine of that colour, and therefore, according to logical and etymological criteria, the wine should precede the colour in the sense paradigm. COBUILD, being a dictionary with a purely empirical ordering based on corpus data, reverses this order. A similar dichotomy exists between the treatment of **laundry** in SADJS and COBUILD.

In cases such as **burgundy** and **laundry** it is difficult to tell which ordering would benefit the user more and the best a user can expect is a consistent, well-explained system such as is supplied by COBUILD. In a further example of the problematic nature of ordering the compilers of SAOSD seem to have opted to move back to estimated frequency in the case of **switch**<sup>1</sup>, when a logical or combined ordering method would have better met the lexicographic needs of the target users.

**switch**<sup>1</sup> *noun* ... **1** a device that is pressed or turned to stop something working, especially by electricity. **2** a change of opinion, policy or methods. **3** a mechanism for moving the points on a railway track **4** a flexible rod or whip.



A logical ordering would perhaps have grouped senses **1** and **3** together (in that order), as these seem to have the closest semantic links to one another, being of similar form and function. Sense **2** would seem to be a metaphorical extension of both these senses and should therefore be placed third. If, on the other hand, the compilers viewed sense **2** as solely being the extension of sense **1** and not closely related to **3**, the senses should have been demarcated in a much clearer way by distinguishing subsenses. Sense **1** could become **1 a**, **2** could become **1 b** and **3** could become **2**. The current article is, however, not an adequate or satisfactory representation of the semantic spectrum of the noun **switch**.

#### **4.2.1.4 Conclusion**

There can be no doubt that the correct and appropriate treatment of homonymy and polysemy is an important precursor to the more direct transfer of semantic data. As has been shown, a balance needs to be maintained between innovation and the use of common international systems and principles, especially if the dictionary is to be an effective tool for the transfer of dictionary usage skills in an OBE-classroom. The user's needs should always determine the choice of system or principle and these should be comprehensively and consistently explained in the user's guide. Such an approach will ensure minimum effort on the search path that takes the user to the item giving the paraphrase of meaning.

#### **4.2.2 Items giving the paraphrase of meaning**

##### **4.2.2.1 Introduction**

One of the prototypical uses of a monolingual school dictionary, in any of the learning stages for both mother-tongue and non-mother-tongue learners, is to gauge the meaning of a lexical item. Its importance is underlined by at least three separate empirical studies. A study conducted by Harvey and Yuill (1997:253-279) of "the use of a monolingual pedagogical dictionary by learners

of English engaged in writing" shows that spelling was the most frequent reason for look-up, followed by the meaning of a lexical item. Summers (1988:114) draws the conclusion from a research project conducted by Longmans that "clarification about word meaning appears to be the main native-speaker requirement". Kipfer (1987:45) summarises as follows after having conducted a detailed study of the needs and skills of secondary school pupils: "Dictionaries were shown to be used chiefly as a guide to meaning and spelling, and occasionally pronunciation".

The predominant view in metalexigraphy is that the denotative meaning of a lexical item is represented in a dictionary by means of a lexicographical definition. Definition types have been identified and qualitative criteria have been set as part of lexico-semantic theory. In this part of the dissertation, however, an alternative view of the direct transfer of meaning will be discussed and its relevance to and possible application in secondary school dictionaries will be probed. This view is extrapolated from Wiegand's book *Semantics and Lexicography*, which depicts the evolution of his ultimately cogent theories on the presentation of semantic data in monolingual descriptive dictionaries. Wiegand proposes scientific guidelines to improve the semasiological presentation of semantic data. Yet, he also points out that current monolingual dictionaries focus too heavily on the semasiological presentation at the cost of the onomasiological presentation. He proposes a more integrated approach on a microstructural level that will see the semasiological and onomasiological presentation of semantic data in separate article positions within the comment or subcomment on semantics in a dictionary article.

#### **4.2.2.2 The term "definition"**

The term "lexicographic definition" has gone largely unchallenged in metalexigraphical circles as well as in editorial style manuals. In several of the articles in this book, Wiegand questions whether "lexicographic definition" is "an

adequate metalexicographical term" (Wiegand 1994: 241). He attempts to offer terminology with which one can describe the different elements in the lexicographic transfer of meaning. Initially, he replaces "lexical and lexicographic definition" with "lexical and lexicographic paraphrase". This shift seems to be motivated by a lack of faith in the seamless appropriation of the philosophical term "definition" for use in lexicography. By avoiding "definition" several of the terminological potholes, such as the difference between a nominal and a real definition, can be avoided as well. On this point Wiegand (1977: 93) states the following in his 10 theses on lexicography:

Written from an extra-communicative point of view, the lexicographic paraphrases should not be regarded as lexicographic nominal definitions, but as rule formulations for the use of the lemma in conformity with semantic rules. Only in this way can it be adequately explained why and in which way lexical paraphrases, when being read, become texts-in-function, thus enabling the reader to infer the meaning of the lemma.

A lexical paraphrase represents the denotative meaning of a lexical item which is "regarded as the rules of reference and predication for the use of (the lexical item) in habitual texts for (that specific lexical item)" (Wiegand 1983: 148). The lexicographic paraphrase seeks to abbreviate these rules.

These early thoughts are clarified and systematised later in a seminal article "Elements of a Theory Towards a So-called Lexicographic Definition", which was published in German in 1994. In this article the "So-called Lexicographic Definition" is not viewed in isolation, but rather as part of an integrated microstructure within the paradigm of Wiegand's comprehensive textual theory for lexicographic texts, specifically as part of the integrate core of the comment or subcomment (in the case of different senses) on semantics. Therefore the terminology which is given preference is "an item giving the meaning paraphrase" (Wiegand 1994: 253) and this can be refined to "an item giving the paraphrase of meaning".

#### **4.2.2.3 The traditional approach to the semasiological presentation**

This rejection of the term "definition" as not being an "adequate metalexicographical term" (Wiegand 1994: 241) underlines a more fundamental disagreement with its use in both meta- and practical lexicography. Numerous academic studies have highlighted the variety of "definition types" which can be employed in general monolingual dictionaries. In most of these studies, preference is given to the so-called definition using genus and differentiae (see Gouws 1989:115-116). These "true definitions" (Svensén 1993:120), which Svensén further describes as being "intensional", expressing "a generic conceptual relationship whereby concepts are arranged in classes according to similarities and differences noted between them" (1993:122), can be used for most of the syntactic classes (parts of speech) to which a lexical item can belong.

This definition type is firmly rooted in a traditional approach to semantics where componential analysis is the starting point in the construction of a definiens. In the introduction to Wiegand's book, Wolski makes it clear that Wiegand does not regard this theory of meaning as entirely suitable for the needs of lexicography. These articles therefore reflect the development of an independent theory of meaning, which is in accordance with Wiegand's textual theory of lexicographic texts. An actional-semantic approach is taken in the expression of the denotative meaning of a lexical item. Denotative meaning is not abstracted from componential analysis, but, as was noted in paragraph 4.2.2.2, is "regarded as the rules of reference and predication for the use of (the lexical item) in habitual texts for (that specific l.i.)" (Wiegand 1983:148).

#### **4.2.2.4 The actional-semantic approach to the semasiological presentation**

In his later articles, Wiegand clarifies why a definition based on componential analysis and presented as a so-called definition using genus and differentiae can

never adequately reflect the denotative meaning of a lexical item (see Wiegand 1994:250-252). The item giving the paraphrase of meaning needs to be based on more pragmatic principles and a different perspective on the constitution of meaning knowledge.

It must be mentioned here that even proponents of the so-called definition using genus and differentiae question its suitability as a lexicographical tool, because of the rigidity of a strict componential analysis. Therefore the concept of supplementary components was introduced. These components "provide additional data regarding the lemma, but this data is mostly not of semantically discriminatory value and borders on being encyclopaedic" (Gouws 1989: 190). Depending on the type of dictionary and the needs of the target users, a number of these components could then be added to the shared and diagnostic components in the lexicographical definiens. However, no guidance is given as to how to systematically employ these supplementary components and it seems as if the lexicographer's judgment is the only norm with which to determine which components are relevant to the target user and worthy of inclusion. Practical lexicographers therefore still need scientifically defensible guidelines on how to construct items giving the paraphrase of meaning in their specific dictionaries. The actional-semantic approach discussed in the following paragraphs seeks to provide such guidelines.

Within the actional-semantic approach, Wiegand identifies types of meaning knowledge central to the lexicographer's efforts to represent semantic data in the dictionary. Wiegand (1994:262) works mainly with the syntactic classes which contain the most words and in this context states:

In the case of lexicalized predicators (adjectives, nouns, verbs) the actional knowledge for the linguistic acting consists of

- (i) the non-encyclopaedic meaning knowledge (the fact that a predicator is habitually used for performing the partial act of predicating ...),

(ii) the encyclopaedic, object-constituting meaning knowledge (the fact that a predicator is habitually used to refer to something defined by this very predicator or by the habitual use of other predicators — i.e. by language and its use),

(iii) in some cases, by another kind of meaning knowledge (i.e. that a predicator is used to evaluate the reference object, to express an attitude, etc. ...)

... Meaning descriptions ... have to impart the actional knowledge necessary to infer from these meaning descriptions (i.e. from items giving the meaning paraphrase) this specific knowledge and consequently the rules.

The rules referred to in this statement are the rules of reference and predication in Wiegand's interpretation of denotative meaning, of which the item giving the paraphrase of meaning should be an abbreviation.

How does one determine what should form part of such an item giving the paraphrase of meaning? Componential analysis is replaced with a pragmatic approach, which focuses on the needs of the target user of the dictionary. Whereas the definition, which is a result of componential analysis, is a static entity, the item giving the paraphrase of meaning is a dynamic entity which can be different for different types of dictionaries, in each case being adapted to the needs of the target user.

This innovative view on the construction of the item giving the paraphrase of meaning can lead to the compilation of far more user-friendly dictionaries. It comes to terms with the fact that a dictionary article is a *simulated question and answer dialogue* (own translation) (Louw 1998: 105) between the lexicographer and the dictionary user. Wiegand (1994: 254) reiterates this point by stating that, "producing a dictionary article ... is the formulation of a number of potential answers in a condensed and standardised form to anticipated types of search questions which are integrated in types of use situations". Earlier in the book he

states that "only by anticipation can the lexicographer hope to meet the expectations the user has of the codified results of the lexicographer's written acts, the dictionary excerpts" (Wiegand 1976: 14). An item giving the paraphrase of meaning should then best be constructed according to a list of "user questions" (Wiegand 1994: 265). These user questions must be in line with the lexicographic needs assessment done as part of the dictionary plan and should be based on detailed empirical research to determine the user perspective.

If an item is constructed within these parameters "one can be reasonably sure that (against a presupposed background of a language community which has reached a preliminary understanding on the use of the lemma-sign in habitual texts) a competent user can infer from a *correct* item giving the meaning paraphrase for a designative lemma-sign ... which he understands correctly, the actional knowledge which as a rule is necessary and sufficient to correctly make a habitual and correct reference with this lemma-sign" (Wiegand 1994: 265).

This shift in emphasis can be illustrated by some examples from Afrikaans and English monolingual dictionaries. If one employs, for example, componential analysis in order to determine the denotative meaning of the lexical item **elephant** (olifant) one would find an entry very similar to the ones in SADJS and SAOSD, somewhat similar to the one in COD, but different to the one in the WAT. The taxonomic detail contained in COD and WAT, and the specific measurements of height and weight given in WAT, would not, for example, fall within the scope of a strict componential analysis.

**elephant** ... a very large animal with thick skin, a trunk and two tusks

SADJS

**elephant** ... a very large animal with a trunk and tusks

SAOSD

**elephant** ... 1 the largest living land animal, of which two species survive, the larger African (*Loxodonta africana*) and the smaller Indian (*Elephas maximus*), both with a trunk and long curved ivory tusks

### COD

**olifant** [o(:)'lifant] s.n.w., olifante; olifantjie.  
 1 a Ook, geselstaal, *oolfant*. Enigee v.d. baie groot, plantetende soogdiere v.d. geslagte *Loxodonta* en *Elephas* (fam. *Elephantidae*, orde *Proboscidea*), wat tot 7 ton kan weeg, ong. 2,30 m hoog word en 'n ouderdom van oor die 100 jaar kan bereik, met 'n neus en bolip wat tot 'n lang, buigbare slurp verleng is, en 'n dik, byna haarlose vel, 'n groot kop, en 'n goed ontwikkelde brein, veral *L. africana* wat in Afrika voorkom, met groot, waaiervormige ore en ivoortande by sowel die bul as die koei, en *E. maximus* wat in suidelike Asie, veral in Indië, voorkom, met kleiner ore en ivoortande slegs b.d. bul: *Die olifant is een van die oorlewende reuse wat vandag nog in Asië en Afrika aangetref word. Die mammoet, wat verwant is aan die Indiese olifant, het duisende jare gelede ... geleef* (A.C. Hoffman: *Diere*, 1942, 149). *Olifante (was) volop. Hulle is van die vroegste dae af meedoënloos gejaag om hul tande wat gebruik is vir die vervaardiging van artikels soos biljartballe, klavierklawers en ornamente* (Burg., 24 Mei 1971, 6). *Olifante is kuddediere en as 'n jong olifantjie van sy trop vervreemd raak, soek hy soms die geselskap van ander diersoorte op* (Custos, Okt. 1972, 17).  
 Vgl. AFRIKAANSE OLIFANT (AFRIKAANS, uitdr.), INDIËSE OLIFANT (INDIË, uitdr.).

b Enigee van verskeie uitgestorwe diere v.d. fam. *Elephantidae* of v.d. orde *Proboscidea* wat a.d. olifant (OLIFANT 1 a) herinner: *Uit opgrawings ... blyk dit dat hy (die mammoet) besonder groot was ... Ander uitgestorwe olifante ... is die mastodon, die stegedont, die platkopolifant en 'n soort met vier lang tande in die bokaak* (P.J. Schoeman: *Afr. vriende* 1, 1975, 35).  
 2 lem. of iets wat baie groot, lomp of swaar is: *Ek (was) in die kleedkamer saam met hierdie olifant ... Baasspeleryg en lui — alles op gesag van die ... boer wat sy ring aan daardie vet vinger gesteek het* (J.M. Gilfillan: *Frambose*, 1993, 13).

### WAT

It could be argued that user's needs have played a decisive role in the construction of the item giving the paraphrase of meaning in all these articles.

In the two school dictionaries the paraphrases are very cryptic, and though they distinguish the lexical item from others in its class, it is debatable whether enough information is given to adequately answer all the questions with which the learner will approach the dictionary. This question was probed as part of the questionnaire that forms part of this study (see question 9 a on the unabbreviated questionnaire presented as Addendum A). The items giving the paraphrase of meaning for **elephant** from SADJS and COD were listed, along with a slightly more comprehensive item constructed by myself and based on the frame analysis (see 4.2.2.6) method, but which does not contain taxonomy. In the test subject group of grade 8 and 9's, only 10% of the respondents found SADJS's data transfer sufficient, whereas 57% expressed a preference for the item from

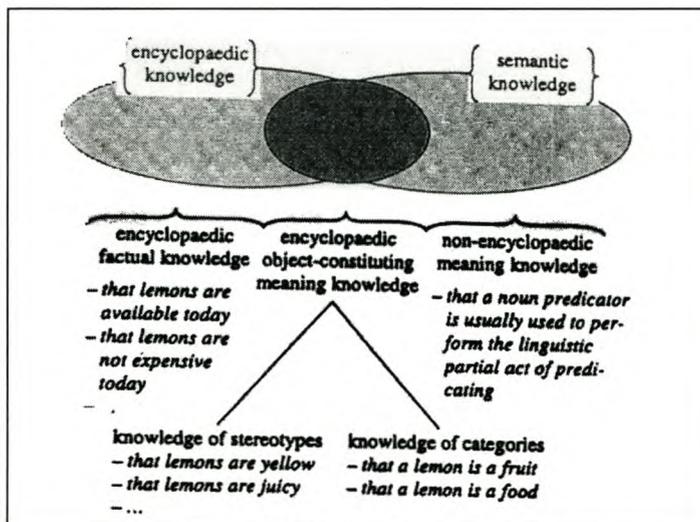


COD and 33% for the constructed item. These results seem to verify that a very cryptic item giving the paraphrase of meaning is not generally acceptable to the target users of the proposed dictionary. Interestingly, the preferences seem to change somewhat if the lemma is less frequently used or if the object described is less familiar. In the questionnaire, items giving the paraphrase of meaning for **oribi** from SADJS and COD were listed, along with a constructed item (see question 9 b on the unabbreviated questionnaire presented as Addendum A). In this case it can be assumed that, though most learners would probably have some pre-knowledge regarding "elephant", many learners would find the word "oribi" unfamiliar. The results were as follows: 8% preferred SADJS's item, 30% preferred COD's item and 62% preferred the constructed item. These results seem to verify that more comprehensive guidance is preferred in the case of lesser known lexical items. Yet, more empirical research should be done in this regard, as the implications for the lexicographer could be profound. The results certainly do suggest that lexicographers may not only need to adapt their overall strategies regarding the creation of items giving the paraphrase of meaning to the needs of the target user, but that these strategies may also have to vary from lemma to lemma, depending on the frequency and the target users' perception of the relevant lexical item. One aspect of the results that does seem very clear, though, is that a very cryptic item should not be the preferred type of item giving the paraphrase of meaning in the proposed dictionary.

There is also another aspect to the case of **elephant**, which demands attention here. In COD a somewhat cryptic, yet distinguishing paraphrase is given, while the paraphrase in WAT is more detailed and specific. The items from COD and WAT do, however, provide more data than a definition constructed by means of a strict componential analysis and presented in the form of a definition using genus and differentiae. A probable question from metalexical circles would be: is the additional data provided encyclopaedic, rather than semantic? In order to answer this question within the terms of reference of this chapter, one would have to return to Wiegand's theory of the kinds of meaning knowledge.

#### 4.2.2.5 Semantic and encyclopaedic data

In Wiegand's semantic theory the boundaries between semantic and encyclopaedic knowledge are not as discrete as in traditional semantic theories. The relationship between the two types of knowledge are visually represented as follows in Wiegand (1994: 268):



The item giving the paraphrase of meaning must not only reflect the "non-encyclopaedic meaning knowledge" but also the "encyclopaedic object-constituting knowledge". In the two articles above this is certainly the case.

In the article from COD, very little data is added to what would be gained from a strict componential analysis. Some supplementary components are included in the item giving the paraphrase of meaning, viz. the fact that the ivory tusks are long and curved and the fact that an elephant is the largest living land animal. Taxonomy is also given. This is a procedure which Wiegand opposes, preferring taxonomic details in a separate article position. One can agree that the target user group of COD probably does not need these details, as these users only require a very broad perspective on the object that is described. In general

though, this item from COD succeeds in its goal by conveying the necessary object-constituting knowledge.

The needs and expectations of WAT's target users differ greatly from those of COD's target user group. As a comprehensive dictionary, it has to provide enough data for the user to gain a detailed and specific perspective on the object described. Whereas COD would for example suffice with "largest" as a size description, WAT gives a more detailed account of the size and weight of an elephant. COD only gives a cursory physical description of an elephant, enough (one could argue) to distinguish it from other large "living land animals", but WAT paints a detailed picture not only of an elephant's distinguishing features, but also of the differences between the two main species of elephant.

Both these dictionaries have transferred object-constituting knowledge by means of the item giving the paraphrase of meaning. Yet, judgements of adequacy in this regard depend solely on the situation in which the dictionary search was conducted and by what type of user it was conducted.

Unfortunately COD stops here in its attempt to adequately describe the animal. In WAT's case, additional encyclopaedic data is presented by means of citations, which help to further improve the user's world knowledge.

It would not be unfeasible to assume that the needs of the users of a junior secondary school dictionary lie somewhere between those of COD's target users and those of WAT's. Language learners, be they mother-tongue or non-mother-tongue speakers who are learning English on an L2 level, at this stage may need more than COD gives in its paraphrase of meaning, especially in the case of lexical items that are less frequently used than **elephant**. SADJS and SAOSD therefore err in giving even less detail in their paraphrases and by providing no examples. Though a comprehensive item giving the paraphrase of meaning in the style of WAT may not be within the scope of a junior secondary dictionary, its

paraphrase for **elephant** could reflect more of the encyclopaedic object-constituting knowledge for the item, than is the case with either SADJS or SAOSD. Taxonomic details can be considered, but only if these are pointed out as being necessary pieces of information within the relevant learning programme (e.g. biology or natural sciences). The respondents of the distributed questionnaire were probed on the relevance of data on taxonomy (see question 8 on the unabbreviated questionnaire presented as Addendum A) and 75% viewed this type of data as necessary in a school dictionary. Yet, if data on taxonomy is to be included in the proposed dictionary, these details should preferably be given in a separate article position. Furthermore, the transfer of meaning needs to be supplemented by the use of carefully constructed examples, either collocations or full sentences, which can impart further encyclopaedic data. A procedure like this would reflect a move towards meeting the needs of the target user.

#### **4.2.2.6 Frames**

In order to systematise this user-oriented approach to the transfer of denotative meaning in monolingual dictionaries, the concept of "frames" has been introduced by Wiegand (1989: 573) and expounded upon by Konerding (1993). This concept refers to a set of "thematic question groups" (Wiegand 1994: 272) which are set up for a specific type of lexical item. In the case of **rake**, such a set could constitute more or less the same as the set for tools proposed by Wiegand (1994: 272-273) and the one for musical instruments quoted by Smit (2000: 178-179).

Five broad groups of questions can be identified:

1. How can the (outer) form of the object be described? (Wiegand 1994: 272)
2. What are the "predicates characterising the hierarchically superordinate whole of which the object is an ingredient/part"? (Smit 2000: 179)

3. In which way (how) does the object (type) come into existence? (activity/production) (Wiegand 1994: 273)
4. What are the "predicates characterising activities in which the object functions/plays a role"? (Smit 2000: 179)
5. Which other objects is the object under consideration similar to and in which respects are they different? (Wiegand 1994: 273)

According to Smit (2000: 178-179), who discusses the groups of questions set up by Konerding (1993), question groups 1 and 2 fall under the subheading "constitutive relationships and features of the object", question group 3 under "phases of existence and distribution" and question groups 4 and 5, together with a separate single question on "other names for the object", under "the meaning of the object for people".

In SAOSD, SADJS and the COD's articles for **rake**, the object-constituting knowledge (as part of the denotative meaning) is imparted with varying degrees of success by providing answers to some of the above questions.

**rake** *noun*... a tool, like a large comb with a long handle, used for smoothing earth, gathering hay and leaves together etc.

SADJS

**rake**<sup>1</sup> *noun* a gardening tool with a row of short spikes fixed to a long handle

SAOSD

**rake**<sup>1</sup> ... *n.* **1 a** an implement consisting of a pole with a crossbar toothed like a comb at the end, or with several tines held together by a crosspiece, for drawing together hay etc. or smoothing loose soil or gravel

COD

Its outer form is described in each of the entries and the "activities in which the object functions/plays a role" (Smit 2000: 179) are disclosed in SADJS and the COD, but not the way the object is produced, as this is not considered to be truly relevant to the target user of the dictionary. Some idea is given as to "the hierarchically superordinate whole of which the object is an ingredient/part" (Smit 2000: 179) by means of the traditional first element of a "genus and differentiae definition". In the case of SAOSD, however, the procedure has some value, because the superordinate chosen is not hierarchically far removed from the lemma (as "tool" in SADJS and "implement" in the COD is, for example). "gardening tool" is a direct superordinate and as such is a valuable point of departure to the users of the dictionary. None of the entries provide an adequate item giving the paraphrase of meaning, but an item which is scientifically constructed using frame theory and therefore synthesising the answers to user questions which are provided in the three dictionaries, would succeed in conveying the necessary semantic data. See, for example, item D presented under question 9 c on the unabbreviated questionnaire presented as Addendum A. Further encyclopaedic data about the object should be available in the examples for those users who need or wish to know more than is required to identify the object.

#### **4.2.2.7 Qualitative criteria**

In Wiegand's opinion, the use of frames for construction of items giving the paraphrase of meaning also seems to obviate the need to identify traditional qualitative criteria. This includes criteria meant to encourage "good defining practice" (Landau 1984: 132) such as "priority of essence", "substitutability", "brevity", "simplicity", etc. (see Landau 1984: 132-138 for a more comprehensive discussion of these criteria). Wiegand (1994: 235-237) is especially harsh on substitutability, questioning its "relevance" and usefulness as a criterion. He (Wiegand 1994: 271-272) further re-emphasises an earlier call for "a re-orientation away from the traditional concepts of definition and, therefore, away

from such fruitless alleged problems which also appear in their wake, e.g. circularity, incompleteness, vagueness, and redundancy". On this point Wiegand (1994: 272) adds the following in summary:

These albeit difficult problems with respect to definition theory are of only marginal importance for lexicography as a scientific practice because every good lexicographer knows how to handle, for instance, circularity. Neither do these tasks relate to any tasks in dictionary research that are still of importance today.

These problems should, if the correct procedure is followed while constructing the item giving the paraphrase of meaning, not arise. This shows again the value of a well-designed dictionary plan in which scientifically sound structural guidelines (drawn up with the target user's needs in mind) form an integral part.

#### **4.2.3 The onomasiological transfer of meaning**

Not all the semantic data inferable from the frames needs to be presented in the item giving the paraphrase of meaning. Several of the questions pertain to the semantic relations existing between the lemma and other lexical items in the lexicon. This would include questions from question groups 2 and 5, as well as questions pertaining to "other names for the object". In these cases Wiegand prefers segregation. The semantic relations should be given by items in other article positions, which are separated from the position of the item giving the paraphrase of meaning by clear, unambiguous structural indicators. Different article positions should preferably be allocated to the various items, reflecting the different semantic relations.

The semantic relations under discussion in this dissertation include hyponymy and hyperonymy, synonymy and relations of semantic opposition. Of these, synonymy is primarily emphasised in Wiegand's book, with three of the nine

articles dealing almost exclusively with either synonymy in general monolingual dictionaries or synonymy in dictionaries for special purposes.

#### **4.2.3.1 Synonymy in monolingual dictionaries**

The term "synonymy" does not escape redefinition. More so than "definition" perhaps, the use of the term "synonymy" has been problematic and at times polemic in metalexical circles. The common misconception of synonymy as referring to "two words meaning the same thing" has been severely criticised. Firstly, it is usually pointed out that synonymy is a relation between lexical items and not merely between words. Secondly, the inherent vagueness of the phrase "meaning the same thing" is criticised. It does not address the complexity of synonymy as a semantic relation. In fact, as Louw (1998a: 176) points out, "there are few - if any - absolute synonyms in a language" (on this point see Louw and Nida 1988: 15). Contextual and other differences which exist between two lexical items with similar reference, have necessitated the distinction between absolute and partial synonymy. Rather than viewing these terms as complete opposites, it is useful to view synonymy as a scale with these two types of synonymy at various ends. One could argue that even though there are few absolute synonyms in a given language, there are usually many that are close to them on the scale of synonymy and can therefore be classified as near- or near-absolute synonyms. In this class, the contextual differences are relatively slight and the interchangeability of synonyms would not cause substantial embarrassment to speakers, as for example with a standard language and vulgar pair. It is mainly the class of near-synonyms that concerns Wiegand.

In this context Wiegand (1983: 146) redefines lexical synonymy as occurring between two lexical items when "the rules of usage ... (are) similar to such an extent that the rules of reference and predication are the same in habitual texts". The lexicographer must represent this "tolerance relation" of substitutability effectively when presenting lexicographic synonyms.



#### **4.2.3.2 On the so-called "synonym definition"**

Even in his earlier articles, Wiegand criticizes the treatment of synonyms in general monolingual dictionaries. The presentation criticized is mainly the so-called "synonym definition". This type of definition has generally been accepted in metalexicographical circles, though with some reservations. These reservations have mainly targeted the inadequacy of lexicographic article-external cross-referencing between the "synonym definition" and corresponding reference address, as well as that between the article where the "full definition" appears with the synonym mentioned and the article with the synonym definition as target entry.

With regard to standard or smaller general monolingual dictionaries, the prevailing view is that "synonym definitions" are necessary. Landau (1984: 270) states that "synonym definitions are not necessarily a mark of lazy or inept editing; they may be the best solution to the problem of too little space". Svensén (1993: 119) concurs, but also explicates the major reservation as follows:

Using synonyms and near-synonyms as definitions saves space, and the method is entirely valid when the need for semantic precision is not too great, but one has to be on guard against synonyms that have multiple meanings. If a synonym is polysemous, it must not stand as a complete definition, but must be disambiguated ...

#### 4.2.3.2.1 Weaknesses in the current use of the so-called "synonym definition" in monolingual desk and school dictionaries

Unfortunately disambiguation is often not given. Consider, for example, the treatment of the near-synonyms **kyker** and **oog** in HAT.

