THE PRIMACY OF SEMANTIC COMMENTS IN XITSONGA/ ENGLISH DIKIXINARI/DICTIONARY: A LEXICOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

By

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MINI - DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in

AFRICAN LANGUAGES

In the

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

(School of languages and communication studies)

at the

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

SUPERVISOR PROF R.N. MADADZHIHE

2009

DECLARATION

I, *NXALATI ANGELLAH HOSANA*, declare that the dissertation THE PRIMARY OF SEMANTIC COMMENTS IN XITSONGA/ENGLISH/DIKIXINARI/DICTIONARY / A LEXICOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS is my own work and that all the sources that I used have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

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DEDICATION

I am dedicating this dissertation to my beloved people:

1.	My dear parents	:	Jameson and Dumela Hosana
2.	My sons	:	Sagwati and Nsuku Mbedhli
3.	My sister	:	Gloria Ringani and her family
4.	My brother	:	Prince-John and his family
5.	My friends	:	Ruth Boyama and Juggie Mpoko

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My acknowledgements go to the following people

- My first supervisor, Mr. M.C Mphahlele. I appreciate your effort and encouragement you gave me to kick-start my proposal. Without your brilliant ideals and guidance I should not have started my proposal. Thank you so much. May the Heavenly Father shower you with lots of blessings.

- My Supervisor, Prof R.N Madadzhe, I really do not know how to thank you. You have been my pillar of strength through out my study. You are a man of integrity, who never loses hope with your students. May the Almighty God bless you.

- My Dad, Mom, Sesi Gloria and Malume Madala you know how difficult it was, but you always stood by my side and picked me up when I was down. *Inkomu swinene, Xikwembu a xi mi endlele hi tintswalo.*

- The support of my entire family, friends and co-students Sparks Machimana and Maggie Letswalo for their motivational inspiration during my research.

- My sons Sagwati and Nsuku let this be a challenge to you. You always gave me time to do this study, without your understanding and support this study would not have been completed.

- Above all I thank the Almighty God who gave me the strength to overcome all the obstacles I have come across during my studies

Thank you lord, U Xikwembu lexinene.

ABSTRACT

Some dictionaries are presented in such a way that their target users could not easily retrieve the required semantic information with special reference to *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005). Semantic information in the dictionary is presented unsystematically. In some cases extra-linguistic information in the form of contextual guidance is presented, which is regarded as secondary information in the place of semantic information (which is primary). The study evaluates this dictionary in terms of the primary of semantic comments in *Xitsonga/English Dictionary*. The study finds that translation equivalents are not arranged systematically in the microstructure. The research concludes that extra-linguistic information in a form of contextual guidance must be systematical used in the microstructure of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinary/Dictionary* (2005) so that dictionary users could be able to retrieve systematic information that could help them to speak the target language in a communicative functional way. This as a result will lead to communicative success.

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CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Semantic comment is all entries in a dictionary article directed at the transfer of semantic information and encyclopedic information that help a dictionary user to choose the correct translation equivalent (Mphahlele, 2001).

The main aim of a dictionary is to give dictionary users meaning regarding the lemma (i.e., any bolded lexical unit that appears as a treatment unit in the vertical position of a dictionary) (Mphahlele, 2002). Meaning is given by means of semantic information. Semantic information in a bilingual dictionary is in a form of translation equivalents. Translation equivalents are written in a target language and are referred to as target-language items. Target language items have more or less the same meaning as those in the source language.

Semantic information is primary in a dictionary whilst encyclopedic information is secondary. In this regard, Mphahlele (2001:1) states that "semantic information should be primary to encyclopedic information and the latter should always be secondary and subordinate to semantic information." According to Mphahlele (2001:5), contextual guidance is given by words or phrases, typically written in brackets, next to translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. Contextual guidance plays an important role in achieving communicative achievement to dictionary users.

Mphahlele (2001:18) correctly stresses that semantic information should be expanded with additional information regarding the use of the translation equivalents. The use of satisfactory semantic comment makes a dictionary to be user friendly. This envisaged study will focus on the analysis of semantic comment in a bilingual dictionary, specifically the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005).

1.2   BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

Many African language dictionaries are compiled in such way that their meanings are not readily available to the target users. Sometimes, translation equivalents in dictionaries are not presented in such a way that dictionary users are able to get them as quickly as possible.   For example, lexicographers will unknowingly give extra-linguistic (encyclopedic) information before even giving the semantic information.   If extra-linguistic information is presented before the meaning in a dictionary article, this causes a problem to the users because they will record extra-linguistic information as the meaning. Therefore, their search for the meaning fails. The following example from the *Xitsonga /English Dictionary* (2005:14) clearly indicates this point.

> 1. **hlambela** rien. (enambyeni) swim

It is common knowledge that a lemma is automatically followed by translation equivalent in a dictionary entry. With this reference skill in mind, the user of a dictionary will obviously regard extra-linguistic information as semantic information. In this instance (that is, example number 1), lexicographers have given additional information first and then expanded it with semantic information. They should first give semantic information then afterwards expand it with additional information regarding the use of translation equivalents. As such, lexicographers of this dictionary have failed to differentiate between meaning and contextual guidance in the part of a dictionary article, which is meant for semantic meaning. This, in turn, confuses dictionary users because they end up regarding contextual guidance (enambyeni), as the semantic meaning of the lemma "hlambela" and "swim" as extra-linguistic. This obviously results in communicative failure.

