AFRICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LEXICOGRAPHY

19th International Conference

30 June – 3 July 2014

AFRILEX

North-West University
Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY ®
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AFRICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LEXICOGRAPHY

Programme and Abstracts

19th International Conference
North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa
30 June – 3 July 2014

Hosted by: Research Unit for Language and Literature in the South African Context, North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa

Conference organiser: Dr HS Ndinga-Koumba-Binza

Abstract reviewers: Prof. Herman L. Beyer, Prof. Sonja Bosch, Prof. Gilles-Maurice de Schryver, Dr Langa Khumalo, Dr Victor M. Mojela, Dr Ketiwe Ndhlovu, Dr Hugues Steve Ndinga-Koumba-Binza, Prof. Annel Otto, Prof. Danie J. Prinsloo, Prof. Sven Tarp, Dr Michele van der Merwe

Abstract booklet editors: Prof. SE Bosch & Dr D. Nkomo

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MESSAGE FROM THE AFRILEX PRESIDENT

On behalf of the AFRILEX Board, I would like to welcome you to the *19ᵗʰ Annual International Conference of the African Association for Lexicography*, also known as 'AFRILEX 2014'. This year's edition takes place on the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, Republic of South Africa, after we were hosted at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth, last year. As an association that aims to bring together all lexicographic activities that take place on the African continent, as well as all friends of AFRILEX from further afield, the AFRILEX Board is pleased to see many scholars from outside and within South Africa attending and participating actively in the AFRILEX conferences, in particular, scholars from Gabon, Namibia and Botswana, who are always with us at every conference. AFRILEX wants to invite many lexicographic scholars from the entire African continent to form part of the membership of AFRILEX. In the past, AFRILEX used to have a considerable number of scholars from Zimbabwe participating actively in every conference, just like the Gabonese today. AFRILEX still needs this membership to prove that it is an association for lexicography on the African continent, and not only for South Africans. We will heartily accept invitations to hold conferences outside South Africa if possible.

AFRILEX 2014 has been meticulously prepared by a local organising team under Dr Steve Ndinga-Koumba-Binza, who is also an AFRILEX Board member, and Prof. Justus C. Roux, Director of the *Research Unit for Language and Literature in the SA*

Context, North-West University*.* The abstract adjudication process for AFRILEX 2014 was expertly managed by Dr Dion Nkomo with the assistance of a number of referees. Prof. Sonja Bosch and Dr Dion Nkomo also did commendable work in the compilation of this Abstract Booklet that we are holding now. We want to congratulate and thank them for a job well done. We also want to say thank you to Prof. DJ Prinsloo who excellently managed and kept the AFRILEX website up to date, and managed the compilation of the programme for this conference.

Just like the previous conferences, AFRILEX 2014 promises to be another stellar gathering, with speakers coming from a dozen different countries in Africa and Europe, namely Belgium, Botswana, Denmark, DR Congo, Gabon, Germany, Namibia, Poland, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain and Zimbabwe. We want to convey an apology for Dr Annette Klosa, from the Institute for German Language, Mannheim, Germany, who was supposed to have been with us here to present a workshop on electronic dictionaries on Monday, the 30th June 2014, but unfortunately, she could not make it due to family problems. In her place, the conference workshops are to be held by various presenters, who include (1) Prof. Ulrich Heid, Prof. Theo Bothma and Prof. Rufus Gouws, with a presentation on **Scientific e-Lexicography for Africa (Sela),** (2) the Editors-in-Chief of the National Lexicography Units on **Lexicographic activities in the various Units,** (3) Prof. Herman Beyer, Prof. Rufus Gouws, Prof. Danie Prinsloo, Prof. Elsabe Taljard, Dr Gertrud Faass and Prof. Sonja Bosch on **Lexicographic teaching and teaching of dictionary use,** as well as (4) the RMA, CTexT, with a presentation on **Resources and tools for linguistic/lexicographic research and development**. We want to thank all these scholars for coming to our rescue when Dr Klosa could not be with us.

We also continue the tradition of giving the floor to dictionary publishers during a Publishers' Session. Our **keynote speakers** this year are Prof. Ulrich Heid, from the University of Hildesheim, Germany and Prof. Theo Bothma from the University of Pretoria. We welcome them to AFRILEX 2014.

Maropeng Victor Mojela
President: AFRILEX

PROGRAMME

Monday 30 June 2014	
Pre-conference workshop **Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building**	
Lexicographic activities in South Africa: achievements, challenges and the road ahead	
Session 1: 09:00 – 10:25	
Dictionary compilation by the National Lexicography Units and private entrepreneurs	
10:30 – 10:55	Tea **Transnet Corridor, Frans du Toit Building**
Session 2: 11:00 – 11:40	
Lexicographic teaching and teaching of dictionary use Beyer, H., Gouws, R. & Prinsloo, D.J.	
Session 3: 11:45 – 12:25	
Dictionary publishing	
12:30 – 13:25	Lunch **Venue: Alumni Saal (Room 217, F14 Building, Hoffman Street)**
Session 4: 13:30 – 14:25	
Scientific e-Lexicography for Africa (SeLA) Heid, U., Bothma, T.J.D., Gouws, R., Beyer, H., Taljard, E., Faass, G. & Bosch, S.E.	
Session 5: 14:30 – 15:25	
Resources and tools for linguistic/lexicographic research and development (RMA, CTexT)	
18:00 – Cocktail Party **Venue: Alumni Saal (Room 217, F14 Building, Hoffman Street)**	

Tuesday 1 July 2014

08:30 – 09:10	**Registration** **Venue: Transnet Corridor, Frans du Toit Building**
09:15 – 09:30	**Official Opening** **Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building**
	A word of welcome from the President of AFRILEX **Victor Mojela**
	Opening Speech by the Director of the Research Unit for Language and Literature in the South African Context, North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus **Justus C. Roux**

Keynote Address 1: Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building

09:30 – 10:25	Making the most of your resources: Dictionary specifications, data classification and user-oriented dictionaries **Ulrich Heid**, University of Hildesheim, Germany
10:30 – 10:55	Tea **Transnet Corridor, Frans du Toit Building**

Parallel Sessions

	Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building	Venue: Hall G10, Frans Du Toit Building
11:00 – 11:25	Article structures: From printed to e-dictionaries **Gouws, R.H.**	Developing an isiZulu Dictionary of Linguistics Terms: Challenges and Prospects **Khumalo, L.**
11:30 – 11:55	The Use of Dictionaries in Examinations: A Contextual and Theoretical Study at a South African University **Nkomo, D.**	Challenges posed by cultural varieties in dialects: A case study of Northern Sotho **Selokela, M.R. & Mojapelo, W.M.**
12:00 – 12:25	Standardizing what we don't speak, and speaking what we don't standardize, – the role of standardization in the compilation of standard dictionaries in Sesotho sa Leboa **Mojela V.M.**	A functional analysis of Afrikaans cellphone dictionaries with recommendations for improvement **Du Plessis, A.**

12:30 – 12:55	The challenges of compiling entries for a trilingual dictionary: The case of the English – Lozi – Kwangwa dictionary project **Lubinda, J.**	Towards a Southern African Defining Vocabulary **Hiles, L.**
13:00 – 13:55	Lunch **Venue: Alumni Saal (Room 217, F14 Building, Hoffman Street)**	

Parallel Sessions

	Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building	Venue: Hall G10, Frans Du Toit Building
14:00 – 14:25	Constructing an online monitor corpus of South African English by means of a semi-automated software system **Bowker, R.**	A lexicographic profile for Luxembourgish: reality versus the wishes and needs of the speech community **Klein, J.**
14:30 – 14:55	Microstructural Elements for a Gisir-French Dictionary **Nyama-Bouyanga, Fidélia D. & Mavoungou, P.A.**	The implications of cultural aspects in bidirectional learners' dictionaries with Afrikaans and French as language pair **Otto, A.N. & Stone, H.**
15:00 – 15:25	A LSP Approach for Encyclopedic Dictionaries within the Emerging Gabonese Lexicography **Saphou-Bivigat, G.**	Enhancing a theoretical framework for the lexicographical presentation of collocations in an Afrikaans and German electronic dictionary **Reinhardt, H.**

15:30 – 15:55 **Tea**

Venue: Transnet Corridor, Frans du Toit Building

Parallel Sessions

	Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building	Venue: Hall G10, Frans Du Toit Building
16:00 – 16:25	Lexicographic Criteria for Local Language Schoolbooks: The Case of the Mbolo Learning Method for Gabonese Languages **Ella, E.M.**	Keeping house with pictures to depict culture and dictionary culture in bilingual dictionaries **Gouws, R.H. & Prinsloo, D.J.**

16:30 – 16:55	From Theory to Practice in Gabonese Lexicography: A Case Study in Mpongwe and Yilumbu Dictionaries **Mabika-Mbokou, L.**	"Framing" a sign language dictionary – suggestions for outer texts in an electronic dictionary. **Fourie Blair, H.**
17:00 – 17:25	A Multilingual Culinary Dictionary of Gabon: An Ongoing Project **Ompoussa, Virginie & Ndinga-Koumba-Binza, H. Steve**	A Monolingual Sesotho Dictionary as a Source for Language Learning **Mahloane, M. J.**
17:30 – 18:30	**Annual General Meeting** **Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building**	
19:00	**Conference Dinner** **Venue: Crista Galli (Thabo Mbeki Avenue, R501)**	

Wednesday 2 July 2014

Keynote Address 2: Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building	
09:00 – 09:55	Innovation in e-lexicography **Theo Bothma**, University of Pretoria, South Africa
10:00 – 10:25	Tea **Venue: Transnet Corridor, Frans du Toit Building**

Parallel Sessions

	Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building	Venue: Hall G10, Frans Du Toit Building
10:30 – 10:55	A critical evaluation of lexicographic guidance in linked Kindle e-dictionaries **Bothma, T.J.D. & Prinsloo, D.J.**	Toward a Comprehensive Dictionary of Gabonese French Slang Words and Expressions **Mavoungou, P.A. & Mousounda Ibouanga, F.**
11:00 – 11:25	The Impact of Culture Reproduction in Dictionaries on French Language Acquisition: A Case Study at the University of the Western Cape **Nyangone Assam, Blanche**	Multiple labels in OALD8 and LDOCE5 **Vrbinc, M.**

11:30 – 11:55	Standardising the Spelling of Loanwords in Setswana Custom Dictionaries **Ndinga-Koumba-Binza, H. Steve & Roux, Justus C.**	Run-on entries in OALD8: Do they cater for the needs of the target user? **Vrbinc, Alenka**
12:00 – 12:25	Multilingual Legal dictionary of the CLTAL: Prospects and challenges with regard to Northern Sotho **Mojela, V.M. & Mojapelo, M.W.**	Explaining dysfunctional effects of lexicographic messages: The case of the vuvuzela **Beyer, H.L.**
12:30 – 13:25	Lunch **Venue: Alumni Saal (Room 217, F14 Building, Hoffman Street)**	

Parallel Sessions

	Venue: G01 Frans du Toit Building	Venue: Hall G10, Frans Du Toit Building
13.30 – 13.55	A practical evaluation to determine to what extent Pharos' Aanleerderwoorde-boek vir skole / Learner's dictionary for schools succeeds in satisfying the lexicographical needs of foreign learners at a tertiary level **Claassen, D.**	Acronyms and Abbreviations in Dictionaries: a case of Tlhalosi ya Medi ya Setswana by T.J. Otlogetswe **Mathangwane, J.T.**
14:00 – 14:25	What's in a Name? A Case of Dictionary Titles in African Languages **Wababa, Z. & Nkomo, D.**	The TED's 1950 Orthography & developments of standard dictionaries in the Sotho languages, a case of Setswana & Sesotho sa Leboa **Mareme, Godfrey B & Mojela, Victor M.**
14:30 – 14:55	A critical evaluation of the paradigm approach in Sepedi lemmatisation – the Groot Noord-Sotho Woordeboek as a case in point **Prinsloo, D.J.**	Treatment of variation in fixed expressions in Setswana dictionaries **Otlogetswe, T.J.**
15:00	**Closure**	

Thursday 3 July 2014

 Post-conference excursion
Town Tour & Geological Tour to the Vredefort Dome World Heritage Site

KEYNOTE PRESENTATION 1

Making the most of your resources: Dictionary specifications, data classification and user-oriented dictionaries

Ulrich, HEID (heid@uni-hildesheim.de)

Institute for Information Science and Natural Language Processing, University of Hildesheim

In terms of lexic(ographic)al data, only a few languages in the world have a luxury problem: avoiding information overload, or, as Sven Tarp (2012) put it, "information death". Many other languages, especially small and regional ones, are rather in a situation where all available language data need to be gathered, so as to provide a solid basis for lexicography. We believe that most African languages of South Africa are of this second type.

 The objective of this contribution is thus to highlight a number of simple principles and devices that enable maximal reuse of existing data. These include basic and well-known things like dictionary specifications (or: a detailed "dictionary plan"), a detailed classification of lexical phenomena and pertaining lexicographic data, as well as formats that enable reuse and data sharing.

 Even though these are all part of every lexicographer's daily work, we believe that it makes sense to show examples of their successful application. We do so by drawing on examples and expertise from English, German, Afrikaans and from joint work with D.J. Prinsloo (Prinsloo/Heid 2011) on a model for a bilingual dictionary for Setswana and English.

 We start from the well-known (but rather abstract) principles of the Lexicographic Function Theory (Tarp 2008 etc.) and discuss what it means to create several user-oriented (e-) dictionaries from a common source of lexicographic data. Such a data source is entirely dependent on the classification of the elements of its contents: types of phenomena covered, types of lexicographic indications possibly provided about each type of phenomenon, etc. Obviously, while the classification work is linguistic and lexicographic in nature, the actual technical representation may take very different forms, ranging from simple tables over XML-encoded data to entries of a relational database.

 To move from general principles to a specific example, we will analyze the relationship of user needs and types of lexic(ographic)al data for certain types of multiword expressions, namely collocations and idioms, and we intend to show which data types can be appropriately selected for different user types and dictionary functions. We also discuss a recent proposal by Fuertes Olivera and Bergenholtz (2012) for a specialized language dictionary, and we show how we could imagine the graphical user interface of multiword dictionaries to be

influenced by the dictionary specifications (work by Kim G. Schubert, 2014). A second example comes from the ideas for a bidirectional bilingual dictionary Setswana/English discussed in Prinsloo/Heid (2011).

We conclude by discussing possibilities of reusing dictionary data in different setups: by exploiting family relatedness between the members of the Sotho and Nguni: languages respectively, by sharing resources or by combining resources of different origin, etc.

We believe that a detailed data classification is a key element for the efficient creation of multiple dictionary types for different users and different needs.

KEYNOTE PRESENTATION 2

Innovation in e-lexicography
Theo J. D. BOTHMA (theo.bothma@up.ac.za)
Department of Information Science, University of Pretoria

This paper addresses issues of innovation in relation to e-lexicography. It briefly summarises four aspects of innovation, viz.

• Disruptive innovation

• The adjacent possible

• Liquid networks

• Recombinant innovation

These concepts are illustrated at the hand of examples, including a number of current common computing technologies and the development of the web and e-publishing. Following this, a number of current innovative approaches within e-lexicography are described. These approaches include:

• Interactive approaches to access to and creation of information

• Information architecture, metadata and database developments

• User-based information needs analysis

• User guidance and decision support

• (Semi-) Automated dictionary lookup processes

• Natural language processing

• The extension of the use of dictionary data to various other environments

Some of these approaches are used in various projects in SeLA and/or have been developed within SeLA projects. SeLA is an abbreviation for Scientific e-Lexicography for Africa and is funded by the BMBF (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung) in the Framework of the DAAD program "Welcome to Africa". A selection of these projects will be discussed

briefly and illustrated by means of screen shots. They are then analysed based on the preceding concepts of innovation and it will be demonstrated how a combination of aspects of innovation made them possible. Possible future research within the projects will also be addressed.

In many other environments, innovation has had a serious effect on the job market, on the one hand creating new jobs and new types of jobs and on the other hand making many jobs obsolete. Technological innovation, specifically in the fields of information and communication technologies (ICTs) and computation, has probably had the most serious effect. Some examples will be discussed briefly. The implications that ICT and computational innovations have for (e-) lexicography will also be addressed. It will be shown that "business as usual" is not an option and that collaboration between a number of role players is essential to ensure that information resources are produced that allow users to satisfy their information needs effectively and efficiently. Furthermore, a brief discussion of developments in e-publishing on the fringes of the formal publishing world will show that non-traditional role players could take over the space if lexicographers (in the broadest sense of the word) don't embrace different information technologies, experiment with such technologies – be this blue sky experiments or practical, implementable experiments – and think critically of the way forward.

PARALLEL SESSIONS

Explaining dysfunctional effects of lexicographic messages: The case of the vuvuzela
Herman L. BEYER (hbeyer@unam.na)
Department of Language and Literature Studies, University of Namibia

This paper was inspired by criticism of an example sentence offered in an article of the lemma **vuvuzela** in a bilingual dictionary with Afrikaans as one of the treated languages, presented during a keynote address at a previous AFRILEX conference.