**ky'ker** (-s) 1 Iemand wat kyk, bekyk; toeskouer: *Baie kykers, maar min kopers.* 2 Oog, oogappel: *Blou kykers.* ∇ *Dit is ooglopend Abel en Ella se dogter: daar is Ella se gitswart kykers en haar digte, swart hare* (Etienne van Heerden). 3 Optiese instrument: *(Ver)kyker, (tooneel)kyker.* 4 Iemand wat na die televisie kyk: *Gereelde kykers.*

**oog** (oe; ogie) 1 Eik van die organe waarmee gesien word, waarmee mens of dier kyk; gesigsorgaan: *'n Nout met mooi bruin oe.* *Sommige insekte het saamgestelde oe.* *Die kleur, appiel van die oog.* *Die haat, liefde in iemand se oe sien.* ∇ *Jou oe is nat van die trane van gister* (C.L. Leipoldt). *Blou oe waarin die hemel woon* (A.G. Visser). *So ver as die oog reik, so ver mens kan sien.* *Met jou oe iets soek, probeer om dit raak te sien.* *Met die blote oog lees, sonder bril, ver grootglas.* 2 Iets wat soos 'n oog lyk of aan 'n oog laat dink: *Die oog van 'n naald.* *Hakies en ogies gebruik aan 'n kledingstuk.* *Die oog van 'n fontein, stroom, rivier, plek waar dit ontstaan, bv. ∇(U)it dieselfde oog (borrel tog nie) vars en bitter water (op nie)* (Jak. 3:11). *Oog van 'n aartappel, loot, waar dit uitloop.* 3 Uiterlik: *Hierdie tuin maak 'n (mooi) oog.* 4 (nie alg.: geselst.) Kroeg: *Heeldag in die oog deurbring.* 5 Middel-punt van 'n sikloon e.d.

Both these lemmas are polysemous and in one sense of each, they are used to refer to the same object. At **kyker** 2 a so-called synonym definition is given, i.e. "oog". It is not specified for which sense of **oog** this reference is valid. Only an experienced speaker of Afrikaans would know that the first sense of **oog** is the relevant one and if this speaker already knew this, there would be no need to consult the dictionary. The problem is compounded by two other factors. Firstly "kyker" is not even mentioned under **oog** 1 as a possible synonym. Secondly, a further "synonym definition" ("oogappel") is inserted into the same article position under **kyker** 2 and separated from "oog" by a comma. The conclusion to which a dictionary user would probably come is that these two are synonyms of **kyker** and of each other (since commas are usually used to separate so-called synonyms in the comment on semantics). Yet "oogappel" (in its literal use) refers to the pupil of the eye whereas "oog" refers to the whole eye. They cannot be listed together without further semantic and contextual guidance. Furthermore,

**oogappel** is itself a polysemous lemma and no attempt is made at **kyker** to disambiguate the reference. This confusing use of so-called synonyms and so-called synonym definitions is an obstacle to the effective transfer of semantic data in a single-volume monolingual dictionary.

The situation is no less confusing in monolingual English school dictionaries such as SADJS and SAOSD. Consider the following examples from these dictionaries:

**along** *preposition* **1** from one end to the other: *He walked along the street.* **2** on the length of: *There's a postbox somewhere along this street ...*

**down**<sup>2</sup> ... *preposition* **1** in a lower position in or on something ... **2** to a lower position in or on something ... **3** along: *The teacher looked down the line of children.*

SADJS

**quick** *adjective* **1** taking only a short time to do something. **2** done in a short time, *have a quick swim.* **3** able to notice or learn or think quickly. **4** (*old use*) alive, *the quick and the dead ...*

**rapid** *adjective* quick; swift ...

**swift**<sup>1</sup> *adjective* quick; rapid ...

SAOSD

The first set of examples (from SADJS) illustrates the typical weaknesses of the current lexicographical application of the so-called synonym definition. At **down**<sup>2</sup> **3** a synonym definition points the user in the direction of **along**, but it is not specified for which sense of **along** this reference is valid. At **along**, on the other hand, no mention is made of **down** at either sense. The compilers may put forward as a possible defence the presence of examples, which could clarify the reference. It is firstly doubtful, however, whether these examples are carefully enough constructed to adequately clarify the reference and secondly, it is

doubtful whether the target users of the dictionary would be able to deduce such complex semantic information from examples. It is perhaps advisable to be as explicit as possible when dealing with closely related lexical items.

The data transfer process is in even greater danger of being disrupted in the second set of examples (taken from SAOSD). In the first place the same weaknesses that were present in the previous set, are also displayed here. Both **rapid** and **swift** are referred to **quick**, but it is not specified for which sense of **quick** this reference is valid and at **quick** neither **rapid** nor **swift** is mentioned at any of its senses. No examples are given at **rapid** and **swift** to at least aid in the clarification of the reference.

Yet the next section of each of the articles at **rapid** and **swift** creates an even bigger dilemma. The function of the semi-colon is not explained in the front matter. If it is used to separate so-called synonym definitions for different senses or subsenses (as is often the case in bilingual dictionaries), a serious problem of circularity occurs. **rapid** and **swift** are referred to one another without any further clarification. This would be very confusing to any user, let alone a junior secondary learner.

If, on the other hand, the semi-colon separates two sets of onomasiological data, i.e. a so-called synonym definition from what WAT calls a "synonym mention", a new set of questions, which the compilers would find very difficult to answer, is raised. Why are the mentions only given at **rapid** and **swift**, and not at **quick**, where the full definition is supposed to be, why is an explicit structural indicator e.g. "syn." not utilised to adequately introduce the mention and finally, why is this procedure, which is not universally practised in monolingual dictionaries, not explained in the user's guide? One can unfortunately only conclude that, whether the semi-colon has a semasiological or an onomasiological use in these two examples, the end result remains an unsatisfactory lexicographic practice, one which should not be perpetuated in the proposed dictionary.

#### **4.2.3.2.2 Wiegand's response and WAT's approach to dealing with the so-called "synonym definition"**

As with "definition", both the term "synonym definition" and its application are rejected by Wiegand. He (1976: 25) seeks to redefine this item (which was traditionally referred to as a "gloss" at that time) in the very first article, referring to "dictionary excerpts in the form of **lemma word**" instead. According to Wiegand, this type of dictionary excerpt is not suitable for use in dictionaries, as a synonym cannot fulfil the same function as a lexicographic paraphrase given as the item giving the paraphrase of meaning, i.e. an abbreviated rule formulation.

In the later articles this view is systematically supported by distinguishing, on the grounds of separate functions, separate article positions for items giving the paraphrase of meaning on the one hand and for word synonyms on the other. With the textual theory for lexicographic texts as broad framework, word synonyms are to be presented as part of the integrated microstructure as follows:

Word synonyms ... belong into the SK (semantic commentary) yet not in the semasiological, but in the onomasiological part. Here, they are best listed under an explicit cross-reference by synonyms (e.g., "Sy" or "≈"), which can be understood as a semantic commentary symbol, functioning as a cross-reference ...; the synonyms should be printed in such a way that the font differs from the one used for the ME (meaning explanation) ... In each SK, the ME is therefore obligatory and word synonyms are listed if there exist any (Wiegand 1983: 150).

Wiegand (1983: 150) adds that this separation of semasiological and onomasiological data is important, because "word synonyms are not 'hidden' in the ME, instead, semantic knowledge of the lexical structure is made explicit". This is illustrated in the treatment of **onbework** and **onverwerk** from the

comprehensive WAT. Though the typological profile of WAT differs radically from that of the proposed dictionary, its lexicographical treatment of synonymy does provide a base on which the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary can build.

**onbewerk** [ɔnbə'werk / ɔmbə'werk / ɔ:bə'werk] b.n.w., onbewerkte.

1 Wat nie bewerk (BEWERK 3) is nie; soms sin. met *braak*: *Die plaas (was) nog onbewerk en een groot boskassie* (Landbw., 20 Okt. 1970, 25). *Oumansoutbos (hou) minder van bewerkte as van onbewerkte grond* (Landbw., 4 Apr. 1972, 58).

• Ook byw.: *Die mielies (is) ... onbewerk geplant* (Boerd. S.A., Nov. 1971, 26).

2 (minder gebruiklik) **Onverwerk** (ONVERWERK 1): *Onbewerkte bokhaar, velle, wol. Die handel in onbewerkte pelse het ... uitgebrei* (C.S. Grobbelaar in Afr. Kinderens. VIF, 1964, 287). *Onbewerkte mis word vir veel minder (as vloei-bare mis) verkoop* (Landbw., 10 Nov. 1970, 63).

**onverwerk** [ɔ:fvə'werk / ɔnfə'werk] b.n.w., onverwerkte.

1 Wat geen verwerking ondergaan het nie, of wat dit slegs in 'n geringe mate ondergaan het; sin. *onbewerk* (minder gebruiklik); teenoor *verwerk*: *Onverwerkte grondstowwe, leer, materiaal, metaal, olyfotie, produkte, tabak, wol.* = *Daar kan ... gedink word aan die heffing van 'n klein uitvoerbelasting op die uitvoer van onverwerkte metallurgiese ertse* (Tegnikon, Mrt. 1966, 8). *Daar (was) verkope van onverwerkte Russiese stene buite die Sentrale Verkoopsorganisasie* (Beeld, 9 Mrt. 1994, Sakeb., 1).

• Ook byw.: *Goud onverwerk uitvoer.* = *Die riool (sal) onverwerk weggerig word totdat die ontwikkeling van die oord 'n ander metode regverdig* (Burg., 6 Sept. 1986, 3).

2 Waarvan die implikasies nog nie deurdink of die negatiewe impak nog nie geabsorbeer of geassimileer of draagliker gemaak is deur 'n verwerkingsproses nie; teenoor *verwerk*: *Die verkragter (het) probleme met homself ... byvoorbeeld onverwerkte frustrasie en aggressie, seksuele probleme en 'n behoefte aan mag* (Beeld, 22 Mrt. 1994,

Vroueb., 17). *Drie maande ... (na die mis-kraam) was ek weer swanger, maar jare daarna sou ek ... nog baie terner gedruk voel. Dit was onverwerkte verdriet* (Huisg., 14 Aug. 1986, 132).

• Ook byw.: *Hierdie stuk van sy lewe lê onverwerk in sy binneste ... Dertig jaar van wrok, verbittering ... om hom lê die wye see van die eensaamheid* (C.M. v.d. Heever: Simson, 1940, 163).

3 Wat nog nie geprosesseer of aangepas is in 'n nuttige of bruikbare vorm nie; teenoor *verwerk*: *Statistiese inligting in onverwerkte vorm.* = *Die onverwerkte gegewens (moet) ... eers verwerk word. Deur die toepassing van sekere beskrywende statistiese tegnieke kan ... die gegewens in 'n sinryker vorm gerangskik word* (N.J. Möller, vert.: Stat. Begr., 1968, 22).

• Ook byw.: *Die aansoekvorms van tienduisende Oos-Kapenaars wat ... om staatspensioene aansoek gedoen het, lê steeds onverwerk by staatsdienskantore* (Burg., 7 Sept. 1996, 1).

The WAT does employ so-called "synonym definitions", but with accurate specification of the sense to which the synonym applies, in this case "Onverwerk (ONVERWERK 1)" at **onbewerk** 2. The synonym definition is met by a "synonym mention" in the other article. This mention is close to Wiegand's proposal for the treatment of all synonyms in general monolingual dictionaries. It is positioned close to the item giving the paraphrase of meaning and separated from it by means of a typographical structural indicator, here a semi-colon. A second structural indicator, "sin.", is added for more clarity and this is followed by the synonym, in this case *onbewerk*, which is presented in italics, whereas the item giving the paraphrase of meaning is given in roman font. It is also separated by means of typographical structural indicators from its superseding data categories. To complete the picture, some field labels in the microstructural treatment of the synonym, such as "(minder gebruiklik)" in this case, are also included in the synonym mention, in order to indicate the restrictions on use which exist for that specific synonym. A possible criticism of the WAT is that sense specification is not presented at this item, but only at the so-called synonym definition. The ideal

would be a repetition of the full item giving the paraphrase of meaning, with synonyms presented in separate article positions in the format displayed by the WAT, but with an accurate sense specification as employed in the WAT's "synonym definitions".

Consequently, one can agree that, in keeping with the user perspective, Wiegand (1983: 150) is correct in remarking that "the 'semasiological principle of the item giving the meaning by means of word synonyms' ... should ... be substituted by an 'onomasiological principle of supplementing the lexicographic meaning explanation by word synonyms'".

This would benefit users of school dictionaries such as the proposed dictionary, who would probably also benefit most from a repetition of a full paraphrase of meaning and two-way synonym references in well-demarcated article positions. This can be an effective answer, if the lexicographer, as part of the planning of the semantic component of an article (preferably by using frames), anticipates as many of the possible near-synonyms as possible within the dictionary's macrostructural scope. This is a demanding brief, but seems to be in keeping with Wiegand's (1976: 24) view of the lexicographer as "an empirical scientist". The corpus, combined with other lexicographic sources and the lexicographer's own linguistic intuition, should provide an adequate picture of the lemma's synonymous relations with other lexical items.

#### **4.2.3.2.3 Conclusion**

Whether the repetition of "paraphrases of meaning" is a viable option for smaller dictionaries, is a difficult question. In commercially published standard, desk or smaller paper dictionaries, the maximum level of textual condensation is pursued. In this regard "synonym definitions" have always been an important space-saving (and therefore money-saving) tool. It is hard to see Wiegand's vision of a separate slot for synonymy being feasible in this predatory milieu or

even in the proposed dictionary. The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary may, due to space and financial constraints, have to opt for a suitable "synonym definition" with a precise cross-reference that is met by an equally precise mention of that lemma as a synonym in the article of the more frequent lexical item, which should also contain a full paraphrase of meaning. This mention, in the form of an item, should be separate from the item giving the paraphrase of meaning and should be introduced by a unique structural indicator. An adequate distinction of the contextual differences between the synonyms should then be drawn by means of labels.

The main concern is that the decision be based on the needs of the target users as revealed by a detailed empirical study conducted in an OBE-classroom environment. Should such a study be conducted with junior secondary school learners as subjects, it may very well prove that learners would be better aided by saving space in the macrostructure, or elsewhere in the microstructure and rather repeating the "paraphrases of meaning". Compilers of a school dictionary can, e.g., decide to give a more comprehensive microstructural treatment. As Gouws (1989: 72) pointed out, school dictionaries often have smaller macrostructures than learners' dictionaries and Lombard (1990:15) adds that *the emphasis in the case of school dictionaries is often more on the microstructure* (own translation) than in learners' dictionaries. The space saved by cutting the number of lemmas, can be utilised in the microstructure, thus producing a school dictionary with an integrated, semasiologically and onomasiologically balanced microstructure that still meets the size constraints either suggested or prescribed by the publishers.

#### **4.2.3.3 Other semantic relations**

One of the most challenging tasks of the lexicographer is to adequately underpin the semantic relations between a specific lexical item and others in the macrostructural scope of the dictionary. Corpus material alone is often



inadequate and decisions of this nature usually rely on "the language intuition, language competence and therefore world knowledge as well as world conception of the lexicographers, taking into account the empirically established use of language" (Wiegand 1976: 36) and on secondary sources such as thesauri and antonym dictionaries. In order to make the lexicographer's task easier, it is therefore important that there be a scientific system of presenting semantic relations, which can be applied consistently throughout the dictionary.

In the articles selected for publication, Wiegand focuses on presenting such a system for the lexicographic treatment of synonymy, but he also provides useful guidance for the treatment of other semantic relations. In a one-volume semasiological dictionary (such as the HAT) Wiegand (1982: 133) finds the indication of synonymy sufficient, but for "a multi-volume integrated dictionary" (such as the WAT) he proposes the same treatment for hyponymy, antonymy, etc. as he did for synonymy, i.e. an item in an article position separate from the item giving the paraphrase of meaning and well-demarcated by a unique structural indicator.

Attempts have been made in the WAT to reflect relations of semantic opposition in this way. A separate article position is employed and this item is separated from the preceding definition or synonym by means of a semicolon. No further distinction is, however, made as to whether the item denotes antonymy or shows that the user is dealing with a complementary pairing. Both types of item are introduced by the structural indicator "teenoor". The compilers of a future South African junior secondary school dictionary should at least consider the consistent presentation of antonyms and complementary pairs in separate article positions and introduced by unique structural indicators.

The WAT does not have a consistent system for dealing with hyponymy and hyperonymy, which is in line with the one proposed by Wiegand. Superordinates or hyperonyms are usually given as the points of departure in items giving the

paraphrase of meaning, but there are no separate article positions containing hyperonyms as independent items. One could reasonably expect that this should also be the case in a future South African junior secondary school dictionary.

With regards to hyponymy there is a tendency in WAT not to present hyponyms or cohyponyms, because it is not, for example, seen to be in the interests of the target users to present "lemoen", "pomelo", etc. as cohyponyms at **nartjie**. Only in what the lexicographer believes to be exceptional or difficult cases where the two objects are, for example, closely related and therefore easily confusable, are cohyponyms given. This would then be presented near the end of an article and introduced by "Vgl." ("Cf."). There are two problems here. Firstly, this placement causes a separation of this type of item from the other items giving onomasiological data. In fact, it separates the hyponym or cohyponym from all other items in the comment on semantics, thereby making the user's search path harder and less predictable. Secondly, the article position introduced by "Vgl." does not only contain cohyponyms. Partial synonyms and other confusable words (even though a separate article position for these does exist) find their way into the "Vgl."-slot. The resulting loss of uniqueness is a further stumbling block on the user's inner search path.

In this regard, Wiegand has a valid point of view. The onomasiological content of these items is an integral part of the minimal frame for each lexical item, and the item itself should be a crucial part of an effective, integrated microstructure, specifically as part of the comment or subcomment on semantics presented in close proximity to the item giving the paraphrase of meaning, even in a school dictionary.

#### **4.2.4 Conclusion**

In sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3 of the discussion on semantic data, this researcher has attempted to clarify, apply and also bring together two major threads running through Wiegand's lexico-semantic theory. The semasiological presentation of meaning has been seen to be located most appropriately in the item giving the paraphrase of meaning, which should form part of the comment on semantics in an integrated microstructure. In the comment on semantics this item must be followed by clearly distinguished items giving onomasiological data, especially on synonymy.

These sections have, however, merely begun to show the potential of Wiegand's theories (such as the frame theory) for the improvement of school dictionaries' user-friendliness. Lexicographers working on future junior secondary school dictionaries for specific languages need to explore this potential when planning the secondary lexicographic processes of their respective dictionaries. If combined with an adequate treatment of homonymy and polysemy, such an approach could greatly enhance the transfer of semantic data in school dictionaries.

#### **4.3 Data on pronunciation**

##### **4.3.1 The role and value of data on pronunciation**

Data on pronunciation should be another essential component of the microstructure of a pedagogical dictionary. This point is underscored by several empirical studies. Barnhart's (1967: 161) study, which had American college students as test subjects, shows that, of the types of data probed, pronunciation ranked "third in importance (after meaning and spelling)" (Al-Kasimi 1977: 36). Lombard (1990: 108) quotes Béjoint's (1981: 217) study of the needs of adult

learners of English as a foreign language, in which Béjoint found that these users demand data on pronunciation from their dictionaries. Lombard is, however, mindful of the fact that the needs of these adult learners differ from those of the target users of his proposed dictionary, a monolingual Afrikaans dictionary for secondary school, mainly (but not exclusively) mother-tongue learners studying Afrikaans. Therefore he conducted his own study, which showed that *62.5% of the respondents indicated that a dictionary meant for school use needs to give more data and guidance on how words should be pronounced* (own translation).

It can be suggested that the need and demand for data on pronunciation would also be great in the dictionary proposed in this dissertation. The results of the questionnaire distributed by this researcher seem to verify this, with 84% of the respondents indicating that the proposed dictionary should give detailed guidance on how each lexical item that is represented by a lemma should be pronounced (see the answers to question 7, which are presented on the abbreviated result page presented as Addendum B). In a seeming contradiction, only 21% indicated that they currently look for pronunciation (see the answers to question 6, which are presented on the abbreviated result page presented as Addendum B). It could be postulated that this discrepancy is the result of the deficiencies in the presentation of data on pronunciation in current monolingual school dictionaries, i.e. that users will not look for data that they know, from previous experience, they are either unlikely to find or will not be able to understand if they do find it. This postulation would need to be verified with more comprehensive empirical research.

The fact that a large part of the target user group will be non-mother-tongue speakers of English means that the need for adequate, easily understandable data on pronunciation will be even greater than in a school dictionary for mother-tongue speakers only. These assumptions will, however, need to be empirically supported by the compilers of a future junior secondary school dictionary by

means of a comprehensive study. There are three other criteria that can be used to motivate the inclusion of data on pronunciation.

#### **4.3.1.1 An educational criterion**

The first criterion is educational in nature. As was pointed out in 2.4.3.2 one of the functions and goals of the proposed dictionary is that "the (semasiological) linguistic properties of a specific lexical item must be described with as much detail as the teacher/facilitator needs to convey to the learner in the relevant learning stage". As the empirical evidence suggests, data on pronunciation is a vital part of each lexical item's linguistic description, which learners, especially non-mother-tongue learners, need to internalise. The emphasis in the new OBE curriculum is moving towards mother-tongue education at primary school level, a decision that will create a more urgent need for comprehensive guidance in junior secondary ELT geared towards non-mother-tongue learners. A junior secondary school dictionary will play an important role in cementing English lexical items and pronunciation learned at primary school, and in facilitating in the acquisition of new lexical items and pronunciations, especially in the syllabi that will now be presented in English. New lexical items will also be encountered in English class, especially when reading, and need to be decoded and then be re-encoded, a process in which data on pronunciation plays a vital role. Detailed data on pronunciation is therefore a necessity.

#### **4.3.1.2 A communicative criterion**

In addition to having educational goals, the proposed dictionary should also be a powerful communicative tool, be it for written or spoken communication. As was stated in 2.4.3.2, adequate, "detailed answers must be provided to specific questions in a specific look-up operation, be it for decoding or encoding purposes". Being able to pronounce a lexical item once it has been understood, is an important encoding task in which the dictionary can facilitate. This goal can

only be reached if a consistently applied system of data on pronunciation is present at every lemma in the proposed dictionary.

#### **4.3.1.3 Reflecting a restandardised standard dialect**

A last criterion pertains to the proposed dictionary's role in the restandardisation process of SSAE. In 2.4.5 the conclusion was reached that SSAE has restandardised to such an extent that a standard descriptive dictionary can be employed. The proposed dictionary shares the function of reflecting the standard dialect with the monolingual dictionaries in the standard descriptive category. Therefore, as was made clear in 2.4.5, it is in the interests of the target users of the dictionary to reflect those dialectal pronunciations (especially from SABE) which have become part of SSAE.

#### **4.3.2 Types of data on pronunciation**

Three types of data on pronunciation need to be given in order for the proposed dictionary to fulfil the role as set out in 4.3.1. They are transcription, main stress indication and syllable division. In this section criteria for the effective presentation of these types of data will be given and their presentation in four monolingual English school dictionaries targeting secondary school learners will be critically analysed. SADJS and SAOSD will be employed, but also *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary* and *Collins Pocket School Dictionary (secondary)*. Though the last two dictionaries (being much smaller, pocket dictionaries) are not typologically the same as the proposed dictionary and do not share all its functions and goals, they do target the same user group. As they illustrate some important current directions in the presentation of data on pronunciation in dictionaries targeting junior secondary school users, it was therefore decided to include them in this discussion.

### **4.3.2.1 Transcription**

Transcription is a prominent type of data on pronunciation. In the proposed dictionary an item giving the transcription should also be the base form on which main stress and syllable division are indicated. The choice to transcribe necessitates the taking of some important decisions that form part of the compiler's dictionary plan.

#### **4.3.2.1.1 Addressing procedures and positioning of the item giving the transcription**

A decision must, firstly, be made on which addressing procedure the item giving the transcription must display and on where this item is to be positioned in the article structure. A very popular item giving the transcription is one addressed at the lemma and which usually slots into the article position "immediately after the lemma" (Svensén 1993: 69). Gouws (1989: 255) reiterates by stating, *data on pronunciation is primarily addressed at the lemma and therefore preferably leads to a transcription of only the lemma* (own translation). These items are of help to mother-tongue speakers, but specifically aid non-mother-tongue speakers in their efforts to be able to, in terms of pronunciation, *master the language on the level of a mother-tongue speaker* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 257 following on Haas 1967: 48). Each item has an important encoding function, helping users to pronounce lexical items from the treated language in specific communicative situations by means of a code (e.g. IPA) with which they should preferably be familiar.

A lemmatically addressed item, which, in most cases, directly supersedes the lemma, is the transcription type of choice in three of the four dictionaries under discussion. It would be advisable to employ this presentation in the proposed dictionary as it is widely used and will therefore be familiar to learners, but also

efficient in that it plays a pivotal part in creating a coherent, overarching comment on form, thereby aiding in the linguistic empowerment of the user. This coherence is disturbed, for example, in *Collins Pocket School Dictionary (secondary)* where data on morphology is inserted on the same line as the lemma, with data on pronunciation (when it is given) on the next line, together with the other items in the comment on form. This not only disrupts the natural coherence between lemma and item giving the pronunciation on the one hand and between the item giving the part of speech and the items giving data on morphology on the other; it also causes another problem. It can cause a structural predicament when a lexical item represented by the lemma can be used in more than one part of speech. Whereas the item giving the pronunciation usually appears in an overarching comment on form, different items giving data on morphology can appear in each of the next comments on form that correspond with the differing parts of speech. Therefore it is better to present the item giving the pronunciation as close as possible to the lemma in the overarching comment on form and to keep the combination of part of speech and morphology intact, as these will usually correspond in each superseding comment on form (in the case of lexical items with more than one syntactic function) or subcomment on form and semantics.

There is another approach to transcription that merits some discussion here. Al-Kasimi (1977: 43) notes that in this approach it is maintained "that not only the entry word should be transcribed but the illustrative examples as well". This implies that some transcriptions have a non-lemmatic addressing and follow directly on an example. The arguments in favour of following this approach in a bilingual dictionary are equally compelling when considering this approach for use in a monolingual school dictionary. Al-Kasimi (1977: 44) summarises these arguments as follows:

The illustrative examples can be chosen in such a way as to show the entry word under different stress levels, with various pitch patterns, as joined with a neighbouring word, and in different positions in the sentence. In this way both



segmental and suprasegmental phonemes of the sound system can be indicated in the phonological information provided in the dictionary.

This approach may be linguistically sound and of great educational value, but it is doubtful whether it can be consistently applied in a junior secondary school dictionary. The space constraints will most probably preclude transcriptions for every example being given.

A compromise can perhaps be found by employing usage notes as inserted inner texts to highlight when a lexical item is pronounced in a radically different way in a set combination, to when it is used in isolation. RD set a precedent by employing inserted texts to give phonological data in exceptional cases (see e.g. **coup**) and this approach is also adopted by SADJS (see e.g. **plumber**). Using such an approach has the additional advantage that a usage note will better draw the attention of the user to this potentially problematic pronunciation, than if the transcriptions were given in the example base. It should, however be used as sparingly as possible and have a unique, captivating appearance (see 5.3.3 for more detail on inserted inner texts).

#### **4.3.2.1.2 Transcription of all the lemmas or a selection**

##### **4.3.2.1.2.1 Theoretical arguments in favour of the transcription of all the lemmas**

The preceding discussion on items with a non-lemmatic addressing, points to other important decisions a lexicographer needs to make, i.e. on how much data on pronunciation to include. Firstly, it must be decided whether all lemmas will be transcribed, or whether only a selection of the most problematic lemmas will be given transcriptions.

The needs of the target users should play the decisive role in settling this issue. Lombard (1990: 108) cautions that *in a school dictionary the presentation of data on pronunciation is more important than in a desk dictionary for general use ... The lexicographer must ... rely as little as possible on the linguistic intuition of his users* (own translation). In a secondary school dictionary, especially one targeting non-mother-tongue speakers in addition to mother-tongue speakers, a strong case can be made out that *data on pronunciation should be presented at each lemma* (own translation) (Lombard 1990: 109).

It would be very dangerous to assume that learners can gauge pronunciation patterns without prior guidance. Lexical items are most often looked up in isolation and the user wants an instant answer to his/her specific question. If a learner looks up a lexical item to find its pronunciation and it is not given, it would be of little consolation for her/him to know that there are transcriptions at some other lemmas that the compilers deem to be "difficult" or "exceptional". Furthermore, the impression is then created that he/she should in any case have known the required pronunciation before even looking up the lexical item, an impression which could only further harm the dictionary's image in the learner's mind.

It would be equally dangerous for compilers to try to identify those cases they deem to be "difficult" or "exceptional", because they would then be ascribing a level of linguistic intuition to users who differ, due to the wide-ranging target user group, vastly in linguistic intuition and language skills. It would also be a highly subjective exercise, one which they would with great difficulty, if at all, be able to support empirically.

Another argument in favour of the consistent presentation of transcriptions at all lemmas has its origin in the restandardisation of SSAE. Should the dictionary (as has been suggested) attempt to incorporate SABE- and other dialectal pronunciations which, in the restandardisation process, have made their way into

SSAE, these pronunciations should be given consistently, even at the "easiest" of words. This is a very demanding result of one of the important functions of the proposed dictionary, i.e. that the dictionary must seek to reflect the current restandardising of SSAE and especially the influences from SABE. The compilers will have to give careful consideration to all the microstructural implications of this function and then make difficult decisions as to how comprehensively these implications can be met within the limited space available in the dictionary.