Another problem is that lexicographers seem not to know the language that is supposed to be included in the microstructure and the order thereof. Let us look at the following presentation from the same dictionary:

2. **hlangula** rien. (thyaka) erase; (mihloti) wipe (2005:14)

The presentation is inappropriate because, in this case, the contextual guidance **thyaka** and **mihloti** were given in the source language to provide meaning for "erase" and "wipe", which are in the target language. As such, this does not assist target language speakers to achieve extra-linguistic information because contextual guidance should be in English as translation equivalents. Translation equivalents "erase" and "wipe" should precede the extra-linguistic information. It is better for lexicographers to arrange equivalents as used in a target language. This means that the most frequently used translation equivalents should come first.

1.3 AIM OF THE RESEARCH

1.3.1 Aim

The aim of this study is be to analyse the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) in terms of the presentation of semantic and encyclopedic information, and to provide possible solutions that may assist lexicographers when compiling bilingual dictionaries.

1.3.2 Objectives

The objectives are as follows:

- To identify articles that have problems with presentation of contextual guidance in dictionaries;
- To investigate the principles of compiling a bilingual dictionary with special reference to semantic information and encyclopedic information;
- To determine the correct position for the extra-linguistic information in dictionaries; and
- To determine the best method of using semantic comments in bilingual dictionaries.

1.4   RATIONALE

The rationale for this study is to make lexicographers and dictionary users of bilingual dictionaries aware that they should not confuse semantic information with encyclopedic information. Should this not be taken into account, the dictionary users will end up receiving incorrect information.

1.5   SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The research will be of great significance as it will highlight the fact that semantic information should precede extra-linguistic information in bilingual dictionaries. Semantic information should always be given primary attention whilst encyclopedic information should be regarded as of secondary importance.

The study will also serve as a source of reference for researchers interested in lexicography.

1.6   METHODOLOGY

The methodology in this study describes the data collection and data strategies that have been used to illustrate and substantiate the present researcher's interpretations.

1.6.1 Qualitative Method

The method that has been used in this envisaged research is qualitative. Qualitative method is used when a research describes and examines new phenomenon. Since this research has been based on analysing the value of the primacy of semantic comment in the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005), the qualitative method has been deemed to be the most suitable one.

1.6.2   Collection of Data

In order to collect information in relation to the problem of semantic comment in the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005), the study has used the following research methods:

1.6.2.1 Primary Research Method

Relevant people in this study have been consulted through unstructured interviews. Interpersonal interaction was in the form of verbal discussion with learners, educators, members of a Lexicography Unit and language practitioners, since they are using this dictionary on a regular basis. The following people have been interviewed:

- 5 learners of public schools;
- 5 learners of private schools;
- 5 educators of public schools;
- 5 educators of private schools;
- members of the Lexicography Unit in Tivumbeni; and
- language practitioners.

Although unstructured questions have been used, some of the questions that the interviewees were asked are the following:

- Which strategies can one use to improve the designing of the *Xitsonga/ English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005)? And

- What is the impact of semantic comment on the arrangement of semantic information and extra-linguistic information in bilingual dictionaries?

1.6.2.2 Secondary Data

The main aim of this method is to focus on the information already collected by other scholars. Information has been obtained from various sources of reference such as lexicographic textbooks, journals, dissertations, theses and the Internet.

Textual analysis approach has been used to analyse the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005). This dictionary has been analysed with regard to the presentation of semantic comment. Problematic articles have been outlined and the research has provided possible solutions.

1.7   SCOPE

The research only focuses on the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005).

1.8   DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

As it is the case with every research, semantic comment as an approach in the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) also applies concepts relevant to the research. These concepts are so important that the research cannot proceed without them, and, as such, these concepts are from a variety of dictionaries. Hereunder follows the concepts that require to be defined:

1.8.1   Lemma

Kavanagh (2005:663) says that a lemma is a heading indicating the dictionary entry. According to Mphahlele (2002:23), the concept "lemma" refers to any bolded lexical, sub- lexical or multilexical unit that appears as a treatment unit in the vertical position of a dictionary. When defining lemma, Malange (2005:19) says that it is an overall list structure presented in the alphabetical list, which allows the compiler and the user to

locate information in a reference book.

With regard to the above definitions, one is entitled to say that a lemma is an entry in the macrostructure or a dictionary that is in a list of alphabetical or non-alphabetical categories usually written in bold in the left hand side of a dictionary. A lemma is an entry to which a definition (in the case of monolingual dictionaries) and translation equivalents (in the case of bilingual dictionaries) are attached.

The following presentation is an example of lemmata obtained from the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005: 15, 23,29):

	Xitsonga		English
(3)	**hosela**	-	project
	H**ukuri**	-	November
	lemuka	-	realize
	mati	**-**	water
	M**ugana**	-	Ghanaian
	ndzumulo	-	weanling

The concept lemma refers to the list of words on the left-hand side of a dictionary (macrostructures). Translation equivalents, encyclopedic information and definitions are attached to the lemma for the users to understand them.