The criticised example sentence was *Vuvuzelas maak 'n groot lawaai by sokkerwedstryde* [± Vuvuzelas make a lot of noise at soccer matches]. A delegate expressed disappointment at the fact that the notion of festivity and celebration, with which the vuvuzela is apparently associated, could not be observed. It seemed regrettable to him that the vuvuzela is associated only with excessive noise in the dictionary article. In response, the keynote speaker and some members of the audience argued that the example was included due to the relatively high co-

occurrence of *vuvuzela* with *lawaai* in the relevant corpus. However, this line of defence did not seem to satisfy the objection. Ultimately, the keynote speaker offered that the article in question could eventually be revisited and revised to address the criticism.

What became clear during the discussion, however, was that there seemed to be no metalexicographical framework against which this type of criticism could be validated and dealt with productively. This paper aims, tentatively, to offer such a framework.

The point of departure is a *communicative metalexicography*, which follows the universal consensus that a dictionary is an information tool, but places equal emphasis on the fact that, essentially, a dictionary is a text or collection of texts. Consequently, it explores the disciplines of communication science, *Textwissenschaft* and document design, among others, in attempting to describe lexicographical communication, while incorporating existing lexicographical theory on an eclectic basis.

Basically, a communicative metalexicography asserts that lexicographic messages are encoded in dictionary entries according to the dictionary's purposes during the lexicographical process, and are in turn located, decoded, interpreted and responded to by the target user during the consultation process. Applying Janssen (1996) and Steehouder et al. (2012), a lexicographic message can be analysed in terms of four constituent elements: (a) the appeal element, (b) the referential element, (c) the relational element and (d) the expressive element.

The appeal element refers to the purpose(s) of the message. Five types of purposes can be distinguished: (i) informative, (ii) instructive, (iii) persuasive, (iv) motivational and (v) affective purposes. Typically, but not exclusively, lexicographic messages primarily serve informative purposes, i.e. to provide the target user with information. The mentioned example (as a lexicographic message) could be said to have the primary purpose of informing the user of a typical cotextual environment of the item *vuvuzela*, while it has the secondary purpose of instructing the user in producing constructions with *vuvuzela* on the model of the example. This element is not problematic in the case at hand and the other three types of purposes are not pertinent, but they will be briefly accounted for.

The referential element refers to the contents of a lexicographic message as regards factuality, accuracy, completeness, etc. in supporting the dictionary's purposes. In this case the example can be regarded as correct, accurate and complete, as informed by an appropriate corpus analysis. This element constituted the defence against the delegate's criticism.

The relational element reflects the image that the lexicographer has of the target user, as can be derived from the message. This element, which is not pertinent to this case, will be briefly elaborated on.

The expressive element reflects the image of the lexicographer in terms of attitudes, norms and values. This element is often not explicated in a message and is derived through interpretation. It will be shown that this is the diagnostic element in this case, as the lexicographer's perceived attitude towards the lemma's referent seems to be at odds with that of the delegate (as a would-be user), causing the critical response.

From a communicative metalexicography perspective the *function* of a lexicographic message has been described as a product of its *purpose* and its *intended effect* with the target user. If the intended effect and the *actual effect* are identical, the lexicographic message has resulted in a *functional effect*. However, *non-functional effects* and *dysfunctional effects* can also result. In this case a dysfunctional effect, observable in the delegate's criticism, had resulted, suggesting that it is not only the purpose(s) of a lexicographic message (i.e. its appeal element) that can cause a dysfunctional effect, but also any of its other elements, in this case the expressive element. This finding requires a re-appraisal of the concept *function* in a communicative metalexicography.

The paper will conclude by considering how this understanding of lexicographic messages can be useful in formative and summative evaluations of dictionaries.

References
Janssen, D. (Ed.). 1996. *Zakelijke communicatie I*. Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
Steehouder, M., et al. 2012. *Leren communiceren.* Groningen/Houten: Noordhoff.

A critical evaluation of lexicographic guidance in linked Kindle e-dictionaries
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Danie J. PRINSLOO (danie.prinsloo@up.ac.za)
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One of the most popular e-book readers currently available is the Amazon Kindle, developed and provided by Amazon (http://www.amazon.com). One of the excellent features specifically marketed by Amazon in its description and marketing of the different Kindle e-readers (Amazon 2013) is the availability of a free dictionary to which is linked the text of the Kindle e-books. The aim of this paper is to evaluate the usefulness of the information that is provided by means of the linked e-dictionary. The use of an e-reader implies that the user is in a communicative situation in which (s)he is reading a text, i.e. in a text reception situation.

In a standard e-dictionary environment the user still has to go to the e-dictionary on his/her computer or on the Internet, and then search for the word. In the Kindle environment, the user simply selects the word (typically by clicking on the word) and is immediately provided with information from the dictionary. It can be stated at the outset that the underlying principle in Kindle to link words to a dictionary is sound and for the majority of lookups the dictionary provides the required information in a fairly user-friendly way, and directly in the pop-up screen as in figure 1.
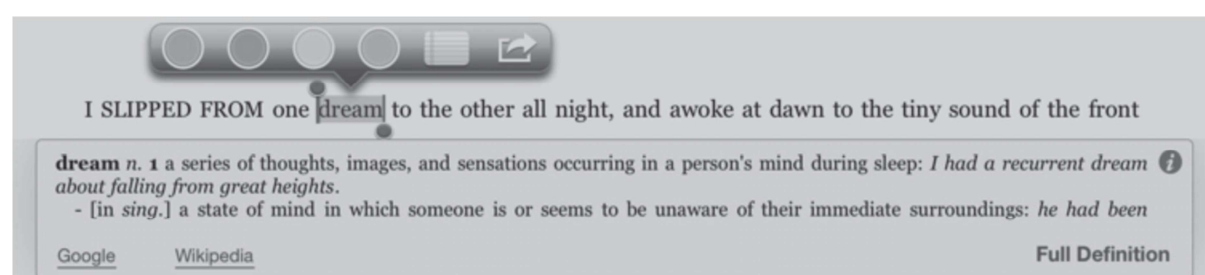
Figure 1: *Dream* in the linked e-dictionary

The focus of this paper is on examples of correct, partially correct and incorrect linking. The following aspects will be addressed and illustrated by means of examples: (a) appropriate guidance given in the first pop-up screen (as in figure 1), (b) correct lemma but incorrect part of speech, (c) incorrect lemma, (d) compounds, (e) treatment of phrases, proverbs, idioms, apostrophes, hyphens and capitalisation, (f) wrong or inappropriate options given and (g) no option given. Consider the following examples:

Correct lemma but incorrect part of speech

Example	Lookup result	Comment
"love" as in "She will love to go shopping"	**love** *n.*	Should have linked to *v.* as the part of speech in the first instance.

Incorrect lemma

Example	Lookup result	Comment
"well" as in "She found herself falling into a very deep well"	**well1** *adv.* **(better, best)** (derived from "Old English *we(l)*, of Germanic origin; related to Dutch *wel* [...]")	Should have linked to **well**[2] *n.* (derived from "Old English *wella*") (Even the plural, "wells", links incorrectly to

		the adverb.)
"tears" as in "She asked with tears in her eyes..."	**tear**[1] *v.* [...] pull something apart	Should have linked to **tear**[2] *n.* [...] a drop of clear salty liquid

Treatment of apostrophes and capitalisation

Example	Lookup result	Comment
I'd	**Eid** [...] also **Id** *n.* A Muslim festival	This should have linked to **I'd** *contraction* I had (which occurs in the dictionary)
Players	**Player** Gary (b. 1935)	Capitalisation creates problems: here the ordinary noun 'players' occurring with a capital letter is mistaken for the personal name (Gary) Player.

Possible solutions to these problems will be suggested and the required technologies to enable the implementation of such solutions will be indicated such as (a) the utilisation of fully tagged corpora, (b) on-the-fly tagging of text, (c) user-based disambiguation, (d) changes in the search algorithm, the database structure and in the word selection functionality and (e) a more careful treatment of non-alphabetical characters. Links to additional dictionaries and other web sources should also be enabled. Consider, for example, arguments for (a) – (c):

Technically and for the user, the best solution would most probably be to ensure that all publications for the Kindle are *fully tagged* for part of speech, and preferably for syntax and syntactic dependencies as well. This will ensure that there is no possibility for confusion and would require no prior grammatical knowledge or understanding on the side of the user.

On-the-fly tagging implies that a specific word is parsed in context, on a just-in-time basis. The need for fully parsed corpora is therefore eliminated, including the cost and labour implications. Just-in-time solutions to a problem are often preferred to just-in-case solutions (laborious pre-tagging and verification of tags just in case it should be required in the lookup), for this specific reason.

User-based disambiguation can be used as a technology on its own, but it could also be employed supplementary to on-the-fly tagging in cases where the parser was unsuccessful. A simple solution to this problem would be to provide the user with a list of all possible explanations for the form that (s)he has encountered. This would at least sensitise the user that the first option is not the only or necessarily the correct option. The user can then click on the option that makes the most sense to him/her in terms of the context and his/her understanding of the grammar, to get to a more detailed description of the word and the full dictionary article.

References:

Amazon 2013 = Amazon. 2013. Online. Available http://www.amazon.com/gp/product/B007HCCOD0/ref=amb_link_365798502_2?pf rd_m=ATVPDKIKX0DER&pf_rd_s=center 1&pf_rd_r=08ASP1D1STHK7NKPHNHG&pf_rd_t=101&pf_rd_p=1540671342&p _rd_i=507846. (Accessed 6 April 2013).

Constructing an online monitor corpus of South African English by means of a semi-automated software system
Richard BOWKER (r.bowker@ru.ac.za)
Dictionary Unit of South African English, Rhodes University

This paper is a follow-up to my presentation at Afrilex 2012 where I reported on plans to build a large monitor corpus of South African English (SAE). The project is divided into a number of phases, the first of which was the construction of a one-million word snapshot corpus of SAE in 2011 (SAE11), built according to a modified Lancaster-Olsen-Brown sampling frame (Baker, 2009), which was completed last year (Hunt & Bowker, forthcoming). SAE11 has value for linguistic research and was a means of testing construction methodologies within manageable parameters; it is, however, well established that a relatively small corpus such as this is not particularly useful for lexicographic purposes (Krishnamurthy, 2000). This is likely to be particularly the case for SAE, which comprises a relatively small percentage of the lexical items used in everyday English in South Africa.

In this paper I report on the progression of phase two, initiated at the beginning of this year: the construction of a semi-automated monitor corpus of online South African texts in English, with data taken from sources such as online newspapers, magazines, blogs, as well as the online comments sections of these texts. The resulting corpus should prove to be far more useful for lexicographic purposes as, once up and running, the semi-automated system should process approximately 2.4-million words per month.

The construction of the software system takes its lead from the building of a similar kind of corpus, the Norwegian Newspaper Corpus, which was designed to identify neologisms in Norwegian, as reported by Andersen (2011). Also of relevance here is Kilgarriff et al.'s (2006) development of the New Corpus for Ireland.

In our project, the first component of the current build is the piping together of software modules that crawl the web, access relevant material, extract metadata, remove html links and de-duplicate the data, saving the results (the texts), along with the metadata, to a database. This is intended to be analysable via an external concordancer. The second component, to be finalised in the second half of the year, involves – like Andersen's – an attempt to isolate neologisms, or at least identify and categorise 'unknown' lexical items (cf. Blancafort San José et al., 2010), some of which may be new (as yet unrecorded) SAE. As with the Norwegian corpus project, we are interested in lexical items that seem unusual within the everyday flow of language, for example, loan words, local adaptations and new senses of existing words. The third and fourth components involve, respectively, linking the growing database to an internal concordancer (itself with eventual online functionality) and instituting a POS-tagging system that can 'read' SAE.

In this paper I give an overview of the design of the software system, discuss what it is that we found useful from the Andersen, Kilgarriff et al. and other models, the problems we have needed to overcome in order to implement the system, and suggest means by which the system can be made to function to identify previously unrecorded lexical items in SAE. The project, by developing a monitor corpus, is also a way of querying Hanks' (2010) contention that corpora are not an especially useful means of identifying new lexical items for lexicographic purposes.

Further, I provide an overview of the envisaged end product and the uses to which it may be put. The primary purpose of the project is to develop an annotated monitor corpus that can feed into existing lexicographic systems and functions already in place at the Dictionary Unit for South African English. The corpus will eventually be accessible online in a simplified form by researchers outside Rhodes University. Over and above the foregoing, another aim is to set up a model for local corpus development that can be modified in order to assist in the study of languages other than English in South Africa.

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A practical evaluation to determine to what extent Pharos' Aanleerderwoordeboek vir skole/Learner's dictionary for schools succeeds in satisfying the lexicographical needs of foreign learners at a tertiary level

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Dictionaries are knowledge carriers and not just a mere reflection of a certain lexicon and its lexicographical items (Tarp & Gouws, 2004). A learner's dictionary is a dictionary which is compiled for an adult learner who is learning a foreign language (Tarp & Gouws, 2004). The main functions of this type of dictionary is; text reception in the foreign language, text production in the foreign language, an awareness of the lexicon of the foreign language as well as an awareness of the grammar of the foreign language (Tarp, 2004). It cannot be denied that dictionaries play an important role in the language acquisition process. It is important to note that currently there are no monolingual or bilingual learner's dictionaries which specifically target foreign learners who are learning Afrikaans at a tertiary level. Educators and facilitators must thus compensate by prescribing learner's dictionaries such as Pharos' *Aanleerderwoordeboek vir skole/Learner's dictionary for schools* for these learners.

The ideal is a learner's dictionary with a user-friendly presentation which satisfies the target users' lexicographical needs in a specific context and that is accessible for foreign learners, which can facilitate in the acquisitioning process. In the undertaken study the extent to which Pharos' *Aanleerderwoordeboek vir skole/Learner's dictionary for schools* strives towards this ideal for the specific prescribed context, a university module of language acquisition, is measured. It is important to note that this dictionary does not specify it user(s) as (a) foreign language learner(s) at a tertiary institution. It is only prescribed due to the gap that presently exists in the dictionary typology. The main goal of the undertaken study is thus to measure to what extent this type of "compensating" dictionary can succeed in satisfying the lexicographical needs of foreign learners at a tertiary level. As a lexicographical tool, this

dictionary suffices in satisfying general user-needs; the objective thus is not to criticize a good dictionary, but rather to show where improvement can be made to satisfy the needs of an even greater amount of users.

The Function Theory was used to determine the lexicographical needs of the prototypical users as well as to evaluate to what extent the prescribed dictionary satisfy their needs. This study also set out to find and suggest innovative ideas for the possible composition of a dictionary for foreign learners who are learning Afrikaans at tertiary level. Therefore the prescribed dictionary is briefly compared to one of its peers, namely Longman-Hat's *Basic Dictionary/Basiswoordeboek.*

A practical evaluation of the prescribed dictionary determined that although the dictionary shows indication of both successful text reception and text production as functions, it does not completely succeed in satisfying the needs of foreign learners who are learning Afrikaans in a university context. It is important to remember that foreign learners, who are learning Afrikaans as adults, do not only want to learn the foreign lexicon, but they also want to learn about the culture of Afrikaans as well as the culture of South Africa. According to Kavanagh (2000:100) language reflects social structures and attitudes. For example, Afrikaans is filled with social conventions regarding specific standards of style and register that dictate how one would show respect to a person of authority and seniority, as well as how to converse politely in different situations. Mother tongue speakers are born into these "conventions" and do not need any help. Foreign learners require explicit cultural guidance to protect them from embarrassments during a conversation.

When compared to Longman-Hat's *Basic Dictionary/Basiswoordeboek,* it is clear that elements such as ostensive defining, middle texts, meta-language in both Afrikaans and English, concise meaning paraphrases and diminutives are all elements which can enrich the Pharos dictionary for foreign learners.

The results of the evaluation lead to the following conclusion: the specific needs of the foreign student learner extend past the boundaries of the foreign language and its culture. This evaluation brought to light another culture — a student culture. Apart from the general words which are used on a daily basis, words are also used in a social context which does not necessarily refer to the specific meaning which it usually implies. It is nevertheless a meaning which is normative in the context of a student conversation. For example, the words "drink" and "uitgaan" will usually refer to the action which is performed to quench one's thirst and the action of going outside. In a student culture the word "drink" will always have an alcoholic connotation and the word "uitgaan" will always have a social connotation. It is thus

very important that this "student culture" is manifested and maintained in a dictionary for student learners such as these foreign learners. These "normative" meanings as part of a student culture can be maintained by labelling it as *studentetaal/student language*. These thoughts are just some of the suggestions of a revised approach which must be taken in the processing of lexical items in a bilingual dictionary for foreign learners within a university context.