In the light of these arguments one must agree with Lombard's assertion, and the compilers of a future junior secondary school dictionary should give transcriptions "at each lemma". Unfortunately, none of the four dictionaries under discussion fulfilled this criterion.

#### **4.3.2.1.2.2 Current practice in the four dictionaries under discussion**

In three of the dictionaries cursory explanations are provided in the front matter as to why only some lemmas are given transcriptions (with *Collins Pocket School Dictionary (secondary)* being the exception). SAOSD gives transcriptions when "the word is difficult, or when two words with the same spelling are pronounced differently", whereas *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary* states that "this dictionary provides help in cases where the pronunciation of a word may not be obvious". As has been shown, subjective choices on what may be "difficult" to the user are very difficult to motivate. In these two dictionaries no further explanations are given as to which criteria were employed to determine which lemmas should be transcribed. Even a brief look at the microstructure of these dictionaries leads one to ask whether there was a system in place and, if so, whether this system was at all applied consistently. Consider, for example, the following from *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary*: **bower** is transcribed, but **bowel** not; nor are other potentially "difficult" cases such as **brassière** and **brazier**. Similar inconsistencies can be pointed out in SAOSD. The decision not

to provide transcriptions at all lemmas is hard to justify, but the decision not to provide any objective guidelines as to which lemmas are transcribed is even more detrimental to the dictionary's user-friendliness.

SADJS does set out a pattern in which the usual way of pronouncing certain sounds that can be pronounced in more than one way (especially vowels and diphthongs) is given. No indication is given as to which norm was used to determine these usual pronunciations and one is left to assume that it would either be RP (Received Pronunciation) or SSAE. The compilers then go on to state that "when a letter is pronounced in a different way to the pattern shown above, when a word is particularly difficult to pronounce or when it can be said in two different ways, then pronunciation is shown using the phonetic symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet". Unfortunately SADJS's application of this system is also fraught with inconsistency. In the case of **data** and **daughter**, for example, transcriptions are given, because the use of vowel signified by "a" differs from the pattern, which was given as "a as in **hat**". Yet similar digressions from the pattern can be found at **date**, **dawdle**, **dawn** and **daze**, but no transcriptions are provided for these lemmas. The problem of subjectivity further pervades the second and third criteria listed in SADJS's explanation.

#### **4.3.2.1.2.3 Conclusion**

A system such as the one employed in SADJS could be considered for smaller (e.g. pocket or mini school dictionaries), but the pattern would have to be set and then be adhered to rigidly. For the proposed dictionary, which can afford a somewhat more comprehensive treatment of pronunciation, the arguments, as set out in 4.3.2.1.2.1, should be compelling enough to lead the compilers to decide on a transcription of all lemmas. This decision would also increase the value of the dictionary as a tool for oral communicative empowerment in the OBE-classroom. Yet, the decision must, however, be tested empirically as part of the needs assessment done by the compilers.

### **4.3.2.1.3 Full or partial transcription**

#### **4.3.2.1.3.1 Theoretical arguments in favour of a full transcription**

There is another lexicographical decision pertaining to transcriptions that often brings the need to conserve space into conflict with the needs of the target user. The extent of individual transcriptions can present as big an obstacle to the lexicographer as the number of transcriptions to include. The lexicographer must choose between a partial and a full transcription of the lemma.

Partial transcriptions do have the advantage that they take up less space. It may not be to the advantage of the target users of a junior secondary school dictionary, though, to only transcribe those sounds or syllables which the lexicographer perceives to be "difficult" or exceptional. Firstly, it will damage the dictionary's chances of being an effective encoding aid. Secondly, it places the responsibility on the lexicographer to make a subjective judgement regarding which characters or units will be problematic. This judgement will be very difficult to make, especially in the case of the proposed dictionary, which will have a target user group with such diverse needs and competence.

A full transcription, on the other hand, may take up more space in the dictionary, but it has a far higher communicative value, especially to the non-mother-tongue user. Gouws (1989:255) emphasises this added value by stating that *specific phonological regularities, with which a non-mother-tongue speaker is often not familiar, can be indicated by transcribing the entire lemma* (own translation). In addition to pointing out phonological regularities, full transcriptions also have another vital role to play in a school dictionary with English as treated language. Svensén (1993: 71) correctly points to the fact that "the pronunciation of English is so little in accordance with the spelling and in general so unpredictable that it should in principle be given in full for each headword". The proposed dictionary

can, by giving full transcriptions, fulfil its educational purpose (giving transcriptions as part of the linguistic description to foster a true semasiological picture of a lexical item in the learner's mind) and its communicative purpose (giving full pronunciation guidance at any lemma which may be unknown to the target user).

The use of full transcriptions also eliminates the problem of subjectivity. Lombard (1990: 111) confirms this by stating that *full transcriptions are preferable to partial transcriptions because the choice of which elements to transcribe is often determined by the lexicographer's subjective judgement* (own translation).

#### **4.3.2.1.3.2 Current practice in the four dictionaries under discussion**

The pedagogical, communicative and objective value of full transcriptions was grasped well by the compilers of the dictionaries under discussion. In all four dictionaries full transcriptions are given at the selected lemmas.

#### **4.3.2.1.3.3 Conclusion**

The needs of the target user must, unfortunately, be subjugated by practical considerations in the choice not to transcribe examples consistently. A further defiance of user's needs would more than likely be unwise. Therefore full transcriptions should be provided at all lemmas.

#### **4.3.2.1.4 Orthographic transcription or a transcription based on the IPA**

In addition to the important decisions taken on the amount and extent of transcriptions, the compilers of the proposed dictionary would also need to decide on the "nature of the transcription" (Gouws 1989: 256). It must be determined whether an orthographic transcription or a transcription based on the IPA would best suit South African junior secondary school learners of English.

#### **4.3.2.1.4.1 Theoretical arguments in favour of a transcription based on the IPA**

Whereas available space plays an important role in the previous decisions, the choice between an orthographic transcription and one based on the IPA is motivated by the ability of the data to meet the needs of the target user. Both types take up more or less the same amount of space. The determining criteria here are the skill levels and language competency of the users and the efficacy of the type of data.

Orthographic transcriptions are often preferred to those based on a phonetic alphabet, especially "in monolingual English dictionaries aimed at the native speaker market" (Wells 1985: 49). This is also the case in many monolingual school dictionaries with English as the treated language. Lexicographers usually assume that *users are not familiar with the phonetic alphabet and that a phonetic transcription is therefore of little value in such a dictionary* (own translation) (Gouws 1989:256). The further assumption that an orthographic representation is necessarily easier to understand has, however, not been proven beyond doubt. In fact, orthographic transcriptions can be at least equally complex and even well-designed systems can usually only "convey extensive polylectal information to the reader who is patient enough to explore the notation conventions carefully" (Wells 1985: 49).

In addition to not necessarily being easier to decode than IPA-based transcriptions, there are also other potential drawbacks to employing orthographic transcriptions in a future junior secondary school dictionary. Firstly, one has to take into account the broader target user group of the proposed dictionary. Whereas an orthographic transcription may, in some instances, serve the needs of a mother-tongue speaker, it causes problems for non-mother-tongue speakers. There are two important obstacles, which would chiefly impact

on these users. Non-mother-tongue learners studying English would be used to the spelling conventions of their own languages and could find a respelling system based solely on English orthography difficult and even confusing. Such a respelling system could cause further problems *because it frequently happens that one grapheme represents more than one phoneme* (own translation) (Lombard 1990: 109-110) and non-mother-tongue learners may not be instinctively aware of these variations. Orthographic transcriptions can defy what Al-Kasimi (1977: 37) calls the "main principles of every transcription", i.e. "(a) every distinct sound of the language should be represented by a distinct symbol, and (b) no sound should be represented in more than one way".

The choice to include orthographic transcriptions in the proposed dictionary may also detract from its ability to fulfil its purpose regarding the number of transcriptions at each lemma. As was indicated in 2.4.5 the dictionary must accommodate a wide variety of pronunciations because of the SAE influence on SAAE wrought by the restandardisation process. As Wells (1985: 49) implies, an attempt to convey "extensive polylectal information" through orthographic transcriptions would lead to a complex system which would necessitate detailed study of the notation employed. The dictionary would then either employ easily understandable orthographic transcriptions that do not adequately reflect the SAAE pronunciation spectrum, or ones that can only be decoded with great difficulty, thereby detracting from the dictionary's user-friendliness.

A last possible objection to be raised against the inclusion of orthographic transcriptions is that there is not a single, standardised system used in all English monolingual dictionaries. Any system employed would then be an individual effort and could not be used in the teacher's/facilitator's efforts to prepare the learners to become competent users of dictionaries targeting adults.

Transcriptions based on a phonetic alphabet can overcome most of these obstacles, especially if that phonetic alphabet is the IPA. Lombard (1990: 110)



states that *the IPA is ... relatively simple, it is typographically clear and there is consistency in the symbol/sound relationship* (own translation). If a detailed key to pronunciation is provided in the proposed dictionary, any (mother-tongue or non-mother-tongue) user with a basic knowledge of the IPA will be able to decode transcriptions quickly and easily. The IPA is also able to reflect complex phonetic variation unambiguously.

Lombard (1990: 110) adds that *a further advantage is that IPA is so widely used* (own translation). Wells (1985: 49) makes it clear that "anyone seriously interested in pronunciation has to get to grips with phonetic transcription. The use of IPA symbols in English monolingual dictionaries for the native speaker is gaining ground in Britain ..., and in the EFL world the use of phonetic symbols has long been accepted as essential". Learners can therefore expect that, if they gain basic knowledge of IPA, this will stand them in good stead when confronted by many dictionaries targeting them in more advanced learning stages. The fact that IPA is highly standardised further means that the same symbols will mainly be used in all of these dictionaries to denote the same sounds.

#### **4.3.2.1.4.2 Current practice in the four dictionaries under discussion**

One of the dictionaries under discussion, SADJS, has opted to use the IPA. It employs this system effectively and gives a detailed key to its use of IPA in the front matter. The phonetic symbols are accompanied by examples of lexical items giving each specific sound and their possible transcriptions.

The other three dictionaries chose to present orthographic transcriptions. Unfortunately their application of respelling illustrates one of the major weaknesses of orthographic transcriptions, i.e. the lack of a standardised set of symbols for the sounds of the English language. Both SAOSD and *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary* present a transcription for the lemma **phraseology**. They also concur on how the individual sounds in the word should be

pronounced but the characters they choose to represent these sounds differ. SAOSD chooses "frayzeeolojee", whereas *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary* gives "freizioloji" as transcription. The two dictionaries differ considerably on the choice of symbols to represent vowels and diphthongs.

To their credit both SAOSD and *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary* do include keys to their respelling systems in the front matter. SAOSD gives a detailed key, whereas there are some problematic omissions from *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary's* key. The use of the symbol "l" is, for example, not explained.

*Collins Pocket School Dictionary (secondary)*, on the other hand, does not supply any pronunciation key. This error is compounded by the fact that the same sound is sometimes transcribed differently at different lemmas. Consider, for example, the transcriptions "rikoshay" at **ricochet**, and "roemayneean" at **Romanian**. The vowel denoted by [i] in the IPA is presented at **ricochet** as "l", but at **Romanian** as "ee". This testifies to a system that has neither been well thought through nor consistently applied.

#### **4.3.2.1.4.3 Conclusion**

Transcriptions according to the IPA have been shown to be more effective, less ambiguous and therefore user-friendlier than orthographic transcriptions. Yet, the problem of familiarity with the IPA remains. At this point, though, the dictionary culture must change to accommodate the lexicographer. The teaching of the IPA as a notation system has lost ground since the onset of the communicative approach to ELT. Many schools do, however, still seek to transfer at least an elementary knowledge of IPA at the junior secondary learning stage. This is usually done by means of dictionary exercises, which are included in the ELT-syllabi for grades 8 and 9.

The proposed dictionary can, by including dictionary exercises aimed at familiarising the learner with IPA, play an important role in aiding the teacher/facilitator in guiding the learners towards a vital outcome. Acquiring basic knowledge regarding the IPA will help to equip learners with at least one of the skills necessary to them becoming efficient, life-long users of dictionaries, a goal that is in line with the principles of OBE. The lexicographer must, however, support the user by giving a detailed guide to using the IPA in the front matter of the dictionary.

#### **4.3.2.1.5 Phonemic or phonetic transcriptions**

The choice of transcriptions based on a phonetic alphabet leads to a further question: should the transcription be phonetic or phonemic in nature? The typological profile of the proposed dictionary plays a determining role here. As has been shown in 2.4.5, the junior secondary school dictionary will have to make provision for some measure of pronunciation variation. A strict phonemic transcription is therefore impractical. Gouws's (1989: 259) judgement in this regard is valid:

A comparison of the advantages and disadvantages of these types of transcription proves that a phonetic transcription provides the linguistically most satisfactory results, especially because it represents a true phonological rendition of the true use of language (own translation).

#### **4.3.2.1.6 Transcriptions of pronunciation variants**

As was indicated above in 4.3.2.1.4.1, pronunciation variation will have to be indicated in the proposed dictionary. These variants will have to be treated with great care. The "main pronunciation" (Svensén 1993:72) will have to be determined strictly according to frequency of use. Further ordering should also be determined according to frequency of use. This corresponds with the empirical method used to determine which lexical items should be lemmatised.

The compiler(s) should preferably separate the transcriptions with "or" and a full transcription of each of these forms must seriously be considered. This would be the most sensitive and appropriate approach to follow, but these guidelines should be tested empirically, as it will be a difficult task for the compiler(s) to reconcile this comprehensive, user-oriented approach with the stringent demands on space in the proposed dictionary.

#### **4.3.2.1.7 Guidance on transcription**

Another important decision the lexicographer must take in pursuit of user-friendliness, is to explain and illustrate the method of transcription well. Comprehensive, easily understandable keys to pronunciation must be given. Flap-out guides, quick keys at the bottom of the page or other texts which present data on transcription in an immediately decodable fashion should also be considered. This will make the decoding of full transcriptions considerably easier.

#### **4.3.2.2 Syllable division and stress indication**

##### **4.3.2.2.1 Introduction**

An important advantage of full transcriptions, which has not yet been pointed out, is stated as follows by Gouws (1989: 255), *the transcription of the full lemma gives the lexicographer the space and opportunity to present stress indication and syllable division of the lemma* (own translation). The compiler(s) of a junior secondary school dictionary must grasp this opportunity as syllable division and stress indication are essential components of data on pronunciation, especially the more comprehensive data on pronunciation necessary for the dictionary to be used optimally in the OBE-classroom.

#### **4.3.2.2.2 Syllable division**

It is vital that a clear, well-designed system of syllable division based on phonological principles be employed in the proposed dictionary. In this way much of the confusion surrounding syllable division and line breaks can be cleared up. Divisions indicated on the lemma sign usually denote where a free lexical item can be broken at the end of a line during text production. Divisions that are indicated on the item giving the transcription are more accurate in representing separate syllables.

Of the four dictionaries under discussion, SAOSD and *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary* present syllable division on the items giving the transcription. Unfortunately this system loses some of its value due to the decision not to present transcriptions at all lemmas. SADJS, on the other hand, only presents data about line breaking on the lemma sign itself. The proposed dictionary should preferably employ both syllable division and data about line breaking, as this will increase its value as an encoding aid in both written and speech contexts. This idea is supported by Lombard (1990: 113), who states as a possible solution that in a school dictionary *the lemma should be presented orthographically with line-break indication (in the case of polysyllabic lemmas), followed by a transcription of the lemma with syllable division* (own translation).

Once the decision is taken to include syllable division on each item giving the transcription, the compiler has to decide which indication system to employ. In this regard Lombard (1990:113) suggests that *in a school dictionary syllable divisions can be explicitly indicated to the user by means of slashes* (own translation). The use of slashes may, however, confuse learners who are trying to obtain knowledge of the IPA, as slashes are used for phonemic transcriptions, in opposition to the square bracket used for a phonetic transcription. The choice of a phonetic transcription with slashes indicating syllable division, would then

lead to slashes inside the square brackets. This would decrease the user-friendliness of the dictionary.

SAOSD and *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary* present syllable division by means of dashes between the syllables, whereas SADJS employs full stops given mid-high in the line to indicate where line-breaks can occur. These conventions can be retained in the proposed dictionary, as this will draw an adequate contrast between syllable division and line breaking.

#### **4.3.2.2.3 Stress indication**

In addition to indicating syllable division, the proposed dictionary can also indicate the primary stressed syllable to further aid the learners in their encoding tasks. Gouws (1989:266) shows that indicating the primary stress on the lemma sign is not a linguistically sound approach, as *it represents a mixture of two sign systems* (own translation) (i.e. orthographic and phonetic). In the light of this judgement, Lombard (1990: 112) concludes that consideration must be given to *presenting data on stress, which is within the scope of the phonetic sign system, at the data on pronunciation rather than at the lemma* (own translation). SADJS, SAOSD and *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary* do present primary stress on the item giving the transcription. This would also be the most user-friendly and linguistically correct approach to follow in the proposed dictionary.

SADJS indicates stress by means of a vertical accent preceding the stressed syllable. According to Svensén (1993: 71) this is the standard approach in dictionaries adhering to the IPA as notation system for data on pronunciation. Lombard (1990: 112) argues compellingly that this system may not be "explicit" enough for learners, as they often do not bother to read the front matter and may therefore not know whether the accent is addressed at the superseding or the preceding syllable. He adds that *stress can be indicated in a school dictionary by underlining the syllable with the primary stress in the item giving the transcription*

(own translation). SAOSD, *Chambers School Super-Mini Dictionary* and *Collins Pocket School Dictionary (secondary)*, have all opted for an explicit indication of main stress, but none of these dictionaries have chosen to underline the stressed syllable. They have employed a typographical marker instead, choosing to present the stressed syllable in bold typeface.

The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary should consider an explicit indicator of stress, but the educational brief of the dictionary must be kept in mind. As was suggested in 4.3.2.1.4.3 the learner should be made familiar with the IPA at this learning stage and stress indication is an important component of the IPA. It might, therefore, be in the long-term interests of the target users to rather retain the vertical accent, but explain it well in the key to pronunciation, with a brief repetition in the quick key.

The commitment to reflecting pronunciation variation within SSAE, necessitates a further decision in the interests of the target users. Variation in terms of primary stress patterns must be reflected in the proposed dictionary. Each transcription needs to be repeated and the varying stress patterns indicated thereon. Varying stress patterns on free lexical items play an important part in the restandardisation of SSAE, and should therefore be reflected comprehensively and adequately.

In addition to these decisions regarding stress indication on lexical lemmas, the compilers of the proposed dictionary must also consider the treatment of multilexical lemmas. In this regard the following statement by Gouws (1989: 259) is valid: *in the case of multilexical lemmas that contain more than one polysyllabic word, indication of primary stress for each of these polysyllabic words should be considered* (own translation). As transcriptions can be provided for multilexical lemmas in the proposed dictionary, this should be an attainable ideal. Space constraints may, however, dictate that multilexical lexical items that are not lemmatised as main lemmas (e.g. idioms) should not be accompanied by

transcriptions, in which case primary stress should either not be indicated, or be indicated on the idiom itself.

Should the practice of indicating stress on constituents of multilexical sublemmas or other subaddresses be accepted, this system could tie in with the indication of primary stress on one-word sublemma signs. This system could be a valuable addition, provided this deviation from the normal placement of stress on the item giving the transcription is explained well in the user's guide. The lexicographer must, however, weigh up whether this added value is enough to risk following an approach that, as was indicated above, *represents a mixture of two sign systems* (own translation) (Gouws 1989:266). In this regard, empirical data drawn from the proposed study may again prove useful in deciding the matter.

#### **4.3.3 Criteria for selecting data on pronunciation**

After determining which types of data on pronunciation should be included in the proposed dictionary, the compilers have to decide which criteria will be employed in the selection of the data on pronunciation. In keeping with other selection and ordering criteria suggested in this dissertation, it would be advisable to employ empirical criteria in this selection process. It has already been stated that transcripts and accompanying phonetic transcriptions of speeches and other formal spoken speech need to be included in the corpus used to compile the proposed dictionary. As with the component drawn from written language, the compilers must attempt to keep the component of the corpus drawn from spoken language as balanced as possible. Selection and ordering of items giving data on pronunciation can then be based purely on frequency of use in real language use. This approach would enable the compiler to *convince his user easily of the authority of his dictionary* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 264).



#### **4.3.4 Conclusion**

A balanced, comprehensive approach to the presentation of data on pronunciation is a necessity for the proposed dictionary and for its effective use to further oral communication in an OBE-classroom. This approach must encompass the inclusion of items giving transcriptions, which can then provide the base forms for the indication of stress and syllable division. Lastly, the criteria for the selection of data on pronunciation must be scientifically defensible and should be explained carefully in the user's guide.

#### **4.4 Data on grammar**

##### **4.4.1 Introduction**

As was the case with data on semantics and data on pronunciation, data on grammar needs to be provided if the proposed dictionary is to fulfil its educational and communicative goals and functions. Data on grammar is part of the junior secondary syllabus and care should be taken in the proposed dictionary to include those aspects of grammar that are relevant to learners in this pivotal learning stage. Teacher/facilitator input in the compilation process is therefore very important, as teachers/facilitators are often most capable of adequately describing the needs of the learner at the relevant learning stage. The proposed dictionary can meet the educational needs of the target user by presenting a mini-grammar covering the relevant aspects of grammar (see 5.3.2.3 for a more detailed discussion) and by including detailed, relevant data on pronunciation in its microstructure. Furthermore, data on grammar needs to be presented, as detailed understanding of the syntactic and morphological rules governing the use of a lexical item is crucial to the learner employing it in specific discourse situations.

The advent of the communicative approach to ELT has led many South African schools that previously adopted a traditionally formalistic approach to grammar teaching to try to find a more balanced approach. This search for balance has produced syllabi in which data on grammar is still, to some extent, presented explicitly, but in which there is a greater emphasis on the implicit transfer of data on grammar by means of comprehension tests, text production and other communicative exercises. This search for balance needs to be reflected in a junior secondary school dictionary's presentation of data on grammar, should such a dictionary attempt to be an effective decoding and encoding aid to learners. In the following sections it will be shown that data on syntax and morphology need to be presented both explicitly and implicitly in the microstructure of the proposed dictionary.

#### **4.4.2 Data on syntax**

##### **4.4.2.1 Introduction**

It is vital that learners at this learning stage obtain the skills necessary to recognise syntactic patterns and to create or employ syntactic constructions appropriately. The first step in this process is to recognise the part of speech of a specific lexical item.

##### **4.4.2.2 Part of speech**

###### **4.4.2.2.1 Introduction**

Svensén (1993:81) remarks that data on part of speech is especially useful in decoding look-up situations. He adds that data on part of speech is particularly vital in monolingual dictionaries that include, as part of their target user group, "persons whose native language is not the language of the dictionary". He goes on to concede that, despite data on part of speech not being as relevant "in

monolingual dictionaries in the user's native language", such data is still "indispensable if the word concerned can belong to more than one part of speech ..., for homographs, and elsewhere when clarity demands it" (Svensén 1993:81). The proposed dictionary, which targets both mother-tongue and non-mother-tongue speakers of English, must present comprehensive data on the part of speech of each lexical item that is lemmatised or sublemmatised. The compilers may consider not presenting data on part of speech at sublemmas that share the same part of speech as the lemma. This procedure will save some space, but must be explained in the user's guide as not all users can be expected to understand it automatically.

#### **4.4.2.2.2 The indication and positioning of data on part of speech**

The need to save space is a determining factor in the decision on which methods to use to present data on part of speech. It could be argued that the target users of the proposed dictionary would benefit most from an unabbreviated item giving the part of speech, e.g. "noun", "verb" or "adjective". Yet unabbreviated items may not be expedient, especially not if a secondary lexical classification (see 4.4.2.2.3) is attempted.

Mccorduck (1993: 145) states that "the limitations on space in print dictionaries necessitate that information regarding words be offered in the most concise form possible, and codes or other abbreviated forms are quite efficient in this respect". He (1993: 145) does, however, add the following warning: "In the use of codes in particular, clarity is often sacrificed for economy, and if learners cannot interpret minimalized and obscure codes the whole purpose of providing codes to provide practical information on grammar is defeated". If codes or abbreviations are employed in the proposed dictionary they need to be kept as transparent as possible, especially in cases where a secondary lexical classification (see 4.4.2.2.3) is given. It cannot be assumed that learners at the junior secondary

learning stage have the necessary skills to decode complex codes or abbreviations, even with the help of a detailed user's guide.

In dictionaries such as SADJS and SAOSD that either exclusively or predominantly apply a primary lexical classification, the compilers have deemed there to be enough space to print an unabbreviated item. They have further chosen to print these items in italic typeface, thereby creating items that are typographically distinct from the surrounding items that present other types of data. Both dictionaries place the items giving data on part of speech (at lemmas with one part of speech) in an article position where it is preceded by either the lemma sign or the item giving the pronunciation (should data on pronunciation be provided) and followed by items giving data on morphology. See 4.4.2.2.5 for a discussion of lemmas with more than one part of speech. Such distinctive items, placed centrally in the comment on form, should strongly be considered in the proposed dictionary.

COBUILD does, however, provide an alternative to the linear article positioning, as practised in SADJS and SAOSD. In this dictionary the items giving the part of speech are not presented in the conventional article position in the microstructure. A column to the right of each article contains this essential grammatical data. This system works well in an advanced learners' dictionary such as COBUILD with its emphasis on the rapid transfer of data. Some questions can, however, be raised about the appropriateness of such a procedure in the proposed dictionary.

Firstly, it can be argued that the placement of the item giving data on the part of speech in a separate access structure disrupts the coherence of the comment on form. This is certainly the case in COBUILD, where the data on pronunciation and on morphology is left in their usual article positions in the microstructure and only the item giving the data on part of speech is moved to the separate column. The coherent unit formed by items giving data on part of speech and those giving

data on morphology should rather be maintained in the proposed dictionary. The use of a column also complicates the addressing structure of the dictionary (see 5.2.3.3.1), which could further be to the detriment of user-friendliness.

Further problems with the use of a column to the right of the main body of the microstructure are mainly economical in nature. The use of a column for only a selected number of types of data wastes space that could be utilised fruitfully elsewhere. In a smaller dictionary, such as the one proposed, space is at a premium and the structural proposals made elsewhere in this dissertation demands that as little white space as possible remains. Furthermore, the typesetting programs and expertise necessary to obtain an extra column that is typographically distinct from the main body may increase the costs to such an extent that the vision of a cheap, mass-produced, distinctly South African dictionary of high quality, may be compromised in the process. It remains to be proven that extra columns add enough value to the dictionary, to justify the extra cost.

#### **4.4.2.2.3 Comprehensiveness of the items giving data on part of speech**

In 4.4.2.2.2 it was shown that concerns regarding space play an important role in the indication of part of speech. The demands on space become pressing when a decision is taken not to restrict the presentation to a primary lexical classification. Any innovative system of part of speech indication suitable for use in the proposed dictionary must therefore address the issue of comprehensiveness of lexical classification. Al-Kasimi (1977:48) correctly argues that part of speech indication is often not comprehensive enough. He states as an example that "most dictionaries use the label 'noun', for instance, but they fail to indicate the subcategories of this class such as mass noun and count noun".

Gouws (1989: 223) distinguishes in this regard two types of part of speech indication, i.e. a primary and a secondary lexical classification. He adds that a *secondary lexical classification is a subclassification addressed at the primary classification and which should be read in unison with it* (own translation). He concurs with Al-Kasimi by stating that *the application of only a primary lexical classification leads, in the case of many lemmas, to too broad a classification* (own translation).

The target users of the proposed dictionary would benefit greatly from more comprehensive aid regarding part of speech. The secondary lexical classifications given must, though, not exceed those classifications that form part of the syllabus for ELT in the junior secondary learning stage. The following types of data, among others, can be considered for inclusion: data regarding the transitivity or lack thereof at verbs and whether verbs are finite or non-finite; data regarding the countability of nouns and whether nouns are animate or inanimate; data regarding the type of pronoun; data regarding attributive or predicative use of adjectives.

As has been stated in 4.4.2.2.2, the decision to include primary and secondary lexical classifications necessitates the consideration of coded or abbreviated items giving data on part of speech. In junior secondary syllabi, abbreviations for different parts of speech are often taught, either as part of general grammar teaching or as part of the acquisition of dictionary skills. Abbreviations such as v. for verb, n. for noun, adj. for adjective, adv. for adverb, pron. for pronoun, etc. should strongly be considered as items giving the primary lexical classification. The abbreviations for secondary lexical classifications are perhaps not as widely taught, but, in order to save space and maintain the coherence of the item, these could be abbreviated as well. It would not, in this instance, be unreasonable to expect the user to look up an unfamiliar abbreviation in the front matter. It is equally reasonable to request that syllabi adapt in order to include abbreviations for both primary and secondary lexical classifications.