1.8.2 Macrostructure

According to Mphahlele (2002:29), macrostructure refers to a list of alphabetical or non-alphabetical usually bold lemmata (treatment units) in a vertical position on the left hand side of the dictionary page. Macrostructure consists of the lemmata to which definitions or equivalents are attached, depending on the type of a dictionary. Macrostructure serves a fundamental role in the dictionaries. Besides the alphabetical format of presentation, macrostructure can be ordered by frequency. The following presentation is an example of a macrostructure as it appears in Section B of the *English/Xitsonga*

Dikixinari/Dictionary (2005: 142, 148, 164, 166, 167):

	English		Xitsonga
(4)	**PAYE (Pay As You Earn)**	-	khongotela
	resign	-	tshika
	religious	-	vukhongeri
	wean	-	lumula
	weep	-	rila, humesa, mihloti
	xenophobia	-	(esp to foreigners) rivengo eka tinxaka ta matiko mambe, zenofobiya
	xylophone	-	mbila, xichayachayana
	Zulu	-	(member) Muzulu, (language and culture) Xizulu

The concept macrostructure refers to the list of lemmata (words) where equivalence, definition and usage information about such headwords are attached. The bolded entries on the left hand side of dictionaries are known as macrostructure. Semantic information and encyclopedic information are attached to the macrostructure for the users to understand them.

1.8.3 Equivalence

Hartmann and James (1998:51) say that equivalence refers to the relationship between words or phrase forms of two or more languages that share the same meaning. According to Mayor (2002:405), the concept refers to the condition of two things having the same meaning. Hereunder follows examples of equivalence from the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005: 108, 121, 122, 124, 138, 143):

	English		Xitsonga
(5)	**compound**	-	komponi
	computer	-	khomphyuta

farm	-	purasi
February	-	Nyenyenyani
fly by night	-	mbavha; vumbava
navigation	-	vutluti
pan	-	pani

In the above-given presentation, lemma and its equivalence have been listed. Equivalents are classified into two, viz., complete and adoptive equivalents.

The following are examples of complete equivalents:

English		Xitsonga
(6) **February**	-	nyenyenyani
fly by night	-	vubavha
navigation	-	vutluti

Adoptive word equivalents are shown by the following examples:

English		Xitsonga
(7) **compound**	-	komponi
computer	-	khomphyuta
pan	-	pani
farm	-	purasi

The above-cited Xitsonga lexical items are equivalents.

1.8.4 Microstructure

Mphahlele (2002:31) says that only information that comes after the lemma in the article of a dictionary reflects pronunciation, circumflex, labeling, definitions, usage examples, etc., about the lemma. Such information is microstructure. Microstructure of a

dictionary is found on the right-hand side of a dictionary page (macrostructure). It consists of speech, pronunciation, definition and translation equivalents. The microstructure of dictionaries is not the same, it depends on the type of a dictionary.

Let us look at the following examples of microstructure of a bilingual dictionary by Cuenod (1991: 84, 85, 149, 151, 195):

	Xistonga		English
(8)	**landzela**	-	follow after
	letela	-	beach, join, advice, exhort
	nyanisa	-	affirm, certify
	nyukisa	-	melt, smelt
	tintwela	-	(no sing) organ of hearing, internal part of ear, eaves-dropping, an overhearing of what was not intended for one.

Microstructure of a bilingual dictionary consists of translation equivalents. Microstructure of a monolingual dictionary is illustrated by the following examples by Bernard (1996: 17, 49, 93,159):

(9)　　**artery** *noun* **(arteries)** a blood vessel that carries blood away from the heart to other parts of the body: *The aorta is the largest* **artery** *in the body*

　　calculator *noun* **(calculations)** something that you work out by using numbers: *We would arrive in Manzini in two hours according to his* **Calculatio***n.*

　　delegate *noun* **(delegates)** a person who represents a group of people: *The company sent a* **delegate** *to the conference*

> **green** *adjective 1.* Having the colour of grass: Cabbage, peas and beans ***are green***
>
> ***Vegetables 2.*** not ripe**:** *Yusuf ate **green** peaches and he had a*
>
> *stomach-ache. He should have waited until they were ripe*

The information on the right-hand side of the lemma is a microstructure.

1.8.5   Semantic Information

According to Kirkpatrick (1992:361), semantics is the area of linguistics concerned with meaning. Gouws (1999:7) holds that semantic information is usually regarded as the most dominant microstructural category in both descriptive and translation dictionaries. For Mphahlele (2002:41), semantic information is definition, equivalent, or any information found in a microstructure of a dictionary regarding the meaning of a lemma. Semantic information in a bilingual dictionary may be in a form of translation equivalent, or an explanation of sense in a word or phrase.

The following examples from the *Xitsonga/English Dictionary* (1991): indicate the point mentioned above (191: 195, 227, 244, 256):

	Xitsonga	English
(10)	**tisúngá,**	commit suicide by hanging oneself
	tiva,	*pool,* lake
	xibakabaka,	*expanse* (sea, sky), immensity, infinity
	xiphèphèrhèlè	flat object, slab, disc; (mod) gramophone record
	zànkòsì	handcuffs

In the above example phrases, translation equivalents or any information regarding the meaning of a headword is regarded as semantic information.

1.8.6   Encyclopedic Information

According to Mphahlele (2002:2), encyclopedic information is the extra-linguistic information found in the microstructure of a dictionary. Encyclopedic information helps dictionary users to understand the lemmata in dictionaries. When problematic items have been presented in dictionaries, encyclopedic information should be added for the users' benefit.