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A functional analysis of Afrikaans cellphone dictionaries with recommendations for improvement

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Lexicography as a discipline can be divided into two subcategories, namely theoretical lexicography and practical lexicography. These subcategories have different areas of study. For example, theoretical lexicography is focused on the development of theories regarding all workable factors of a dictionary, as well as the critical evaluation of dictionary structures and content; whereas practical lexicography is comprised of the planning and publishing of dictionaries (Gouws and Bergenholtz 2012). As with any scientific discipline, it is natural that many areas of these subcategories will overlap. One such area is e-Lexicography. This area of lexicography encompasses the development of electronic dictionaries and the

adaptation of existing theories for the electronic sphere. Electronic mediums such as the internet and CD- or DVD-ROM dictionaries are the key mediums for e-Lexicography. There is however a growing need for more portable dictionary types, thus the idea of mobile dictionaries comes into play. Note that when the term mobile dictionary is used it does not include other electronic devices such as the palmtop dictionaries in Japan (See Tono 2012), but rather cellphone applications or dictionaries available on cellphones.

It is also important to note that there is currently no theory for e-lexicography. Existing theories are generally adapted for electronic dictionaries. One theory that is particularly easy to adapt is the function theory. In its most basic form, the function theory emphasises the importance of usability and user-needs (Tarp 2000). This theory places focus on the type of function(s) a dictionary delivers to its users. There are four main function types: text reception, text production, translation and cognitive functions such as etymology (Tarp 2000). This theory is applicable because it is not medium specific.

The presumption is thus that the application of theoretical lexicography (function theory) on practical lexicography (cellphone dictionaries) will uncover gaps in this medium which will allow for the development of guidelines to improve dictionaries of this nature. The goal of this study is to determine the practical and theoretical usability of Afrikaans cellphone dictionaries.

For this to be viable, the undertaken study has a dual focus. Firstly it is necessary to determine if the function theory is an acceptable theory to use for the analysis of cellphone dictionaries and can serve as a foundation for guidelines to improve said dictionaries. The fact that this theory is not medium specific will ensure that this application is successful.

Secondly it is imperative that a practical application of a theoretical basis is conducted. The usability and functionality of Afrikaans cellphone dictionaries is thus investigated with the aid of the theoretical foundation. Two dictionaries will be used, namely the WAT and the *Pharos Little Dictionary,* since they are the only currently available cellphone dictionaries.

Through the use of the function theory and a practical application of this theory and its subsections, guidelines are drawn for the improvement of cellphone dictionaries as a whole.

This study is also unique in the sense that there is almost no research being done on Afrikaans mobile dictionaries and very little research on the application of the function theory on mobile dictionaries (Heid 2013). There is however a growing trend in e-

lexicography towards mobile dictionary research that stems from the existing research done on other electronic dictionaries (Heid 2013).

An informal study was done to determine experiences and familiarity of Afrikaans dictionary users with mobile and internet dictionaries. Thirty-three university students were involved in the study. The results of this study showed that these users are not familiar with Afrikaans mobile dictionaries and that they have had mostly positive, yet limited, experiences with internet dictionaries. These users also show a keen interest in mobile dictionaries as a portable and practical resource. This leads to two important conclusive deductions: Firstly, Afrikaans cellphone dictionaries require better marketing to increase public knowledge about these resources; and secondly the demand for this resource cannot go unnoticed. This is where the user and his/her needs are key and why it is necessary to evaluate the current crop of Afrikaans mobile dictionaries. This leads to answering the question of whether these dictionaries satisfy user-needs.

The results of the evaluation of the two Afrikaans cellphone dictionaries lead to the following conclusions: the current crop of Afrikaans cellphone dictionaries have potential to develop, but are far from their superior English equivalents. However, the evaluation of these dictionaries has brought to light several guidelines for improvement, stretching from usability to structure and encompassing different users and their needs. These guidelines also show the limitations that cellphone dictionaries need to address before they can become multifunctional tools. By applying these guidelines to said dictionaries and those similar to them, the opportunity for them to reach their potential is created, as well as to set a standard for future cellphone dictionaries.

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Lexicographic Criteria for Local Language Schoolbooks: The Case of the Mbolo Learning Method for Gabonese Languages

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After years of production of schoolbooks in the Gabonese local languages, there is still a lack of those that are relevant for use in education. This raises the need for other models of intervention for their development in order to uphold the linguistic policy of Gabonese government to introduce the local languages in education. Accordingly, this paper is an attempt to conceptualize a systematic approach based on a couple of lexicographic criteria to the compilation of local schoolbooks in Gabon.

It discusses the local languages learning method referred to as Mbolo and the use of lexicographic criteria for the production of the relevant local schoolbooks. Mbolo method is a contribution of lexicography towards the establishment of a model for the compilation of schoolbooks in the Gabonese local languages. Lexicography is not aimed at compiling schoolbooks but the criteria and the approach raised in this field can be helpful in this way. Mbolo method will be applied in different volumes according to the most current local languages, namely Akélé, Fang, Gisir, Ikota, Obamba, Nzébi, Myènè, Téké, Getsogho, Vili, Lumbu and Punu. Reference is specially made to the Fang volume only as a pilot model.

In this regard, reference is made first to the treatment of the writing system in lexicography in order to apply it in the local schoolbooks. The lexicographer uses a pragmatic approach by taking into account that oral and written languages belong both to the speakers. The experts are only supposed to indicate and represent the usages and not to make them. This approach makes the dictionary use to be efficient as the users will meet a writing system already known and familiar to them. An existing writing system does not mean that it has been created and accepted by experts. It is a frequent usage within the usage of speakers which is pointed out by the experts. These speakers, among them writers, artists, musicians, workers and intellectuals are the main architects of the vital activity that produces both oral and written languages. They are the makers and the keepers of memory of their languages in particular and their community in general.

Therefore, contrary to what used to be done regarding local schoolbooks, in Mbolo method we use a writing system based on the one produced by the speakers themselves. This system has been already fixed when they use French's linguistic means to represent local names of persons, plants, animals and cities of Gabon. The issue regarding the use of the Western

writing system as the appropriate one for French by the keepers of memory and French administrators can be regarded as meaningless and useless. The linguistic sign is arbitrary and artificial as there is no natural and absolute correlation or correspondence between a language and the written means used to represent it. The exploitation of French's writing system does and will not alter the sounds of the local languages of Gabon.

On the same basis as the treatment of the writing system, the paper also discusses the treatment of the modern terminology. New words deficient in the local languages are directly borrowed from French. This pragmatic approach is inspired by the speakers in a natural and spontaneous way in order to make their languages to grow and for them to adapt to the modernization. They borrow from French new words that are missing in their local languages. In the same natural and spontaneous way, initial forms of some loanwords are incorporated without modification, but others are modified to conform to the local languages' morphological and phonological structure and a number of them are replaced by local terms when the meaning of borrowed words become more familiar. The regular editions of the Mbolo method will constantly present the changes made and the loanwords from the genius of the speakers. There is no need for the experts to create local words for new terminology as the speakers themselves know how to deal with that matter.

Finally, the paper ends with the reference to the French model for the local writing speech as another aspect of the pragmatic approach used in lexicography to deal with that issue. The usual norms for the writing speech have already been established several centuries ago. The new speech forms only need to be adapted to these norms. Current French writing aligned itself closely to the Latin one. The exploitation of the French model does and will not alter the specificity of the Gabonese local language writing speeches. On the contrary, it helps in storing local knowledge, emotions and intellect properly and accurately, by pointing out their original genius. On the other hand, by using universal writing systems, these languages will be user-friendly and open to the world, which is a strong guarantee for their preservation and promotion.

"Framing" a sign language dictionary – suggestions for outer texts in an electronic dictionary

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Dictionaries, including electronic dictionaries, are seen as text compilations and carriers of different text types (Gouws 2001: 60). Outer texts can be seen as additional texts that supplement the central lemma list, that still form part of the lexicographic functions of the particular dictionary and that contribute to the user's needs regarding knowledge and communication. In the case of an electronic dictionary outer texts therefore represent any material which stand outside of the central database from which the dictionary is generated or as a subsection of the database from which search results are generated. In an electronic dictionary outer texts can be grouped together and listed on a menu or they can be reached via pop-up texts or similar links from within the microstructure.

The functionality of any planned dictionary reaches further than the boundaries of the central lemma list: both the front and back matter can contain data and text that have a functional role in the presentation of lexicographic information (Gouws & Prinsloo 2005: 58). A frame structure offers more options to the lexicographer when the lexicographic presentation is being planned – outer texts do not only help the user to ensure successful dictionary consultation procedures and the best retrieval of information, but also play an important role in the data distrubution structure of the dictionary by allowing the lexicographer to present data in more than one text (Gouws & Prinsloo 2005: 58).

The use of outer texts requires a decision about the information that will be presented therein and also the relationship between the outer texts and the central list. There are two main types of data distribution structures, namely a simple data distribution structure and an extended data distribution structure. If the central list is the only target for data distribution the dictionary displays a simple data distribution structure; if outer texts or parts thereof are used to present data as part of the data distribution procedure the dictionary displays an extended data distribution structure (cf. Bergenholtz, Tarp & Wiegand 1999: 1779).

This paper investigates the possibilities for outer texts which could be considered for use in the proposed electronic sign language dictionary as set out in the model developed by Fourie (2013). The model described a fully bilingual and bidirectional dictionary of South African Sign Language (SASL) and a written language (in this case Afrikaans) for the foundation phase at school. The target audience is primarily Deaf learners at the De la Bat School for

the Deaf in Worcester, although it seems likely that the dictionary would also be useful to hearing users of any age who happen to be learning SASL. As such this presents a wide scope of outer texts which may be of interest and/or use to the broadest group of target users, including things like lists of well known name signs (eg. for the president and other prominent figures), sections about the names of provinces and languages, a section about Deaf culture, and so on. This would, of course, be additional to the more traditional types of outer texts typically found in dictionaries that are aimed at very young users, such as lists/tables of shapes, colours, numbers, etc.

An overview of the front and back matter texts that are presented in some existing sign language dictionaries provides a good idea of the type of outer texts that could be of use to the user of a sign language dictionary and which may therefore also be considered for the proposed dictionary. Several examples of these texts are presented here, along with suggestions for new outer texts.

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Article structures: From printed to e-dictionaries
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The prevailing lexicographic theory has primarily been formulated for printed dictionaries. Dictionary structures have also been developed for the printed medium. The importance of dictionary structures for the successful distribution and presentation of data should never be underestimated. This does not only apply to printed dictionaries but also to e-dictionaries. One of the noticeable features of too many e-dictionaries is a lack of well-planned structures.

As a result these dictionaries do not allow their users an optimal access to the data or a comprehensive retrieval of information from the data on offer. Metalexicographers need to pay much more attention to an adaptation of lexicographic theory for application to e-dictionaries. One such aspect that needs attention is the formulation and application of dictionary structures in e-dictionaries. Some structures found in printed dictionaries should be retained, some should be changed, some should not be used in e-dictionaries whereas some new structures may have to be introduced.

This paper addresses the problem of an insufficient formulation of one lexicographic structure, i.e. the article structure. An article contains two types of text segments, i.e. items and indicators. Items are given as part of the microstructure whereas indicators do not belong to the microstructure but rather to the article structure. It is shown that new models for article structures need to be devised for e-dictionaries.

In contrast to the static structures of printed dictionaries, e-dictionaries have dynamic structures. Article structures give evidence of this phenomenon. Consequently the articles in e-dictionaries should be planned in an innovative way and should not be a mere digitalised version of the articles of a printed dictionary. In this regard it is argued that the e-environment gives lexicographers the opportunity to plan more than one article for the same lemma so that a single lemma sign can be the guiding element of different articles following from the different needs of different users in different situations of use. Besides access to a comprehensive article users should be in a position to access a restricted article via the same guiding element as a comprehensive article. In such a restricted article the user can choose the data type or types he/she requires and has the opportunity to access an article that only included those required items.

Different types of microstructures can be used in a single e-dictionary, even in the different articles of a single lemma sign. This paper makes proposals for various microstructural approaches determined by the functions of a dictionary or even the different dictionaries to be retrieved from a single database.

Within the article structure of printed dictionaries provision is also made for procedures of enrichment and expansion. Expansion implies that a given item can be up-, in- or downwardly extended in order to perform an additional treatment. Enrichment implies that a part of an item is typographically adapted, e.g. by means of caps, to distinguish it from other sections of the item and to put special focus on that item segment. Expansion leads to functional segmentation whereas functional segmentation is not possible in the case of enrichment. The possible use of these procedures in e-dictionaries is investigated. It is shown

that the use of structural indicators, regarded as part of the metadata because of their role in guiding a user to a given item, needs to be re-planned for the e-domain.

Article structures can accommodate an overload of data, both lexicographically relevant and lexicographically irrelevant data. With reference to different e-dictionaries the problem of such an overload is discussed and it is shown that the article structure of an e-dictionary should be employed in such a way that the user, in a given dictionary consultation procedure, only finds what he or she needs and no additional non-relevant data.

Suggestions are made for article structures that can fulfil the needs of the intended target users of different e-dictionaries.

Keeping house with pictures to depict culture and dictionary culture in bilingual dictionaries

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This paper deals with ostensive addressing (the use of pictorial illustrations) in bilingual dictionaries. Ostensive addressing is a valuable lexicographic device to enhance the quality of information offered to the user in the default dictionary article.

> Stein (1991:99) highlights the sense of sight as the most dominant part in the cognitive and linguistic development of the human mind. The impact of visual material on comprehension is immense and of utmost importance in the process of information retrieval from a dictionary as e.g. a supplement to paraphrase of meaning (the lexicographic definition), examples of use and other comments on semantics.

The lexicographer should not attempt to give pictorial illustrations at each and every dictionary article or the other extreme, to refrain from using pictorial illustrations where they are required – (s)he should provide such illustrations in instances where the default treatment, by means of translation equivalents or paraphrase of meaning is insufficient, i.e. where a picture can "make a difference" in making a valuable contribution to the understanding of the meaning of the lemma. This is true for ordinary words such as prune, loop, and knit in Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (MED) where pictorial illustrations are given but imperative where there are substantial cultural differences between the speakers of

L1 and L2. In such cases ostensive addressing is culturally bound, i.e. a source language culture versus a target language culture. Pictorial illustrations particularly fulfill a crucial role in the bridging of referential gaps or in the case of different types of divergence.

For example, in the case of house it is literally a matter of keeping house with pictures to portray different types of houses and cultural differences in respect of house:
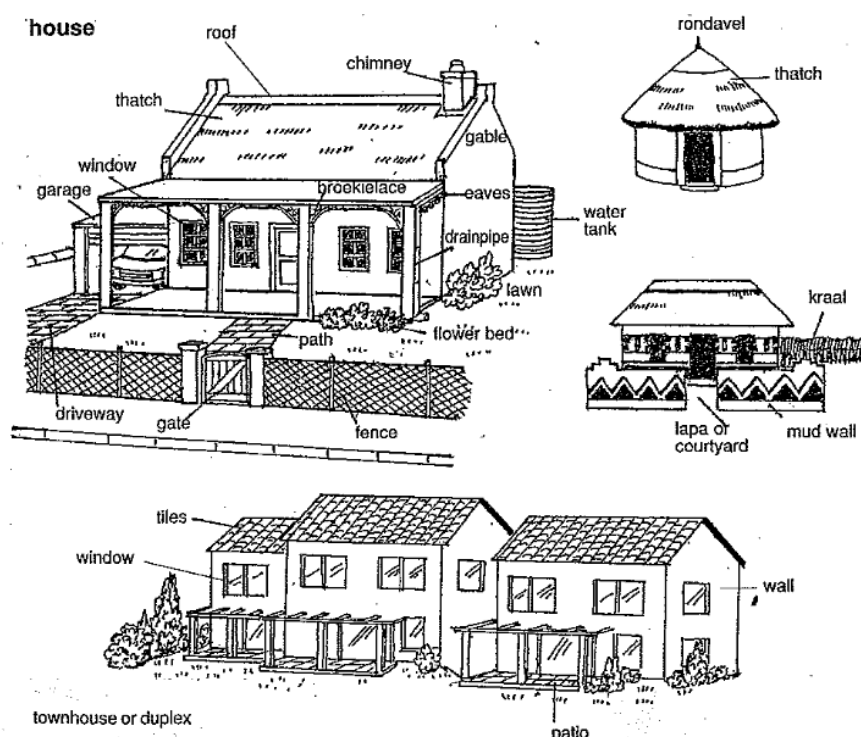
Towards a Southern African Defining Vocabulary
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Controlled defining vocabularies have been used regularly in lexicography since the 1970s. They are mostly employed in learner's dictionaries and have been used to ensure that the definitions are easily understood by the dictionary user, and that the words used to define a lemma are not more difficult than the lemma itself. According to Herbst (1996:324) a "controlled defining vocabulary is, quite obviously, used to avoid using words in the definitions which are less accessible to the learner than the word being defined".

Defining vocabularies are constructed using corpus frequency lists, and include the most frequent words and therefore the words most likely to be known by the dictionary user. "The lexicographer needs words of high generality, and some of these, such as *house*, are also very frequent, but others, such as *vessel*, are not." (Whitcut 1988:49) Defining vocabularies used

by existing dictionaries are usually anything from 2000 to 5000 words. Defining vocabularies are developed and owned, for the most part, by commercial publishers.