#### **4.4.2.2.4 Word-based classification**

The term lexical classification employed in the previous section implies that a choice should be made regarding the extent of the classification. In current monolingual dictionaries with English as treated language, part of speech classification is too often applied only to words and not to all lexical items. Sublexical and multilexical lexical items are often shunned when it comes to part of speech indication. Gouws (1989:214) correctly pleads for *a lexically based approach which does not only target words as the elements that structure the vocabulary of a given language, but rather the lexical items that structure the lexicon of that language* (own translation). Such an approach presupposes the lemmatisation of certain types of sublexical and multilexical lexical items (see chapter three), but also a system of part of speech indication addressed at these lemmas.

SADJS and SAOSD do employ a system addressed at sublexical lemmas. Some prefixes are lemmatised and are classified with the item *prefix*. As was shown in chapter three, the proposed dictionary should be more comprehensive in the lemmatisation of sublexical and multilexical lexical items. This will, however, also demand a more comprehensive lexical classification system in which provision is made for, e.g., prefixes and suffixes, as well as idioms, proverbs, loan groups and group prepositions. These items should preferably be presented unabbreviated as learners may not be as familiar with the abbreviations for these classifications as they are expected to be with those for traditional parts of speech.

#### **4.4.2.2.5 Lexical items with more than one syntactic function**

Another obstacle relating to parts of speech is the treatment of lexical items with more than one syntactic function. Practical lexicographers seem to be divided on

how to deal with this obstacle. Some choose to list all different parts of speech as homonyms. This approach is favoured in SAOSD in a case such as **post**, where, for example, the noun **post** as "1 the collecting and delivering of letters, parcels, etc." and "2 these letters and parcels etc." is treated in a separate article and numerically distinguished from the verb **post**, "put a letter or parcel etc. into a post-box or post office for collection". There has been some metalexicographical support for this concept of "grammatical homonymy", but as Gouws (1989: 128-129) argues, homonymy should be determined solely by using semantic criteria, and therefore there should be no place for either the concept of "grammatical homonymy" or for its application in practical lexicography.

A second, theoretically sounder approach dictates that what is semantically linked should be presented in the same article and different parts of speech of a single lexical item are therefore presented in different search zones in the article. Current lexicographic practice, in accordance with current directions in metalexicography, dictates that the search zones for varying parts of speech must be demarcated clearly. These search zones can be introduced numerically, e.g. by means of capitalised roman numerals as in WAT, but more innovative non-typographical structural indicators seem to be preferred in smaller dictionaries. These structural indicators can take the form of blocks (e.g. in HAT), arrows (e.g. in OALD), etc. The part of speech indication which follows the structural indicator is often given a distinctive formatting, e.g. bold, to separate it from the pre- and superseding data categories. Presenting the part of speech indicator in a different colour font or font type could further serve to draw attention to the fact that the user is confronted with a different part of speech. Lastly, some dictionaries accommodate users on their inner search path by means of a user-friendlier micro-architecture. Search zones for varying parts of speech then start on separate lines.



SADJS adheres to an approach of presenting different, yet semantically similar, parts of speech in separate search zones within an article, as is illustrated by **quiet**.

**'qui·et** /'kwaɪət/ *adjective* **1** making little or no noise: *Tell the children to be quiet; It's very quiet out in the country; a quiet person.* **2** free from worry, excitement etc: *I live a very quiet life.* **3** not busy: *We'll have a quiet afternoon watching television.* — *noun* a quiet state or time: *in the quiet of the night; All I want is peace and quiet.* **'qui·et·ly** *adverb.* **'qui·et·ness** *noun.*

Though SADJS's theoretical approach is sound, its application fails the user. The second and/or following search zones are not demarcated satisfactorily. Firstly, a long dash is given as structural indicator. This is not a unique structural indicator, as it appears elsewhere in the dictionary in a different context, e.g. in its normal syntactic use in the following example under **reason**: "*Only humans have the power of reason — animals have not*". In this case, to confuse matters further, a long dash that introduces a next search zone directly follows this example.

It is further conceivable that some users may not easily come to terms with the reinterpretation of an ordinary punctuation mark as a structural indicator. SADJS compounds the confusion by not explaining the use of the dash in the user's guide. The dictionary article presented as an example of how different parts of speech are treated in the dictionary does not even contain the long dash despite it being used consistently in the main text of the dictionary. No mention is made of it in the accompanying caption either. This lack of innovation and clarity defies the principle of user-friendliness.

The readability of the dictionary article is further compromised by SADJS's decision to leave the structural indicator introducing the new part of speech on the same line as the preceding search zone's data. The space saved by such a procedure should be weighed up against its negative effects on the user-friendliness of the dictionary. In this case it could certainly be argued that the user would have benefited more from a clearer demarcation by means of an innovative structural indicator on a new line. This would also be the best system to use in any future South African junior secondary school dictionary.

### **4.4.2.3 Examples**

#### **4.4.2.3.1 Introduction**

In addition to recognising parts of speech, the target users of the proposed dictionary will have to, as was pointed out in 4.4.2.1, be able to create or employ syntactic constructions appropriately. Svensén (1993: 87) rightly surmises that "exhaustive information about constructions is most important in dictionaries intended wholly or partly for active use, since the user is presumed to be imperfectly familiar with the target language, and therefore to have incomplete or no intuition as regards the construction". The proposed dictionary certainly has this encoding function and it can be assumed that there will be imperfect linguistic intuition in a large part of its target user group. Therefore this junior secondary school dictionary must include detailed linguistic examples in the form of co-text entries in each integrate to present the necessary data on constructions.

Linguistic examples have been shown in 4.2.2.5 to have an important role in supplementing the transfer of meaning by providing further encyclopaedic data. A study conducted by Harvey and Yuill has even shown "that learners do indeed look to examples for the elucidation of meaning. What is more learners look for and locate meaning in examples ..." (Harvey and Yuill 1997: 262). Yet it can be

argued that the function of linguistic examples is primarily syntactic. Summers (1988:117) further clarifies the functions of linguistic examples as follows: "Examples in dictionaries are of course absolutely essential both to extend the user's comprehension, and to provide models for students to remember and perhaps eventually produce, by putting individual words into a range of typical contexts and appropriate phrases". This syntactic function must also be supplemented by a morphological function, with linguistic examples illustrating different inflected forms and transparent derivatives of the lemma (see 3.5). This function of linguistic examples as carriers of vital data on grammar is underlined by Mccorduck, when he (1993: 24) states that "an insufficient number of examples accompanying grammatical information in codes can in fact be detrimental to a user's performance in English". Collocations and constructed example sentences and phrases in the proposed dictionary should fulfil these vital functions.

#### **4.4.2.3.2 Collocations**

Collocations are lexical combinations that are usually included in the microstructure as co-text entries in order to illustrate *the typical microsyntactic context of the lemma* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 227). These combinations are typical and usually transparent. They therefore do not have lexical status as a whole, but comprehensive inclusion is still a necessity, *especially in pedagogical and translation dictionaries* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 227). Cop (1991: 2776) states as reason for their inclusion that "even transparent collocations must be present, because they are not predictable". This sentiment is echoed by Svénen (1993: 101): "Information about collocations is important in both monolingual and active bilingual dictionaries, since the user cannot be expected to know which words customarily occur together". Data on collocations provides microsyntactic empowerment, especially to users using their dictionaries in an encoding task.

It has been shown before (e.g. in 3.3.2.3 and 3.5) that transparency is, however, a problematic concept as users' perceptions of what is and is not transparent can differ vastly. It would therefore be wise for the lexicographer to err on the side of caution and ensure that collocations the transparency of which is at all doubtful, be included as treatment units. The extent of the treatment will depend on the perceived lack of transparency (the lexicographer has to exercise sound judgement, but empirical research could also be of value here). It can include a short item giving a paraphrase of meaning, constructed examples showing the macrosyntactic use of the collocation, or a combination of these two data types.

If collocations are to be truly user-friendly, they *must reflect natural language* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 227). It is therefore very important that corpus data is analysed in order to identify possible collocations. The superior sorting prowess of the new generation of corpus querying tools makes this a relatively standard task for the lexicographer. These programs have the additional advantage of indicating the frequency of use of each collocation to the lexicographer. Should there then be a need to only select certain collocations, due to there being too many to include, the lexicographer can select the most typical ones.

#### **4.4.2.3.3 Example sentences**

In contrast to the microsyntactic data provided by collocations, *example sentences provide data on the macrosyntactic context of the lemma* (own translation) (Gouws 1989:229). Example sentences have to be selected with great care and must reflect syntactic patterns (sentence structure, word order, etc.), morphological variation (inflected forms and transparent derivatives) and punctuation rules governing the use of the lemma. Gouws (1989: 229) summarises by stating that *example sentences must ... be chosen in such a way that they illustrate both typical and problematic aspects of the lemma's behaviour in context* (own translation).

The value of example sentences may be indisputable, but the compilers of the proposed dictionary do face a tough choice regarding the nature of example sentences to be included. It must be decided whether to employ citations or example sentences constructed by the compilers. It could be argued that citations would better be able to reflect natural language and the syntactic variation that the proposed dictionary will need to include. Yet citations are often bulky and it is often not possible to find a citation to match exactly what the lexicographer wishes to portray. In this regard Lombard (1990: 239) states that *the use of constructed example sentences in school dictionaries is ... more functional than the use of citations* (own translation). He (1990: 239) adds the following:

Constructed examples can fulfil all the functions of citations and these examples can be adapted by the lexicographer to precisely meet the needs of the lexicographer and especially those of the target users (own translation).

The lexicographer must, however, base these constructed examples on real language use by, for example, modifying or shortening examples drawn from the corpus. Artificial examples or example sentences that are semantically empty should be avoided at all cost.

Another issue also demands close attention. As will be reiterated in 5.2.2.2.2, the inclusion of collocations as treatment units demands a clear separation between the collocation and its treatment, and the constructed examples with the lemma as address. This does not necessarily mean that these items should be placed in distant search zones, but rather that a clear, easily understandable structural indicator that is explained well in the user's guide should separate the data categories. The micro-architecture (e.g. placement on a new line) can also be adapted to further clarify the treatment. It is, in fact, important for the coherence of the integrates that collocations and constructed examples be

grouped in close proximity, as this will give the user swift access to both the micro- and macrosyntactic patterns governing the use of the lemma.

#### **4.4.2.3.4 Current practice in the dictionaries under discussion**

There is a marked difference in the treatment of linguistic examples in SADJS and SAOSD. SADJS presents detailed example material in the form of collocations and constructed examples, whereas SAOSD opts for a larger macrostructure at the cost of linguistic examples. SAOSD does present some collocations and a very limited number of constructed example sentences.

There is, however, a significant problem in both these dictionaries' placement of less transparent collocations that act as treatment units. As has been mentioned in 3.4.4.3, these collocations are displaced from the normal search zone for syntactic data in the integrate and moved to the end of the article to be lumped together with compound nouns consisting of more than one constituent, and idioms. This move has various implications. Firstly, it is very difficult for the target user to determine which type of data is being dealt with. This treatment therefore clashes with a basic lexicographic principle that is propagated in this dissertation, i.e. that each data type should be treated distinctly. Secondly, as was suggested in 4.4.2.3.3, the displacement disrupts the coherence in the integrate, in that the micro- and macrosyntactic data are now distant.

Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, SAOSD and SADJS's placement of collocations at the end of an article complicates the search path at polysemous lemmas or lemmas with more than one syntactic function. Collocations may vary in transparency, but the guiding principle in determining whether a phrase is a collocation is still that there is a discernable correspondence between the lexical item represented by the lemma's manifestation in the collocation and the meaning of either the lexical item represented by the lemma or sense of the lexical item represented by the lemma. At **long** in SADJS, for example, the

collocation **before long** corresponds to the second sense of **long**, but interspersed between them are the third sense, a compound noun (**long jump**) and an idiom. The user has to follow a complicated remote addressing procedure to bring all the relevant data together. It would therefore be much more sensible to include the collocation at the specific sense or syntactic function it corresponds to.

#### **4.4.2.3.5 Conclusion**

The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary should seek to emulate SADJS's more comprehensive inclusion of example material. Comprehensive guidance is essential in helping learners to achieve the vital outcome of constructing phrases and sentences adequately during written communication. Such guidance is vital in the OBE-classroom and is best given at specific articles in a dictionary. The collocations and constructed examples should, however, rather be presented in close proximity to one another in a specific search zone reserved for micro- and macrosyntactic data in the integrate. Lastly, collocations and constructed examples should be separated clearly, preferably by means of a distinctive structural indicator.

#### **4.4.3 Data on morphology**

##### **4.4.3.1 Introduction**

Items giving data on morphology that are included in the microstructure of the proposed dictionary must present vital data on the construction of individual lexical items, where this data is immediately relevant to the user on his/her search path. Lombard (1990: 150) states that:

The compiler of a school dictionary has a big task regarding the presentation of data on morphology, in that it must be dealt with comprehensively, as morphology is truly relevant to the learner because it

provides excellent insight into the structure of linguistic elements (own translation).

The study of English morphology is part of most junior secondary ELT syllabi and the dictionary should, in its microstructure, supplement the general rules which are being brought across in the classroom, with specific data on how these rules work in on the lemma that is being looked up. A summary of these rules need to be provided in the mini-grammar (see chapter five), which is *the ideal place where information regarding the most general morphological processes that are active in the language can be presented* (own translation) (Gouws 1989: 233).

#### **4.4.3.2 The nature and article position of items giving data on morphology**

Those items giving data on morphology, which are embedded in the microstructure, mainly bear evidence, as was suggested in 4.4.3.1, to the way morphological rules apply to the lemma. Therefore they usually have a lemmatic addressing. This applies particularly to inflected forms of the lemma. In monolingual dictionaries targeting adult mother-tongue speakers, these inflected forms are often abbreviated and regular inflected forms are even omitted in order to save space. Svensén (1993:76-80) sets excellent guidelines for how such space-saving mechanisms can be constructed, primarily by means of textual condensation.

Abbreviations and omissions may be useful in saving space, but they are seemingly in conflict with the plea for a comprehensive treatment of morphology made by Lombard (1990: 150). The compilers of SADJS and SAOSD have answered this plea with unabbreviated items giving data on morphology, which present the inflected forms and other morphological data. These items follow the item giving the part of speech in the comment on form or comment on form and semantics. In both dictionaries these items are grouped together between brackets and are made typographically distinct from the preceding and



superseding data types by being presented in bold typeface. The data provided includes the following: plurals and diminutives at nouns; third person singular of the present tense, past tense and past and present participles at verbs and comparatives and superlatives at adjectives.

A possible misgiving regarding the construction of these items is that their nature is not made explicit in the microstructure by means of unambiguous non-typographical structural indicators. To their credit, both dictionaries do offer clear explanations of the inflections indicated, as well as the order in which they are indicated, either in the key to entries (SADJS) or the user's guide (SAOSD). Codes which precede the given item should, however, be considered to show what type of morphological data is being given in the proposed dictionary, providing these codes are kept as transparent as possible and are explained in the user's guide. The need for and efficacy of these codes need to be tested in the empirical study conducted by the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary.

Irregular inflected forms need to be included in the groups of items giving data on inflection. Yet, as Svensén (1993: 79) correctly argues, "irregular inflected words must be included as separate headwords in dictionaries intended entirely or partly for passive use, with a cross-reference to the basic form". The proposed dictionary will be employed in reading exercises and therefore needs to follow this approach.

#### **4.4.3.3 Other types of data on morphology**

It is not, however, only data on inflexion that needs to be presented. The treatment of compounds and derivatives has already merited some discussion in chapter three. Transparent derivatives with the lexical item represented by the lemma sign as first component need to be included as sublemmas under that lemma sign, preferably attached at the end of the article where they can function with relative independence as treatment units. This is necessary particularly in

cases where the part of speech of the derivative differs from that of the lemma. These derivatives can be presented on a new line and indented and attached in nests at the end of the article, but each of these items can be presented in similar typeface to the lemma in order to underline its status as a macrostructural treatment unit. Part of speech-markers can then be provided where necessary. However, as was surmised in 3.3.2.3, compound lexical items and less transparent derivatives that meet the frequency requirements need to be included as main lemmas and treated in full. For a more comprehensive discussion on these issues, see 3.3.2.3 and 3.5.

Lastly, sublexical lexical items that present vital data on word-formation are important components of the effective transfer of data on morphology and vital to the user engaging in encoding activities. In 3.4.3 it was proposed that stems, prefixes and suffixes that meet the frequency requirements be lemmatised and treated comprehensively. It was also suggested that general rule-formulations regarding morphological processes be provided in the mini-grammar and that there should be adequate cross-referencing between the central list and the mini-grammar. Only a comprehensive approach in which the data contained in the microstructure is supplemented by data in the mini-grammar could meet the needs of all the target users of the proposed dictionary.

#### **4.4.4 Conclusion**

Data on grammar needs to be presented more comprehensively in a future junior secondary school dictionary in order to make it relevant for use in OBE-classrooms. Such a comprehensive presentation will aid users using the dictionary for encoding and decoding tasks.

## **4.5 Pragmatic data**

### **4.5.1 Introduction**

The descriptive nature of the proposed dictionary should not preclude the compiler(s) from presenting vital pragmatic data. In fact, one of the dictionary's main functions is to empower its target users in real communicative situations, in which case a strict linguistic description of a lexical item may not suffice. The user may, for example, need additional data on usage restrictions, attitudes of members of the broader speech community towards the lexical item, additional encyclopaedic data that may be relevant to learners in the course of their studies and, in some cases, even normative guidance.

### **4.5.2 Lexicographical labels**

The carrier of pragmatic data that, in many dictionaries, best balances prominence in the dictionary article with frequency of use in the dictionary, is the lexicographical label. Lombard (1990: 101) aptly comments that, *as labels normally appear in a focal position in an article, they are responsible for an immediate data transfer during the first reading of the article* (own translation). He (1990: 101) concludes that *it is therefore important that they be easily understandable, especially in a school dictionary* (own translation).

The preceding statement by Lombard implies that a school dictionary should indeed include labels, but there is some debate regarding this point. Neither the compilers of SADJS, nor those of SAOSD have opted for the consistent use of labels to present data on usage. Pragmatic data is presented extremely sparingly in the microstructures of these dictionaries, usually by means of usage notes.

Labels can indicate restrictions on use, usually where a lexical item deviates from standard language. In 2.4.5 and 3.2.1 it was postulated that the proposed dictionary would mainly draw its macrostructural selection from Standard South African English (SSAE). Some exceptions to this general rule were, however, identified. One possible microstructural implication of the inclusion of these exceptions is the need for a diverse set of lexicographical labels to flag these deviations from SSAE adequately.

The first - and possibly largest - group of non-SSAE terms or terms that do not strictly meet the frequency requirements, are the lexical items from technical language that are necessary for a better understanding of all the relevant learning areas (see 3.2.2.3). Lombard (1990: 105) aptly summarises the situation as follows:

As a school dictionary has the syllabi used at school as its macrostructural source, it will probably contain more technical or specialist terms than would originally be suspected. Terms of this nature that have a low frequency of use should be marked by means of subject field labels (own translation).

These subject field labels need to be brief, but in order to maintain the immediacy of data transfer, should preferably not be abbreviated. Furthermore, in cases where they correspond directly with programmes in a learning area, the label should reflect the name of the programme or even the overarching learning area.

Colloquialisms make up a second possible exception and may need detailed stylistic labelling to ensure that learners gain an accurate understanding of the restrictions on their use, especially in formal contexts. As was mentioned in 3.2.2.2 a consistent system of labels needs to be found and the label *informal* used by SADJS (in a rare departure from its non-use of labels) should be considered. Though a label such as *colloquial* would be more accurate, *informal* may be easier to understand. It could also be used in combination with a label

such as *formal*, which can be employed to flag those lemmas or sublemmas that belong to a variety elevated above the standard.

Lastly, it needs to be decided whether regional variation should be labelled by means of geographical labels. However, it may be of more value to impart this type of pragmatic guidance by means of items giving data on etymology (see 4.6).

Labels are extremely efficient and compact carriers of vital pragmatic data and should be employed to indicate any deviations from the default inclusion policy of the proposed dictionary. These deviations are, as has been indicated in chapter two, the direct result of the functions and goals of the dictionary, which, in turn, have been determined by the needs of its target user. Labels are therefore a very important microstructural mechanism for helping meet these needs of the target users.

### **4.5.3 Ostensive illustrations as microstructural items**

#### **4.5.3.1 The value of ostensive illustrations**

Ostensive illustrations can be included as microstructural items and can fulfil a very important function by providing "visual support for the description of the meaning content of linguistic units" (Svensén 1993: 167). Illustrations are particularly important in a school dictionary, even in one targeting older learners such as the proposed dictionary. Svensén (1993: 167–168) describes this educational criterion for inclusion as follows: "A picture reinforces learning, and also a picture may often, quite differently from a definition, appeal to the reader's previous experience of the world, and enable him to achieve fresh insights". He (1993: 168) adds that, due to the ability of illustrations to activate earlier experience with an object, concept, etc. better than an item giving the

paraphrase of meaning, "illustrations are therefore more important in children's dictionaries than in dictionaries for adults".

#### **4.5.3.2 Reservations regarding the employment of ostensive illustrations**

There are some reservations which may be expressed regarding the inclusion of illustrations in the proposed dictionary. Most importantly, it can be argued that "they are rather space consuming" (Bogaards 1999: 122) and, accordingly, expensive. Possible counter-arguments are that illustrations do, however, significantly improve the user-friendliness and educational value of a school dictionary and that, as is put forward by Svensén (1993: 167), they can "save space in many cases where a purely verbal description would have to be very detailed".

Another argument often used against the inclusion of illustrations is that they tend to increase the load of encyclopaedic data in the dictionary. Gouws (1994: 69-71) has, however, shown that this criticism has mainly originated due to the ill-considered use of illustrations in some monolingual dictionaries, where illustrations are not used to complement the verbal data transfer, but rather to repeat it. He (1994: 69) clearly points out that a measure of encyclopaedic data is not necessarily unacceptable and that the use of illustrations should be seen against the backdrop of the *allowable encyclopaedic load* (own translation) of the specific dictionary. In accordance with the criteria set out in 4.2.2.5 it can therefore be argued that illustrations can be included in the proposed dictionary, not only because of their pedagogical value, but also because of their efficacy in reflecting more of the encyclopaedic object-constituting knowledge of a specific lexical item. Great care must, however, be taken not to duplicate too much of the data already present in the item giving the paraphrase of meaning and in the example material.

Bogaards (1999: 122) does mention another potential "drawback" of illustrations that should cause the lexicographer to proceed with caution, i.e. that "it is difficult to find pictures which are clear to learners with very different cultural backgrounds and which at the same time conserve a flavour of authenticity ...".

The compilers of the proposed dictionary do have an advantage in this regard, i.e. that their dictionary mainly targets South African learners attempting to master the English language. There is, admittedly, a high measure of cultural diversity in this target user group and more research does need to be done to determine whether these cultural groupings conceptualise in different ways the types of objects, actions and descriptors that can be illustrated ostensively. There is a strong case to be made out, though, that there is a shared South African experience and, accordingly, a shared South African cultural identity, which the compilers must seek to reflect. SADJS seems to have struck a balance that should be emulated, interspersing generic illustrations with illustrations that are specifically relevant to South African learners. The inclusion of illustrations of many animals characteristically found in South Africa and the inclusion of an *AK 47* assault rifle in the group illustration at **gun** serves as examples of this commitment to making the illustrations relevant to South African learners.

#### **4.5.3.3 The positioning of ostensive illustrations in the proposed dictionary**

Once the decision has been taken to include illustrations, due consideration needs to be given to where these illustrations should be placed. The placement of these items is mainly determined by their nature. Large pictures with an intricate set of captions have been employed to good effect in the back matter of RD, a bilingual family dictionary, and have proved especially useful in avoiding the pitfall of inclusion in both sides of the bidirectional dictionary. In a monolingual school dictionary, in which large pictures would be impractical and the emphasis is on the immediacy of data transfer, smaller pictures included as

microstructural items addressed at either one, or at a select few lemmas can be argued to be both expedient and effective.

Great care should, however, be taken in the typesetting process to ensure that these texts are positioned close to the lemma (or sense) they are addressed at and, should they be addressed at more than one lemma, the compilers should ensure that adequate article-external cross-references establish rapid access both to the target entry and, from there, to the relevant illustration.

#### **4.5.3.4 A classification of types of ostensive illustrations**

The decision to include smaller illustrations in the microstructure necessitates careful planning as to which types of ostensive illustrations to include. It is not within the scope of this dissertation to provide an extensive typology of ostensive illustrations. Aspects of such typologies (as contained e.g. in Svensén (1993: 171 – 178) and Ilson (1987: 193 – 199)) will, however, be employed in the following brief discussion on preferred illustration types for the proposed dictionary and in 4.5.3.5, in which the use of ostensive illustrations in SADJS will be discussed.

A possible starting-point in determining which types of illustrations to employ would be to decide which parts of speech should need ostensive explication. This potential classification is purely of practical value to the lexicographer, as it provides an easily classifiable point of departure in the dictionary design. The efficacy of other classification systems could be probed in the lead-up to the dictionary design phase.

As nouns are the primary part of speech earmarked for exemplification by ostensive means, a more detailed discussion of nouns must follow. Yet, ostensive illustrations can also be employed with other parts of speech, in particular with adjectives and verbs.



Adjectives that make up a set of antonyms or a complementary pair (tall/short, thick/thin, etc.) can be illustrated well by means of a picture, providing that the illustration is easily decodable and there are adequate cross-references to the correct lemmas or senses that the picture applies to. The success of the illustration of adjectives does (despite the lexicographer's best efforts to ensure clarity) to some extent depend on the user's ability to understand the abstract relationship between the picture and the lexical item(s) it attempts to illustrate, e.g. that the illustration of two boys of disparate height standing next to each other can illustrate the difference between *tall* and *short*. Ilson (1987: 198) therefore validly surmises that a "verbal explanation is a necessary complement to the picture".

There is also "a risk of misunderstanding" (Svensén 1993: 178) in cases where verbs are supplied with ostensive illustrations. Where the exact reference of the picture is not adequately clarified the user could easily mistake the main focal point as being one of the nouns in the picture, rather than the action being depicted.

Nouns will form the focal point of most illustrations and nouns can be depicted in several different ways. In a relatively small school dictionary one can expect that the majority of ostensive illustrations in the microstructure will "show just one object of the kind concerned, without comment. One must then assume that the one shown is representative of its class" (Svensén 1993: 171). Yet, there are also three other illustration types that can function effectively as microstructural items in the proposed dictionary, despite the obvious limitations on space. Svensén (1993: 172-174) identifies these as illustrations depicting "several objects of the same class", those depicting "an object in its surroundings" and those depicting "objects in operation". All four these illustration types are present in SADJS.

#### **4.5.3.5 The use of ostensive illustrations in SADJS**

Whereas SAOSD has opted for a less visual approach, utilising its space for a more comprehensive macrostructure and more verbal data in its microstructure, SADJS does include ostensive illustrations as microstructural items. Some adjectives and verbs are accompanied by ostensive illustrations, but such illustrations are mainly reserved for nouns.

Illustrations are seldom given at adjectives in SADJS. One such a rare occurrence is an illustration inserted between the lemmas **alternate** and **alternative** to clarify the difference between these two adjectives. This presentation of a "contrast set" (Ilson 1987: 194) by means of an illustration is in keeping with the theory of organisation of SADJS as set out in its "Introduction", where it is stated that "numerous illustrations throughout the text help the reader ... to distinguish between things that could easily be confused" (SADJS, p. v).

The approach of using an illustration containing two or more smaller pictures to help distinguish between confusable words is also employed at some verbs. There are, for example, illustrations at **bring** (to distinguish between *bring*, *take* and *fetch*), **lay** (to distinguish between *lay* and *lie*) and **mow** (to distinguish between *mow*, *harvest/reap* and *trim*). SADJS succeeds in its goal of disambiguation mainly because of two important decisions taken by the compiler(s). Firstly, illustrations interact with the inserted inner texts (usage notes) in shaded text boxes to provide the "verbal" complementation Ilson (1987: 198) sets as a requirement in such cases. These verbal inserted inner texts on their own are already a powerful medium for distinguishing between confusable lexical items, but if they are used in combination with the illustrations the user-friendliness of the dictionary is enhanced, especially for less skilful learners.

Secondly, SADJS employs remote article-external cross-references to ensure that the dictionary user looking up **lie**, for example, is swiftly and effectively

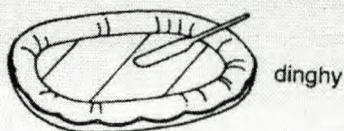
guided to the illustration and accompanying usage note at **lay**. These cross-references are also presented in shaded text boxes and, though not completely effective (see 5.2.4.4), they present vital aid to the target user.

The same approach is adopted when dealing with two or more nouns that need to be distinguished between (cf. illustrations at **scissors**, **plait** and **nut**). Yet illustrations are also employed simply to "help the reader to identify objects" (SADJS, p. v). In this regard, Svensén's (1993: 171-174) four illustration types provide a useful framework to evaluate SADJS's illustrations.

Some single objects are illustrated in SADJS, but it is not made clear what the criteria for inclusion were. Numerous species of buck as well as other animals such as a *gorilla* and a *guinea fowl* are depicted at the appropriate lemmas, but other animals such as a *chimpanzee*, a *giraffe*, an *elephant*, a *lion* and a *peacock* are not. This inconsistency is also present in the depiction of other types of objects and bears witness to a lack of careful planning.