Let us look at the following examples from Bernard's *South African Dictionary* (1996: 97,141, 179, 239, 282):

(11) **force** *verb* (forces; forcing; forced) 1. to make somebody do something they do not want to do: *The police forced the robbers to give up their guns.* 2. to use your strength to break something: *The burglars forced the door open.*

foreground *noun* the part of the front of a picture: The people in the **foreground** of the painting seem larger than the trees in the background.

hover *verb* (a **hovers**, hovering; hovered) to stay in one place in the air: *The vultures hovered over the dying zebra. Birds and insects **hover** by moving their wings very fast*.

Multi-choice *adjective* having more than one answer to chose from. In a **multiple – choice** exam**;** you are given a list of possible answers to each question and you have to choose the correct answer; *The History teacher gave the pupils a **multi-purpose** exam. They had to tick the correct answer to each question.*

poke *verb* (pokes; poking; poked) to push something hard with something pointed; *Mapula **poked** her finger in my eyes. Thabo **poked** the fire to make it burn faster**.***

Information is given immediately after a translation equivalent. The following examples from Cuenod (1996:97, 192) clarify the point:

màtshán'wéni (from – tshama) usually – *ya,* sometimes – *ka,* instead of ; as
to, with respect to. *U tisile maribye – ya sava*, you brought stones
instead of sand.- *ya mhaka leyi…*as to this matter.
thákáthàkà, move arms and legs, as baby lying on its back; (fig) *munhu loyi a*
nga thakathaki, he is so lazy he does not move a limb.

1.8.7   Translation Equivalent Paradigm

Mphahlele (2002:50) defines translation equivalent paradigm as a position in a translation or bilingual dictionary wherein translation equivalents are found. With regard to the above-given definition, one may say that translation equivalent paradigm is regarded as an information that is found in the microstructure whereby information regarding the headword is found.

The following examples illustrate the above-mentioned point:

	English		Xitsonga
(12)	**today**	-	namuntlha
	tomorrow	-	mundzuku
	pen	-	xitsalo
	leg	-	nenge
	wean	-	lumula
	week	-	vhiki
	wednesday	-	Ravunharhu

The equivalents in the target language (i.e., Xitsonga) in the above-mentioned examples are referred to as translation equivalent paradigm.

1.8.8 Contextual Guidance

According to Mphahlele (2001:5), contextual guidance is given by means of words or phrases typically written in brackets next to each translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. Regarding contextual guidance, Kavanagh (2005:249) says that this refers to the parts that immediately precede and follow a word or passage and clarify the meaning. Contextual guidance serves as an important purpose in a bilingual dictionary, because it assists the user to choose the adequate translation equivalent from a translation equivalent paradigm.

Let us look at the following examples:

	Xitsonga	English
(13)	**hlanta**	vomit, give birth (dogs, pigs etc)
	hlantswa	wash (cloth)
	hola	earn (money); heal (illness)
	humurisa	adjourn (meeting)
	ntswalo	interest (money)

1.8.9 Semantic Comment

According to Mphahlele (2002:50) semantic comment is a position in a translation or bilingual dictionary where translation equivalents are found. Gouws (1999:24) postulates that all entries in a dictionary article, directed at the transfer of semantic information, have to assist the user in his attempt to choose the most correct translation equivalents. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:151) comment on this by stating that, on semantics in a general bilingual dictionary, the focus is on the items presenting translation equivalents for word represented by the lemma sign. Semantic comment in bilingual dictionaries are items that give linguistic information and, where necessary, encyclopedic information is presented to enable dictionary-users to understand a lemma.

The following examples from the *English – Xitsonga Pocket Dictionary* (1995:140, 147, 162, 163, 185) illustrates the point:

(14) **kutsula**; redeem, ransom, save; - *kutsula xuma,* ask for the return of the
            lobola.
    masworhi, squint, suspicious look; *u ni masworhi*, he squints
    nhlengelo, sum (total)
    nkhwati, stroke (mark)
    susumeta, Push forward, incite, urge, dash, induce, move, press, propel;
            susumeta handle, eject – *susumeta endzeni*, push in; - *susumetela*
            push; susumetela mahlweni; push on, spur

Information on the right-hand side (i.e., the microstructure), which is concerned with giving translation equivalents and additional information, is referred as semantic comment.

1.8.10 Communicative Embarrassment

Regarding the above, Mphahlele (2002:6) refers to an inability to communicate in an appropriate way, especially after consulting a translation dictionary. Communication embarrassment is caused by many factors, such as cultural-bound lexical items, unsystematically recording of meaning as non-meaning, etc.

Hereunder follows examples of communicative embarrassment from the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:15).

(15)   **hlomisa**   (nsati) bride
       humesa khwiri   (vanhu*)* miscarry
       mutereki   (ntirho) striker

From the above-given example, a target language learner may confuse meaning with non-meaning. The user may think that **nsati** is an equivalent of **hlomisa** and **bride** a meaning of **hlomisa**. This causes communication embarrassment.