In my experience, defining vocabularies compiled for English dictionaries for a British or American market are not entirely sufficient for Southern African dictionaries. Words which would be well-known and used are not included in a foreign defining vocabulary. An example of this is *bucket,* which is not in the Oxford 3000 or the Macmillan Defining Vocabulary, but is in the Longman Defining Vocabulary.

With this paper, it is my intention to find out whether it is possible and then beneficial to adapt an existing defining vocabulary into one that is more useful for Southern African school dictionaries.

In this paper, I plan to suggest additions and deletions to stretches of the Oxford 3000 and Longman Defining Vocabulary to make them more suitable to a Southern African dictionary user. I shall provide examples from Southern African school dictionary entries where my additions would have an impact. I shall also discuss the additions and deletions and provide explanations of why I have suggested these additions and exclusions.

An alternative to providing a Southern African defining vocabulary would be to cross-reference words that are not in the defining vocabulary to their entry in the dictionary, or "providing an explanation of words outside the defining vocabulary" (Herbst 1996:325) as is traditionally done. However, this would be clumsy and unnecessary, if these words are ones that are expected to be understood by the user.

Some existing defining vocabularies include affixes, while others leave them out (Hai 2012:373). In this paper, I will determine which strategy would be best for a Southern African defining vocabulary.

In this paper, I will also look at whether to include prefixes and suffixes, or whether to include derivatives made using pre- and suffixes.

A complete Southern African defining vocabulary is not part of the scope of this paper, but my intention is that by providing some suggestions, the reader can see the need for a complete defining vocabulary that would cater to the needs of a Southern African dictionary and its user. Further research would then be an extension of this paper into a full defining vocabulary that would be used for Southern African dictionaries.

A conclusion is that while the adaptation of British or American defining vocabularies is recommended, substantial changes would not be necessary.

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Developing an isiZulu Dictionary of Linguistics Terms: Challenges and Prospects
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On the 15th of May 2013 the University of KwaZulu-Natal made a ground breaking announcement that the university will be introducing a compulsory isiZulu module to be taken by all undergraduate students from January 2014. The university has since successfully rolled-out the compulsory isiZulu module. This is consistent with the University's language policy and plan (2006), which seeks to promote equal use of the English language and isiZulu in administration, research, innovation, teaching and learning. In order to accomplish this landmark it is desirable that suitable teaching materials be developed to facilitate the successful implementation of this policy. Specialized glossaries and terminological dictionaries need to be developed for certain scientific fields which hitherto have not been taught in isiZulu. This task needs to be undertaken through the creation, verification and standardization of specialized (discipline-specific) terms.

To this end, the isiZulu dictionary of linguistics terms project seeks to contribute towards the creation and documentation of linguistic terminology in the isiZulu language to facilitate the teaching of linguistics in the Zulu language. The dictionary is designed to mainly focus on technical terms used in the formal sub-disciplines of linguistics, such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. The target users of this

specialized terminological dictionary are the Zulu language students, linguistics students, their respective teachers and/or lecturers. In this presentation we will show that the compilation of the isiZulu Dictionary of Linguistics Terms is responsive to the university language policy. The paper will demonstrate that the structure of the dictionary is responsive to the user-needs in the context of this very scientific sub-discipline.

The dictionary will be based on a Language for Special Purpose (LSP) corpus of isiZulu. A special purpose corpus is one that focuses on a particular aspect of a language. It could be restricted to the LSP of a particular subject field, to a specific text type, to a particular language variety or to the language used by members of a certain demographic group (e.g. teenagers). It is in this sense that it is specialized. The isiZulu LSP corpus will be created out of Nyembezi (1991) *Uhlelo lwesiZulu* published by Shuter & Shooter and for which copyright is still being sought. The corpus data will also be collected from lecture notes from academics in the School of Arts and the School of Education where isiZulu is being taught as a subject. Other corpus materials will include dissertations on language that have been written in isiZulu. The isiZulu LSP corpus will thus be a source for the selection of lemmas. We will use WordSmith Tools (version 6), which is an integrated suite of three main programs namely the WORDLIST, CONCORD and KEYWORDS. The WORDLIST tool can be used to produce wordlists or word-cluster lists from a text and render the results alphabetically or by frequency order. It can also calculate word spread across a variety of texts. CONCORD provides any word or phrase in context, which makes it possible for the lexicographer to study its co-text. The KEYWORDS function calculates words that are key in a text. These are words used much more frequently or much less frequently in a given corpus than expected in terms of a general corpus of the language.

Another crucial strategy for the selection of lemmas, which has been going on for a while, is the creation of isiZulu linguistic terminology from existing terminology in the English language. The isiZulu linguistic terminology is currently going through the verification and authentication processes and will only be added in the database after having gone through these statutory processes. Other lemmas that have been identified as crucial to the target users are proper names like Chomsky, Guthrie, Doke and Meinhof, etc. Lemmas are going to be in the Zulu language, written in bold lowercase roman letters, followed by the IPA transcription between slashes, followed by tone marking and then the word class, the DEFINITION, usage example (optional) and finally its English equivalent.

Sample entries:
uhlelo /úɬɛ|o/ KKP bz 11. DEFINITION. FAN grammar

ibizo /ɪβɪzo/ KKP bz 5. DEFINITION. FAN noun

Further, the dictionary will be an A5 medium-sized pocket dictionary, portable and user-friendly. It will be argued that the size is crucially important for a reference work that is most likely to be in constant use. It is also important as it determines the number of headwords that a dictionary can have. The dictionary will have a brief front matter, an Aa-Zz, an English reverse index and a back matter. The dictionary should have ± 5 000 headwords. The paper will conclude that this specialized dictionary should be able to meet the target user needs.

A lexicographic profile for Luxembourgish: reality versus the wishes and needs of the speech community

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Luxembourgish is the national language of the Luxembourg and is used by approximately 71% of all people as the main language of communication. Although over 40% of the population in Luxembourg are foreigners, a knowledge of the language is still a requirement to obtain Luxembourgish citizenship. As there are approximately 155,000 cross-border commuters who work in Luxembourg (often in the service sector or the health sector) but are often not fluent in the language. The demands for having a working knowledge of Luxembourgish when working in the health or service sector increased in the last few years.

This paper provides a lexicographic profile for Luxembourgish and shows whether the lexicographic profile reflects the needs and wishes of the speech community or not.

In a first step, the needs and wishes of the speech community were evaluated. The needs of the speech community are: being able to use their language in as many domains of life as possible and being able to use their L1 to learn other languages. As the language topic has been an important topic in the media for several years now, it was relatively easy to find the wishes of the speech community. The main wish was: We want to be able to use our language in our country and don't want to have to speak a foreign language (i.e. French in most cases) just because the hospital staff/restaurant staff etc. is not willing/able to speak our language. The second wish was that the language should become an official language of the EU and an official Facebook language.

Then those needs and wishes were transformed into lexicographic products, i.e. which dictionaries are necessary to fulfil the needs and wishes of the speech community. In a nutshell, one could say that a broad variety of dictionaries for a huge variety of users and usage situations are needed.

For this paper, a small database of Luxembourgish dictionaries was compiled and the dictionaries were differentiated into four main categories: 1. Children's dictionaries; 2. General dictionaries; 3. Specialized dictionaries; and 4. Language courses including vocabulary lists.

1. Children's dictionaries

This category was included because children need dictionaries that are compiled for children in a language that they understand and covering topics that are familiar to them. The majority of dictionaries in this category were illustrated dictionaries that are quite similar in structure and content to the "First Bilingual dictionary" series of OUP South Africa.

2. General dictionaries

This category is the largest category, as it includes all adult general dictionaries that included Luxembourgish as one of the languages.

3. Specialized dictionaries

This category includes the available Luxembourgish specialized dictionaries, as such dictionaries are needed, if the cross-border commuters are expected to have a working knowledge of the language in their job.

4. Language courses

Although those are, strictly speaking, no dictionaries, they were included because they often included a larger vocabulary list at the end and were often designed for cross-border commuters.

Conclusion

The lexicographic profile for Luxembourgish shows that there are still gaps that must be filled, in order to accommodate the speech community's wishes and needs. This is especially the case with regard to the wish to make the language an official EU language, as this implies that there must be standardized specialized terminologies available, in order to translate all EU documents into Luxembourgish. Such specialized vocabularies would also help to improve the communication between cross-border commuters and the speech community, as they would help the former to improve their working knowledge of the language.

Although the lexicography situation is in need of improvement, the language is in the fortunate position that the resources to do so are available.

The challenges of compiling entries for a trilingual dictionary : The case of the English – Lozi - Kwangwa dictionary project

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In metalexicography concerning dictionary typology a basic distinction is often made between explanatory (defining) dictionaries on the one hand and translating dictionaries on the other. This is a traditional distinction proposed by Zgusta (1971), among others, between monolingual and bi- (multi-) lingual dictionaries. Compiling a dictionary entry is the core activity of practical lexicography (Atkins and Rundell, 2008) and it involves a number of complex stages at the microstructural level. It is a complex enough task for a monolingual dictionary; it is even more so for a bilingual or a multilingual dictionary. It involves choice and selection of information categories to be presented and determining the format of packaging this information in a dictionary for the target user. It also involves profiling the intended user group.

The present paper describes a dictionary project coordinating three languages (English, Lozi and Kwangwa) spoken in Zambia. English, the ex-colonial language, is the official language of Zambia, used in education, administration, the judiciary, the legislature and the public media. Lozi is the regional official language (lingua franca) of the Western Province of Zambia. It is also spoken in the North-western part of Botswana and in the eastern Caprivi strip of Namibia. It is classified as K21 by Guthrie (1948) but assigned to Zone S by other later scholars (Fortune, 1971; Doke, 1954; Lisimba, 1982; etc.). Kwangwa is a member of the Luyana group of languages (Guthrie's K37) spoken in the Western province of Zambia. It is a minority language spoken within the same geographical space as Lozi, confined to the functional domain of informal communication. Kwangwa is an endangered language with a shrinking number of speakers. The statuses of the three languages being coordinated are therefore different.

The challenges encountered are of various types, for instance:

• Choice of the variety (dialect) of Kwangwa to be represented in the dictionary. It is generally recognized that there are two main varieties of Kwangwa, namely eastern Kwangwa and southern Kwangwa. For a language that is not yet normalized the dictionary compiler has no reliable guide for the choice of the variety to represent.

The lexicographer has to opt for one and indicate dialectal variants and label them accordingly.

•The amount of grammatical information to be presented in each of the entries of the three languages without unnecessary duplication and the manner of packaging this information in a user-friendly way in the dictionary.

• The scope of coverage of the vocabulary (from the database) to be included in the dictionary.

Lexicography can be a tool for the documentation and preservation of endangered languages. The lexicographic project being reported here was partly prompted precisely by the desire to document this endangered language (i.e. Kwangwa) at the lexical level. The challenges are numerous and varied, as it is not yet a written language and it has no written grammar. The narrative in the paper shows how the researcher attempted to codify the language, in terms of grammar and orthography, how the corpus was compiled and how data were selected and analyzed. The method of compiling entries, following the template proposed by Atkins and Rundell (ibid.) is described in some detail. The rationale for a three-way coordination of the languages is explained. The macrostructural and microstructural architecture of the dictionary is described.

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From Theory to Practice in Gabonese Lexicography: A Case Study in Mpongwe and Yilumbu Dictionaries

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Reference books have been compiled in Gabon since the 1840s by both Gabonese and non-Gabonese authors. These works include on one hand major bilingual dictionaries and various lexicographic works made by colonial explorers and administrators and by missionaries before the nation's independence, and on the other hand different types of dictionaries produced for the past few decades by Gabonese scholars. The recent expansion of lexicographical work has brought quite a number of lexicons, dictionaries and other reference books into the Gabonese market. Some of the old dictionaries have been revised, and new works have also been compiled. There are now more than two dictionaries in some major linguistic communities (i.e. Fang, Yipunu, Myèné), and at least one lexicon in the minority ones (i.e. Isangu, Pove, Bakoya). However, it is a fact that the majority of the compilers of all these works are non-trained lexicographers. In addition, very few are currently involved in theoretical lexicographic research.

Some of the reasons why a dictionary is not used are often linked to the following:

(i). the fact that the users do not recognize the treated language;
(ii). the access structure of the dictionary that does not allow the users to find and use the panel of data presented by the dictionary in an appropriate way.

Metalexicography is there to provide a sound theoretical basis in order to implement the consultation of the users and to make it more accessible. By using principles formulated by metalexicographers such as Wiegand (1985), Bergenholtz (2000), Tarp (2002), Gouws (2002), Cowie (1989), Hartmann (1989), Haussmann (1990), Béjoint (2000), it is possible to compile a dictionary that will fulfil its genuine purpose (for communication and/or knowledge dissemination). However, it is unfortunate that most current Gabonese dictionaries mainly serve as ornaments on bookshelves, rather for communicative and/or cognitive purposes in the respective linguistic communities of Gabon. These dictionaries are more like trophies (often for linguistic and/or ethnic self-esteem) and are not used in the education system, or elsewhere. Ethnolinguistic communities are usually proud to have a dictionary in their respective languages, but sometimes they do not take the required action to enhance the use and visibility of the language through lexicography.

To address the above-mentioned issue, fieldwork was undertaken in order to compare two major recently-published bilingual dictionaries of Gabonese languages: the *Dictionnaire Francais-Omyènè/ Omyènè-Francais* (Raponda-Walker 2012) and the *Dictionnaire Yilumbu-Francais* (Mavoungou and Plumel 2010). The fieldwork involves interviews. Three groups were interviewed. The first group was Mpongwè mother-tongue speakers, the second Yilumbu mother-tongue speakers and the third group comprises of non-mother tongue speakers of both Omyènè and Yilumbu. The aim of the fieldwork was to identify the following:

(i).   how mother-tongue speakers have heard about the respective dictionaries; and

(ii). how many bought and use them.

This study comes to the conclusion that, no matter which group speakers belong to, few individuals use a dictionary for its genuine purpose, although they rush to buy it. The second part of our fieldwork aimed to assess the user's accessibility of each dictionary. It establishes which one of the dictionaries was more accessible in terms of the users' point of view. The accessibility was measured by:

(i).   whether they recognize the treated languages or not;

(ii). how they judge the access structure of the dictionary;

(iii). how the metalanguage of the dictionary was evaluated.

Looking at the development of lexicography in the Gabonese languages, the present presentation seeks to demonstrate the importance of a solid theoretical background while dealing with the compilation of a dictionary. Based on the information gathered during the fieldwork, it will look at the structure of the two mentioned dictionaries. It will explore the framework of those dictionaries to see the impact of lexicographic principles on the design and the contents of the dictionary, and in the long run, on the consultation process.

A Monolingual Sesotho Dictionary as a Source for Language Learning
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The project reported in this paper aims to produce an electronic monolingual morphosemantic Sesotho database/dictionary for Sesotho speakers and particularly high school learners. The paper hopes to indicate the need for monolingual dictionaries for Bantu languages, seeing as there is a large production of bilingual dictionaries for

these languages in South Africa. By so doing, the project will contribute to the ongoing practical lexicography projects for Sesotho.

Between the 19th and 21st century in South Africa, Bantu languages lexicography did not register satisfactory developments. The same applies to Southern Sotho (Sesotho). The dictionaries compiled for this language are exclusively bilingual or multilingual (Kriel 1950 & 58, Hamel 1965, Tegnidisc 1966, Ziervogel 1975), even the 20th-21st century ones that are found in electronic form are translation-based (Olivier, 2006 & 2009)[1]. The 19th century lexicographers of Bantu languages did not compile their works with the native speakers in mind, their dictionaries where aimed at acquainting the foreigners with the natives' languages, thus they were translation-based (Kiango, 2000). As a result, this paper proposes a different type of a dictionary for Sesotho, a monolingual morphosemantic electronic dictionary that can be used by L1 speakers of Sesotho and primarily high school learners. This pilot dictionary will be compiled to fulfil the potential for a monolingual dictionary to serve as a language learning resource for L1 speakers of a language it represents.

In Sesotho school books, there are a lot of terms/words that have been borrowed from English and these are presented in Sesotho text books or literatures as anglicisms. For instance, you find a word like 'democracy' put as *demokrasi*. A learner cannot really give a definition for this word in a Sesotho spelling test. However, a linguist can find the meaning for a word by looking at its morphemes and deconstructing it to analyse what they mean when put together as a word. For example, *motsamayi* 'walker' can be broken down into the following morphemes:
[mo-] CL1 prefix, [tsamay-] verb root for 'walk', and [i] default suffix. Knowing that a Class 1 prefix represents human nouns and that when this is attached to a verb the verb becomes a deverbative, linguists would construe that *motsamayi* is a person who does the action of walking. But a word like *demokrasi* above, would not allow for such analyses following the linguistics properties of Sesotho. Therefore, a dictionary that explains terms in the learners' L1 will be helpful for knowing when, why and how to use a particular word/term.