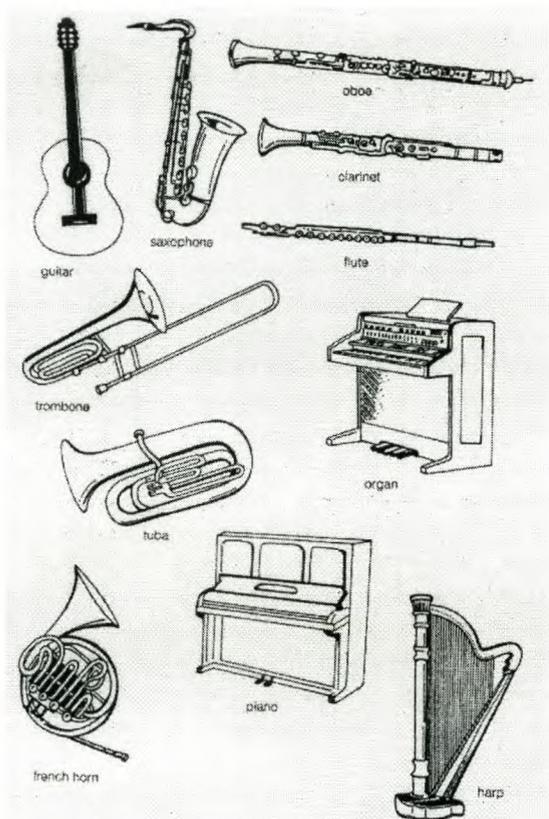
A further possible point of criticism regarding SADJS's illustration of single objects is that the illustrations are, in some cases, cluttered with too much detail, so that it may not be clear enough to all users what is being illustrated. In the illustration of **dashboard**, for example, a *steering wheel* is also shown and at **dinghy** an *oar* is also visible.

**'din-ghy** /'dɪŋgi/ noun (**dinghies**) a small sailing boat or rowing boat: *The boy rowed his rubber dinghy across the dam.*



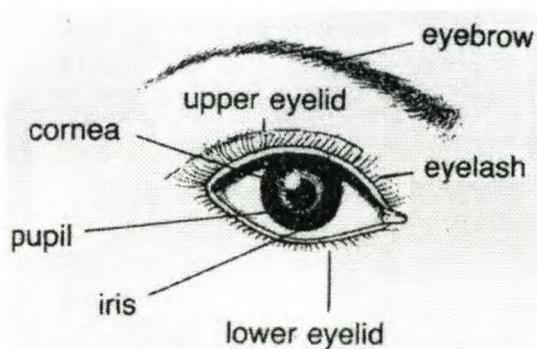
Detailed captions or a verbal complement should be employed to ensure that there is no risk of misunderstanding.

In addition to single objects, SADJS also includes group illustrations of several hyponyms, usually inserted at a suitable superordinate. At **instrument**, for example, a full-page group illustration of several musical instruments, each with a caption, provides a good overview of the "class" to which these objects belong. Here the illustration displays characteristics of the synopsis article, as it provides swift access to hyponyms by representing them pictorially at the superordinate.

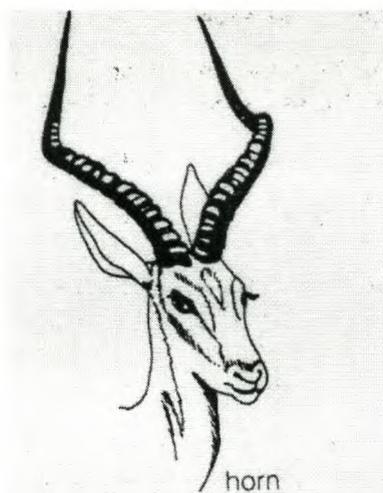


There is, however, a shortcoming in SADJS's treatment of these illustrations. Unlike the approach to illustrations that are meant to distinguish between confusable lexical items, the crucial mediostructural support is lacking at **instrument**. There are no cross-references at any of the lemmas presenting the hyponyms (e.g. **harp**) to this group illustration. This devalues SADJS's use of illustrations as an effective aid in the treatment of hyponymy.

SADJS also includes illustrations of "an object ... shown in its normal environment" (Svensén 1993: 173). At **iris**, for example, a detailed illustration is given that distinguishes the *iris* from other parts of the eye (e.g. the *cornea* and the *pupil*) and from surrounding features such as *eyebrows*.

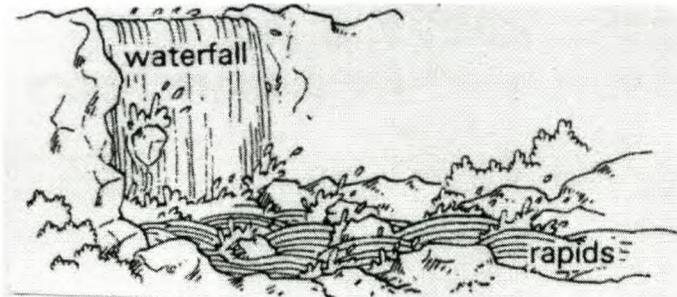


This illustration is particularly successful because the captions and their points of references are clearly given and there are detailed cross-references at each of the lemmas that correspond with the captions. At **horn**, however, the procedure is less thorough. No captions are given to distinguish the *horns* from the *neck* and *head* (and its constituent parts) of the *buck* that is illustrated here.



This clearly does not adhere to Svensén's (1993: 173) main criterion for the treatment in such cases, i.e. that the "object ... must be plainly distinguishable".

Lastly, SADJS does provide some illustrations of objects in operation. These are carefully picked and generally well-constructed (e.g. the illustration of a volcanic eruption at **volcano**). In some cases, however, the illustrations are too small and too detailed (e.g. at **rapid**), which could lead to some confusion, despite a good system of captions.



#### **4.5.3.6 Conclusion**

Illustrations will play a pivotal role in supporting the transfer of pragmatic and even semantic data in the proposed dictionary. Greater care should, however, be taken than was the case in SADJS. The principles of clarity and comprehensive treatment, as illustrated in the above evaluation of SADJS, should be adhered to in all types of illustrations presented in the proposed dictionary.

#### **4.5.4 Usage notes**

As will be shown clearly in 5.3.3 inserted inner texts or microstructural items that function as usage notes are a powerful medium for imparting vital pragmatic data. Some dictionaries, such as WAT and SAOSD, choose to include usage notes as microstructural items in a fixed article position, usually at the end of the article or at the end of the specific sense the usage note applies to. Such a system can only work, however, if the data category is demarcated well and the usage note stands out in terms of its layout from the other data categories. In

this dissertation, though, a system whereby usage notes are inserted into the microstructure as inserted inner texts will be proposed. Therefore a detailed discussion will follow under 5.3.3.1.

#### **4.5.5 Examples**

In addition to illustrating the macrosyntactic use of the lemma and supporting the transfer of semantic data, constructed example sentences can have a third function. They can act as carriers of pragmatic or encyclopaedic data that, though not vital to the understanding of the meaning of the lemma, the user may find either interesting or, more importantly, relevant in a related learning area. Caution must be exercised, though, not to load these example sentences with insignificant detail and waste space that could be of great use elsewhere in the microstructure. In the case of **elephant**, for example, the lexicographer could probe what additional data is relevant to the learners in their studies and present that data in constructed example sentences. Feeding and nurturing habits, natural habitat, etc. of elephants can be stated in the example sentences, but it is debatable, for example, if the user needs exact specifications regarding the weight and height of adult elephants.

#### **4.5.6 Outer texts**

Pragmatic data that is found to be relevant to the target users, but does not fit into the constraints of the microstructure can be accommodated in the outer texts of the dictionary. As will be illustrated in detail in 5.3.4.2, the back matter provides a home to these eclectic types of data, including cultural data.

#### **4.6 Etymological data**

Etymological data is a final data category that must be considered for inclusion in the proposed dictionary. Lombard (1990: 119) motivates the possible inclusion

of etymological data in a school dictionary targeting secondary school learners as follows: *the most important reason for its inclusion is probably that learners may find it interesting and that it may bring language to life for them* (own translation). However, it is debatable whether data being "interesting" justifies its inclusion in a small dictionary such as the one being proposed here. Ilson (1983: 81), in an insightful article on the relevance of etymological data to students, aptly asks the following question:

It is another fundamental law of lexicography (and life?) that (except for the very largest, the unabridged dictionaries) for everything that is put in, something else must be left out. Is the inclusion of even selective etymological information worth the extra words and senses that it must inevitably displace?

He (1983: 81) does, however, answer this question in the affirmative, but motivates inclusion on a functional basis, by stating that "Etymological information can a. disambiguate ... b. relate ... c. illuminate ... d. motivate". For a more detailed account of these points, please see Ilson (1983: 78-81), but there are three types of etymological data that Ilson names that will merit further discussion here.

Firstly, Ilson (1983: 78) states that "even the most traditional type of etymological information may have a pedagogical role" in that there may be a relation of *faux amis* between specific lexical items in two languages which a reference to the original meaning of a "cognate" can clear up. As has been made clear in 3.2.2.4 and 3.4.4.1, loan words and groups from other South African languages will be important macrostructural elements of the proposed dictionary. In cases where the meanings of these words or multilexical lexical items have been altered in the loaning process, where a restriction of meaning has taken place, or where senses have been added, a succinct item giving etymological data can clarify the points of difference for the non-mother-tongue learner whose mother tongue is being loaned from. If one looks at the borrowed lexical item **lekker**, for example, there are semantic (and syntactic) differences between its uses in Afrikaans and



English, which the user needs to be made aware of. Unfortunately, neither SADJS nor SAOSD gives any guidance on these matters. This type of data can be included in an article position in the comment on form that is reserved for etymological data. According to Lombard (1990: 119), etymological data should be *presented early in the article where the learner can immediately see it* (own translation). As an item giving this type of data may be quite long and as it is of great normative and pragmatic value, it may, however, be necessary for the lexicographer to consider including it in a usage note, where it would have even greater prominence.

In addition to the clarification of relations between languages, etymological data can also have a vital role in providing detailed "process analysis" (Ilson 1983: 78) of some lexical items that have come into being through processes such as alteration, back formation, blending, contraction, folk etymology and shortening (for a more detailed list that includes examples, please see Ilson (1983: 79)). In these cases short, carefully constructed items giving etymological data, presented in the normal article position for etymological data, should be sufficient. Though SADJS and SAOSD do not usually provide such data, an example can be found at **SI** in SAOSD, where, in addition to an item giving the paraphrase of meaning the following language of origin is provided between brackets: French = *Système International*.

Lastly, in cases where words or multilexical lexical items have been borrowed from another language, without any change to the form itself or to its meaning, the lexicographer should consider giving, in full or in abbreviated form, a reference to the loan language.

The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary should consider a more inclusive policy on etymological data than is the case in SAOSD and SADJS. In the cases discussed in the preceding paragraphs, etymological data is not only interesting, but also a vital tool in the communicative empowerment of the learner.

## **4.7 Conclusion**

The microstructure is the single most powerful medium that lexicographers can employ to help ensure communicative success for their target users. The microstructure described in this chapter retains those elements from the traditional linear microstructures of the canonical English monolingual school dictionaries, which have been shown to be effective in furthering communicative success. However, innovations have been proposed for both the content and structure of the proposed dictionary's microstructure. The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary should especially make it a priority to design a data distribution structure and micro-architecture that improves on the deficiencies in the dictionaries under discussion. This can only happen if the default data categories are carefully plotted and norms for their positioning and presentation are set strictly according to the principles of user-friendliness and dictionary accessibility.

The balance between conservation and innovation proposed for the dictionary is a practice that is essential to prepare junior secondary learners to be successful life-long users of monolingual dictionaries. This is also in accordance with the dictionary's pedagogical goals, which play a key role in determining which data should be presented and how this data is presented. As Gouws (2001a: 75) aptly states, "it is important that the pedagogical function has to prevail at all times" in school dictionaries. This is especially true of a dictionary that is primarily intended for use in classroom contexts, such as the proposed dictionary will be. Yet, further innovation in the guide structures and accessory texts needs to interact with the innovation in the microstructure to ensure that the dictionary is a powerful communicative tool in addition to being a powerful pedagogical tool.

## **Chapter 5 Guide Structures and accessory texts**

### **5.1 Introduction**

Louw (2000a: 292) surmises that "to many users the consultation of dictionaries - even reputable ones – can often be a labyrinthine affair". This is probably mainly due to the fact that "lexicography is an unnatural occupation" which "consists in tearing words from their mother context and setting them in rows ... with roots shorn ... to make them fit side by side, in an order determined not by nature but by some obscure Phoenician sailors" (Bolinger 1985: 69). Bolinger (1985: 69) also shows how conventional microstructural treatment is as "unnatural" as conventional macrostructural treatment.

In this dissertation it has been shown that a sound system of selecting lexical items for treatment, a balanced semasiological and onomasiological presentation of data on semantics, combined with a comprehensive, carefully constructed presentation of data on homonymy and polysemy, pronunciation and grammar can help to make the dictionary consultation process less arduous. Yet, this crucial function is at best fulfilled by the guide structures and accessory texts.

### **5.2 Guide structures in school dictionaries**

#### **5.2.1 Introduction**

An evaluation of the accessibility of macro- and microstructural data in a dictionary is a key element in determining its level of user-friendliness. Gouws (2001: 102) in this regard aptly states that "the rapid and unimpeded access of the user to the relevant data presented in the dictionary has to be regarded as a prerequisite for a successful lexicographic product in a user-driven approach". As learners are proven to give up easily if frustrated in any activity, it is essential that the lexicographer employ innovative and effective methods to guide the user

on his or her search path to the required data and prevent protracted, frustrating searches.

On a structural level, ease of access is ensured by means of a set of guide structures. Louw (1998: 97) describes this term as referring to *those structures identified in metalexigraphy in order to set up a framework within which the accessibility and reachability of data types in a dictionary can be evaluated* (own translation). In this chapter the role of three of these guide structures in ensuring success on the user's search paths will be discussed with reference to the relevant dictionaries. Recommendations for enhanced user-friendliness will also be made. The first guide structure to be discussed is the access structure.

## **5.2.2 Access structures in school dictionaries**

The access structure takes a prominent place in an evaluation of dictionary accessibility, as it guides the user along the most important search paths in a dictionary. In school dictionaries the special needs of learners and the development of vital dictionary look-up skills presuppose an even greater emphasis on the design of clear, highly functional access structures. This would include the effective design of outer and inner access structures.

### **5.2.2.1 Outer access structures in school dictionaries**

In printed dictionaries the user follows an outer search path which takes him or her to the desired article and he or she is aided on this search path by the outer access structure. The outer access structure can be divided into a rapid outer access structure (see Hausmann and Wiegand 1989: 338) and a standard outer access structure.

### **5.2.2.1.1 The rapid outer access structure**

In print dictionaries the rapid outer access structure usually comprises elements such as tables of contents, thumb indexes, running heads and any others which are intended to bring the user rapidly to the vicinity of the article in which the relevant data is presented.

A first possible rapid outer search path will lead the user to the start of the article stretch in which the lemma will be. Currently users of most dictionaries with an initial alphabetic macrostructure use their knowledge of alphabetisation to guess more or less where to open their single-volume dictionary to find the relevant lemma. An elementary thumb index that reflects the starting point of each alphabetic letter can help to make the initial alphabetic ordering more accessible. A thumb index can be employed very effectively as an element of the rapid outer access structure, but the financial costs thereof must be kept in mind. In the proposed dictionary, which needs to be an inexpensive product, a thumb index may prove to be an unaffordable luxury.

An alternative search path can be laid out in order to avoid haphazard guessing. By expanding the table of contents in the front matter to include the page number on which each article stretch starts, these page numbers can become important elements of the rapid outer access structure. This method provides slower access than a thumb index, but is a more cost-effective option and will provide the more meticulous learner with some aid. For the main it can be speculated, though, that haphazard guessing will continue to be the outer search path of choice in the proposed dictionary. This fact makes the need for a detailed system of running heads even more pressing, as these are likely to be the first (and often the only) elements of the rapid outer access structure the learner will come into contact with.

At junior secondary level the dictionary should, as has been pointed out, not only function as a reference tool, but should also have a reflexive function by

introducing learners to basic dictionary conventions. Whereas thumb indexes are luxuries not employed by many dictionaries, a clearly presented system of running heads is a universal convention. Such a system can therefore be argued to be highly advisable for the proposed dictionary. It is an essential part of an effective rapid outer access structure and will guide a user to the partial article stretch in which the relevant lemma is situated.

SAOSD and SADJS do not employ thumb indexes and only mention the central list as a singular entity (namely "the Dictionary") in the table of contents. Both do, however, employ running heads to grant the users rapid access to the relevant partial article stretch.

In both these dictionaries the rapid outer access structure consists only of the running heads. In most other dictionaries the rapid outer access structure also ends at the running heads. The Japanese publishing house Kenkyusha has, however, constructed a fresh element of the rapid outer access structure by combining different colours of print with non-typographical innovation in its *Lighthouse*-series. Frequency of use is indicated by means of a varying number of asterisks inserted as non-typographical structural indicators directly to the left of the lemma sign. These structural indicators are supplemented by presenting the most frequent lemmas in red print (for a more comprehensive discussion see Gouws 1996: 21). These elements provide "rapid access" (Gouws 1996: 21) to the lemmas.

The *Lighthouse*-series primarily targets adult learners, but some of the innovative procedures can be implemented in the proposed dictionary. As the proposed dictionary project should be corpus-driven, it can include accurate data on frequency of use. The cost-aspect of including different colours print may preclude the compilers from employing different coloured lemma signs. Varying numbers of asterisks or other non-typographical structural indicators could,

however, be included to the left of the lemma sign to present the important pragmatic data.

COBUILD is another advanced learners' dictionary that presents data on frequency of use. The structural indicators containing this data are five diamonds, (a number of these are blackened according to the frequency of use of the lemma) presented on the same line as the lemma, but in the extra column to the right. This approach would not be advisable in the proposed dictionary. Firstly, the use of the extra column is not economical either in terms of space or of cost. Secondly, it complicates the addressing structure (see 5.2.3.3.1). Lastly, it displaces data on frequency of use from the rapid outer access structure and complicates the user's search path. Data on frequency of use should be considered for inclusion in the proposed dictionary, but rather according to the model provided by the Lighthouse-series.

#### **5.2.2.1.2 The standard outer access structure**

The rapid outer access structure provides rapid access on various parts of the user's outer search path. It can even reach to close proximity to the lemma sign, as was the case in the Lighthouse English-Japanese learners' dictionary. Yet it cannot guide the user on another vital part of the outer search path. The choice of the required macrostructural element is facilitated by the workings of the standard outer access structure. Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:338) conclude that the macrostructure of a monoaccessible dictionary often corresponds to the standard outer access structure. This is also the case in SADJS and SAOSD, as both these dictionaries opted for single central lists.

The structural profile suggested in this dissertation determines that the proposed dictionary should also be monoaccessible. It should, as was suggested in 2.3 as part of its typological profile, have a strict *initial-alphabetic access structure* (own translation) (Louw and Gouws 1996:97). This would ensure the easiest standard outer search path for the target user of this dictionary.

Sublemmatisation can provide an important exception to this strict initial-alphabetic access structure, should nesting be viewed as the appropriate procedure in the proposed dictionary. As was explained in chapter three, the limited number of sublemmas and the fact that the target users probably expect a nesting of sublemmas, especially of idioms, probably suggests that nesting would be the procedure of choice in the proposed dictionary. Furthermore, this decision will also save valuable space as niching is a more space-consuming procedure.

The easy access to data in the first place of consultation is also relevant in a next important step along the standard outer search path, i.e. the ordering of homonyms. The markers denoting different homonyms are accepted as elements of the standard outer access structure. The underlying system by which these homonymous lemmas are put in order must however also be accepted as part of the standard outer access structure. The user who knows which system is used and how this system is implemented in a dictionary can have a shortened search path.

A practical example of this is ordering using the principle of frequency of use. A mother-tongue speaker or second language speaker, who has a well-developed linguistic intuition and has read the user's guide, can unlock the desired information faster than others. A good linguistic intuition may, however, not (as was evident from the typological profile) be presupposed in all the target users of the proposed dictionary. The frequency indicators that were suggested as part of the rapid outer access structure can give the necessary additional guidance to learners with a less advanced linguistic intuition. For any of these elements to guide the user adequately, though, they need to be explained carefully in the user's guide. The lexicographer may expect that the users of the dictionary, even junior secondary learners, search for answers to their queries in the user's guide, even though they may not read it beforehand (see 5.3.2.2.4) and may only use it in a classroom context.



The user's guide should interact with the access structures to improve the dictionary's user-friendliness, but unfortunately SADJS and SAOSD do not follow this norm of user-friendliness. Firstly, there does not seem to be an ordering system according to frequency of use of homonyms (see 3.3.2.2.2). Secondly, neither of their user's guides provides any explanation for the system of ordering and indicating semantic relations such as homonymy and polysemy. Without a good partner this aspect of the dictionary's outer access structure loses almost all its value. The problem is even more pressing at the inner access structure.

An example of a successful integration of the user's guide with innovation in the outer and inner access structures of a dictionary, is provided by the monolingual *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (henceforth CIDE). CIDE gives an interesting alternative to the prototypical marking of homonymy on the level of the standard outer access structure. Just to the right of the lemma, guide words are given in rectangular frames, which can be viewed as intermediary structural indicators that guide the user on both the outer and inner search paths. These guide words are usually a single key word or phrase taken from the lemma's definiens. They help the user to make the immediate choice of the correct lemma.

CIDE's splitting approach has unfortunately led to a situation where the basic semantic difference between homonymy and polysemy is denied, but a high measure of communicative value is maintained by the strength of these guide words as elements of the access structure, as is illustrated by the treatment of **par**.

**par** [EQUAL] /ɛpaːr, \$pa:r/ n [U] on a par (with) equal to or similar to • *In my opinion none of the new jazz trumpeters are on a par with (= as good as) the great figures of the 1960s.* • *In the eyes of the law these two offences are on a par with (=as bad as) each other.*

**par** [STANDARD] /ɛpaːr, \$pa:r/ n [U] the usual standard or condition • *If you feel or are below/under par, you feel ill, so that your work is not as good as usual: Are you feeling a bit under par?* • *If something is not up to par, it is not as good as usual: I'm afraid this week's essay was not up to par.* • *If you say that something bad is par for the course, you mean that it is what you expected, from your past experience of it: The school budget is going to be cut again this year, but then that's par for the course.*

The fact that this system is explained simply and effectively to the target user in both the preface and user's guide supplies further evidence of CIDE's user-orientated approach.

The use of guide words as intermediary markers that guide the user on the standard search path can add an important dimension to a junior secondary school dictionary, though not necessarily at the cost of superscripted numbers or other hierarchical indicators. Running heads, frequency of use indicators, hierarchical indicators, initial alphabetical listing, ordering according to frequency of use and explicit guide words should rather be combined to provide a powerful outer access structure capable of guiding the user quickly to the desired macrostructural element. The success of this combinatory system will depend on a consistent application and thorough explanation in the user's guide. These crucial principles also hold true for the inner access structure.

### **5.2.2.2 Inner access structures in school dictionaries**

#### **5.2.2.2.1 The inner search path**

The inner access structure has as its main goal, as Gouws (1996: 16) puts it, to help "the user to reach the specific information categories within the article". The complexity of the microstructure and the number of data categories that it encompasses necessarily make the user's inner search path more difficult. A good inner access structure must employ structural indicators to lead the user on this inner search path. These markers are mostly either foreign markers or markers known to users but that are used outside of their normal context. It is especially the creative use of already-known markers (such as commas, semi-colons, etc.) that confuse users by increasing the dictionary's textual condensation unnecessarily. Interaction between the inner access structure and the user's guide is here of the utmost importance. Hausmann and Wiegand

(1989: 338) state that "Most metatexts explain the inner access structure". This is also the case in SADJS and SAOSD.

#### **5.2.2.2 The rapid inner access structure**

SADJS and SAOSD generally do present detailed explanations of the microstructural application of structural indicators. These explanations are given in the hybrid user's guide/key to entries. However, an ill-constructed system that is explained well is not desirable. Compilers of the proposed dictionary must ensure that data is given with clear structural indicators to guide the user to that specific data category.

SADJS and SAOSD are not always successful in their attempts to construct a workable inner access structure and especially a rapid inner access structure. The compilers of the proposed dictionary need to take note of their successes and shortcomings as a lack of structural indicators can lead to a frustrating and unsuccessful look-up experience for the learners who make up the target user group. In the proposed dictionary, structural indicators as elements of the rapid inner access structure will help determine the success of the user's inner search path.

Gouws (1996: 23) defines the role of structural indicators (initially referred to as structural markers) as follows: "Structural markers ... indicate the borders between information categories as well as the position and scope of different search areas". This premise leaves enough room to interpret the use of the term "structural indicator" to include the elements of the access structure that indicate semantic relations.

An innovative system of structural indicators should, for example, be employed for the indication of different senses of the lemma. A system employing numerical and letter structural indicators for senses and subsenses is a strong

possibility, providing these structural indicators are clear and innovative. It is at this point where the numerical systems employed by SADJS and SAOSD are not as user-friendly as they could be (see 4.2.1.2.1). Structural indicators other than numbers and letters can be considered as sense indicators, but these could easily be too difficult for the target user to decode. As was pointed out in 4.2.1.2.1, the efficacy of different types of structural indicators as sense indicators needs to be probed empirically by the compilers of the proposed dictionary. If enough care is taken in their choice and application, structural indicators that function as indicators can help to provide rapid access to the appropriate sense or subsense. The user's guide will also have to explain every structural indicator used.

The rapid inner access structure must also interact with the micro-architecture of the article to enhance user-friendliness. A clear structural indicator should be placed on a new line to ensure that rapid access is gained to the relevant search zone. As Stark (2001: 32) correctly states regarding dictionary articles that do not display an adequate micro-architecture, *the conventional, linear presentation of ... data types makes it difficult for the user to recover the data and the recovery process also takes longer* (own translation). Both SADJS and SAOSD fail their target users in this regard, as the structural indicators do not stand out enough and are, in fact, given on a run-on line with inadequate spacing before and after them (see 4.2.1.2.1).

There are other structural indicators that form part of the rapid inner access structure. These fall into two main categories, non-typographical and typographical structural indicators. Non-typographical structural indicators are special markers such as frames, coloured blocks and diamonds that introduce separate data categories. Despite SADJS and SAOSD's lack of these vital markers there are some precedents in South African practical lexicography. Gouws (1996: 23-25) focuses for example on two: Firstly BLD employs a coloured diamond to distinguish collocations from other examples within the

broader category of examples. These collocations obtain the status of separate treatment units (as they have to be provided with translation equivalents) and should therefore be made as accessible as possible. In a monolingual dictionary such as the proposed one, not all collocations will have to be treatment units. Where there is doubt about the transparency of a collocation, though, further clarification, either in the form of an item giving the paraphrase of meaning or a full example with the collocation embedded in it, may need to be given. The compilers of the proposed dictionary may therefore find it necessary to separate the collocations from constructed examples by means of an innovative structural indicator that is unique (see 4.4.2.3.3), but they should also consider clear demarcation between individual collocations or treatment units.

Structural indicators should also introduce data categories other than collocations. The most prominent of these is data on parts of speech. Gouws (1996: 23) refers specifically to the *Verklarende Handwoordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal* (HAT) that uses a quadrangular frame to mark different parts of speech in which the lemma can function. A similar system is also employed in BLD. These markers are valuable because they give rapid access to data on parts of speech, and the compilers of the proposed dictionary should consider employing similar structural indicators. A structural indicator that is both clear and easily decodable must, however, be found and it is strongly recommended that the compilers empirically probe the efficacy of different types of structural indicators, including the numerical indication as employed by WAT.

Innovative structural indicators can only be effective if the user actually understands the system. It is especially important in the use of non-typographical markers that there is good interaction between the rapid inner access structure and the user's guide of a specific dictionary. The function of each of the structural indicators should be explained simply and carefully.

The rapid inner access structure must also interact with the key element of the microstructure: semantic data. As has been shown, structural indicators indicating senses or subsenses are very important, but these need to be supplemented by other typographical and non-typographical structural indicators. As a non-typographical structural indicator CIDE's guide word in a frame can also give valuable guidance on the rapid inner search path. Its value in providing fast access to homonyms on the outer search path was underlined in 5.2.2.1.2., but the form (e.g. the frame) of CIDE's guide words can be utilised as an element of the rapid inner access structure that gives rapid access to the abbreviated item giving the paraphrase of meaning of each sense which in turn gives access to the correct full item giving the paraphrase of meaning. A similar system was adopted in *ENCARTA World English Dictionary* (henceforth ENCARTA), where an abbreviated form of the item giving the paraphrase of meaning precedes and introduces the full version of that item. CIDE's clear structural indicator (the frame) makes its approach visually more effective than the plain bold employed by ENCARTA.

The structural indicator (e.g. the frame) should combine with a numerical or other marker indicating polysemy to create an effective marker of the rapid inner access structure. The frame depends on the number or letter to prevent a confusing system (in that it does not distinguish between homonymy and polysemy) such as the one that is found in CIDE.