1.8.11 Target Language

According to Fromkin and Rodman (1993:520), the concept target language refers to the language into which the source language is translated. Hartmann and James (1998:137) say that it is the language into which a source language word or text is to be translated. In a translation dictionary, target language is regarded as the user's language. It appears on the right-hand side of the lemma. Target language items assist a dictionary user to understand what the source language items refer to since they are presented in their mother language.

The following examples adequately illustrate the above point from the *Xitsonga English Pocket Dictionary* (1995: 65, 97, 103, 105):

	English	Xitsonga
(16)	**physcian,**	n'anga
	pestle,	musi
	thirsty,	torha
	thwart, v,	-karhata, - sivela
	untidy, be -, v, - mpfhumpfha	
	vermin,	xilumi

In the above-mentioned examples, target language refers to the Xitsonga equivalents when compared to the English (i.e., source language) words. Target language refers to the source language words that are translated into other language.

1.8.12 Source Language

Fromkin and Rodman (1993:519) say that source language is the language being translated. Kipfer (1984:185) defines source language as the language of the entry in the translation dictionary. Let us look at the following examples *Xitsonga/English Pocket Dictionary* (1995:106, 118, 119, 121):

	English	Xitsonga
17.	**cease**	yima
	cheat	kanganyisa, furunyuka
	ethos	mintolovelo
	extract	tsavula
	follow	landzela, twisisa
	formal	- mafundza, - ximfuno

Lemmas **cease, cheat, ethos, extract, follow, formal** in the above-cited example in the macrostructure are in English, and English is regarded as a source language in this case. Source language can be referred to as a language of the text that is to be translated into another language (target language).

1.8.13 Bilingual Dictionary

Zgusta (1971:294) says the basic purpose of a bilingual dictionary is to coordinate with the lexical units of another language which are equivalent in their lexical meaning. According to Mphahlele (2002:4) bilingual dictionary is a dictionary that supplies the source language forms (lemmata) with the target language equivalents.

With regard to the foregoing definitions, one is entitled to say that a bilingual dictionary is a dictionary that consists of a source language that is being translated into a target language. Source language is in the macrostructure while target language item or

equivalents are in the right–hand side.

Hereunder follows examples of a bilingual dictionary from the *Xitsonga-English Pocket Dictionary* (1995:147, 163, 183, 185):

	Xitsonga	English
18.	**matheveni**	hornbill
	masuso	origin
	nkava	navel, umbilicus
	nkata	spouse; wife
	savasi	desert
	simula	uproot, take out of the ground
	swimilana	plants, seedlings
	swim'we	together

1.8.14 Dictionary Article

With regard to dictionary article, Mphahlele (2002:11) holds that it is the combination of microstructure and macrostructure of a dictionary, i.e., the lemma and its definition or equivalents. A dictionary article is the information that appears on both sides of a dictionary (i.e., micro and macrostructure). This refers to a lemma with information regarding the lemma (viz., semantic meaning and non-meaning).

The examples below from *Xitsonga – English Pocket Dictionary* (1995:164, 191, 192, 214) will clearly indicate the point:

	Xitsonga	English
19.	**nkosikazi,**	lady; queen, princess
	nkuxe,	algae, moss
	toloki,	interpreter
	tsalangana,	be apart, spaced

yingwe,   leopard, tiger

A lemma, together with all information, give translation equivalents or definition with extra-lingual or without extra-linguistic, information regarded as a dictionary article.

1.8.15 Communicative Success

According to Mphahlele (2002:6) communicative success is a condition of communicating successfully after a translation dictionary.

Malange (2005:31) says communicative success is realized after users understand the presented lemma with its encyclopedic information defined sufficiently in the translation dictionary. Below are examples of communicative success from Cuenod (1991:89, 116, 240, 115, 120, 229):

20. **madambi**   witchcraft allegedly causing bad luck, misfortune, sickness.

    musumo   part of any good thing, as of meat killed or beer brewed, which is sent to one's chief in token or homage, such portion being his perquisite acc. To custom, portion sent to superior.

    xincayicayi   dance in which the men and girls form lines facing each other.

    mukon'wana   kinship term for person with whom there is a link by marriage e.g. wife's father, his brother and wife, daughter's and sister's

1.8.16 Transliteration

According to Hartmann and James (1998:147) transliteration is the representation or words written in alphabetic script by means of another language.

Regarding the concept transliteration Mphahlele (2002:50) states that it is a formation of equivalents from the source language by borrowing and pronouncing the source words as they are in a borrowing language.

In many instances, transliterated items do not assist the target users of a dictionary because users are not always conversant with the source language lemmata. The following examples adequately illustrate the above point:

	English		Xitsonga
21.	**spinach**	-	xipinachi
	calcium	-	khalixiyamu
	plastic	-	pulasitiki
	potassium	-	poteziyamu
	oven	-	ovhene
	oats	-	osti
	oxygen	-	okisijini

Translation equivalents in the above presentation do not assist or give meaning to the target language user as they have been retained as they are except that there has been morphological adaptation from English to Xitsonga.

1.8.17 Low degree of translatability

Mphahlele (2002:28) defines low degree of translatability as a situation where a lemma cannot clearly and fully be translated into the target language by a lexical item. Low degree of translatability usually occurs when source language word is borrowed from either on English or Afrikaans language (source) and transliterated into Xitsonga as a target language.