A dictionary can be described as a reference work which can sometimes contain both linguistic and encyclopaedic data types. A corpus-based approach will be used for the compilation of this dictionary. Words will be extracted from a small corpus of high

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[1] http://www.sesotho.org/dictionary/

school texts (novels/short stories and course books). A corpus is a sample of natural texts of a particular size, that represent a language in its spoken and written forms. It is currently associated with machine-readability (computers) for reference purposes, as machine-readability allows for quicker research (Bieber et al. 1998, Bernard 2000, McEnery and Wilson 2001). The corpus-based approach was one of the early methods in lexicography (Khairuddin et al., 2011), thus its use for this project, to exhaust it as a method for studying Bantu Languages. Lexicography is a scholarly discipline that looks at compiling, writing and sometimes editing of dictionaries, it comprises of theoretical and practical aspects. To achieve the goals of this practical project to lexicography, scholarship on Corpus Linguistics, Lexicography and Terminology studies will be used as guidelines to both the compilation of the dictionary and the evaluation of this project.

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The TED's 1950 Orthography and Developments of Standard Dictionaries in the Sotho Languages: A Case of Setswana and Sesotho sa Leboa

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The first written Sotho languages were developed by the missionaries during the missionary period, especially the French Missionaries in Morija, Lesotho, like Eugene Casalis, the London Missionaries in Kurumani, like Robert Moffat and the German missionaries in Botšhabelo, like Alexander Merensky. During this period the three Sotho languages were regarded as dialects of one Sotho language, and the Missionaries did not have clear

distinction between these languages. Every missionary station had its own orthography for the particular 'language', or dialect, spoken in its vicinity.

After 1929, the Transvaal Education Department (TED) made attempts at unifying the then Sotho languages, i.e. Western Sotho (Setswana), Southern Sotho (Sesotho) and Northern Sotho (Sesotho sa Leboa). This led to the compilation of the 1930 orthography, which culminated in the adoption of a single Orthography for all the Sotho languages, by the Orthography Sub Committee of the Sotho Language Board on 20th October 1950. This orthography became compulsory in the Transvaal in January 1953. According to this orthography, the three Sotho languages were regarded as dialects of one Sotho language. The most important significance of the 1950 Orthography, today, is that it has brought the three Sotho languages, i.e. Setswana, Sesotho and Sesotho sa Leboa, closer together, opening a gap between each standard language and its own dialects.

This unification attempts by the Transvaal Education Department came at loggerheads with the new segregation policy which the Union Government adopted after the Nationalist Party victory in the 1948 elections. In accordance with this policy, which is notoriously known as 'Apartheid', all the racial and ethnic groups were to be assisted to develop as separate entities. The enforcement of the 1950 orthography in January 1953 in the Transvaal coincided with the passing of the Bantu Education Act, Number 47 of 1953, by the Union Government in the same year, which destroyed all the TED's attempts of unifying the Sotho languages. This resulted in the separation of the three Sotho 'dialects' into three national languages. As a result, the then Sub Committees of the Sotho Language Board, i.e. the Southern Sotho Sub Committee, the Northern Sotho Sub Committee and the Western Sotho Sub Committee became independent Language Boards to oversee developments of their respective languages, i.e. Sesotho, Sesotho sa Leboa and Setswana. The main objective in this research is to analyse the consequences of the 1950 Sotho Orthography in the development of the standard dictionaries in the Sotho languages, in particular, Setswana and Sesotho sa Leboa.

The lexicographic consequences of the 1950 Orthography

- The 1950 Sotho Orthography brought the Sotho languages together because it was a foundation in which the respective Sotho Language Boards started building their respective standard languages. The vocabulary used in the 1950 Orthography played important role as basis for the development of vocabularies in each Sotho language.

- This resulted in the written standard orthographies for the respective Sotho languages becoming closer to each other, while the gaps between the respective languages and their

dialects remained wider, especially the dialects which were never converted into written form. For instance, the standard Sesotho sa Leboa is more closer to Setswana than its dialects, like Sehananwa, Sepulana, Seṱokwa, Khelobedu, etc. while the standard Setswana language is also too closer to Sesotho sa Leboa than its own dialects, like Setlhaping, Setlharo, Serolong Sebirwa, etc

- This observation is more conspicuous when compiling standard dictionaries in these languages because the vocabularies in these Sotho languages do not show remarkable differences, while the bulk of vocabularies from their respective dialects, especially the 'unwritten' dialects, are not included in the standard dictionaries because they are not standard vocabularies.

- The negative lexicographic consequence of this vocabulary exclusions is that standard dictionaries in the Sotho languages do not show fair statistics of the vocabularies used by the communities

- The fact that accreditations and standardizations of vocabulary is the responsibility of PanSALB and its NLBs, which are always running short of funds to deliver on their Constitutional mandates of standardizing the languages means that the gap between the standard and the dialectal vocabularies will remain wider for many years to come. This is a big problem for the development of lexicography because the lexicographers will always have little vocabulary to use when compiling standard dictionaries, while the bulk of the existing vocabularies will always be regarded as dialectal and non-standard, and therefore, unsuitable for inclusion in the standard dictionaries

Acronyms and Abbreviations in Dictionaries: a case of Tlhalosi ya Medi ya Setswana by T.J. Otlogetswe

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The purpose of this paper is to look at how acronyms and abbreviations are treated in African dictionaries in general. Specifically, the study looks at these acronyms and abbreviations in T.J. Otlogetswe's Tlhalosi ya Medi ya Setswana dictionary which was published in 2012. The study begins by carrying out a survey of nineteen selected dictionaries looking at how these have treated acronyms and abbreviations. Nine of these dictionaries include mainstream English dictionaries such as The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (1982), the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1987) and Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (2002). The remaining ten are African dictionaries of varied languages

spoken in the region which include Shona, Venda, Setswana and Northern Sotho. The purpose of this survey was to determine whether differences exist in the way English lexicographers have treated acronyms and abbreviations in their dictionaries compared to African lexicographers. Four questions are addressed in this study: (a) do African lexicographers include acronyms and abbreviations in their dictionaries; (b) if so, how have these been treated in these dictionaries as compared to mainstream English dictionaries; (c) what phonological features are highlighted in these entries, if any; and, (d) what recommendation do we propose regarding acronyms and abbreviations in African dictionaries.

The results of this study showed that many of the African dictionaries surveyed do not incorporate acronyms and abbreviations in their dictionaries despite the fact that many of these are not imported from elsewhere, but they are coined and used every day by speakers of these languages. The one exception to this is Otlogetswe's (2012) Tlhalosi ya Medi ya Setswana which includes a list of twenty-five acronyms and abbreviations which are commonly used in the country. Though not exhaustive a list, these form part of the lexical entries and occur in alphabetical order with other lexical items in the dictionary. Phonologically, Otlogetswe's treatment of these acronyms and abbreviations is no different from that seen in the mainstream English dictionaries. In addition to providing their pronunciation using IPA symbols, the English dictionaries surveyed treat acronyms as simple 'words' which carry primary stress while abbreviations are complex 'words' with both primary and secondary stress. Otlogetswe, on the other hand, provides their pronunciation and marks them for tone just like other Setswana words in the dictionary.

The paper concludes by recommending that it was important that African lexicographers include acronyms and abbreviations as part of their lexicon because it is the communities who coin them and that these have become part and parcel of these African languages. The paper argues that the inclusion of these acronyms and abbreviations does not tarnish the purity of the language when providing the full names of these organizations which may be in English or any other language. For instance, most of the mainstream English dictionaries give the acronym FIFA and its representation which is French explaining what the organization does. The same acronym appears in Otlogetswe (2012), who also provides an explanation in Setswana of what this body does and then provide the French representation from which is derived. Thus, the paper recommends that acronyms and abbreviations be included in the African dictionaries because they are very useful and form part of the languages in which they are coined and used.

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Toward a Comprehensive Dictionary of Gabonese French Slang Words and Expressions

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Gabonese French is made of words and expressions belonging to different style or normative levels, i.e. standard French, official French (acrolectal level), common French (mesolectal level) and popular French (basilectal level). The book entitled *Français du Gabon: Approches sociolinguistiques et lexicographiques. Le toli bangando* includes many informal words and expressions common to Gabonese French. They are a colorful part of modern Gabonese French whose informal qualities are very much related to slang, and they have gained greater popularity and achieved national recognition, however they continue to be applied to language use below the level of standard educated speech.

Although entitled *Français du Gabon: Approches sociolinguistiques et lexicographiques. Le toli bangando*, the above-referred publication is in fact a dictionary of Gabonese French slang and colloquialisms used in Gabon, published in 2011 by Moussounda Ibouanga Firmin. It is arranged alphabetically, and consists of 954 articles covering 292 pages. The work gives an account of the formation and social implications of the so-called "toli bangando". From an etymological point of view, "toli bangando" is derived from the Punu words "utoolë" "to

chat, to converse" and "bangando" "crocodiles". Therefore the expression "toli bangando" originally refers to the vocabulary of gangsters or "low or disreputable" people. Nowadays, it is no longer exclusively associated with disreputable people, but continued to be applied to language use below the level of standard educated speech. It is chiefly used by young people and in some contexts by adults. So the usage of toli bangando terms and expressions by male and female adolescents indicated their membership to their age group. This usage is meant to reinforce connection to their peer group, and to exclude outsiders.

It is noteworthy that a huge proportion of current Gabonese French slang originates from just a few areas, such as sex, alcohol, money, drug, and music. All these areas are important to adolescents and younger generations in the sense that they play a role in constructing their identities.

This paper attempts to discuss the relevance of the compilation of a general dictionary of Gabonese French slang and colloquialisms used in Gabon. The project is situated in the framework of the General Theory of Lexicography in the sense of Wiegand (1999), Bergenholtz and Gouws (2012); it links up with the explorations of the relevance of linguistic ecology theory as presented in Haugen (1972), Mühlhäusler (1996), Mufwene (1996), Bastradas i Boada (1996) and Calvet (1999). The theory of lexicography is not a theory merely for the sake of theory. It is a practice-directed theory with the formulation of a model to improve the quality of dictionaries as primary objective (Gouws, 2001: 59). *Language ecology* or *linguistic ecology* (also known as *ecolinguistics*) can be defined as "the study of interactions between any given language and its environment." The birth and development of most Gabonese French slang and colloquialisms used in Gabon can be explained by concepts such as *acclimatization* (the process of adapting to something) or *adaptation*.

The main purpose of this paper is (i) to present the need for a comprehensive dictionary of Gabonese French slang and colloquialisms, (ii) to have a look at the collection of items and expressions gathered from the primary, secondary and tertiary sources of the dictionary basis (this material acquisition phase will inevitably lead to a corpus), (iii) to discuss macrostructural issues (orthographic problems, niching and nesting procedures, etc.), (iv) to investigate microstructural aspects (nature and extend of the microstructure, different types of microstructures, etc.). As far as macrostructural issues are concerned in particular, it should be mentioned that the spelling and orthographic system of a language is just as integral a part of a language as its vocabulary. A standard(ised) spelling and orthographic system should be used in all the compiled Gabonese French dictionaries. Special attention will also be paid to

the presentation of the etymology of Gabonese French slang words and colloquialisms as well as the ephemeral nature of slang.

Standardizing what we don't speak, and speaking what we don't standardize – the role of standardization in the compilation of standard dictionaries in Sesotho sa Leboa
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A standard dictionary is primarily regarded as a dictionary representing the standard variety of a language. The vocabulary contained in this type of dictionary should basically be a standardized vocabulary of the language. Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:50) emphasize this fact as follows:

> The macrostructure primarily represents the standard variety of a treated language although a number of high usage frequency items from non-standard varieties, e.g. slang or special fields, may also be included.

This means that, basically, the lemmatized vocabulary in the macrostructure of a standard dictionary should have gone through standardization as one of the criteria to qualify for inclusion in the standard dictionary. Unfortunately, excessive use of purism and one-sided standardization on the part of most standardizing bodies in many South African indigenous languages, like Sesotho sa Leboa, is a common practice. This practice has become a big problem in these indigenous languages because many unused, or rarely used, lexical items are adopted and standardized, while many frequently used words are excluded from the standard vocabularies, and therefore, disqualified for inclusion in standard dictionaries. Ultimately, the standard dictionaries in most indigenous languages like Sesotho sa Leboa contain most words which are rarely used by the people, while the majority of the terminologies which are frequently used by the communities are regarded as 'impure' non-standard vocabularies.

The main objective with this research is to analyse the effects of purism in the standardization of indigenous languages, like Sesotho sa Leboa, which results in the lemmatization of words which are not frequently used, while ignoring the frequently used words. This results in the creation of a huge gap between written languages and spoken languages, i.e. between the written vocabularies which are contained in the standard dictionaries and the real practical vocabularies used by the communities. Purism, which is the main cause of this discrepancy, is manifested in several ways with the following two as the common methods, i.e. (1) dialectal exclusions, and (2) severe linguistic restrictions on foreign acquisition.

1. Dialectal exclusions

This type of purism is manifested through intensive marginalization of other dialects by those in authority. In most cases, the standardizing officials tend to standardize their own dialects at the expense of those dialects which are not adequately represented in the standardizing bodies. Dialectal exclusions in Sesotho sa Leboa, for instance, resulted in a one-sided Standard Language which is presently being disowned by most of its own communities, such as the Balobedu, Mapulana, etc. The huge gap existing between the standard Sesotho sa Leboa and many of its own dialects, creates a situation where a standard dictionary in this language will be a complete foreign document to the majority of the Northern Sotho communities.

2. Restrictions on foreign acquisition

In foreign acquisition, purism is manifested through a tendency of avoiding adoption of newly acquired terminology through transliteration or direct absorption into the borrowing language. The common strategy used by the purists is the traditional system where a more or less semantically equivalent indigenous term is used to substitute a foreign term. While this method is also valuable, it is a very much insufficient method of developing vocabulary because the indigenous vocabularies cannot accommodate all the newly acquired items which originate with technology and foreign acquisition. This creation of vocabularies through neologism usually leads to the creation of words which are hardly used by the people, and most of these words are too figurative and ambiguous, e.g.

- 'Overtake'   **go sega kgopu**, instead of **obatheika**
- 'Petrol'   **makhura**, instead of **phetrolo**
- 'Meatpie'   **paekukunama**, instead of **mitphaye**
- 'Cellular phone'   **sellathekeng**, instead of **selfounu**

As a result, the majority of the standard terminologies in indigenous languages like Sesotho sa Leboa do not qualify to be classified as frequently used words, in accordance with Prinsloo's (2005) ruler system. The standardization of vocabulary in the South African indigenous languages, like Northern Sotho, creates unused terminologies which the lexicographer is supposed to lemmatize in compiling standard dictionaries. Unfortunately, these terminologies are always belonging to what we call 'book terminologies' because that is where the words will belong, i.e. in the standard dictionary, while at the same time the communities will always be using the unstandardized side-lined words which the purists

regard as foreign or dialectal. This type of purist standardization leads to the following consequences:

- A huge gap is created between a spoken language and a written language.
- Ultimately, the standard dictionaries containing this type of terminology will not be a balanced publication and, therefore, will not be a good reference to the users.
- This type of standardization is contrary to the development of the languages.
- This type of standardization promotes ambiguities in a language.

Multilingual Legal dictionary of the CLTAL: Prospects and challenges with regard to Northern Sotho

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The Centre for Legal Terminology in African Languages or CLTAL is compiling a comprehensive multilingual dictionary which, when completed will have besides English and Afrikaans, legal terminologies for official African languages of South Africa. The first edition of this comprehensive multilingual dictionary is a trilingual dictionary consisting of English, Afrikaans and Northern Sotho which is about to be completed for publication. The staff of the Sesotho sa Leboa National Lexicography Unit participate in this process, which involves translations of the English legal terminologies into Northern Sotho. Since this multilingual legal dictionary is basically a translation of the existing English legal terminologies, the various methods of linguistic foreign acquisitions, like neologism, direct borrowing, transliteration and coinage, are applied to create indigenous legal terminologies to be used in the legal systems, especially the courts of law. As a result, all the translation challenges pertaining to the use of borrowing and foreign acquisitions are also experienced when compiling this dictionary. The following are some of the challenges experienced in the Northern Sotho translations, which are apparent threats to the user-friendliness of this multilingual dictionary:

1. Ambiguities
2. Long and compound words as translation variants to English legal terms and phrases
3. Purism compels most translators to prefer existing equivalent indigenous terms even where there is none

4. The translation of Latin legal terms is a new thing in the South African indigenous language dictionaries, and therefore, the rules governing the borrowing of these terms are also foreign to the Northern Sotho translators

Ambiguity pertains to incidences where a term has more than one meaning. In most of the translation variants in this dictionary either the Northern Sotho translated term has a different, but related meaning with the original indigenous term when it is not used in a legal connotation, or the English word is used with a narrow and restricted meaning than its original non-legal term. For example, the legal term '***actual malice***' (CLTAL) is defined and translated as '**bonokwane**' or '**bomenemene**' in this dictionary, as in the following examples:

Actual malice

In the law of defamation uttering or publishing a statement one knows to be false or with a reckless disregard for its truth or falsity.

  bonokwane

  [bomenemene]

The terms '**bonokwane**' and '**bomenemene**' are generally known to refer to 'corruption', 'robbery', 'scamp', 'spies', etc. which are original meanings besides their reference to the legal term, '***actual malice***'

The legal term 'abandon' is translated by the CLTAL in this legal dictionary as 'lahla', which is a very ambiguous term when considering its several Northern Sotho meanings, besides its legal connotation. This translation is given in the CLTAL trilingual dictionary as follows:

abandon[1] v

To give up voluntarily and actively with the intent of never claiming it again; to forsake completely [e.g. rights]

  lahla

The Northern Sotho word, **lahla,** is commonly known to mean 'throw away', 'discard', 'mislead', 'bury the dead', 'abandon', etc., but the translation in this legal dictionary only refers to 'abandon'. The term 'abandon' is also translated as **tlogela** by Kriel et al (2007:181) and the Northern Sotho Terminology and Orthography number 4 (1988).