The value of non-typographical structural indicators with semantic guidance is not limited to sense indication and location. The balanced semasiological and onomasiological presentation of semantic data which was proposed in 4.2.2 and 4.2.3 can only truly be effective if the boundaries between the separate data categories are demarcated clearly. Non-typographical structural indicators need to be employed to provide this demarcation. They should be employed not only between the item giving the paraphrase of meaning and those items providing

data on synonymy, antonymy, etc., but also between each of these items or data categories providing onomasiological data.

Any new systems of semantic guidance should interact with unique structural indicators to avoid confusing the user. Typographical structural indicators should be used in addition to the non-typographical markers. Different font types and sizes, bold print, capital letters and italics can all be used to aid fast and effective identification of a specific data type. Once again these markers have to be explained thoroughly in the user's guide. The lexicographer has to be careful in the choice and application of the chosen markers, because too many foreign, complex markers can make the dictionary less user-friendly. This warning is even more poignant in the case of the proposed dictionary, where the target users cannot be expected to deal easily with complexity in the access structure.

SADJS and SAOSD do use some effective structural indicators such as the typographical marking of each data category, the markers used to introduce usage notes (bullets in SAOSD and text boxes in SADJS), etc. Unfortunately too little is done to establish truly effective systems of structural indicators and, accordingly, truly effective rapid inner access structures.

#### **5.2.2.3 The standard inner access structure**

The standard inner access structure should share in the spirit of innovation. Methods of microstructural ordering should be determined empirically by means of questionnaires, interviews, etc. that form part of dictionary planning. This will ensure that the ordering of senses and synonyms that suit the target user best will be employed. These systems should then be applied consistently in the dictionary.

It is not only ordering in data categories though that is relevant, but also ordering in the dictionary article as a whole. At this point the standard inner access

structure overlaps with the article structure. The choices made as to the utilization of certain article positions should be carefully planned and thereafter explicitly motivated in the user's guide.

Another powerful mechanism can be employed in the lexicographer's attempts to ensure a user-friendly inner access structure. Careful planning needs to go into the design of the proposed dictionary's micro-architecture. Throughout this dissertation reference has been made to the placement of data on new lines or paragraphs in order to enhance the micro-architecture of the proposed dictionary. It is, however, important to keep in mind that such enhancements do come at a cost in that they increase the amount of white space in the dictionary. Therefore detailed planning and empirical research must determine at what points such a sacrifice of space is most necessary and the micro-architecture should be enhanced accordingly.

#### **5.2.2.2.4 Conclusion**

Should the inner access structure be an effective guide in the search for, among others, help with pronunciation, the transfer of semantic data and pragmatic contextualisation, the proposed dictionary will certainly be employed optimally as text and as text type carrier. If this inner access structure is combined with an effective, transparent outer access structure a high standard of user-friendliness and dictionary accessibility can be set, which are prerequisites for the classroom use of school dictionaries.

Furthermore, if the inner access structure does become an effective guide in the search for data on pronunciation, grammar, semantics and pragmatics, there should then be interaction between, for example, the user's guide as outer text and the access structure. On a structural level the inner access structure not only interacts with the microstructure, but also with the mediostructure. BLD's arrows that operate as structural indicators within the microstructure to refer to



other lemmas provide good examples of such interaction. In order to gain better insight into this model of interactivity it is, however, also necessary to reflect on the role of another important guide structure, i.e. the addressing structure.

### **5.2.3 Addressing structures in school dictionaries**

#### **5.2.3.1 Basic addressing procedures**

The addressing structure of the proposed dictionary will be heavily influenced by its suggested typological profile. A solid case can be made out for a more or less egalitarian approach to lemmatic and non-lemmatic addressing procedures in an innovative translation dictionary, due to the paradigm shift required to employ translation equivalents more effectively as treatment units (see Louw 1998). In the proposed dictionary, which can be categorised as monolingual descriptive, the emphasis will rather be on lemmatic and sublemmatic procedures. This statement by no means precludes the use of innovative non-lemmatic addressing procedures, as will be illustrated in 5.2.3.1.3.

##### **5.2.3.1.1 Lemmatic addressing**

The majority of the items giving data on pronunciation, grammar, semantics or pragmatics are addressed at the lemma. They are primarily included to aid the user in employing the lexical items represented by the lemmas in encoding and decoding situations. From the structural proposals made in chapter four it can be surmised that these items will be presented in a hierarchical (and often linear) way, with each new item introduced further away from the lemma, yet still addressed at the lemma. The addressing procedures of these items can cause problems for learners who are still in the process of acquiring dictionary consultation skills that are presupposed in more advanced users (see 5.2.3.3.1). Lemmatic addressing procedures, especially remote ones, must be explained explicitly and clearly in the user's guide, in order to facilitate the acquisition of

these consultation skills and to help in the establishment of a sound dictionary culture. Some of the dictionary exercises, given as part of an educational outer text, should also target the acquisition of knowledge regarding lemmatic addressing procedures.

Both SADJS and SAOSD predominantly employ lemmatic addressing procedures, but fail to give any guidance regarding these procedures to their target users. An example can be found in SADJS's treatment of different syntactic functions of a lexical item represented by the lemma. These syntactic functions are indicated in different search zones and the different part of speech is given at the start of every search zone (for a full discussion see 4.4.2.2.5). It is, however, assumed that the users will understand that each of these parts of speech have the lemma as address and the addressing procedure is therefore not explicitly stated in the user's guide. Yet, these parts of speech can appear a long way down in an article and the user will therefore have to follow a remote article-internal lemmatic addressing procedure to complete the data transfer. In a case such as this it is dangerous to assume pre-knowledge in the target users of a school dictionary targeting junior secondary learners, and the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary would be well-advised to rather explain such remote addressing procedures in detail in the user's guide.

#### **5.2.3.1.2 Sublemmatic addressing**

In addition to lemmatic addressing, Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:349) also identify sublemmatic addressing. Sublemmas can, as separate treatment units, receive separate treatment, although this treatment will, in most cases, be much more limited than that of main lemmas. The data that make up the treatment is addressed at the sublemma by means of sublemmatic addressing procedures. It is very important, though, that the sublemma be demarcated clearly as a treatment unit. The rapid access structure plays an important role here.

Sublemmas must be indicated as macrostructural elements and as addresses by means of a typographical structural indicator (preferably bold typeface).

The amount of single-word sublemmas in the proposed dictionary is expected to be limited, should the proposals made in chapter three be accepted. The lemmatisation of compound lexical items as main lemmas will be preferred, for example, to sublemmatisation. Furthermore, the microstructural treatment of those derivatives that are sublemmatised is expected to be limited, with, in most cases, stress indication or stress indication and part of speech indication being sufficient. One would not expect the target user to have too much difficulty in understanding these sublemmatic addressing procedures, but it is advisable to explain them clearly in the user's guide.

There is, however, another type of sublemma that may be employed in the proposed dictionary, which merits some discussion here. In chapter three it was shown that collocations and idioms are often wrongly treated in the same way. Whereas collocations are naturally embedded in the microstructure, idioms should ideally be macrostructural elements. The lemmatisation of idioms as main lemmas was, however, proven in chapter three to be impractical for the proposed dictionary and therefore idioms can be incorporated as sublemmas, providing they are well demarcated. These idioms are separate treatment units and demand extensive treatment. This treatment would have a sublemmatic addressing and could include an item paraphrasing the idiom's meaning, examples of its use in real language and relevant pragmatic and contextual information regarding it. SADJS and SAOSD err in not distinguishing between idioms and collocations clearly enough and by not marking idioms well enough as treatment units (see 3.4.4.3 for a more detailed discussion with examples). They also do not give a detailed treatment of these vital treatment units as both dictionaries usually settle for an item giving the paraphrase of meaning as the only treatment. The compilers of the proposed dictionary must rectify these shortcomings by means of an enhanced micro-architecture and unique,

prominent structural indicators, on the one hand, and comprehensive treatment addressed at the idiom on the other. Furthermore, the sublemmatic addressing procedures the user must follow to complete the data transfer must be explained well in the user's guide.

#### **5.2.3.1.3 Non-lemmatic addressing**

As was suggested in 5.2.3.1.1, non-lemmatic addressing procedures cannot be expected to be dominant in the microstructure of the proposed dictionary. Whereas many of the more explicit elements of the inner access structure will primarily have a non-lemmatic addressing, the elements of the microstructure they point to are mainly addressed at the lemma or sublemma(s). There can, however, be some exceptions to this rule.

The non-lemmatic addressing procedures that need to be considered pertain firstly to the co-texts. As was stated in 4.3.2.1.1, a full transcription addressed at each co-text is not feasible in the proposed dictionary. As an alternative the inclusion of inserted inner texts to highlight where the lemma deviates from its normal phonetic patterns when used in certain combinations with other lexical items, was proposed. If these combinations are already included in the example component of the article, the inserted inner texts could be seen as primarily having a non-lemmatic addressing. This addressing procedure would be remote, due to the demand for predictability in the article structure. Yet, the strength of a well demarcated inserted inner text as data carrier and its ability to transfer data semi-independently support the choice of this powerful medium, rather than a less prominent entry directly following the relevant example. The lexicographer will have to make a choice based on the needs of the target users and apply this choice consistently.

Non-lemmatic addressing procedures can also be followed fruitfully in the treatment of another type of co-text, i.e. collocations. The need for some

collocations to be treatment units has already been stated in 4.4.2.3.2 and 5.2.2.2.2. The data that is then given to either paraphrase the meaning of the collocation or to exemplify it in its broader syntactic context will represent a non-lemmatic addressing procedure.

### **5.2.3.2 Open and hidden addresses**

Hausmann and Wiegand's (1989:328-329, 349-353) theoretical overview of the addressing structure strongly emphasises its interaction with the access structure. In the discussion on sublemmatic addressing in 5.2.3.1.3, the importance of a clear system of demarcating the sublemma as address was raised. If this entry is clearly marked by means of typographical or non-typographical structural indicators it can be referred to as an open address, whereas one that is not clearly demarcated is a hidden address (Hausmann and Wiegand 1989:350). In the proposed dictionary any type of entry that functions as an address, must be an open address if a high measure of user-friendliness is to be maintained. Learners, even more than adult users, need to be shown unequivocally where the treatment units are that they are likely to look for in the consultation process.

### **5.2.3.3 Possible obstacles**

Even an excellent rapid access structure and adequate explanation of the basic addressing procedures cannot prevent the fact that the addressing structure is a complex entity which can present many obstacles to the target users of the proposed dictionary especially.

#### **5.2.3.3.1 Remote article-internal addressing**

The first potential obstacle is presented by remote article-internal addressing procedures. Should the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary opt for a linear

microstructure, it stands to reason that each lemmatically addressed item that follows on another will have an even more remote addressing relation to the lemma. The user's efforts to understand the addressing procedures can be further impeded by the fact that items with a non-lemmatic addressing (usually addressed at directly preceding subaddresses) are positioned among those items with a primarily lemmatic addressing. It is therefore very important that, as was suggested in 5.2.3.1.1, the different addressing relations, even the lemmatic ones, be explained in detail in the user's guide.

One example of such a remote article internal addressing procedure is the representation of different syntactic functions of a lemma in different search zones, which was discussed in 5.2.3.1.1. The use of different search zones to present different syntactic functions or senses can complicate the addressing structure of the dictionary. An integrated microstructure was suggested for use in the proposed dictionary, with items giving paraphrases of meaning and co-text entries grouped together in integrates in subcomments on semantics. In longer articles this can lead to numerous remote article-internal addressing procedures having to be followed. Consider, for example, **reserve** from SADJS, a dictionary with an integrated microstructure.

**re'serve** /rɪ'zɜ:v/ *verb* (**reserves**, **reserving**, **reserved**) **1** to ask for something to be kept for the use of a particular person: *The restaurant is usually busy, so I'll phone up today and reserve a table.* **2** to keep something for the use of a particular person or group of people *etc*: *These seats are reserved for the committee members.* — *noun* **1** (**reserves**) something that is kept for use when needed: *The farmer kept a reserve of food in case he was cut off by floods.* **2** (**reserves**) a piece of land used for a special purpose: *a game reserve; a nature reserve.* **3** the habit of not saying very much, not showing what you are feeling, thinking *etc*; shyness.

In this article there are two syntactic functions, each with different senses listed under them. The target users are expected to understand that, among others, the parts of speech, items giving the paraphrase of meaning and co-texts are addressed at the lemma by remote addressing procedures. They are also expected to grasp the relation between each item giving the paraphrase of meaning and the co-texts that follow it. Yet, there is no help given in the user's guide of SADJS. The remote article-internal addressing procedures that apply in an integrated microstructure need to be explained clearly in the user's guide.

An example of a remote article-internal addressing relation that may potentially be difficult to grasp is presented by the example sentences which are included under **reserve**. These examples have a lemmatic addressing, but to a user not used to the way examples are presented in monolingual dictionaries, it may be unclear at which item the examples are addressed. A clear explanation in the user's guide of the relevant addressing procedure is a necessity, but the lexicographer can, in keeping with a commitment to the immediacy of data transfer, go one step further. The item in the example sentence that reflects the lemmatised lexical item can be demarcated explicitly, preferably by highlighting that item (that corresponds to the lemma) in bold. This could ensure that the learner is left in no doubt as to what the addressing relation is. It could be argued that this highlighting procedure is lexicographic "overkill" and that the users can establish the relevant addressing relation without it by simply interpreting the item in the example sentence that reflects the lemmatised lexical item as a repetition of the lemma. Neither SADJS nor SAOSD have, for example, chosen to highlight the use of the lemma in examples. It may therefore be necessary to determine by empirical means whether the target user group of the proposed dictionary is skilful enough to grasp the addressing relation, or whether additional guidance is required in the form of typographical marking.

A further complicating factor in SADJS's treatment of **reserve** is the presentation of morphological data in the comment on form and semantics. The presentation

of morphological data for the verb can be decoded relatively easily as the addressing is not remote enough to cause problems. The presentation of plural forms for **reserve** as a noun is problematic, though. Not only will the user have to follow a remote article-internal lemmatic addressing procedure to complete the data transfer, but the data on morphology is also moved from the proximity of the part of speech indication and moved to in front of the item giving the paraphrase of meaning in a subsubcomment on form. The reasoning behind this move is sound, i.e. that only two of the three senses can take the plural. Yet, it does lead to very difficult remote addressing procedures, which the user is once again expected to undertake without any guidance from the lexicographer.

In dealing with the addressing structure and, in particular, article-internal addressing procedures thus far, the assumption has been made that all the data contained in one article would be presented in a single column in the proposed dictionary. This has been the case in SADJS and SAOSD where the microstructure is, for the main, presented in a conventional, linear fashion. It has, however, been suggested that a presentation in columns could be a viable option for a school dictionary targeting secondary school learners (see Lombard 1990: 254). Columns that split microstructural data have also been employed by one of the prominent English learners' dictionaries, COBUILD.

In 5.2.2.1.1, the use of columns was deemed unsuitable for use in the proposed dictionary, mainly for reasons of economy and the way it complicates the search path. It was also stated, though, that the use of columns complicates the addressing procedures. Moving microstructural data into a separate column or columns firstly makes the article-internal addressing procedures (especially the lemmatic ones) even more remote, leading to a less rather than a more user-friendly addressing structure. Secondly, the use of columns may confuse the users as to what the address of the data in the additional column(s) is (are), especially if (as is the case in COBUILD) different types of data are grouped together in one column.



Another type of remote article-internal addressing procedure pertains to the inserted inner texts. These texts contain mostly pragmatic data (language hints, data regarding confusable words, etc.) and are separate texts embedded in the central list of the dictionary (functioning as a text type carrier). The procedures with which microstructural entries are connected with those in inserted inner texts are crucial to the success of these texts. Proximity plays an important role here. These inserted inner texts must appear at the specific article in the central list to which it applies. If the pragmatic data is only relevant to a specific search zone or sense, the text should be nested at the end of that search zone and not at the end of the article. This will enable the user to reach the necessary data as rapidly as possible. Unfortunately, SADJS does not always adhere to this principle. At **junior**, for example, two usage notes are given as inserted inner texts. They apply to the first sense under the first syntactic function of **junior**, but they are presented at the end of the article with another sense and a second syntactic function separating them from the relevant search zone. This is not a user-friendly procedure. Cohesion between the central list and inserted inner texts is vital to the user-friendliness of the dictionary.

#### **5.2.3.3.2 Article-external addressing**

The compilers of the proposed dictionary must do everything in their power to minimise the effect of remote article-internal addressing. Yet, the obligations of compilers to their target users stretch beyond the boundaries of single articles. The addressing structure and the mediostructure must interact effectively to ensure that cross-references between articles are successful. The addressing structure is completely dependent on the strength of the cross-references to be a successful guide. As will be pointed out in 5.2.4.3, the weaknesses of the article-external cross-references in SADJS and SAOSD can cause the users to struggle to grasp the article-external addressing procedures they are to follow.

The construction of some inserted inner texts may add to the complexity of article-external addressing procedures. The addressing can be even more complex. One inserted inner text can have more than one lemma from the central list as address. Interaction with the mediostructure is once again vital to not disadvantage the user who looks up the other lemma than the one at which the inserted text is given. See, for example the treatment of the pair of inserted inner texts, pertaining to *still* and *yet*, at **still2** and the lack of an adequate cross-reference at **yet** in SADJS (this example is discussed in more detail in 5.2.4.4).

#### **5.2.3.3.3 Text-external addressing**

Some of the most remote addressing procedures that users of the proposed dictionary will be expected to master, are those between different texts in the dictionary. A healthy interaction between the central list and user's guide has already been set as a necessity for the proposed dictionary, and the need that addressing relations be established between the mini-grammar and central list will be discussed in 5.3.2.3.

#### **5.2.3.4 The value of the addressing structure**

As guide structure the addressing structure has the potential to greatly enhance the user-friendliness of the proposed dictionary. This can, however, only take place if much care is taken with the basic as well as the more complex addressing procedures.

### **5.2.4. The mediostructure**

#### **5.2.4.1 Cross-references**

It is a difficult task to apply cross-references systematically, even in a monoaccessible dictionary. As an aid in the evaluation and standardisation of

systems of cross-references and to suggest better systems, the mediostructure was identified and discussed (see Wiegand 1996: 11-43). Gouws and Prinsloo (1998, 19) succinctly explained the basic terminology used in this theory, starting with the following statements:

A lexicographer refers the dictionary user from a reference position to a reference address. This is usually done by means of a reference entry ... A reference relation is established between the reference entry and the reference address.

In this dissertation the word cross-reference will be used as a synonym for "reference entry". In a cross-reference such as "See **branch**." (taken from the article at **sprig** in SADJS) the word "See" is the reference or mediostructural marker and "**branch**" is "the entry indicating the reference address" (Gouws and Prinsloo 1998: 19).

The mediostructure comprises a few component groups that are especially relevant to the discussion of guide structures and also to the communicative success of the dictionary as a whole. These are article-external cross-references, text-external cross-references and article-internal cross-references.

#### **5.2.4.2 Structural indicators**

It is, however, important to obtain an overview of the structural indicators available to the lexicographer in the quest for effective cross-referencing. Non-typographical structural indicators such as arrows (see e.g. BLD for such a system) are employed in some cases as mediostructural markers. Words (e.g. *See* or *Compare*) and abbreviations (e.g. *vid.*) can also be used to make cross-references more explicit. Another type of marker combines typographical and non-typographical techniques, e.g. the **PIC**➤ in CIDE, which is employed to refer to relevant illustrations inserted as inner texts. The appropriate type of marker needs to be employed for the specific mediostructural procedure at hand.

### **5.2.4.3 Article-external cross-references**

In the central list mediostructural or reference markers are mainly used to establish references between specific items in articles. The different items need to be linked by means of remote article-external addressing procedures. Both items need to be accompanied by elements of the mediostructure that will act as signposts on this search path, or, in the case of implicit cross-references, the procedure should be as transparent as possible and should be explained in the user's guide.

In SADJS and SAOSD, article-external cross-references are mainly employed to establish reference relations between synonyms. The procedures employed in both these dictionaries are, however, marred by inconsistency and a lack of transparency (especially when one or more of the lemmas in the pair or grouping is polysemous), as was pointed out in detail in 4.2.3.2.1. The lack of adequate article-external cross-references to help deal with synonymy may not be perpetuated in the proposed dictionary.

The format of the article-external cross-references in the proposed dictionary will, to an extent, be determined by the decisions taken as part of the proposed dictionary's theory of organisation regarding the treatment of synonyms. In 4.2.3.2.3 the choice that needs to be made is sketched as one between the following. Firstly, "a suitable 'synonym definition' with a precise cross-reference can be employed and met by an equally precise mention of that lemma as a synonym in the article of the more frequent lexical item, which should also contain a full paraphrase of meaning. This mention, in the form of an item, should be separate from the item giving the paraphrase of meaning and should be introduced by a unique structural indicator". The second option could see a repetition of items giving the paraphrase of meaning at each of the synonyms. Frequency of use would then be indicated by other means, each synonym to

which will be referred will be presented separately in an article position reserved for synonym mentions and the reference relationship will be pointed out by clear, comprehensive article-external cross-references. For either of these options to be viable, though, clear, comprehensive article-external cross-references are a necessity, despite the fact that the format may differ depending on the option chosen.

As was pointed out in 4.2.3.3, however, it is not only synonymy that will warrant treatment in an extended article position or slot for onomasiological data. Antonyms and complementary pairs could be included in this position, in which case article-external cross-references should again be employed to elucidate the reference relations between the lexical items.

A case was also made out in 4.2.3.3 for the comprehensive treatment of easily confusable co-hyponyms. Should these co-hyponyms be included in the extended article position or slot for onomasiological data, article-external cross-references will again play a pivotal role in determining the success of this procedure. The compiler(s) may, however, decide to emulate the procedure followed in SADJS (see 4.5.3.5) where inserted inner texts and illustrations are employed to distinguish between easily confusable co-hyponyms or other easily confusable lexical items.

It is important that coherence is maintained between verbal inserted inner texts and the central list of the dictionary. In both SADJS and SAOSD usage notes are employed to distinguish between easily confusable co-hyponyms and other confusable lexical items. For reasons of economy the inserted inner text or pair of inserted inner texts (as in SADJS) that must distinguish between these items is/are usually inserted at only one article in the central list. In the article of the other lemma in the pair, an article-external cross-reference must be given to link that lemma to the appropriate inserted text. This is, however, not the case in

SAOSD, as this dictionary follows a strange method of employing usage notes, which will rather be discussed in detail in 5.3.3.1.

SADJS, on the other hand, does employ article-external cross-references systematically. Cross-references are presented in tinted text boxes and point the user to a pair of inserted inner texts that have a disambiguating function. This system, though consistently applied, can be criticised on two points. Firstly, the same format is used for cross-references that establish reference relations between group illustrations and the lemmas that correspond to their constituents. The system therefore lacks a unique application.

Secondly, the cross-references are often not precise enough. At **yet**, for example, there is a cross-reference to a pair of inserted inner texts at **still**. This cross-reference does not specify at which homonym the user must find the pair of inserted inner texts, i.e. **still**<sup>1</sup> or **still**<sup>2</sup>. In this case the reference is particularly problematic as its destination is actually to be found at **still**<sup>2</sup>. This means that the data is not located at the first lemma the user expects to find it at. This procedure defies the principle of user-friendliness and could, particularly in longer articles, frustrate the user.

In the proposed dictionary the compiler(s) should attempt to find a format for these text-external cross-references. Furthermore, the cross-referencing should be more precise than was the case in SADJS. It is strongly recommended (see 5.2.3.3.3) that a verbal inserted inner text or texts should not be located only at the end of an article (as is the case in SADJS), but rather directly at the sense to which it/they apply. Should this be the case in the proposed dictionary, the compiler(s) will need to take even greater care to ensure that the cross-references are as comprehensive and precise as possible.

#### **5.2.4.4 Text-external cross-references**

Article-external cross-references play an important role in maintaining coherence in the central list and in ensuring a successful data transfer. Yet, the proposed dictionary comprises of a number of texts. Outer texts in the front and back matter can be added to the central list to create a dictionary that is a complex text type carrier. The consistent application of a workable system of text-external cross-references will help to determine the coherence of the dictionary as a carrier of data vital to the communicative process.

A healthy interaction between the central list and user's guide (brought about by means of cross-references) has been set as a prerequisite for successful data transfer throughout this dissertation. It will also be pointed out in 5.3.2.3 that a set of cross-references that establish reference relations between the central list and mini-grammar is a prerequisite for the successful transfer of grammatical data.

Text-external cross-references do not only aid the user in establishing links between the central list and outer texts in the front matter. Outer texts in the back matter should also be linked to articles in the central list. A set of texts that predominantly presents pragmatic data will be suggested for inclusion in the proposed dictionary (see 5.3.4.2). These texts will, in places, bear direct relation to specific articles in the central list. The successful co-ordination of these elements will greatly depend on the strength of the text-external cross-references. In a case such as the text presenting dictionary games and activities, text-external cross-references can be used effectively to direct the user from a specific game, question or activity to the place in the central list where the answer or solution can be found. Text-external cross-references can also be employed fruitfully to direct the learner from an article in the central list to pragmatic data, such as cultural data, contained in specific back matter texts.

Not all attempts at establishing coherence between articles in the central list and the outer texts in the back matter are necessarily successful. A lack of adequate text-external cross-referencing leads, for example, to an unsatisfactory data transfer in the case of RD, a bilingual dictionary aimed, in part, at learners. RD included certain illustrations as outer texts in its back matter under the heading "see and say". The captions are words or terms that are either lemmatised or otherwise treated in the dictionary. There are, however, no text-external cross-references to these extremely useful illustrations at the relevant lemmas or treatment units. Much of the value of the back matter texts is lost because eventually they become isolated rather than interactive accessory texts. The compiler(s) of an innovative junior secondary school dictionary should consider carefully whether illustrations should be included in the back matter. If this is done the mediostructure will play a crucial role in determining whether these texts will be successful or will fail in their function.

#### **5.2.4.5 Illustrations and cross-referencing**

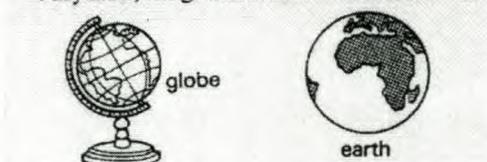
The positioning of illustrations in the back matter solves many problems for the compiler of a bidirectional, bilingual dictionary, but in the case of the proposed monolingual descriptive dictionary, there is another option available. Illustrations can be inserted as microstructural items under the relevant lemma or in close proximity to the relevant lemma. This method is especially popular in monolingual dictionaries and monodirectional translation dictionaries. It is also the method of choice in SADJS. Unfortunately SAOSD opted not to include illustrations.

A similar system to the one employed in SADJS will be suggested for use in the proposed dictionary (See 4.5.3.5). The success of this system will, however, greatly depend on the mediostructure and, in this regard, some lessons should be learnt from the successes and mistakes of SADJS. Firstly, greater care should be taken with the captions of illustrations when the lemma targeted is



polysemous. In some cases in SADJS (see e.g. **bed**) the problem of remote addressing is resolved by inserting the illustration just after the appropriate sense. This obviates the need for cross-references and should, where possible, also be implemented in the proposed dictionary. SADJS, unfortunately, does not apply this approach consistently (see e.g. **earth**).

**earth** /ɜːθ/ *noun* **1** the planet on which we live: *Is Earth nearer the Sun than Mars is?, the geography of the earth.* **2** the world: *heaven and earth.* **3** soil: *Fill the plant pot with earth.* **4** dry land; the ground: *the earth, sea and sky.*



An approach providing immediate addressing is unfortunately not expedient in all cases. The illustration may be large (as will be shown in the next paragraph) and therefore disrupt the cohesion of the microstructure and is therefore usually placed at the end of (or sometimes in close proximity to) the relevant article. In cases where the lemma is polysemous it is very important that the captions act as precise cross-references that guide the user to the exact sense which is depicted in the illustration. Such precise cross-referencing is not applied in SADJS, leading to a situation where complex, remote addressing procedures have to be followed without adequate items indicating secondary addresses as guides.

In order to save space and establish onomasiological relations between lemmas, large group illustrations are often presented at a lemma that represents a superordinate. As should be evident from the previous paragraph, the captions need to be very precise cross-references that guide the user to the appropriate sense of any of the lemmas depicted in the illustration. These cross-references must, however, be met by an equally precise and clear reference entry in the microstructure of the relevant article.

SADJS does provide cross-references to meet the captions. They are given in shaded text boxes at the end of each relevant sense or article and take the form of a bolded cross-reference preceded by the mediostructural markers "See". It is questionable, though, whether these cross-references fulfil their role satisfactorily. In their current form they are nested among the inserted inner texts that provide data on pragmatics or grammar. In a long article such as **each**, the cross-reference is one of four shaded text boxes and it can be argued that the text box as structural indicator is not prominent enough to ensure rapid access to the cross-reference. In this regard the unique marker employed by CIDE is perhaps a better option. At the lemma **hip** **fruit** the following item giving the cross-reference is **PIC** **Berries**. Typographical and non-typographical structural indicators combine to establish a successful cross-reference to the collage that appears at **berries** and in which the picture of a "rose hip" occurs. The arrow (non-typographical) and the capital letters "PIC" as an abbreviation of "picture" combine with the presentation of **berries** in bold typeface and a different type of print to create a prominent, unique and easily identifiable reference entry. This excellent method, or a similar marker, can be employed fruitfully in the proposed dictionary.