Transliterated lexical items show a low degree of translatability and resemble the form of source language item. This displays a problem of Zero equivalence where there is no

direct translation equivalent.

Below are examples of low degree of translatability.

	English		Xitsonga
22.	**thermometer**	-	themometa
	barometer	-	barameta
	laboratory	-	laborotari
	chemist	-	khemisi
	technology	-	thekinologi
	mill oven	-	makhuro-ovheni
	telephone	-	telefoni

1.8.18 Cross referencing

According to Mphahlele (2001:77) the concept cross-referencing refers to a lexicographic procedure where the lexicographer refers the user from the references position to the reference address.

When applying cross referencing, the compiler of a dictionary should make sure that a synonym lemma which is frequently used should   receive cross referencing for example:

23.	**movha**	-	motorcar
	golonyi	-	*See* movha
	x**ipandzamananga**	-	*See* movha
24.	**khomela**	-	c*ompare* rivalela
	rivalela	-	excuse, forget, pardon

In the above examples 23, and 24 *movha* and *rivalela* are most frequently used than the synonym pair *golonyi, xipandzamananga*; and *khomela* receive cross-referencing.

1.8.19 Reference marker

When defining a referent, Mphahlele (2002:38) refers to a word used in cross-referencing to point the article located elsewhere in a dictionary or even outside the dictionary.

There are types of reference markers, that is, **see** and **compare**. The reference marker **see** should be used to indicate cross reference of complete synonyms, where synonym pairs have one to one semantic relation, for example:

	Xitsonga		English
25.	**bindzimuxa**	-	ruin
	bindzimuxa	-	s*ee* bindzimuxa
26.	**khomela**	-	s*ee* rivalela
	rivalela	-	excuse, forgive, pardon

In a case of partial synonyms, the reference marker **compare** should always be used. This means that synonym pairs (partial) are compared to one another. Let us look at the following examples:

	Xitsonga		English
27.	**ndhawu**	-	place, scene, venue, zone
	muganga	-	village, zone *compare* ndhawu
	xivandla	-	area *compare* ndhawu
	hlawuleke	-	outstanding *compare* saseka
28.	**saseka**	-	beautiful
	xiyimo xa le hendha	-	elegant *compare* saseka

1.8.20 Polysemous lexical items

Mphahlele (2002:37) defines polysemous lexical items as one word with various meaning distinctions that are more or less related to each other. The following examples are from Hartshone et al (983: 539, 540, 541).

		English		Xitsonga
29.	**C54 Carpet**	-	topita/ khumba
	C57 Carry	-	rhwala, tlakula
	C71 Catch	-	khoma, gharulela, amukela
	C80 Cavity	-	nkele, ncele, mbova, goji
	C148 Chop	-	pandzela, tsemelela, kangandzela

Translation equivalents given above are related to each other, but they cannot replace each other in any context. This is why they are called polysemous lexical items.

1.8.21 Synonym translation equivalents

According to Mphahlele (2002:1) synonym translation equivalents are translation equivalents that have the same meaning and such synonym translation equivalents can replace each other in many contexts. These equivalents are more or less semantically related. The following are examples of synonym translation equivalents. Let us look at the following examples of synonym translation equivalents as supplied by Hartshone et al (1983:609, 608, 596, 641):

		English	Xitsonga
30.	**R81**	**reel**	njara, harani, ntambu
	R108	**religion**	vugandzeri, ripfumelo, vukhongeri
	R113	**remember**	tsundzuka, khumbula
	R121	**repeat**	engeta - vuyela
	R77	**pawpaw**	papawa, payipayi
	Y6	**yell**	kalakala, cema, hokoloka

The above examples in Xitsonga are synonym translation equivalents because they are more or less semantically related.

1.8.22 Lexicographic labels

Feinauer (1999:35) defines a lexicographic label as a dictionary entry that performs as a marker to indicate the restriction of the lemma or another micro-structural element regarding its style, field or application acceptability. The lexicographic labels are used as micro-structural elements. To indicate their restriction let us look at the following examples: (Della, 1995:1907, 482, 340,98)

31. **worship** - 2 **yours/his worship** *formal* used to talk to or
About a public officials such as MAYOR or MAGISTRATE.

worse - **worse for wear** also the **worse for drink** Bre
*informa*l drunk

drops - small amount (usually singular) *informal* a small amount of inguld that you drink, especially

con.tra.in.di.ca.tion - *n medical* a medical reason for not giving someone a particular medicine or drug.

Ba.ke.lite - *n* (u) trademarker a hard plastic used especially in the 1930 and 1940s to make things such as telephones and radios (1995:98).

In the above article "formal," "informal", "medical" and "trade maker" are lexicographic labels.

1.8.23 Pragmatic information

According to Mphahlele (2002:37), pragmatic information refers to extra-linguistic information in a dictionary that shows how, where and when should the particular lemma be used. Usage examples and lexicographic labels are the examples of pragmatic information.

Let us look at the following usage examples in Makwele (2005:27)

	Northen sotho		English
32.	**bolelela**	-	talk (news), speak (lies)
	eiye	-	onion (for cooking)
	penta	-	paint (walls)
	bega	-	report (scandal)

The following words "news", "lies" "for cooking" "walls" and "scandal" are usage examples.