Most of the legal terms consist of phrases instead of a single term, while the Northern Sotho translated terms are usually compounded to express the meaning of the English phrase. Coined terms like these are usually not user-friendly, and in most cases people prefer to use

the original foreign words instead of the coined compound words. A legal term or phrase like '*accompanying facts*' is translated as **ditabatlaleletšo, 'dintlhatlaleletšo or mabakatlaleletšo** as in the following extract from the dictionary:

accompanying facts

The evidence which goes together or is linked with the main fact in issue. An example of an accompanying fact is the evidence of A that after he heard a shot saw B coming with a gun from the place where the shot was fired. The main fact in issue is who shot the victim.

ditabatlaleletšo

[dintlhatlaleletšo, mabakatlaleletšo]

The most important prospect for the indigenous languages is the inclusion of the Latin legal terms or phrases, which apparently makes it one of the first few dictionaries in the indigenous languages to have translations of Latin terms into these languages, as in the following Northern Sotho example:

ad arbitrium iudicis

[Latin, subject to the discretion of the court]

go ya ka boikgethelo bja kgorotsheko

[go ya ka moo kgorotsheko e bonago, kgonago ka gona]

Even though this dictionary project seems to be a promising prospect to the development of the South African indigenous languages with regards to the legal system, the user-friendliness of the multilingual dictionary itself is very much questionable. This research, therefore, recommends the use of direct absorption or direct borrowing of foreign terminology for those concepts and terms which did not previously exist in Northern Sotho rather than try to equate the foreign legal terms with existing Northern Sotho terms through neologism. This will reduce ambiguity to a minimum. For instance the legal term, **adjudicate**, should be translated as **ajutikheitha** instead of **hlokola**, which is too ambiguous.

Standardising the Spelling of Loanwords in Setswana Custom Dictionaries
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Standardisation in the African languages of South Africa has been the topic of research for the past two decades of South African democracy (cf. Calteux 1996, Finlayson & Madiba 2002, Webb *et al.* 2005, Webb & Lafon 2008, Alberts 1998, 2006a & 2006b). At the same time, few works exist on the topic of orthography standardisation in these languages (cf. Kosch 2012, Alberts 2013 and Nkuna 2013). In fact, the standardisation of spelling rules for the different African languages has not yet received the attention it deserves from the respective official language bodies such as the National Language Bodies and PanSALB. This is particularly true in the case where adoptives (loanwords) enter the language as there are no clear guidelines to decide on a particular spelling for new words.

This presentation focuses on the spelling of adoptives in Setswana following a systematic analysis of selected custom dictionaries (Cole & Moncho-Warren 2011, Matumo 1993, and Snyman 1990) and of "official" terminology lists (DET 1988, DAC 2010, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c and 2003). It is based on observations by Roux & Ndinga-Koumba-Binza (forthcoming) on inconsistent spelling of loanwords in all official African languages of South Africa. In this paper, it is argued that dictionaries – even when the dictionary compilation is based on a frequency-analysed corpus – not only reflect the inconsistency in Setswana orthography but also contribute to the spreading of different spelling forms among the language users.

This was verified in Setswana which presents definite needs for spelling standardisation. A few examples may suffice to demonstrate varieties attested in the language from the two main Setswana dictionaries:

English/Afrikaans	Cole & Moncho-Warren 2011	Matumo 1993
acre/akker	êkêrê/akere	êkêrê
apostle	moapôsetolôi/ moapôsetolô	moapostolo
apple	apole	apolê
car	mmotokara/mmotorokara	mmotokara/mmotorokara
certificate	sethefekete/sêthifikêiti	setifikeiti

| yoke | jôkô | jokwe |

Standardisation can be defined as "*the process of making some aspect of language usage conforms to standard variety*" (Richards & Schmidt 2002: 510). This "*process*" can be prescriptive or descriptive in nature. The prescriptive approach refers to the setting of elaborated rules. The descriptive approach rather abides to the consideration of the most common usage among different varieties.

For the current study, and in view of a more systematic descriptive approach, phonotactic combinations (C+V) in Setswana were retrieved through a corpus analysis with the aim to identify rules that would explain not only details of the syllable canonical forms but also the structures induced by the transphonologisation process within the linguistic borrowing phenomenon. Results show that a practical guideline could be derived from a representative statistical analysis of the frequency of occurrence of phonotactic combinations in Setswana. It is hypothesized that this could at least be considered in an attempt to standardise spelling in the language.

The current paper emphasises that orthography standardisation is one of the main issues in the modernisation of Setswana. It demonstrates that apart from the academic and educational needs for the standardisation of spelling, the effective development of electronic texts and speech applications such as spelling checkers, automatic speech recognition devices and speech synthesis systems development is also severely hampered. Conclusions from this paper suggest that future Setswana dictionaries and terminology lists should also be genuinely purposed for spelling standardisation in the language.

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The Use of Dictionaries in Examinations: A Contextual and Theoretical Study at a South African University

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The fundamental role of dictionaries as utility products (Wiegand 1984) and containers of knowledge (McArthur 1986; 1998) makes their use in educational contexts common. However, the use of dictionaries in the context of examinations, especially at university level, is rare. In fact, dictionary use in the context of examinations at universities seems to be limited to foreign (second) language learning and translation studies. This is the case in several South African universities. The university on which the present paper is based therefore becomes a special case. At this university, dictionary use during examinations is provided for by the institutional language policy which was formulated in 2005. However, dictionary use during examinations at this university is a practice that is much older than the institutional language policy. None of the current members of the academic and management staff seems to remember when the practice started. Accordingly, the present study focuses on the practice in the current institutional context.

The language policy of this university requires academic departments to provide students with access to a wider range of dictionaries in examinations. In the present context, this is projected as one of the efforts towards an institutional endeavour to ensure that language is not a barrier to access and success in higher education, particularly at this traditionally white English institution. However, the role of academic departments regarding dictionary use during examinations is mainly restricted to departments with language-related offerings. For example, the German Studies Section of the university's School of Languages makes arrangements for their students to have a selection of German dictionaries for use during certain examinations while the African Language Studies requires isiXhosa non-mother tongue and translation students to have a copy of Fischer's *Oxford English-Xhosa Dictionary*.

Such cases are, in the opinion of the present paper, exceptions rather than the rule regarding dictionary use during examinations at this university but they are common in many other universities with equivalent academic offerings. The general policy regarding dictionary use during examinations is implemented through the Communications Department of the university administration which supplies a copy of the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* to every examination venue. During an examination, a candidate may request the copy from the invigilator who is supposed to hand it over to the student, wait as the student consults the dictionary and collect it immediately to make it readily available for the next student who makes a similar request.

The main impetus of this paper was to establish, beyond the motivation for the use of dictionary during examinations policy, its understanding and attitudes towards it across the university. While the policy is evoked during every examination period at this university, there are several questions that may be asked around it. Mainly, does the use of dictionaries during examinations not compromise the assessment policy of the same university which requires that examinations be undertaken in a very controlled environment in order to provide a near accurate reflection of how much the student has learnt? With this broad question, the specific objectives of this paper are to:

- Establish the frequency of dictionary use during examinations at this institution;

- Establish the characteristics (e.g. their mother-tongue, schooling background, etc.) of students who consult dictionaries during examinations;

- Establish the kinds of subjects in connection with which dictionaries are used during examinations;

- Identify the specific aspects on examination question papers that compel dictionary consultation during examinations (e.g. academic words, concepts in the specialised academic subjects, specialised language of academic subjects, general language, etc.);

- Establish whether students duly or unduly benefit from dictionary use during examinations;

- Establish whether there are areas of the use of dictionaries during examinations provision of the university language policy that need revisions.

In order to pursue the fore-listed objectives, three sets of questionnaires were administered, firstly, to new students during registration to establish what they think about a policy that would govern their examinations, secondly, to returning students to establish their experience and opinions regarding dictionary use in the examinations and, thirdly, to students who were observed using dictionaries during examinations in order to identify the specific aspects of specific examination question papers that led to dictionary use, as well as the success or lack of success of addressing the relevant needs. Observations were conducted during one semester examinations, with the researcher taking up more invigilation duties in order to get a more representative picture of the practice. This paper presents the findings of the research and applies metalexicographical theories to conclude that dictionary use during examinations at this university is fraught with several problems and that such problems are not only of a linguistic nature. Both pedagogical and lexicographical considerations are needed in order to address the problems.

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Microstructural Elements for a Gisir-French Dictionary
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The present paper is concerned with the microstructure of the planned Gisir-French dictionary. It should first be noted that Gisir is an unwritten Bantu language (Guthrie's B40 group) spoken in Gabon. It is one of the rare Gabonese languages that never had the privilege of having a reference book published by missionaries and administrators during the colonial era. There were also few attempts for word lists (*Lexique*) compilation by Coignard & Raponda-Walker, and then by Raponda-Walker late in the 1960's. However, although

manuscripts of these works are currently housed at the Raponda-Walker Foundation (which notably owns an eponym publishing house in Libreville since 1995), both remain unpublished to date.

The current paper comes within the framework of a metalexicographic research (cf. Nyama-Bouyanga 2013) aimed at providing the Gisir language with a monodirectional bilingual dictionary with French as the target language. The paper focuses on specific matters related to the microstructure design of the planned dictionary. Thus, the following three topics will be covered:

    (i).   nature of the microstructure,

    (ii).   the distinction between form and meaning and their presentation in the dictionary, and

    (iii). lexicographic markers

As far the nature of the microstructure is concerned, Haussmann & Wiegand (1989: 346) have mentioned that information about the nature of the microstructure is necessary for the lexicographer in the process of dictionary compilation. In fact, as Mavoungou (2010: 201) puts it, the lexicographer should be informed about the existence of the three types of microstructures, i.e. the compulsory microstructure, the absolutely compulsory microstructure and the complete compulsory microstructure. The current paper will have to determine the nature of the planned dictionary in consideration of the particular characteristics of the projected dictionary.

It is known that every dictionary article contains two essential microstructural aspects, i.e. form and meaning. The microstructural information on the form implies indications such as the lemma spelling (and spelling variants), pronunciation as well as information on the language grammar (morphology, syntax, etc.). This study is bound to make such decisions for the microstructure of the Gisir-French dictionary knowing that the source language is an unwritten language.

The third issue that this paper is concerned with is that of lexicographic markers. According to Lehmann & Martin-Berthet (2013: 268), lexicographical markers are microstructural elements that precede the definition from which they distinguish themselves by an appropriate typeface. Their role is to give conditions and contexts of use of words, meanings and phrases. Knowing that Gisir is still an unstandardized language, decisions of this kind would be crucial for the upcoming dictionary.

Finally, the current paper and the dictionary project contribute to the Merye lexicography which is often labelled as one of the less productive within the emerging Gabonese lexicography (cf. Nyangone Assam & Mavoungou 2000, Ndinga-Koumba-Binza 2005).

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The Impact of Culture Reproduction in Dictionaries on French Language Acquisition: A Case Study at the University of the Western Cape
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It is known that foreign language teaching in systematic environments has to take into account many variables (e.g. linguistic, geographic and cultural elements) that are relevant to foreign or second language acquisition (cf. Krashen 2009). Substantial studies have indicated the relationship between lexicographic reference works and foreign language teaching (cf. Kadima 2013, Knight 1994, Songhao 1997).

A number of studies have also shown that "*neither culture nor language can be fully understood when taught separately from the other*" (CARLA 2014). In the specific case of South Africa, few studies have indicated the importance of cultural diversity in French

classrooms at university level (cf. Horne 2009 & 2010, Castellotti 2010, Simon et al. 2010). These studies nevertheless recognize that the teaching of culture at tertiary level in French studies has an impact on both the comprehension of literature and the acquisition of the language.

The present study is concerned with the impact of culture reproduction on French language acquisition in dictionaries. It focuses on the acquisition of French by students in the Department of Foreign Languages at the University of the Western Cape. A practical lesson on cultural indications in dictionary microstructures was presented to undergraduate students. They were then given two to three French learners' dictionaries and a previously unseen wordlist which contained mostly cultural items. Finally, they were given the instruction to create (almost spontaneous) oral sentences from these words after finding their meanings and cultural contents in the dictionaries received.

The choice of these types of dictionaries was motivated by two facts. Firstly, learners' dictionaries are known to be one of the fastest growing sub-typological categories in modern lexicography (cf. Otto 1989, Hartmann 1992 and Wiegand 1998). In fact, the existence of these dictionaries is a direct result of the user-driven approach and the consequent attempts to compile dictionaries that respond to the needs of a specific target user groups. Learners' dictionaries are directed at users learning a foreign language. Therefore they treat lemmata in such a way that the learner can have easy access to the presented data in order to achieve an optimal retrieval of information.

The second reason is the availability of French dictionaries in the South African market. In fact, learners' dictionaries are the most common French dictionaries in South Africa where the language is regarded and taught as a foreign language.

This paper gives details on the research methodology of this project as well as on the results of the case study. The paper argues that culture reproduction in dictionaries is one of the considerations that should attract the attention of both dictionary compilers and experts in the field of foreign language teaching. The paper concludes with the recommendation that French dictionaries should reflect Francophone culture, i.e. a cultural background primarily associated with the French language regardless of ethnic, dialectal and geographic differences. It is the culture conveyed in the different varieties of the French language.

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A Multilingual Culinary Dictionary of Gabon: An Ongoing Project

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African cuisine is one of the exotic culinary items known in the world. Eventually, African restaurants are becoming more and more common in most of the world's biggest cities. In some of these restaurants, menus, dishes and recipes are often named in their original African

languages. Nevertheless, a culinary dictionary in any African language hardly exists. The current project is purposed to fill the gap with specific attention on Gabonese cuisine and languages. This dictionary project stems from an ethnolinguistic study that focused on the inventory, the denomination and the typology of culinary items in Gabonese languages.

The ethnolinguistic project had made a distinction between names for comestible items, names for special dishes and names for kitchen tools for making those dishes. Cookware and kitchen tools exist, cooking methods and food preservation vary from one region to another, or from one person to another. In fact, the main aim pursued to was to identify, inventory and classify the various traditional cookware and kitchen tools, cooking methods and food preservation techniques that exist within multicultural Gabon.

Subsequently, data obtained from various intensive fieldworks and comparative classification appears adequate to gather in a line necessary material for a multilingual dictionary. The general corpus of the lexical items constitutes the dictionary basis of the planned multilingual dictionary. This corpus was built from recorded speech data. Three fieldworks were conducted in the Haut-Ogooué province, one of the nine provinces of Gabon, to collect both visual and spoken data in the two main languages of the province. Fieldworks in the other major languages of each province are being planned.

The current paper aims to outline the main features of the forthcoming dictionary. Thus, the paper covers the following topics. First, it deals with the needs for such a dictionary in the context of multilingual Gabon. In fact, Gabon is known to be a language mosaic with French as the predominant and sole official language. However, the population of Gabon is firmly of the Bantu culture as it is shown through their culinary, habitual dressing codes, music, costumes and believes, etc. A multilingual dictionary will firstly reveal not only the development of the natural common Bantu lexicon (which in fact plays a role in the mutual intelligibility between a number of these languages), but also the development of African language vocabulary through linguistic adoptives. This dictionary project will contribute to proving or invalidating the hypothesis, which argues that the Gabonese ethnolinguistic groups largely share a strong cultural heritage. Equally, the project will inevitably contribute to the preservation of the multi-ethnic Gabonese culture.

Second, the paper identifies the general metalexicographic aspects of the dictionary. One of the current trends in Gabonese lexicography for the past few years has been the compilation and publication of thematic dictionaries (cf. Kwenzi Mikala 2008 & 2014). Although the

forthcoming dictionary can be labelled as a thematic dictionary, it however differs from most thematic dictionary on various metalexicographic aspects such as a clearly-indicated typology, an identification of target users and a formulation of a genuine purpose of the dictionary.