#### 5.2.4.6 Dictionary-external cross-references

The pinnacle of remote addressing in the dictionary is reached when certain elements in the dictionary refer to outside sources. This is especially the case when citations with detailed source references are employed. In the proposed dictionary the choice not to include citations obviates the need for dictionary-external cross-references, leaving the text-external cross-references as the most remote references in the dictionary. There is, however, a possible exception. The mini-grammar of the proposed dictionary could be constructed in such a way that it interacts with other study material provided to learners, e.g. by providing the rules that learners must apply in exercises in their other study material or by

abbreviating rules that are discussed in more detail in text books or other study material. If such a vision eventually becomes reality, its success will depend on the efficacy of the dictionary-external cross-references.

#### **5.2.4.7 Article-internal cross-references**

The text-external and dictionary-external cross-references represent the most remote mediostructural procedures. On the other end of the scale are the most introspective of cross-references, i.e. the article-internal cross-references.

Article-internal cross-references can occur in comprehensive dictionaries such as WAT. In WAT, e.g., explicit article-internal cross-references are used inside items giving the paraphrase of meaning to refer to preceding senses or syntactic functions of the lexical item represented by the lemma sign. Article-internal cross-references are seldom found in desk and school dictionaries, though, and it is not foreseen that any will be necessary in the proposed dictionary.

#### **5.2.5 Conclusion**

Guide structures are some of the most important mechanisms available to the lexicographer to ensure a high standard of user-friendliness. They can, if properly utilized, reflect the integration and interaction that is necessary between structures. Ilson's (1984:80) statement is particularly relevant in this regard: "Every lexicographic convention is meaning-bearing. Taken together they constitute a system in which everything is interrelated". Should the three guide structures that were discussed not interact consistently and systematically and if this interaction is not explained fully in the user's guide, the dictionary's role as an effective aid in the OBE-classroom can be compromised severely, as learners will be frustrated in the procedures they attempt and are likely to lose interest in the dictionary as a vital study aid.

## **5.3 Accessory texts**

### **5.3.1 Introduction**

Structural innovation, especially in the guide structures, is a prerequisite to ensuring that the proposed dictionary be an effective aid in the classroom. This structural innovation must, however, be mirrored by textual innovation. Accessory texts have hitherto not been employed as successfully or innovatively as they could have been in school dictionaries. In the proposed dictionary accessory texts will play a vital role in the consultation process. These texts include those that offer the user practical aid in understanding the codes, conventions and methods employed in the dictionary, as well as those which are specifically geared towards empowering the learner linguistically. Both these types of accessory text are essential to the compilation of a dictionary that can fulfil its role within OBE effectively.

The lexicographer needs to, as part of the dictionary plan, pay close attention to the frame structure of the proposed dictionary, i.e. which texts need to be included in the dictionary and where these texts should be included. An analysis of the needs of the target users of the proposed dictionary should guide the lexicographer in this regard, especially in order to determine which accessory texts need to be presented in addition to the central list. Furthermore the lexicographer must decide on the nature of the outer accessory texts, especially as to whether they will be integrated or unintegrated outer texts. Gouws (2001a: 84) describes this distinction as follows:

Unintegrated outer texts complement the central list and are not needed to retrieve the information presented in the articles of the central list. Integrated outer texts function in co-ordination with the central list and are needed to ensure an optimal and full retrieval of information.

A textual profile must be drawn up for each of the accessory outer texts, whether in the front or the back matter, and adhered to strictly in the compilation process.

### **5.3.2 Front matter**

Accessory texts can be positioned in either the front or the back matter as outer texts or can, in certain cases, be inserted in the central list. Not all the texts that appear in the front matter fit the profile of an accessory text, as discussed in 5.3.1 above. There should be three accessory texts in the proposed dictionary, i.e. the table of contents, the user's guide and the mini-grammar.

#### **5.3.2.1 The table of contents**

In the discussion of the rapid outer access structure (5.2.2.1.1), it was suggested that the table of contents could be enlarged to include the page number at which each article stretch starts. Despite the fact that the majority of users will probably not use this aid, a more comprehensive table of contents is an inexpensive space-saving accessory text that could aid more advanced learners in their dictionary consultations.

Neither SADJS nor SAOSD make full use of the potential of their tables of contents. Both do give the page numbers on which the various front and back matter texts start, but no mention is made of the starting point of any particular article stretch. In fact, the central list is only indicated as a whole and is referred to in SAOSD as "Dictionary" and in SADJS as "The Dictionary". These texts do not fill the full page, thereby wasting valuable space, and are not fully effective as accessory texts. The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary should seriously consider a more comprehensive table of contents, as proposed above. A second table of contents that acts as a secondary outer text by introducing the outer texts in the back matter can also be considered. More research needs to be done, however, to determine whether this procedure is user-friendlier than having

a single, comprehensive table of contents, or whether a second table of contents, in fact, disrupts the coherence of the dictionary as a whole.

### **5.3.2.2 The user's guide**

#### **5.3.2.2.1 The user's guide vs the preface**

The requirements of dictionary accessibility and user-friendliness not only presuppose an innovative table of contents, but also an innovative approach to the construction of the user's guide. An important distinction must, however, be made between the user's guide and the preface.

There seems to be some debate regarding the functions that should be fulfilled by these two texts. One point of view sets the preface alongside the user's guide as an outer accessory text. Gouws (2002: 476) expresses this view eloquently in his review of the outer texts in the *de Gruyter Wörterbuch Deutsch als Fremdsprache*. He praises this dictionary's approach "because the contents of the preface reaches far beyond the limits of a text with a list of acknowledgements as its main focus". He adds the following:

As a functional text the preface presents the thoughts of the lexicographer on different metalexicographical issues of this dictionary, ... as well as the nature of the presentation of data. An explanation is also given of the specific data presentation in the DGWDAF ...

Gouws (2002: 476) rightly concludes that "each dictionary has to give a clear indication of the genuine purpose of the dictionary, the dictionary typology as well as the target user" and adds that the dictionary under review employs the preface to meet this need. There is, however, a second point of view in which the preface is not conceptualised as an accessory text in the same way as the user's guide is. If this approach is followed, the preface should only provide background data, motivation for reprints, etc. It should *not provide the*

*lexicographer with a playing field to motivate his/her organisational theory* (own translation) (Louw 1997:285). This is rather seen to be the first function of the user's guide.

Gold (1993:304) explains the first function of the user's guide as follows: "Responsible dictionary compilers are expected not only to give careful thought to those questions (e.g. on the user profile - PAL), take explicit decisions, and give effect to their decisions, but also to tell potential users of their works exactly what they can expect from them". These questions that do not directly pertain to the search for linguistic or pragmatic data could be answered in the user's guide. This includes any questions regarding the typological profile of the dictionary, be that regarding the intended target user, the macrostructural extent and selection procedures, etc. The user's guide, and not the preface, should provide an answer to the basic user question, "is what I am looking for to be found in this particular dictionary?".

There is little evidence to suggest that either one of these points of view is more easily validated than the other. However, in this dissertation a model of a comprehensive user's guide will be provided and therefore it will be suggested that all the relevant data can be included in this text. In order to enhance user-friendliness this data could also be presented, in abbreviated form, on the cover texts (see 5.3.5) to enhance the data exposure structure of the proposed dictionary.

Such a comprehensive user's guide does, however, have a second very important function. Throughout this dissertation it has been set as a prerequisite to user-friendliness that the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary explain the conventions, procedures, etc. employed therein. The user's guide must provide this explanation and can then act as an effective guide to decoding all the necessary data. The user's guide can only become the primary *tool for the*

*empowerment of the user* (own translation) (Louw 1997: 285) if both these functions are fulfilled.

#### **5.3.2.2.2 Compulsory text**

As various sources, including Louw (1997: 285) and Hausmann and Wiegand (1989: 330), have confirmed, the user's guide is an essential, compulsory component of the front matter. In fact, it could be argued that a fully functional user's guide is the pre-eminent accessory text in any dictionary. Unfortunately this perspective is not always borne out by the reality of South African lexicography.

#### **5.3.2.2.3 Successes and shortcomings in current South African junior secondary school dictionaries with English as treated language**

Though the shortcomings of user's guides in South African translation, comprehensive and standard descriptive dictionaries have been explored in various metalexical sources, little research has been done regarding user's guides in dictionaries targeting learners at school. The difference in target user groups necessitates a different approach to setting criteria for the construction of effective user's guides. Such an innovative approach is, at least in part, present in SAOSD and SADJS.

##### **5.3.2.2.3.1 SADJS**

SADJS does away with the usual dichotomy of preface and user's guide by combining these two texts into one text under the heading "Introduction". The first part of this "Introduction" combines the roles of preface and user's guide by giving interesting, but not vital, data regarding the compilation process, while also providing a detailed typological profile to the potential user, parent or the teacher/facilitator.



The second part of the user's guide, which fulfils the second function of a user's guide (i.e. the explanation of conventions, procedures, etc. employed in SADJS), deviates from the practice of a comprehensive, prosaic exposition employed in many other monolingual dictionaries. A key to entries directly follows the first part.

A well-designed, visually effective key to entries can be an important asset in providing rapid access to user questions regarding the inner workings of the specific dictionary. Kirkpatrick (1989: 756), in an appraisal of OALD's key to entries, regards the key to entries as "a very valuable form of front matter" that reflects "a growing tendency to require information to be more immediate, less discursive, more visual". She adds the following to support the argument:

... tabular information ... takes significantly less time to absorb than elegant, discursive prose ... conventions which might otherwise cause problems can be explained in a minimum of space. More importantly the organisation of entries, which varies so much from dictionary to dictionary can be deduced at a glance.

It is strongly recommended that the proposed dictionary should include a key to entries, but it cannot be assumed that such a text, presented in isolation, can truly fulfil the second major function of an effective user's guide in a school dictionary, i.e. to explain its procedures, conventions, etc.

In SADJS the need to present compact captions that comment on selected articles has meant that necessary comprehensive guidance is absent. There is, for example, no detailed discussion on labelling, cross-referencing, etc. Salient concepts such as homonymy, polysemy and synonymy are also not introduced and comprehensively dealt with. The compilers of SADJS have instead chosen to give brief and mostly unsatisfactory paraphrases in the captions, a procedure that detracts from the value of the dictionary as a classroom aid. Its user's guide

cannot be employed to facilitate the acquisition of either dictionary consultation skills or of knowledge regarding concepts such as homonymy, polysemy, etc., due to its lack of adequate explication.

The compiler(s) of a future dictionary aimed at the same market segment should aim to integrate the visual approach adopted by SADJS with a more explicit discussion of features. The compilers of SAOSD attempted such an integrated approach in the text with the title "How to use this dictionary".

#### **5.3.2.2.3.2 SAOSD**

Before evaluating the formal user's guide of this dictionary, it must be noted that, unlike SADJS, SAOSD has chosen to include a preface. This preface is constructed in accordance with the point of view that sets the preface alongside the user's guide as an outer accessory text. It does not only include non-essential data, but also essential data regarding the dictionary's theory of organisation. The text with the title "How to use this dictionary" is therefore reserved for the detailed explanation of conventions, procedures, etc.

A possible point of criticism against SAOSD's approach is that this splitting of the key, obligatory elements of the front matter into two different texts could lead to a lack of cohesion. Firstly, users have to read through both non-essential and essential data in the preface without clear demarcation of these two data types. Secondly, those users seeking only the essential data now have to consult two different texts, thus disrupting their search path. This problem is underlined in SAOSD by the fact that two texts (with the titles "The English language" and "South African English") that are essentially pragmatic in nature and contain data not essential to the dictionary consultation process, separate the preface and the user's guide. This placement complicates an already complex search path, especially in the case of users wishing to follow a search path that introduces

them both to the typology and the conventions and procedures of the specific dictionary, before they consult the dictionary for specific language queries.

It is perhaps idealistic to expect users to first consult the front matter, before consulting the central list, but the teacher/facilitator can play a role in improving this aspect of the dictionary culture. A comprehension test exercise with questions pertaining to both the functions of a comprehensive user's guide could be set employing the user's guide and/or preface of the available/prescribed dictionary. Further exercises should then refer back to the user's guide as a possible source of answers to difficulties encountered in the consultation process. It could be argued that having a single, comprehensive user's guide containing all the relevant data would simplify the search procedures employed in these exercises and enhance the educational functionality of the proposed dictionary.

SAOSD does manage to maintain coherence within the text with the title "How to use the dictionary". Whereas some pedagogical dictionaries only include a key to entries (e.g. SADJS), and some include both a comprehensive user's guide and a key to entries (e.g. OALD), SAOSD chooses to merge elements of a comprehensive user's guide with the visual representation of example material in a key to entries.

Well-chosen examples in shaded boxes supplement more comprehensive comments on data distribution and the inner workings of data categories in the microstructure of the dictionary. Detailed guidance is, for example, given on the syntactic and morphological data addressed at the lemma and the use of style labels is meticulously documented and illustrated. Some insight is also provided into the selection policy of the compilers with the statement that "words which might cause offence (such as racist or sexist terms) have been omitted" (SAOSD, xv). Furthermore, the compilers' view of the role and function of example material in SAOSD is stated clearly in bulleted format. Lastly, a key to

pronunciation is integrated with the user's guide to complete a comprehensive, yet visually effective user's guide that meets the most important demands of the target users, i.e. that data can easily and immediately be assimilated, while the text remains "self-contained" (Kirkpatrick 1989: 754).

#### **5.3.2.2.3.3 Conclusion**

The compilers of the proposed dictionary could meet the needs of their target users if the well-balanced approach of SAOSD in the construction of a user's guide that explains the conventions and procedures that are used in the central list is adopted. Yet they would also do well to precede this part of the user's guide with a section that explains in detail the typological profile of the dictionary, as is the case in SADJS. Answers on questions such as what the selection policy of the dictionary is, would then not be embedded in the part of the user's guide portraying the structural profile of the dictionary, as was the case in SAOSD. A preface can be included, but this text could then only contain non-essential data.

#### **5.3.2.2.4 Reservation: the user**

A serious and worrying reservation that has to be expressed when considering the user's guide, pertains to whether users actually consult the front matter. Kirkpatrick (1989: 754) realistically evaluates the state of affairs: "The general assumption is that no-one bothers to read the front matter of dictionaries". According to her this follows on the user expectation that "the main part of the text should be self-contained, requiring little in the way of explanation". She surmises that this expectation stems from the perception that the lexicographic system of one dictionary must mostly be the same as that employed by any other dictionary. This is, however, an ungrounded perception which gives rise to an unrealistic expectation. The varying needs of target user groups, varying lexicographic traditions, the specificity of typological profiles, etc. contribute to a

lexicographic diversity which makes it impossible for users to gauge all the relevant data regarding the internal systems employed in the dictionary without consulting the user's guide.

One way of addressing this problem is to improve the user-friendliness of the user's guide of a dictionary. The suggestions made in 5.3.2.2.3 may lead to improvements in the proposed dictionary, especially in the immediacy of data transfer, but such improvements alone will not solve the problem. The rest of the solution lies in the improvement of the dictionary culture.

Teachers/facilitators have a vital role to play in ensuring that such an improvement takes place. Learners need to be encouraged to employ the user's guide, by means of formal training and/or fun dictionary activities or games. As is the case in so many other aspects of the teaching of dictionary skills, it is presumed that language teachers/facilitators are themselves highly skilled, advanced dictionary users. Due to the lack of training prevalent in the past, this presumption may not, in all cases, be valid. Serious consideration should be given to the presentation of training programmes or courses that target teachers/facilitators so that they may, in turn, aid in establishing a healthier dictionary culture. An important element of such a dictionary culture would be the consultation of the user's guide to answer any queries regarding the internal lexicographic system of the relevant dictionary and the employment of the user's guide to facilitate in the acquisition of dictionary consultation skills.

### **5.3.2.3 Mini-grammar**

The user's guide is widely regarded as a compulsory text. This is not necessarily the case with the mini-grammar, which is also usually located in the front matter. It is, however, accepted that "a dictionary presupposes a grammar, and that a lexicographer should have a firm grasp of the morphology and syntax of the language or languages he is dealing with" (Al-Kasimi 1977:49). It can be argued,

though, that it is not enough to reflect this "firm grasp" in the microstructure of a dictionary targeting junior secondary school learners. A mini-grammar presents explicit aid to users and can, if integrated with the central list by means of text-external cross-references, be a powerful tool to supplement the immediate data transfer provided in the microstructure, with detailed knowledge of the systems and processes governing the lemmatised lexical item that is being looked up. A substantial section of the proposed dictionary's target user group may find the linguistic empowerment provided by this text to be invaluable.

A question which may, however, be posed in this regard is whether a school dictionary with limited space should also make provision for a mini-grammar. Should other language aids, especially English grammar textbooks, not fulfil this function? The advent and further evolution of the communicative approach to ELT has, however, led to the decline of formally presented data on grammar in English grammar textbooks. The implicit acquisition of communication skills through comprehension tests, reading exercises, creative stimuli, etc. is emphasised and these works become teaching aids rather than textbooks. It can also be argued that a textbook, where rules and irregularities alike will be presented in an isolated way, often with inadequate exemplification, is not the ideal place for this type of data on grammar. A mini-grammar in the front matter, linked by means of cross-references to the central list, can present the relevant data more economically and more efficiently than a textbook. Such a mini-grammar "should outline the morphology and syntax of the language" (Al-Kasimi 1977:50) and must *present the user with guidance regarding both the regular and irregular aspects of the grammar of the specific language* (own translation) (Gouws 1989:209). Such texts do not necessarily have a primary empowerment function in explaining the conventions of the dictionary itself, but can be classified as accessory texts, as the assimilation of the data contained is essential to gaining full value of the grammatical data in the microstructure.

Both SADJS and SAOSD provide some help regarding grammatical issues. SADJS contains a collection of texts in the back matter that is categorised collectively as the "Appendix" and is introduced effectively by means of a separate table of contents. SAOSD also includes a collection of texts in the back matter, but they are not categorised as a whole and each text is listed separately in the table of contents at the front of the dictionary. Though the effort of including such grammatical aids must be applauded, there are, however, some points of criticism compilers of the proposed dictionary need to take note of.

Firstly, the texts in both SADJS and SAOSD are not cohesive enough to present an effective mini-grammar. They are not categorised into those pertaining to morphology and those pertaining to syntax. No attempt is made to present them in such a way that teachers/facilitators can use them in an integrated way to impart valuable information regarding the way in which the rules governing language use are connected and interdependent. In this sense they do not offer enough added value, as the mini-grammar should provide that which the central list cannot, i.e. an integrated and cohesive account of both the rules and the irregularities of a language.

Another point of criticism regarding the cohesion between these back matter texts in SAOSD, is that not all the texts share the same nature. Texts imparting data on grammar are interspersed with texts imparting pragmatic or encyclopaedic data. Texts under the headings "Weights and Measures", "South African Languages and Peoples" and "Chemical Elements" are listed alongside texts such as "Prefixes and Suffixes" and a text describing tenses of regular and irregular verbs. It would perhaps be better to not only integrate all texts which present data on grammar into one cohesive mini-grammar, but also to separate this text very clearly from those presenting pragmatic and encyclopaedic data. A model which may be considered for the proposed dictionary, could include the mini-grammar in the front matter, and rather reserve space in the back matter for

texts presenting pragmatic and encyclopaedic data and those presenting games and activities (see 5.3.4.2 for more on this point).

It is not, however, only the lack of cohesion between these texts that is worrying. The need for adequate cross-referencing between the mini-grammar and the microstructure has already been pointed out. This point is powerfully made by Gouws (1989: 234) when he states that:

There can be interaction between the mini-grammar and the element of the microstructure if the elements in the dictionary article are cross-referred to rule formulations in the mini-grammar by means of codes. This cross-referencing system must be explicit and easily understandable... (own translation).

Such an interactive approach is crucial to the effective use of the dictionary in the OBE-classroom and is, unfortunately, sadly lacking in both SADJS and SAOSD.

In addition to not being cohesive enough, the texts in SADJS and SAOSD also err in often not being comprehensive or explicit enough. In SADJS a visually pleasing approach is adopted with many pictures and other graphic aids employed. These are, however, space consuming and mostly lemma-specific in nature. Much more can be accomplished by rather employing pictures as inserted inner texts at or in close proximity to the specific lemma in the central list and by stating the rules in the mini-grammar in a more explicit, yet still visually pleasing way. More rule-formulations can then also be given than is the case in SADJS. In SAOSD, on the other hand, the accessory texts are neither visually innovative nor comprehensive enough. Lists of irregularities are given but not enough rules are formulated explicitly. Compilers of the proposed dictionary should consider including lists of irregularities (with cross-references to where these irregularities are treated in the central list), but these should follow comprehensive, explicit rule formulations. For this purpose adequate space needs to be allocated, preferably in the front matter.



Exactly how many and which rules and irregularities need to be included must be determined by consulting teachers/facilitators, studying the relevant syllabi and by testing the compiler's<sup>(i)</sup> assumptions during the empirical study that must precede the compilation process. The compilers must also take note of the study material that is available, either the formal textbooks or what is found in the general syllabi. It would be foolish to include a text that duplicates data already present in other study material, but, on the other hand, the data that can be imparted more effectively in a mini-grammar that interacts with a central list should be presented in the proposed dictionary's mini-grammar. If the vision of a school dictionary that is prescribed for use in classrooms comes to fruition, repetitive study material can be replaced or rewritten to adequately interact with the data in the proposed dictionary's mini-grammar.

The dearth of space in such a small dictionary does dictate brevity, but the mini-grammar must be detailed enough to be a truly useful aid in the classroom. The mini-grammar could, in fact, be one of the most powerful marketing tools, should the marketing process of the proposed dictionary be planned carefully. The mini-grammar can only take its rightful place as an outer accessory text (alongside the table of contents and user's guide in the front matter) if it is detailed enough to meet the needs of the target users.

### **5.3.3 Inserted inner texts**

As has previously been noted, the dictionary compiler's commitment to enhancing the dictionary's user-friendliness by employing accessory texts should not end after the front matter is completed. Inserted inner texts are vital data carriers that can be inserted into the microstructure. As complete, inserted texts they often interact with elements of the microstructure to ensure communicative success. There are two main types of these accessory texts, i.e. verbal texts and illustrations. There are other types of inserted inner texts such as tables,

sidebars, etc., but in this dissertation the focus will be on verbal texts and illustrations.

### **5.3.3.1 Verbal texts**

Verbal inserted inner texts can present a variety of data types. In many dictionaries they can be categorised as notes on language usage. Louw and Gouws (1996: 97) abbreviate their function as follows: *The inserted inner text points the user to a variety of problems pertaining to a specific lemma ... The data in these inserted texts is therefore mostly pragmatic in nature* (own translation). Furthermore it can be stated that the data presented in these texts is "not covered by the defined categories in the ordered article positions" (Gouws 1996a: 23). It is, however, very important, that the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary employ(s) these texts sparingly as they are space consuming and an abundance of them could easily cause them to lose their visual efficacy.

Both SADJS and SAOSD employ usage notes as carriers of pragmatic data. In SAOSD they are presented as bulleted microstructural items at the end of an article and introduced by the heading "USAGE". SAOSD's "usage notes" (SAOSD, xv). are not visually as effective as inserted inner texts that are presented in boxes. SADJS has opted to present their "usage notes" in tinted boxes, resulting in a very clear and prominent visual presentation. Thorough empirical study is still required to determine which structural indicators are the most appropriate to introduce usage notes in school dictionaries. Text boxes are widely used for this purpose in pedagogical dictionaries and should be considered for the proposed dictionary.

In both SADJS and SAOSD the usage notes employed are multi-functional. SAOSD states their functions as follows: "Usage notes after entries give guidance on terms often confused as well as the appropriacy of words in formal contexts ..." (SAOSD, xv). SADJS states that "tinted boxes give extra help with

words that are especially difficult to use, extra information, and opposites" (SADJS, vii) and in exceptional cases data on pronunciation is also included (see 4.3.2.1.1). In practice, though, SADJS often uses these tinted boxes to distinguish between easily confusable co-hyponyms or other lexical items. In fact, distinguishing between confusable lexical items is the most prominent function of the verbal inserted inner texts in both SADJS and SAOSD.

Two of the functions attributed to inserted inner texts (distinguishing between "opposites" and between confusable co-hyponyms) have been discussed in 4.2.3.3 where it was suggested that these functions are best fulfilled in the suggested article position reserved for onomasiological data. In the case of "opposites" (antonyms and complementary pairs) it would seem a wasteful lexicographic practice to employ an inserted inner text, as a simple entry in the correct sequence takes up less space. Furthermore, inserted inner texts are usually given at the end of a sense or entry, after all the examples. This would mean that the comment on semantic opposition would (if placed in an inserted inner text) not be located with the other onomasiological data in close proximity to the semasiological data in the comment or subcomment on semantics. Such a procedure could disrupt the cohesion and negatively impact on the transfer of semantic data in the microstructure.

The question of whether easily confusable co-hyponyms are better dealt with in inserted inner texts, though, is a more complex one. There is a strong case to be made out for the inclusion of this type of comment in the article position for onomasiological data (see 4.2.3.3). Coherence is maintained and space saved, but, owing to the amount of data that has to fill this article position, there is no room for further explication. The assumption is that the user must go to the article where the co-hyponym is the lemma and read the item giving the paraphrase of meaning there, in order to understand the difference between the two lexical items. This is, however, a long process, which might frustrate learners. One can therefore argue that inserted inner texts are a more

appropriate medium in school dictionaries as it allows for more detailed comment, e.g. in the following example at **possible** in SADJS.

'**pos-si-ble** *adjective* **1** able to happen or be done. **2** satisfactory; acceptable: *I've thought of a possible solution to the problem.*

**possible** means 'able to happen': *It's possible that he may arrive today.*

**probable** means 'likely to happen': *It's probable that he's gone home now.*

In this case the differences are clarified immediately and effectively. There is also a prominent cross-reference at **probably**, which fulfils an important desideratum for successful verbal inserted inner texts, i.e. that they are supported by article-external cross-references (see 5.2.4.3).

SAOSD has opted for a hybrid procedure when dealing with confusable co-hyponyms or other confusable lexical items. A usage note is presented at each of the corresponding lemmas. At **prescribe** the following usage note is presented:

- USAGE: Do not confuse with *proscribe*.

This is met by the following usage note at **proscribe**:

- USAGE: Do not confuse with *prescribe*.

This system unfortunately retains all the weaknesses of the inserted inner text when dealing with confusable co-hyponyms (i.e. that it is displaced from other items presenting onomasiological data) or other confusable lexical items, i.e. that it is space consuming and therefore expensive, without retaining the strengths. Visually it is not as effective as SADJS's texts and it also wastes the opportunity to give more detailed guidance on the differences between the two lexical items, rather opting to rely on the items giving the paraphrase of meaning to clarify all differences. SAOSD employs a curious application of the usage note as a

means of distinguishing, which, ultimately, does not contribute adequately to enhancing the dictionary's user-friendliness.

Furthermore SAOSD is inconsistent in its adherence to two related usage notes establishing a complex, text-external reference relation. At **strait**<sup>1</sup>, for example, the following usage note is inserted:

- USAGE: Do not confuse with *straight*.

Yet, at **straight** there is no corresponding inserted inner text to point the user back in the direction where the usage note is to be found. All considered, it could be postulated that SAOSD's is a weak system that is inconsistently applied and that the compilers of the proposed dictionary should not seek to emulate this system.

The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary need to empirically determine whether an item presenting onomasiological data or a verbal inserted inner text would better suit their target user. Should the decision be to include comments on confusable lexical items in the verbal inserted inner texts, the system employed in SADJS could be emulated, but more care should be taken to make the cross-references more precise (see 5.2.4.3).

Verbal inserted inner texts are very versatile accessory texts that significantly enhance the communicative value of a school dictionary. They should be included in the microstructural treatment and inserted at the specific sense they apply to or in a fixed article position should they apply to the whole lemma. Great care should, however, be taken to ensure that these texts are as accessible as possible and aid rather than disrupt cohesion in the proposed dictionary. In order to maintain cohesion it is therefore vital that, in cases where an inserted inner text is addressed at more than one lemma or at different senses of these lemmas, detailed cross-references are given.

### **5.3.3.2 Ostensive illustrations as inserted inner texts**

Whereas it is suggested that usage notes in the proposed dictionary should appear as inserted inner texts in the microstructure, it has been maintained in 4.5.3 that ostensive illustrations could rather be positioned elsewhere in the microstructure. One could argue convincingly in support of this procedure. It could be suggested that ostensive illustrations often operate best in direct support of data in the microstructure and therefore do not need to operate within a separate access structure that would probably be more space-consuming and more difficult for the target users to access. When ostensive illustrations do cover more than one lemma, the strength of the proposed mediostructure and the practice of employing characteristics of synopsis articles at group illustrations (see 4.5.3.5) would adequately meet the referencing needs of the target users of the proposed dictionary.