1.8.24 Structural markers

Mphahlele (2001:44) defines lexicographics markers such as commas and semicolons as aspects that serve a lexicographic function in the microstructure of the dictionary. According to Al–Kasimi (1977:70), synonyms or near synonyms are separated by commas and different meanings (Polysemy) by semicolons. This means that commas (,) and semicolons (;) are used lexicographically to separate translation equivalents as illustrated below:

	English		Xitsonga
33.	**thread**	-	harana, njara
	mate	-	sangu, xitheve

Translation equivalents given above have been separated by a comma to indicate that they can replace each other in any context.

On the other hand, a semicolon should be used to separate polysemous translation equivalents for example:

	Xitsonga		English
34.	**nyangwa**	-	passage; entrance; gate
	tshinya	-	order; direct; instruct; lay down the rule

In (34) above, translation equivalents have been separated by a semicolon to indicate that there is no one to one semantic relation.

The different microstructure items in the translation profile have to display the necessary interaction so as to promote article internal cohesion in the semantic information. Semantic information in a dictionary is part and parcel of the semantic comment, this means that both semantic information and contextual guidance play an equal role in the microstructure of a dictionary. Translation equivalents and contextual guidance help users achieve communicative success.

1.9   ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 serves as the introduction of the study.

Chapter 2 deals with literature review.

Chapter 3 concentrates on scanning the arrangement of micro-structural elements in dictionary *(Xitsonga /English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005).

Chapter 4 focuses on presentation of general information about extra-linguist information.

Chapter 5 gives a summary on the primacy of semantic comments.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

For one to describe the role of semantic comment in a bilingual dictionary, it is important and imperative to understand the role of semantic information and encyclopedic information. This chapter therefore introduces a discussion of theories on the influence of semantic comment in a bilingual dictionary.

2.2   THEORIES ON THE INFLUENCE OF SEMANTIC COMMENT

2.2.1   Gouws (1999)

According to Gouws (1999:24), all entries in a dictionary article should help the dictionary users to select the correct translation equivalents. Gouws (1999:24) stresses that such articles "need a higher degree of information density in a semantic comment". Gouws (199:24) further says that: "where lexical divergence prevails; the lack of contextual guidance is interpreted as a relation of absolute synonymy that exists between the members of the target language synonym paradigm."

This means that contextual guidance's role is to distinguish translation equivalents that are not well known to target language users of a dictionary. In other words, the use of contextual guidance makes the user to be able to understand the translation equivalent. Lack of contextual guidance in a dictionary is problematic in articles showing an equivalent relation of semantic divergence. To elaborate on this, Gouws (1999:24) gives an example of the lemma "business" as follows:

business 1 one's regular occupation, profession or trade. **2** a thing that is one's

concern. **3a** a task or duty. **b** a reason for coming. **4** serious work or activity. **5** derog. **a** an affair, a matter. **b** a structure. 6 a thing or series of things needing to be dealt with. **7** buying and selling, trade. **8** a commercial house or firm. **9** theater. action on stage. **10** a difficult matter.

Looking at these entries convinces one of the fact that these senses are related, but they cannot replace each other in any communicative context. Although target language forms are translation equivalents of related senses of one source-language lexical item, it does not mean that the different target-language forms have mutual semantic relation, for example:

Spoor footprint, footmark, hoof – mark, print, trail, scent, line, rail, sign, trace, clue, track, rut (of vehicle); slot (of deer); spur; foil (of game).

(Gouws, 1999:25)

According to Gouws (1999) lexical items from the target language that have not been included in the same target synonym paradigm cannot, without further ado, be considered as semantically related. Gouws (1999:26) continues to state that:

The SL form is the locus of semantic relatedness and without
knowledge of the semantic diversity of the language form and
it is almost impossible to establish semantic relation between
certain forms of a target language forms presented as translation
equivalent of some lemma.

In the above-given article, the lemma "spoor" and lexical items *print, railway* and *spur* would hardly ever be grouped together. Thus, contextual guidance by means of glosses should be used more often.

Gouws (1999:26) further indicates that the principle of meaning discrimination in descriptive dictionaries has to be replaced by a principle of equivalence in a translation dictionary, and that equivalent discrimination can be applied successfully in translation dictionaries if semantic comment is expanded substantially. This means that contextual guidance should be used to explain the presented equivalents for the users to comprehend what the lemma means.

2.2.2   Mphahlele (2001)

According to Mphahlele (2001), a dictionary article has to contain information on the usage of words and there has to be a clear indication of the linguistic context in which the translation equivalents can occur in a typical occurrence. Mphahlele (2001:6) states that: "additional entries are very important in a microstructure of a translation equivalent because every translation equivalent in a translation equivalent paradigm cannot replace a lemma in all contexts".

He continues to state that semantic equivalence and communicative equivalence have to be obtained in the lexicographic procedure of coordinating source and target language forms. Mphahlele (2001) indicates that, to achieve communicative success, the user must choose a way to substitute the source language form without the loss of semantic, register and usage information.

In addition, Mphahlele stresses that semantic comment on a bilingual dictionary should not be limited to the mere listing of translation equivalents. For the benefit of a dictionary user to make good choices of equivalents for a specific context, additional information is needed and is important. Translation dictionaries that consist of glosses are abandoned by their users because they have to seek other information elsewhere. The primary function of dictionaries should be restored by compiling dictionaries that have entries giving contextual guidance in the semantic comment. This means that a good dictionary should have semantic information that will be expanded by extra-linguistic information.