Finally, the paper outlines a couple of macro and microstructural aspects of the planned dictionary. The model that would serve for the planned dictionary is the newly published South African multilingual dictionary (SAMD 2014), which provides basic vocabulary and communication phrases in the eleven official languages of South Africa. This will be completed with pictorial model used in Bennett & Tsoeu (2010).

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Treatment of variation in fixed expressions in Setswana dictionaries

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One of the challenges to practical lexicography is dealing with multiword expressions, in particular, metaphors, idioms and collocations. Moon has observed that:

> … idioms are always difficult to treat lexicographically. This is not just because of the problems of variation and lexical form. There are other problems presented by idioms: how to convey the meaning and usages of what are essentially context-bound items, with vague or plastic meanings and heavy connotations (Moon, 1998).

A preferred term which has been used for these expressions is fixed expressions (Moon, 1994). One of the challenges concerning fixed expressions is their variability. This means that they have two or more variations on their canonical forms. Moreover, proverbs in particular, are typically truncated or downgraded to predicates. The obvious problem with this is the question of whether such expressions could even be regarded as fixed. Some of the variations is in predictable places such as at the beginning of words. Cowie et al (1983) discusses the expression of possession where verbs such as *have, get* and *give* alternate with each other in context such as in *get* a raw deal, *have* a raw deal or in *get* one's eye in, *keep*

one's eye in, *have* one's eye in. Some variation may be considered lexical transformations. Amongst these are: *a level playing field* and *to level the playing field*; *another nail in the coffin, a final nail in the coffin, to nail down the coffin* and *to drive the first nail into the coffin*. In this paper we look at the treatment of variation in fixed expression in Setswana dictionaries. The study considers three fairly large monolingual Setswana dictionaries: *Thanodi ya Setswana* (Kgasa and Tsonope, 1994), *Thanodi ya Setswana* (Mareme, 2007), *Tlhalosi ya Medi ya Setswana* (Otlogetswe, 2012). Among others, the paper deals with the following expressions: *A e nne modiga/A e ye modiga; go nna le thari/go abelwa thari* (to have many children)*, akga mabogo/akga matsogo* (to have nothing in your hands)*, ala diatla/ala matsogo* (to be generous)*, bana ba motho ba kgaogana tlhogo ya ntsi/ bana ba motho ba kgaogana tlhogo ya tsie* (people who are close survive with the little they have)*; bapalela mo kgetsing e e dutlang/bapalela mo kgetsing e e letshoba* (to habitually lose that which one gains in life)*; bua ditsiabadimo/bua diphirimisa/bua malele/bua matlakala/bua masepa* (to speak nonsense)*; dilo di apere tshiamo/dilo di boetse mannong, dilo di ile meriting* (everything is fine).

The study has found out that while the main monolingual Setswana dictionaries do lemmatize fixed expressions, they do so with much variation. Some do not include the variants in the dictionaries at all. They instead, choose what they consider to be the canonical form or the *right* form and exclude any variants. This is in part because such dictionaries were not compiled with the help of a corpus which would reveal variations found in fixed expressions. Additionally, variants are a problem to deal with since they take up space without contributing anything new. Of the three Setswana dictionaries assessed, *Tlhalosi ya Medi ya Setswana* is the one which lemmatizes variants. However, this dictionary treats variants as synonyms. In this paper we will assess whether the treatment of variants as synonyms is appropriate. The treatment of variation in fixed expressions in Setswana dictionaries is also compared to the treatment of variation in fixed expressions in three English dictionaries. These are *Collins COBUILD learner's dictionary* (Sinclair, 1996), *Macmillan English dictionary for advanced learners* (Rundell, 2007) and *the Oxford advanced learner's dictionary* (Crowther, 1995). This comparison is critical in that it suggests strategies that Setswana dictionary compilers could adopt in the treatment of variation found in Setswana fixed expressions.

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The implications of cultural aspects in bidirectional learners' dictionaries with Afrikaans and French as language pair

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In this paper the implications of cultural aspects in bidirectional learners' dictionaries with Afrikaans and French as language pair is discussed.

In the act of translation, transculturisation and strategies of textuality act as interactive factors in the compilation of interlanguage dictionaries (Kotzé 1999: 89). Culture is an identity that develops and grows with a specific ethnic group. The difference between cultural groups should be taken into account when a bidirectional dictionary is compiled, especially with regard to the choice of lemmata and example sentences.

One of the ways in which Afrikaans can be promoted is by enabling learners to learn a European language, like French, through the medium of Afrikaans instead of English. Currently an Afrikaans speaking person has to learn French through the medium of English as there is no up to date Afrikaans/French – French/Afrikaans bidirectional dictionary available on the market.

This paper endeavours to answer the question: Which cultural differences between Afrikaans and French should be considered in a bidirectional dictionary with Afrikaans and French as language pair and how can they be handled in such a dictionary?

The aim is therefore to determine the general criteria for the handling of cultural aspects when compiling a bidirectional dictionary with French and Afrikaans as a language pair. In order to achieve this aim, certain sub-questions need to be answered, i.e.: What is culture? What is the relationship between language and culture? Which cultural aspects (differences) should be dealt with? How can cultural items which are difficult to translate and succinctly explained be handled in a bidirectional dictionary? How should the lexicographer deal with the fact that Afrikaans is a Germanic language and French a Romance language?

The study will be conducted by doing a literature review in order to find answers to the above questions.

Culture is a specific way of being, of living. It encompasses everything that is unique to a certain group of people and it takes cognisance of the social influence on language, amongst others, belief, values, language, lifestyle, eating habits, customs, rituals, norms and role expectations (Du Preez 1989: 4).

Culture can also be regarded as a national identity (Nkabinde 2003: 169) and is therefore part and parcel of a nation, a country and its people and cannot be divorced from it. Culture is, according to Forbes and Kelly (1995: 1), a paradoxical question about identity and the influence of the past, the present and the future, which is why language and culture should not be seen as two separate disciplines.

In this regard, cognisance should be taken of provision for some cultural customs, e.g. in a limited middle text. This is in line with Kavanagh's (2000: 100) emphasis on the importance of knowledge about culture. Without this knowledge one does not know when to speak, how to talk to people older than us, how to be polite, how to talk about sensitive topics – in short we need to know about attitudes, manners, and social norms. Since modern language-learning strategies promote familiarisation with the culture of users of the language (Kavanagh 2000: 103) dictionaries can play a large role in making this possible (Kavanagh 2000: 116).

By way of example and with regard to French and Afrikaans bidirectional learners' dictionaries particularly, the cultural custom of *Mardi Gras* is for instance difficult to explain succinctly in this type of dictionary and it would even be harder to provide a suitable translation for it. A possible translation could perhaps be *Karnavaldinsdag*. However, Afrikaans learners of French will still not know what the cultural customs of *Mardi Gras* entail unless it is spelt out for them just as for French learners of Afrikaans the word *braai*

needs to be explained as it means more than just preparing food in a certain way. It is a cultural phenomenon and social occasion which has become so part and parcel of being an Afrikaner and South African that *Erfenisdag*, which is annually celebrated on 24 September, now is also known as *Nasionale Braaidag* (National Braai Day).

There are several ways in which culturally charged lexical items can be integrated in dictionaries. A first possibility is to use text boxes, e.g. for a word like *lyceé* which can be translated as *hoërskool* in Afrikaans, as it needs a more detailed description due to the different school systems in the two countries.

The layout of a bidirectional Afrikaans-French/French Afrikaans dictionary could be based along the lines of the *Collins Easy Learning French Dictionary* (2007).

In this paper the importance of cultural aspects of lexical items are pointed out and the ways in which they can be accommodated in a specific type of dictionary are also discussed.

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A critical evaluation of the paradigm approach in Sepedi lemmatisation – the Groot Noord-Sotho Woordeboek as a case in point

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The Groot Noord-Sotho Woordeboek (GNSW) is the most comprehensive dictionary ever compiled for Sepedi and as such even after four decades remains the most comprehensive work of its kind – it is 'n monument for the language. GNSW scores high marks as a grammar reference source especially at the time of compilation when not many detailed grammatical descriptions existed for Sepedi. Viewed from many angles however, it is less effective as a dictionary especially on different aspects pertaining to user-friendliness. Initial criticism by sources such as van Wyk (1985) and Prinsloo (1999) were aimed at detrimental aspects of alphabetical ordering and stem lemmatisation for a disjunctively written language. In this paper the paradigm approach of GNSW to the selection, presentation and treatment of

verbs and derived nouns is critically evaluated. The complicated verb ROBA 'break' will be taken as a case in point.

Bringing together, and to lexicographically treat all these forms for a single verb surely is a lexicographic achievement. It will however be argued that (a) most of the lemmas are unlikely to be looked for by target users, (b) the compilers focused on the completion of modular paradigms to the extent that the actual existence of most lemmas are questionable, (c) comment on semantics was neglected and (d) the medio structure is less successful.

In the paradigm approach the basic micro-architecture of an article is designed in terms of a modular layout aimed at bringing together all derivations of e.g. a verb stem. So, for example, the article of the lemma ROBA in GNSW consists of 32 modules distinguished on the basis of derived forms by suffixes and combinations of suffixes. Consider the following extract from the module composition:

1. ROBA (-rôba, -rôbilê, -rôbja, -rôbilwê)

2. ROBAGANA (-rôbagana, -rôbagane, -rôbaganwa, -rôbaganwe)

3. ROBAGANELA (-rôbagenêla, -rôbaganêtše, -rôbaganêlwa, -rôbaganêtšwe)

…

31. ROBOKANYETŠA (-rôbôkanyêtša, -rôbôkanyêditšê, -rôbôkanyêtšwa, -rôbôkanyêditšwê)

32. ROBOKANYETŠANA (-rôbôkanyêtšana, -rôbôkanyêtšane, -rôbôkanyêtšanwa, -rôbôkanyêtšanwe)

The entire article of ROBA consists of 278 nominal and verbal forms of *roba* and all these modules are lumped together in a run-on layout, e.g. Module 32:

dev.; *ROBOKANYETŠANA* (–rôbôkanyê-tšana, –rôbôkanyêtšane, –rôbôkanyêtšanwa, –rôbôkanyêtšanwe) appl. rec. < *ROBOKA-NYA*; barobokanyetšani (barôbôkanyêtšani) pers. dev.; morobokanyetšano, me– (morôbô-kanyêtšanô) man. dev.

As for the selection of lemmas, Ziervogel (1965) acknowledges inclusion versus omission of lemmas as important and problematic and suggests that the written language should be the point of departure for an effort to include all written forms. He continues that for a comprehensive dictionary it is important to document the derivations but that the question is

to what extent reduplications (repetition of a word with added affixes) and reflexives should be included. This brings us to the core of the issue, i.e. what is the duty of the lexicographer in terms of what to include and what to omit from the dictionary. It will be argued that the lexicographer should include a selection from the lexical stock of the language. It should not be limited to words found in written texts but also include words from the spoken language. The lexicographer should however not invent words e.g. derivations that could possibly be made. The duty of the lexicographer is to record language. His/her attention should be limited to the treatment of existing words in the lexicon, especially given the fact that it is hardly possible to cover all the existing words, even in a comprehensive multivolume dictionary.

In order to determine the likelihood of the different derivations of *roba* to be looked up as well as to their actual existence/use in the language, (a) two mother tongue speakers of Sepedi were requested to indicate which of these forms they know, (b) the actual occurrence in the Pretoria Sepedi Corpus (PSC) was studied and (c) the number of derivations of *roba* lemmatised and treated in Sepedi dictionaries was considered. From the 278 forms the mother tongue speakers only identified 55 (20%) and 78 (28%) respectively as known to them. As for the PSC, only 36 (13%) of the 278 words occurred in the corpus. The very limited number of derivations of *roba* lemmatised and treated in Sepedi dictionaries also suggests that the actual extent of use/existence of derivations of *roba* is much smaller and that the compilers merely embarked on completing grammatical paradigms.

Too much emphasis on comment on form resulted in insufficient attention to comment on semantics. In the article of ROBA comment on form is very limited, especially in relation to the length of the article. So, for example no comment on semantics is given for the entire stretch of modules 24 – 32, i.e. ROBIŠANA to ROBOKANYETŠANA. Finally it will be indicated that cross-referencing is less successful in the modular lumping approach of GNSW.

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Enhancing a theoretical framework for the lexicographical presentation of collocations in an Afrikaans and German electronic dictionary
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Several academic papers discuss the deficiencies of printed and electronic dictionaries available until 2011 involving Afrikaans and German (see Gouws, 1995, 1997 and 2012; Pienaar, 2006; Reinhardt, 2011) with regards to appropriate treatment of collocations to support foreign language learners of an intermediate language learning level in text production. The first part of this paper analyses how collocations are dealt with in a more recent multilingual online offer where Afrikaans and German lexical items can be looked up: Glosbe - the multilingual online dictionary at http://de.glosbe.com/de/af or http://de.glosbe.com/af/de. The second part deals with Reinhardt's proposals for an on-screen presentation of an electronic dictionary of collocations (2011) in comparison with more recent studies. Finally further improvements are suggested.

Following Hausmann (1984, 2004) a collocation is the combination of words in a syntactic relationship, namely an autosemantic base and a synsemantic collocate. The base is independent and within the collocation it keeps its single lexical item reading. Thus a person engaging in text production usually knows it or can easily look it up in any target language dictionary. The base, however, 'selects' its collocate. So the collocate is dependent on the base and cannot be randomly combined in text production. Thus it is important that "a production-oriented dictionary will give access from the base to all collocations which are typical for that base" Heid & Zimmermann (2012, 662).

Glosbe's *Afrikaans Deutsch Wörterbuch Online* welcome page invites the users to enter a word or phrase into a text field. For this paper a substantial number of entries have been analysed. The following is a typical finding: starting from the Afrikaans 'diens' a random look-up process reveals several problems. Clickable German translation equivalents are offered, some of them incorrect (based on wrong interpretations of homonyms), others misspelt. Each equivalent is accompanied by a short treatment containing again the equivalent (clickable), back translations (including false ones), pronunciation, part of speech

and declension. Clicking the repeated headword 'Dienst' the tool switches to the related *Deutsch Afrikaans* dictionary offering Afrikaans translation equivalents and 'similar phrases' ("Ähnliche Phrasen…") including two clickable German multiword lexical items with 'Dienst'. They are neither marked as being usual word combinations nor as being collocations. Offered as linked single treatment units, the entry of the multiword lexical item 'aus dem Dienst entlassen' offers Afrikaans equivalents (again one of them false) and example sentences ("Beispielsätze"), of which none contain the multiword lexical item: the base ('Dienst') is not even part of the examples. This treatment is problematic for the user who runs the risk of producing not only unusual but even wrong text. The Afrikaans examples are full of errors. The German examples consist almost exclusively of technical jargon, unfit for text production purposes in all other contexts.

From the above description, it may already be deduced that firstly, for either direction, *Glosbe.com* offers a mere collection of Afrikaans and German translation equivalents. Often these are incorrect, misspelt and misleading. Secondly the equivalents are accompanied with only half-hearted lexicographic treatment. It is unclear which types of users may profit from this reference work and which function it serves, as neither text reception nor production can successfully be carried out. The analysis could not establish whether any sound lexicographic process (in line with, for example, Wiegand, 1998 and Gouws, 2001) has been followed in the preparation of *Glosbe*. Considering the online dictionary as a kind of software tool (cf. Bergenholtz & Bergenholtz, 2011), it is also not possible to identify to what extent usability or dialogue design principles (cf. DIN EN ISO 9241-11 and -110) have been followed. It is concluded that the lexicographic situation of Afrikaans and German still leaves much to be desired for.

Envisaging the desirable improvements, the second part of the presentation aims at critically checking Reinhardt's *Requirements for an on-screen presentation of an electronic dictionary of German collocations for Afrikaans-speaking learners of German as a foreign language* of 2011 against relevant recent studies like, for example, Heid, 2011; Heid & Zimmermann, 2012; Bank, 2012 and Schubert, 2014. They deal with collocational data presentation and usability of electronic dictionaries, where these dictionaries are seen as "information-related products" (Heid & Zimmermann, 2012). The findings will be brought together in the last part of the presentation: an enhanced on-screen presentation of lexicographical data about collocations will be suggested by means of examples of screen layouts.

Throughout the study the emphasis remains with establishing a theoretical framework for an electronic dictionary: it shall provide reliable, useful and easily accessible guidance in text

production to South African Afrikaans and German foreign language learners at an intermediate level. However, the framework shall remain applicable to other user groups and other languages.