### **5.3.4 The back matter**

#### **5.3.4.1 Illustrations**

As has been shown in 4.5.3 and reiterated in 5.3.3.2, illustrations would function optimally in the proposed dictionary should they be used in the microstructure. Therefore the model whereby these texts are included as back matter texts, as is the case in some bilingual dictionaries (e.g. RD), is not necessarily appropriate for use in a monolingual school dictionary, though more research needs to be done to justify their exclusion.

#### **5.3.4.2 Other texts in the back matter**

A variety of texts can be accommodated in the back matter. Most of these texts have a pragmatic function or can be classified as carriers of pragmatic data.

Additional encyclopaedic and cultural data can also be included or the texts could present games and activities.

Both SADJS and SAOSD do include outer texts in the back matter. In 5.3.2.2 most of these texts were shown to contain grammatical data, with some texts containing pragmatic data interspersed with these. The lack of cohesion between outer texts in the back matter of both these dictionaries and the varied nature of these texts were criticised in 5.3.2.2. As was suggested, it may serve the target user better to combine the texts containing grammatical data into a mini-grammar and present this in the front matter.

It is not, however, only texts in the back matter that can be viewed as not placed in the most effective position. SAOSD includes a text with the title "Dictionary games and activities" in the front matter. This text is well-constructed and is certainly very useful as an aid in the OBE-classroom. In fact, an expanded text with games and activities should be included in the proposed dictionary. Such a text should provide clear and simple guidelines for its use and these guidelines should target both the teacher/facilitator and the learner, as this text may be employed, under supervision, in the classroom context or by the learner at home. Furthermore, the activities or games should be specifically geared towards meeting the needs of junior secondary or middle school learners. In this regard, some of the activities included in SAOSD's text, such as the one targeting alphabetisation, rather seem to be aimed at younger users. The main point of criticism against SAOSD's text is, though, that it is placed in the front matter. Should the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary hold to the model presented in this dissertation, space in the front matter should be reserved for the table of contents, preface, user's guide and mini-grammar, whereas the texts presenting games and activities should be part of a coherent grouping of texts of a more pragmatic nature presented in the back matter. Grouping the texts in such a fashion would make the user's search paths to the required data in the outer texts less complex. The compulsory texts (i.e. the table of contents, user's guide

and mini-grammar) that are determined in accordance with the functions of the dictionary can be presented in the front matter with a high prominence. Those texts that give additional, but less essential, guidance can be located in the back matter, which is a less prominent positioning. This would serve to declutter the front matter and create a coherent grouping of outer texts in the back matter.

In addition to "Dictionary games and activities" SAOSD includes other texts of a pragmatic nature that can be considered for inclusion in the proposed dictionary. These are appropriately placed in the back matter and include, among others texts dealing with "Weights and Measures", "South African Languages and Peoples" and "Chemical Elements". Guides that aid the user in writing letters (as presented in RD), a phrase index (as presented in CIDE) and other, shorter texts (such as LDOCE's tables on geographical names, military ranks, etc.) can also be considered. These texts will mainly be unintegrated outer texts. The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary should, however, take great care in determining whether such texts should be included, and if they are to be included great care should be taken in their construction. Outer texts that function as part of the back matter should be compact and the data contained therein should directly target the needs of the learner in the junior secondary or middle school phase. They should also, as is the case in SAOSD's "South African Languages and Peoples", contain relevant data about South African culture.

### **5.3.5 Other texts**

There are some accessory texts that do not fit into the traditional categories, i.e. the front matter, central list or back matter, and therefore need to be discussed separately. Some of these texts, such as bookmarks and fold-out guides, target the quick transfer of data on pronunciation by providing either a shorter version of the key to pronunciation or a repetition thereof.



Neither SAOSD nor SADJS employ such a text. In the proposed dictionary the use of a fold-out guide should be considered, as it grants rapid access to vital data. Furthermore, it does not have the primary drawback of the bookmark, i.e. that it is easily lost or misplaced, especially by learners.

Texts that grant rapid access to conventions or codes are not only employed regarding data on pronunciation in pedagogical dictionaries. Advanced learners' dictionaries such as CIDE, LDOCE, COBUILD and OALD, in which space is a rare commodity, employ the insides of the dust covers innovatively. Two of these dictionaries (OALD and CIDE) employ the front inside cover to present the key to pronunciation and the back cover to present data on the grammar coding or labels used in the microstructure. In LDOCE and COBUILD the inside covers are reserved for data on codes and labels.

It is, however, debatable whether the use of the inside covers to impart such essential data, really adds value to the product. It may save some space, but it could be argued that the user would be better served by an integration of these texts into a structured user's guide. If there is a need for rapid access, the relevant section of the user's guide could be presented in abbreviated form on a fold-out guide.

The outside of the dust cover (both front and back) should (and usually does) contain important data in a pedagogical dictionary. The data contained may not be linguistic in nature, but it does have great commercial and lexicographical value, as it is this data which must convince learners that the specific dictionary is the appropriate one for their learning stage. Both SADJS and SAOSD include such data on their back covers and shared data types include data on the appropriate learning stage that is targeted by this dictionary, the macrostructural size of the dictionary, the number of examples employed to supplement the transfer of data on semantics and data on other microstructural features of the dictionary. The most salient pieces of data are also presented in larger typeface

on the front cover to better attract the potential user's attention. In essence the data on the dust cover abbreviates the more market-related data embedded in the introduction/preface and (to a lesser extent) the user's guide. Such an approach should also be followed in the proposed dictionary and the data presented should at least include the data types shared by SADJS and SAOSD.

### **5.3.6 Accessory texts - conclusion**

In recent lexicographical practice there has been a renewed consciousness of the value of accessory texts. This awareness needs to be carried through into the compilation process of dictionaries for use in South African schools. Accessory texts must not be seen as luxuries, but rather as essential elements that form part of an integrated, interactive lexicographical model.

## Chapter 6 Conclusion

The criteria that are discussed in this dissertation can provide a framework for the compilation of a truly user-friendly junior secondary school dictionary with English as treated language, which can be employed to enhance the learning process in the OBE-classroom and specifically the ELT-classroom. In summary, these criteria can be classified as those pertaining to dictionary typology, the macrostructure, microstructure and guide structures and accessory texts. Yet, in order to enhance the user-friendliness of this dissertation, the most salient of these criteria will be summarised in more detail in the following paragraphs, before a conclusion is presented.

The typological criteria are summarised in 2.5 and lay the foundation for the structural profile of the proposed dictionary that must be suitable for use in the junior secondary OBE-classroom. These criteria also open the door for compiling the proposed dictionary in such a way that it is larger in size and more comprehensive in terms of its macro-and microstructure and outer texts than the dictionaries, such as SADJS and SAOSD, which are currently available for use in this learning phase.

The need for a more comprehensive approach is perhaps more urgent in the design process of the microstructure than in that of the macrostructure. It is set as a criterion in this dissertation that the compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary should, after careful preparatory research, extract a lemma base, determined by the frequency counts of individual lexical items, from a balanced corpus or conglomeration of corpora. However, certain exceptions to inclusion from a core lemma base are discussed, with particular reference to dialectal and regional language variation, stylistic variation, technical terms and curriculum words, loan words and neologisms and names. The consistent inclusion of lexical items that reflect the rapid restandardisation of SSAE as lemmas, as well as lexical items

that reflect the curricula junior secondary learners are confronted with, is emphasised.

In addition to issues regarding the comprehensiveness of the macrostructure, issues regarding the determination of a user-friendly sort order are also addressed. Strict initial alphabetical ordering is set as the broad ordering principle of choice, but detailed, specific criteria are also presented for the treatment of possible disturbances of this principle, such as spelling variants, homonyms, compound lexical items and abbreviations. Advanced ordering strategies are also discussed. Criteria for the inclusion of sublexical lemmas (preferably as main lemmas) and multilexical lemmas are given. It is shown that the criteria for different types of multilexical lemmas can differ, with preference being given to the lemmatisation as main lemmas of loan groups and group prepositions, but to the sublemmatisation of idioms. Lastly, criteria are also set for all sublemmatisation procedures to be employed in the proposed dictionary. Nesting is suggested as an appropriate ordering principle, thereby creating another exception to the strict initial alphabetical ordering system. Furthermore, it is contended that different types of sublemmas will warrant different extents of microstructural treatment in the proposed dictionary and some guidance is given as to the extent in specific cases.

As has been suggested previously, there is a pressing need for more comprehensive microstructural treatment than is given in SADJS and SAOSD to adequately meet the needs of the target user group of the proposed dictionary. Criteria that can aid in creating a more comprehensive microstructure are therefore presented regarding the treatment of semantic data, data on pronunciation, grammatical data, pragmatic data and etymological data. These criteria do not exclusively pertain to issues of comprehensive treatment, but also encompass other principles, such as user-friendliness, consistency of application, appropriateness for use in a classroom context, etc.

The criteria presented for an improved presentation of semantic data in the microstructure mainly pertain to three key aspects, i.e. the lexicographical treatment of polysemy, the semasiological presentation of semantic data by means of items giving the paraphrase of meaning and the onomasiological presentation of semantic data. In terms of the treatment of polysemy, criteria are set for the ordering of polysemous senses and the design of effective indicators to introduce polysemous senses. The semasiological presentation of semantic data in the proposed dictionary is then discussed at length, with the relevance of an actional-semantic theory of semantics and the use of elements of the frame theory in the construction of items giving the meaning paraphrase being probed. Attention is also paid to the onomasiological transfer of meaning, with the suggestion being made that clearly distinguished items giving onomasiological data, especially on synonymy but also possibly on antonymy and other semantic relations, should follow the item giving the paraphrase of meaning in the comment or subcomment on semantics.

A more comprehensive approach is also suggested when dealing with the presentation of data on pronunciation and such an approach is supported metalexically and empirically. Full, phonetic items giving the transcription based on the IPA should be presented for all lexical items represented by lemma signs and must reflect the restandardisation of SSAE. Furthermore, these items should serve as the base form for clear, user-friendly indication of syllable division and main stress.

Criteria are also set for the presentation of two types of grammatical data, i.e. data on syntax and morphological data. The discussion on data on syntax is mainly limited to part of speech indication and the presentation of illustrative examples in the form of collocations and example sentences. Regarding part of speech indication, distinctive, preferably unabbreviated, items giving the part of speech, placed centrally in the comment on form, are proposed. Regarding illustrative examples, it is concluded that a comprehensive inclusion of examples

is necessary, that collocations and constructed examples should be presented in close proximity to one another in a specific search zone reserved for micro- and macrosyntactic data in the integrate and that collocations and constructed examples should be separated clearly, preferably by means of a distinctive structural indicator. A comprehensive approach is also pleaded for in the presentation of data on morphology in the microstructure, but it is clearly stated that this treatment should be enhanced by means of cross-references to relevant rule formulations in the mini-grammar.

Different categories of pragmatic data are discussed, with the emphasis on the presentation of vital pragmatic data by means of lexicographical labels and ostensive illustrations that are inserted in specific article slots. A more inclusive policy on etymological data than is the case in SAOSD and SADJS is also suggested for the proposed dictionary.

Lastly, criteria are presented for the very important role the guide structures and accessory texts must play in ensuring that the proposed dictionary can be used as a user-friendly communicative and pedagogical tool in the OBE-classroom. Different challenges and problems in the design process of the access, addressing and mediostructures are discussed and possible solutions are provided. Furthermore, the use of accessory texts as carriers of data vital in the overall empowerment of the learner, as both a language user and a dictionary user, is pleaded for. This discussion includes the design criteria for an expanded table of contents, a more comprehensive user's guide, a mini-grammar that interacts with the central list (but also possibly with other study material) to provide a more complete transfer of grammatical data, inserted inner texts that act as effective usage notes to give answers to specific anticipated user questions (mostly on pragmatic issues), outer texts that provide additional pragmatic and encyclopaedic data in the back matter, and other texts, such as those on the dust covers, which form part of the data exposure structure. A

comprehensive approach is suggested for the design of the frame structure of the dictionary.

The compiler(s) of the proposed dictionary will face a difficult task in having to reconcile the vision of a dictionary that is relatively comprehensive in its data transfer and provides a user-friendly access structure and micro-architecture, with that of a cheap, mass-produced, portable dictionary. In order to achieve such reconciliation, no data should be duplicated in the microstructure and data should be presented as concisely as possible without alienating the dictionary's target users by, for example, employing unnecessary textual condensation or the overuse of space-saving mechanisms such as codes or abbreviations. A delicate balance should also be maintained between retaining white space to enhance the micro-architecture and removing unnecessary white space.

In conclusion some of the outcomes of this dissertation could be listed. Many of the specific structural criteria presented in this dissertation (and summarised in the preceding paragraphs) present either original insights or the innovative application of existing metalexicographical findings (e.g. on the construction of items giving the paraphrase of meaning) to a dictionary type which has not received much attention, i.e. the monolingual school dictionary that targets junior secondary learners. There are, however, other, less specific, outcomes or findings that can be mentioned here. Firstly, this study is one of the first academic studies that present detailed guidelines for the compilation of user-friendly dictionaries as study material to be used in the OBE-classroom in South African schools.

Secondly, this dissertation is unique in its focus on the junior secondary learning phase. Other studies on school dictionaries have tended to emphasise the senior secondary learning phase, but there are significant differences in user competence and expectations, which necessitate a detailed lexicographical

distinction between these phases. This distinction must be embodied in different types of dictionaries for the different phases.

Thirdly, the dictionaries, such as SADJS and SAOSD, which are currently available for use in this learning phase, seem to adhere to the principle that a monolingual school dictionary should be a truncated version of a desk dictionary. This dissertation presents an alternative point of view, i.e. that a monolingual school dictionary that targets junior secondary learners generally demands more comprehensive treatment than is the case in SADJS and SAOSD, and even, in some instances, than is the case in desk dictionaries. A case in point is the presentation of semasiological semantic data by means of items giving the paraphrase of meaning, where a more comprehensive item has been shown to be more suitable for use in the proposed dictionary. This finding has been confirmed by the results of the questionnaire distributed as part of this study, but with the interesting additional result that learners' need for comprehensive treatment seems to be inversely linked to their familiarity with the lexical item being paraphrased.

Fourthly, the proposed dictionary will have a unique target user group consisting of both mother-tongue and non-mother-tongue learners of English. This means that the typological and structural profiles have to be drawn up in such a way that provision is made for the needs of both these user groups.

Lastly, it is set as a typological criterion that the proposed dictionary should seek to reflect the restandardisation of SSAE as fully as possible. The macro- and microstructural implications of such a decision, which are discussed in this dissertation are far-reaching and complicate the task of the compiler(s) significantly. Yet, if dealt with successfully, an approach that seeks to reflect the restandardisation of SSAE could break new ground in South African pedagogical lexicography.



The lexicographer must, in determining all the above-mentioned prerequisites and criteria, be guided by the specific and varying needs of the diverse target user group of the proposed dictionary. These needs ought to be gauged by means of a comprehensive, detailed empirical study that must precede the compilation process and the findings of which must be incorporated in the dictionary plan. A detailed study of the varying lexicographical needs of mother- and non-mother-tongue learners will not only provide vital guidelines for determining the structural profile of the proposed dictionary. It will also hold vast metalexicographical benefits as such studies are rarely executed in a South African context with the result that little conclusive research has been accomplished.

The decisions that the lexicographer makes as part of the dictionary plan must be the product of solid research and careful consideration and should be systematic. Only then can the lexicographer claim to have produced a satisfactory theory of organisation for the proposed dictionary. The time spent on designing the dictionary plan and on the preceding empirical research will necessarily bear fruit in the macrostructure, microstructure, guide structures and inner and outer texts of the dictionary. The resulting product will then incorporate the basic principles of user-friendliness and accessibility on a structural level, but the lexicographer must also ensure that the theory of organisation is completely transparent. This can only be achieved through the design of a comprehensive, easily decodable user's guide.

The new educational dispensation in South Africa is geared towards producing critical thinkers with excellent communication skills. It will, however, set tremendous demands on already overworked teachers/facilitators working in overcrowded classrooms with meagre resources. It is therefore vital that excellent study material be readily available in every ELT-classroom. Lexicographers need to step up to the plate and deliver cheap, mass-produced but truly user-friendly and educationally-sound monolingual school dictionaries to

be used by mother tongue and non-mother tongue learners. The National Lexicography Units can play an important role in bringing this vision to being, but only if they are adequately supported and funded in such ventures by their government structures. Furthermore, partnerships with companies from the private sector should be actively pursued, as a successful secondary education is crucial to providing a competent future labour base for such companies and much money is spent yearly in support of educational initiatives. Such lexicographical ventures are true to the ideal of co-operative lexicography and can, if based on the type of blueprint presented in this dissertation and supported by empirical research sanctioned and sponsored by government, radically alter the South African lexicographical landscape. They can also, in a small way, contribute to the success of outcomes-based ELT in South Africa.

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**Addendum A****Please complete the following questionnaire**

The goals of this questionnaire are to find out how dictionaries are used in the classroom and to explore ways in which school dictionaries can be made user-friendlier. These findings will be integrated into a doctoral study currently being completed at the University of Stellenbosch.

Please mark the appropriate choice with an X. At questions 1, 5 and 6 you can mark more than one choice.

1 What type of dictionary is in your English classroom?

English-only	
More than one language	
None	

2 If there is a dictionary in your classroom, do the words "school dictionary" appear on the front cover?

Yes	
No	

3 Do you use an English-only dictionary ...

Never	
Hardly ever	
Sometimes	
Often?	

4 If you do use an English-only dictionary, what do you use it for?

--

5 If you use the dictionary in your English classroom, do you use it mainly ...

To look up strange words while reading?	
To help you while you are writing?	

6 What types of information do you look up?

Spelling	
Pronunciation	
Meaning	
Parts of speech	
Morphology (plurals, past tense, etc.)	
Other (please specify)	

7 Do you think that a school dictionary should show you exactly how each headword can be *pronounced*?

Yes	
No	

8 Do you think that it is necessary to give the *scientific names* of animals, plants, etc. in a school dictionary?

Yes	
No	

9 a) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of the word **elephant** the best?

A.	
----	--

**elephant** ... a very large animal with thick skin, a trunk and two tusks

B.	
----	--

**elephant** ... Very large, heavy, plant-eating mammal with a well-developed brain, a big head, a long, movable trunk, curved, ivory tusks and thick, almost hairless skin, and which can be classified into two varieties, i.e. the larger African elephant, which has big, fan-shaped ears and still lives in the wild in some parts of South Africa and the rest of Africa, and the Indian elephant, which has much smaller ears and is mainly located in South Asia, especially in India.

C.	
----	--

**elephant** ... the largest living land animal, of which two species survive, the larger African (*Loxodonta africana*) and the smaller Indian (*Elephas maximus*), both with a trunk and long curved ivory tusks

9 b) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **oribi** the best?

A.	
----	--

**oribi** ... a small antelope that has straight horns

B.	
----	--

**oribi** ... a small S. African grazing antelope, *Ourebia ourebi*, having a reddish fawn back and white underparts

C.	
----	--

**oribi** ... Small reddish to yellowish brown antelope with a white belly, slim legs, a long neck, oval-shaped, pointy ears, short, straight horns and a fan-shaped tail, and which lives on the plains of Southern and Eastern Africa, usually in small groups near water

9 c) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **rake** the best?

A.	
----	--

**rake** ... a tool, like a large comb with a long handle, used for smoothing earth, gathering hay and leaves together etc.

B.	
----	--

**rake** ... a gardening tool with a row of short spikes fixed to a long handle

C.	
----	--

**rake** ... an implement consisting of a pole with a crossbar toothed like a comb at the end, or with several tines held together by a crosspiece, for drawing together hay etc. or smoothing loose soil or gravel

D.	
----	--

**rake** ... Hand-held gardening tool with a long pole as a handle and a head with long teeth, used to gather leaves or grass that have been cut, to smooth the surface of the soil or to spread something over the ground

10 Do you prefer a dictionary that includes *pictures* to speed up your identification of the objects, actions, etc. that are being defined?

Yes	
No	

Thank you for participating in this study.

**Addendum B****Result page: All grade 8 and 9s**

Total: 107

3 Do you use an English-only dictionary ...

Never	3=3%
Hardly ever	14=13%
Sometimes	65=61%
Often?	25=23%

5 If you use the dictionary in your English classroom, do you use it mainly ...

To look up strange words while reading?	59=55%
To help you while you are writing?	85=79%

6 What types of information do you look up?

Spelling	95=89%
Pronunciation	23=21%
Meaning	97=91%
Parts of speech	20=19%
Morphology (plurals, past tense, etc.)	31=29%
Other (please specify): Antonyms, synonyms, and etymology (each).	1=1%

7 Do you think that a school dictionary should show you exactly how each headword can be *pronounced*?

Yes	90=84%
No	17=16%

8 Do you think that it is necessary to give the *scientific names* of animals, plants, etc. in a school dictionary?

Yes	80=75%
No	27=25%

9 a) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of the word **elephant** the best?

A.	11=10%
B.	61=57%
C.	35=33%

9 b) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **oribi** the best?

A.	9=8%
B.	32=30%
C.	66=62%

9 c) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **rake** the best?

A.	37=35%
B.	21=20%
C.	18=17%
D.	31=29%

10 Do you prefer a dictionary that includes *pictures* to speed up your identification of the objects, actions, etc. that are being defined?

Yes	79=74%
No	28=26%

**Addendum C****Result page: Mother-tongue grade 8 and 9s**

Total 54

3 Do you use an English-only dictionary ...

Never	0
Hardly ever	4=8%
Sometimes	31=57%
Often?	19=35%

5 If you use the dictionary in your English classroom, do you use it mainly ...

To look up strange words while reading?	35=65%
To help you while you are writing?	44=81%

6 What types of information do you look up?

Spelling	49=91%
Pronunciation	17=31%
Meaning	53=98%
Parts of speech	16=30%
Morphology (plurals, past tense, etc.)	23=43%
Other (please specify) Examples	1=2%

7 Do you think that a school dictionary should show you exactly how each headword can be *pronounced*?

Yes	51=94%
No	3=6%

8 Do you think that it is necessary to give the *scientific names* of animals, plants, etc. in a school dictionary?

Yes	44=81%
No	10=19%

9 a) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of the word **elephant** the best?

A.	3=6%
B.	29=54%
C.	22=40%

9 b) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **oribi** the best?

A.	1=2%
B.	20=37%
C.	33=61%

9 c) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **rake** the best?

A.	25=46%
B.	7=13%
C.	4=8%
D.	18=33%

10 Do you prefer a dictionary that includes *pictures* to speed up your identification of the objects, actions, etc. that are being defined?

Yes	40=74%
No	14=26%



**Addendum D****Result page: Non-mother-tongue grade 8 and 9s**

Total: 53

3 Do you use an English-only dictionary ...

Never	3=6%
Hardly ever	10=19%
Sometimes	34=64%
Often?	6=11%

5 If you use the dictionary in your English classroom, do you use it mainly ...

To look up strange words while reading?	24=45%
To help you while you are writing?	41=77%

6 What types of information do you look up?

Spelling	46=87%
Pronunciation	6=11%
Meaning	44=83%
Parts of speech	4=8%
Morphology (plurals, past tense, etc.)	8=15%
Other (please specify)Antonyms	1=2%
Synonyms	1=2%

7 Do you think that a school dictionary should show you exactly how each headword can be pronounced?

Yes	39=74%
No	14=26%

8 Do you think that it is necessary to give the *scientific names* of animals, plants, etc. in a school dictionary?

Yes	36=68%
No	17=32%

9 a) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of the word **elephant** the best?

A.	8=15%
B.	32=60%
C.	13=25%

9 b) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **oribi** the best?

A.	8=15%
B.	12=23%
C.	33=62%

9 c) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **rake** the best?

A.	12=23%
B.	14=26%
C.	14=26%
D.	13=25%

10 Do you prefer a dictionary that includes *pictures* to speed up your identification of the objects, actions, etc. that are being defined?

Yes	39=74%
No	14=26%

**Addendum E****Result page: Brackenfell grade 8s**

Total: 32

3 Do you use an English-only dictionary ...

Never	0
Hardly ever	1=3%
Sometimes	21=66%
Often?	10=31%

5 If you use the dictionary in your English classroom, do you use it mainly ...

To look up strange words while reading?	18=56%
To help you while you are writing?	25=78%

6 What types of information do you look up?

Spelling	31=97%
Pronunciation	14=44%
Meaning	31=97%
Parts of speech	11=34%
Morphology (plurals, past tense, etc.)	14=44%
Other (please specify) Examples	1=3%

7 Do you think that a school dictionary should show you exactly how each headword can be *pronounced*?

Yes	31=97%
No	1=3%

8 Do you think that it is necessary to give the *scientific names* of animals, plants, etc. in a school dictionary?

Yes	27=84%
No	5=16%

9 a) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of the word **elephant** the best?

A.	1=3%
B.	16=50%
C.	15=47%

9 b) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **oribi** the best?

A.	1=3%
B.	14=44%
C.	17=53%

9 c) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **rake** the best?

A.	13=41%
B.	7=22%
C.	1=3%
D.	11=34%

10 Do you prefer a dictionary that includes *pictures* to speed up your identification of the objects, actions, etc. that are being defined?

Yes	24=75%
No	8=25%

**Addendum F****Result page: Brackenfell grade 9s**

Total: 22

3 Do you use an English-only dictionary ...

Never	0
Hardly ever	3=14%
Sometimes	10=45%
Often?	9=41%

5 If you use the dictionary in your English classroom, do you use it mainly ...

To look up strange words while reading?	17=77%
To help you while you are writing?	19=86%

6 What types of information do you look up?

Spelling	18=82%
Pronunciation	3=14%
Meaning	22=100%
Parts of speech	5=23%
Morphology (plurals, past tense, etc.)	9=41%
Other (please specify)	

7 Do you think that a school dictionary should show you exactly how each headword can be *pronounced*?

Yes	20=91%
No	2=9%

8 Do you think that it is necessary to give the *scientific names* of animals, plants, etc. in a school dictionary?

Yes	17=77%
No	5=23%

9 a) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of the word **elephant** the best?

A.	2=9%
B.	13=59%
C.	7=32%

9 b) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **oribi** the best?

A.	0
B.	6=27%
C.	16=73%

9 c) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **rake** the best?

A.	12=54%
B.	0
C.	3=14%
D.	7=32%

10 Do you prefer a dictionary that includes *pictures* to speed up your identification of the objects, actions, etc. that are being defined?

Yes	16=73%
No	6=27%

**Addendum G****Result page: Stellenbosch grade 8s**

Total: 27

3 Do you use an English-only dictionary ...

Never	0
Hardly ever	3=11%
Sometimes	22=82%
Often?	2=7%

5 If you use the dictionary in your English classroom, do you use it mainly ...

To look up strange words while reading?	14=52%
To help you while you are writing?	22=82%

6 What types of information do you look up?

Spelling	21=78%
Pronunciation	3=11%
Meaning	26=96%
Parts of speech	3=11%
Morphology (plurals, past tense, etc.)	4=15%
Other (please specify) Antonyms	1=4%
Synonyms	1=4%

7 Do you think that a school dictionary should show you exactly how each headword can be pronounced?

Yes	25=93%
No	2=7%

8 Do you think that it is necessary to give the *scientific names* of animals, plants, etc. in a school dictionary?

Yes	21=78%
No	6=22%

9 a) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of the word **elephant** the best?

A.	3=11%
B.	16=59%
C.	8=30%

9 b) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **oribi** the best?

A.	4=15%
B.	5=18%
C.	18=67%

9 c) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **rake** the best?

A.	6=22%
B.	7=26%
C.	7=26%
D.	7=26%

10 Do you prefer a dictionary that includes *pictures* to speed up your identification of the objects, actions, etc. that are being defined?

Yes	23=85%
No	4=15%

**Addendum H****Result page: Stellenbosch grade 9s**

Total: 26

3 Do you use an English-only dictionary ...

Never	3=12%
Hardly ever	7=27%
Sometimes	12=46%
Often?	4=15%

5 If you use the dictionary in your English classroom, do you use it mainly ...

To look up strange words while reading?	10=38%
To help you while you are writing?	19=73%

6 What types of information do you look up?

Spelling	25=96%
Pronunciation	3=12%
Meaning	18=69%
Parts of speech	1=4%
Morphology (plurals, past tense, etc.)	4=15%
Other (please specify)	

7 Do you think that a school dictionary should show you exactly how each headword can be *pronounced*?

Yes	14=54%
No	12=46%

8 Do you think that it is necessary to give the *scientific names* of animals, plants, etc. in a school dictionary?

Yes	15=58%
No	11=42%

9 a) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of the word **elephant** the best?

A.	5=19%
B.	16=62%
C.	5=19%

9 b) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **oribi** the best?

A.	4=15%
B.	7=27%
C.	15=58%

9 c) Which one of the following definitions describes the meaning of **rake** the best?

A.	6=23%
B.	7=27%
C.	7=27%
D.	6=23%

10 Do you prefer a dictionary that includes *pictures* to speed up your identification of the objects, actions, etc. that are being defined?

Yes	16=62%
No	10=38%