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A LSP Approach for Encyclopedic Dictionaries within the Emerging Gabonese Lexicography

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This paper aims to present the process involved in elaborating a specialized encyclopedic dictionary from the genesis of the work up to final publication. The different stages are described and analyzed in turn. A key notion developed throughout is that of choice, both in researching and selecting information and processing it. This paper analyses the preliminary texts introducing Gabonese lexicographic works published between 1999 and 2010. It focuses on the relevance of their metalinguistic content, emerging in the considerations about the Gabonese languages. This topic is developed across three main subjects, regarding the question of norm, the situation of French language and the evaluation of its linguistic peculiarities. Finally, this research shows that the arguments treated in these paper allows approaching them to other types of discourse, such as adapting encyclopedic dictionary for Gabonese use. Encyclopedic dictionaries are important for producing cultural texts in Gabonese languages in a national setting, because of the lack of encyclopedic dictionaries. As the intended user groups have different factual and linguistic competences, they require specific types of information. By identifying and analyzing the users' factual and linguistic competences, user needs, use-situations and stages involved in producing cultural texts in Gabonese languages as an official language, lexicographers will have a sound basis for designing the optimal Gabonese languages encyclopedic dictionary for text production. The encyclopedic dictionary needs to include information about certain provinces like Mayumba, Tchibanga and national terms, their grammatical properties, their potential for being combined with other words in collocations, phrases and sentences in order to meet user requirements. Data items that deal with these aspects are necessary for the national user

group as they produce subject-field specific and register-specific texts in Gabonese languages, and the data items are relevant for the various stages in text production: draft writing, copyediting, stylistic editing and proofreading.

The dictionary basis is the set of all the dictionary sources. For the model developed in this research, the wordlist must be selected like in all dictionaries. Sources can be divided into primary, secondary and tertiary ones. Sources refer to the collection of material and they may be oral or written. Here directions are given about which sources should be regarded as relevant for an encyclopedic dictionary. Relevant sources may be regarded as the ones that will be representative of the linguistic and cultural reality that the target users of the planned dictionary will have to face on a daily basis.

In studying and describing an encyclopedic dictionary it is necessary initially to determine its function(s) at a practical level. First, the function(s) chosen by the lexicographers provide the basis for all other lexicographic decisions, from the selection of entry words, over the selection of information types, to the selection of lexicographic structures. Second, the lexicographers must determine the basic needs of the users on the basis of the encyclopedic dictionary function(s) relative to the intended user group.

An encyclopedic dictionary is a tool that has been designed to fulfil one or more functions. These functions are related to specific types of use-situations and a lexicographic function is one that can assist the user in a given situation of use, i.e. the focus is on what the encyclopedic dictionary is intended to inform about, not its data types.

Encyclopedic dictionaries are compiled from a variety of sources. When dealing with the type of the planned encyclopedic dictionary, lexicographers must be aware of two important facts: the outer selection and the principle of data arrangement.

Finally, the current study contributes to the theoretical conception of the lexicographic plan for Gabon (LPG) as initiated by various Gabonese scholars. Also known as the strategic planning for Gabonese lexicography, the LPG has passed its first three phases (out of five), i.e. lexicographic training, metalexicographic accounting for dictionaries and circumscribing lexicography as a career. The formulation of a coherent general framework for Gabonese lexicography is the fourth phase. This posits the actual need to locate encyclopedic lexicography within the whole process of Gabonese lexicography development.

Challenges posed by cultural varieties in dialects: A case study of Northern Sotho

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Northern Sotho like many languages has many dialects, i.e Sepedi, Sehananwa, Setlokwa, Setswapo, Sephalaborwa, Sepai, Selobedu, Sepulana, Sekhutswe, Semolepo, Semmamabolo, Sekopa, Sekone, Sekgaga, Setau, etc. The speakers of all these various dialects have their own cultural ways of doing things in accordance with their various norms and beliefs. A dialect is a component of a standard language and is a variety of a language, which is spoken in one part of a country or community by people belonging to that particular area. According to Mokgokong (1966:30), a dialect is a form of speech peculiar to a district, class, or person; subordinate variety of a language with distinguishable vocabulary, pronunciation or idioms. In this case, each dialect serves as mother tongue to its speakers, but there is a standard form to be used in formal contexts. In the traditional sense, dialect was looked upon as a language variety of a lower status than the standard language, usually spoken by illiterate or poorly educated people or people with a low social standing (Louwrens et al. 1995:1).

Since most dictionaries are written in standard languages, dialects play vital roles in developing languages for use in all aspects of life. For instance, the inclusion of dialectal varieties in the compilation of dictionaries leads to the development of terminology which later becomes the basis for expanding the language. In this regard dictionaries should provide information types that reflect real language use.

This paper discusses the challenges posed by the cultural meanings of words which are derived from the various dialects of Northern Sotho. Meaning in itself is a mental entity of procedure or a concept. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), meaning in linguistics is what a language expresses about the world we live in or any possible or imaginary world**.** Whatever one perceives creates ideas and memory. That is why meaning and thought are related to each other. This study will focus on the words which differ semantically in the various dialects, especially the same word having different dialectal meanings in the various dialects of Northern Sotho, e.g. words such as ***ipona, kgeke, setsiba, ka moswane, lala, etc.*** These are common words in our daily language usage but may have a different meaning in one or more dialects and, as a result, lexicographers are faced with a problem as to whether these different meanings should be included in a dictionary or not. In some of the dialects these words have different meanings from the standard words which are included in the

Pukuntšutlhaloši ya Sesotho sa Leboa. For instance, the word **ipona** in Selobedu and other dialects means '*to see oneself in a mirror' and 'to be proud'*, but Sepedi has an added connotation which is to '*menstruate'*. According to Mokgokong, in Setlokwa, the word **setsiba** is '*men's drawer'* while in Sepedi the word has acquired a total different meaning which is '*a patch'; 'a fool'*. The word **kgeke,** in **Sepedi** has various meanings like '*matured girl', 'a girl who is no longer a teenager but somebody who is at the age of getting married'* but in Sehananwa, Selobedu and all the Lowveld dialects, *kgeke is 'a prostitute'*. In Sekgaga, ***ka moswane*** refers to '*tomorrow',* while in Sepedi ***ka moswane*** means '*early in the morning'*. The word **lala** in Sepedi means '*to spend the night''* while in Sehananwa means '*to impregnate a female'*.

Therefore, it is the responsibility of the lexicographers to see to it that all these various dialectal meanings are accommodated in the dictionaries in order to make the dictionaries to be user-friendly and to avoid prescriptiveness.

Conclusion

Meanings are inter-subjectively defined in all social reality. This research suggests that meanings of all the dialects should be accommodated in a dictionary to make it to be user-friendly and descriptive instead of being prescriptive.

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Run-on entries in OALD8: Do they cater for the needs of the target user?

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Aim and methodology: The study whose findings are presented in this contribution aims to investigate whether the print edition of OALD8 still sticks to the tradition of including many derivatives as run-on entries and whether dictionary users – learners of English can benefit from the method of including run-ons. For the purpose of the study, a database was compiled consisting of 1200 lemmata, each with the status of a full entry. Six hundred lemmata were taken from a randomly chosen stretch in the letter C (from *caterer* to *chicken wire*) and six hundred from a randomly chosen stretch in the letter S (from *shwa* to *slip knot*). All lemmata were typed into the database together with a part-of-speech label. If the entry contained an

undefined run-on, the latter was also entered into the database together with a part-of-speech label. All run-ons in the database were then counted in order to determine the proportion of run-ons to entries. The total number of undefined run-ons in our database amounts to 145. The next step was to closely study the types of run-ons as regards their part of speech as well as the part of speech of the lemma under which a run-on could be found. Since the use of many undefined run-ons is illustrated by examples, these examples were also included in our database and were studied more closely to see whether they were sufficiently informative and intelligible to enable the user to better understand and use the word in question.

Results: The analysis of the database shows that nouns are most commonly included as run-ons, followed by adverbs, adjectives and verbs. An in-depth look is taken at the run-ons by parts of speech: the part of speech of the lemma to which a particular word is run on is determined; the most frequent suffixes attached to run-ons are identified, since the dictionary user is supposed to know not only the meaning of the lemma from which the undefined run-on is derived but also the meaning of the suffix.

Discussion: A polysemous entry at the end of which an undefined run-on can be found is especially problematic because the use of the undefined run-on is illustrated by means of one or more examples of use (e.g., the adjective *central*, which has five senses, and the adverbial run-on *centrally* with three examples – the meaning of *centrally* can be surmised in the first two examples if the user is familiar with the meanings of *central* but not in the third example). Here, several questions can be raised: to which of the root word's senses does the derived adverb belong; does it belong to all of them or just to one of them; how can anyone expect an average dictionary user to know whether the meaning of a particular run-on as suggested in the examples is semantically derived from the first, second, third or other definition of the lemma, or perhaps from all of them? Examples of use are also carefully studied to see whether they can be of some help to users who come across an undefined run-on.

Conclusion: The meaning of undefined run-ons is supposed to be decoded either with the help of the definitions for the lemma from which the run-on is derived, or with the help of a combination of these definitions and the definitions for the suffix (if the suffix has a semantic meaning). These two methods are problematic in several respects. Firstly, the polysemous lemma and its run-on do not necessarily coincide in all the senses; consequently, the user cannot possibly know which senses of the lemma s/he can apply to the run-on. Secondly, the semantic meaning of the suffix is very vague; thus, the definitions are difficult to understand, let alone to apply to the combination base + suffix. It is advisable that the entry should be

tailored in a way that is most suitable for the intended users, that is foreign learners in the case of OALD8. Even if lexicographers provide one or more examples illustrating the use and/or context of the run-on, this does not necessarily help the user to decode the meaning of the run-on. These problems can be solved in two ways: either by listing the undefined run-ons at the end of each individual sense of the lemma, together with at least one example of use, or by including and treating polysemous derivatives as entries in their own right and not as run-ons. Finally, it should be clear to the user how s/he can establish a relation between the meaning of the lemma and a run-on that is listed at the end of the entry for the lemma.

Multiple labels in OALD8 and LDOCE5
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Introduction: Labels in dictionaries provide information about restrictions and constraints on the use of certain words or senses in the contexts in which they occur or in relation to other words described in a dictionary. These restrictions and constraints are referred to as diasystematic information. The aim of this paper is to study labels used in two British monolingual learner's dictionaries (MLDs), i.e., in OALD8 and LDOCE5, to discuss which labels are often used in combination and to establish whether labels belonging to one and the same category combine with one another or whether multiple labelling consists of labels from different categories of labels.

Methodology: Not all the labels included in the lists of labels in OALD8 and LDOCE5 were taken into consideration; therefore, some criteria had to be defined as to which labels are excluded from our research. Groups of labels expressing diatopic, diaintegrative, diatechnical and diafrequent information were disregarded.

The database was compiled using CD-ROMs of the above-mentioned dictionaries. The letter S was chosen as being sufficiently representative. The database was created using the Advanced Search option. In OALD8, the dropdown menu in Advanced Search offers 19 labels under "Register", from which 14 were selected as appropriate for our research. The dropdown menu in Advanced Search of LDOCE5 lists 15 labels under "Register", 10 of which were included in our database.

Each label was selected separately, and each search yielded a list of words marked with this particular label. All these words in the stretch studied were manually checked to see whether multiple labels were used. If a lemma or one of its senses was marked with one label only, the

item was not entered into our database. If, on the other hand, two or more labels were used, the lemma or one of its senses was included in the database.

Results: Our database shows that a combination of a maximum of three labels can be found in OALD8 (*taboo, slang, disapproving*; *old-fashioned, slang, disapproving*; *old-fashioned, informal, disapproving*), although the two-label combination is the most frequent. The combinations of two labels are quite varied (*informal* combines with other labels by far the most frequently; *formal* is the next most common label; then follow *taboo* and *slang*, etc.).

The database consisting of labels found in LDOCE5 is much smaller; nevertheless, a number of multiple labels were detected. There is only one case of triple labelling: *spoken, informal, not polite*. The labels *not polite* and *spoken* also combine with other labels (*not polite* with *spoken, informal* and *old-fashioned*; *spoken* with *not polite*, *informal* and *old-fashioned*; *informal* with *spoken, not polite, old-fashioned* and *taboo*). Other labels that appear in a double combination are: *formal, literary, taboo* and *slang*.

Discussion: As far as the combination of different labels is concerned, the maximum number of labels found in this study is three, but often the diatopic information, mostly *British English, American English*, can also accompany other labels, which means that the number of labels used to mark one lexical item or one sense can amount to as many as four. Each combination of labels is unique, since a comparison of the triple combinations shows no repetitions, which may be due either to the database not being sufficiently large to indicate such repetitions or to the lack of any template concerning the triple labelling in the dictionaries under investigation. All that can be said in reference to a triple combination of labels is that it is quite demanding for the dictionary user to comprehend and process this information if we bear in mind that it is probably not only labels and their comprehension that present a problem area for the user.

Labels belonging to different groups are combined, since it seems logical to provide the user with different types of information. Diaphasic information (*formal, informal*) is combined with diaevaluative information (*approving, disapproving, humorous*), diachronic information (*old-fashioned, old use*) and diatextual information (*literary*). Diastratic information (*slang, taboo*) combines with diaevaluative (*offensive, humorous*) and diachronic information (*old-fashioned*). Diaevaluative information is found in combination with diachronic (*old-fashioned, old use*), diatextual (*literary*) and diastratic information (*slang*). Labels expressing diaevaluative information and those expressing diastratic information are frequently

combined, which is not surprising, especially if we consider the labels expressing diaevalutive information, since this group is comprised of various labels expressing different types of evaluation.

Conclusion: The inclusion of diasystematic information largely depends on the type of dictionary and especially on its intended users. Therefore, lexicographers' decisions about whether to use a label and how to use it appropriately should be based on the user profile. This is especially true of MLDs, where one of the main functions is to promote the active use of a foreign language where every single piece of information included in the dictionary counts.

What's in a Name? A Case of Dictionary Titles in African Languages

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Previous dictionary user research suggests that dictionary users do not always pay much attention to dictionary titles. For example, Beyer and Faul (2010) indicate that 24.8% of their sample of 2009 Namibian University entrants could not remember the titles of dictionaries they had used at school. However, this should not undermine the importance of dictionary titles. Dictionary titles are as important as dictionaries themselves. This importance seems to be taken for granted in metalexicography. Quite often, studies that assess dictionary culture ask dictionary users to name the dictionaries that they have used. Yet dictionary criticism, on the other hand, has barely considered the significance of dictionary titles in its analysis of the contents and structure of dictionaries. This leaves practical lexicography in danger of producing dictionaries with less useful and sometimes misleading titles.

The present paper draws inspiration from some of the frustrations of the isiXhosa National Lexicography Unit (XNLU) while trying to secure a publisher for a recently completed dictionary project, namely an isiXhosa Pedagogic Maths and Science Dictionary for the Intermediate and Senior Phases of South African education. One publishing deal fell through at the eleventh hour because the prospective publisher was unsatisfied with the title. On the other hand the XNLU could not make a concession to the publisher's proposed title which does not seem to capture the essence of the dictionary, i.e. the scope of the dictionary regarding mathematics, one of the subject fields covered by the dictionary.

A series of questions emerge. Chief among them: What's in a name when it comes to dictionary titles? In other words, what do dictionary titles tell us about the dictionary, the target users, the compiler and other factors that prevail during the lexicographic process? Furthermore, who should decide the title of the dictionary in situations where different stakeholders are involved in the entire lexicographic process? Finally, what factors should be considered in naming a dictionary?

Noting that not much is said about dictionary titles in metalexicography, this paper draws insights from the comparatively abundant treatment of titles in relation to academic publications such as research articles and dissertations. Such meta-analyses in various academic disciplines locate the importance of titles between attracting and informing readers (cf. Hartley 2005). The same could be applied to lexicography, but this paper argues that, as it should be the case with the other tasks of a practicing lexicographer, guidance should be sought from theoretical lexicography if dictionary titles are to be useful. In a seemingly anecdotal way, Gouws (2007:79) provides some point of departure when he writes that "… a functional approach to dictionary typology *should at least see the envisaged functions of a dictionary being displayed as a subtitle or another kind of entry on the cover and title page of a printed dictionary or on an opening screen of an electronic dictionary*". This would clearly be in line with the Function Theory of Lexicography (cf. Tarp 2008).

For its purposes, this paper engages in a comparative discussion of the respective titles of the XNLU Maths and Science dictionary, one formulated by the dictionary editor and the one proposed by the publisher. This discussion highlights the conflicting motivations of the two stakeholders. While the lexicographer conceived the title taking into account the dictionary as a whole and its genuine purpose (cf. Tarp 2008), the commercial success of the prospective dictionary and purist tendencies seemed to be more prevalent on the part of the publisher. What is problematic is the fact that such success was advanced at the expense of the informative potential of the title and in a manner that would mislead some of the target users of the dictionary. Furthermore, the paper analyses titles of a few more selected dictionaries in African Languages which highlight the tensions that may arise between the fundamental aspect of lexicography, i.e. that dictionaries are functional tools that are consulted for information, and the commercial side of lexicography, which sees the success of dictionaries being measured in terms of how they sell. Besides this, the analysis shows that a lot can be learnt about the history and state of lexicography in a particular community, the user perspective, the compiler perspective and the socio-cultural factors that affect lexicography in

general. At the end, the paper provides some recommendations on how the XNLU experience could be avoided in the context of African lexicography.

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