2.2.3.   Al–Kasimi (1977)

Al-Kasimi (1979) indicates that semantic problems involved in bilingual dictionaries are not the same as those in monolingual dictionaries. This is the case because, on the one hand, monolingual dictionaries are prepared for people who understand the culture that is

being described. On the other hand, a bilingual dictionary describes a culture that is different from the culture of the dictionary users.

Translations of entry words are in two types, namely, translation equivalents and explanatory equivalents. Bilingual dictionaries should provide meaning discriminations so as to enable a user to select the appropriate equivalent. Al-kasimi (1977:68) illustrates it thus: "Unless the meaning discrimination is solved systematically, [a] bilingual dictionary cannot be [a] dependable guide to the proper equivalents." He adds that meaning discrimination depends on whether the dictionary is meant for comprehension or production, and whether it is intended for speakers of a source language or target language. This implies that it is important to supply equivalence with explanation on how the equivalent can be used in a context.

Regarding meaning, Al-kasimi (1977) is of the opinion that such can be achieved by using one of the following devices: Punctuation, definitions, synonyms, Illustrative examples, Part of Speech, usage labels and context word or phrase. Furthermore, meaning discrimination is crucial in a dictionary and Al-Kasim (1977:72) presents it as follows:

> Meaning discrimination is presented in target language in both sides of bi-directional dictionary;
>
> Meaning discrimination is presented in the source language in both sides of bi-directional dictionary;
>
> Meaning discrimination is presented in the same language in both sides of bi-directional dictionary; and
>
> Meaning discrimination is presented in both languages in both sides of bi-directional dictionary.

Lastly, Al-kasimi (1977:73) indicates that:

> A dictionary should serve one purpose only (either production or
> comprehension) and one speakers only (either the speakers of the
> source language or speakers of the target languages) one can well

understand the meaning discrimination should be provided in the source language if the dictionary is intended for the speakers of the source language and in the target language if the dictionary is meant for the speakers of the target language.

This envisaged research will disagree with Al-kasimi's recommendation as given above because, in a bilingual dictionary, semantic comments should be in a target language only, in order for a dictionary user to achieve communication success.

2.2.4   Gouws and Prinsloo (2005)

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:151) say that "the learner sign functions as guiding element and main treatment unit of the article and all the data entries in the article have been positioned in either the comment on form or the comment on semantics". The comment on form of a dictionary has the following information: items giving the pronunciation of a word; morphological data; and spelling as indicated by the lemma sign. In a bilingual dictionary, focus is on the items presenting translation equivalents for word represented by the lemma sign. The comment on semantics in translation dictionary should make provision for a treatment procedure that has all the polysemous senses of a lexical item in its scope.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:151) further says that "polysemy is a word specific feature which implies that for a polysemous word in the source language one will not necessarily find a target language translation equivalent with exactly the same polysemous senses." In such cases, lexicographers have to provide a translation equivalent for each one of the polysemous senses of the lemma. Lexicographers have to make sure that a target user of a given dictionary can achieve a successful retrieval of information from the translation equivalent paradigm. This means that for all translation equivalents that are polysemous, each word should be accompanied by extra-linguistic information. This will enable users to get what is required for them.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) indicate that translation equivalents should not be taken as

entries giving the meaning of the lemma, but they should be taken as target-language lexical items that may be used to substitute the source-language item in a specific situation. As a result, the translation equivalents may be determined by the context of the source-language item. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:153) say that: "It is of extreme importance that the lexicographic treatment presented in a bilingual dictionary may not leave the translation equivalents isolated from their typical contexts." This shows that if entries are not provided as part of the lexicographic treatment, dictionary users will be at a loss in their attempt to retrieve information that can lead them to successfully use the target language form.

2.2.5 Mavoungou (2001)

According to Mavoungou (2001:128), microstructure includes some data, for example, paraphrase of meaning, translation equivalent and examples. Mavoungou (2001:28) gives an example of the lemma *nkor* as follows:

> **Nkor** courbe. Adj crochu, replié. Ambigu, tortueux, *nkor osu*.
> Rivière à méanders. *nkor ntem*. branche recourbée,
> *nkor adzu.*affaire ambiguë.

Mavoungou (2001) stresses that translation-equivalent paradigm appears immediately after the item giving the form of the lemma sign; the relevant examples in a source language (in italics) as well as translation equivalent in source language. The item giving the Part of Speech (Adj) is not addressed at the translation equivalent "crochu".

Mavoungou (2001) further says that the target language examples are addressed as the source language competence examples. By so doing, the source language examples became treatment units or new topic within the article. This indicates that lexicographers often fail to provide the dictionary users with a useful entry. He further indicates that, immediately after the item giving the form of the lemma sign, the user is provided with a mere list of translation equivalents, and this is not acceptable because the manner in

which an item is lemmatized should give an account of its morphological status. This means that a dictionary article should display micro and macro structural data. Lexicographers have to employ structural markers to indicate different contexts in which a lemma sign can possibly occur.

2.2.6 Mafela (2005)

According to Mafela (2005), a bilingual dictionary consists of two cultures as it deals with the translation of lemma from the source language to the target language. As such, a bilingual dictionary serves both target language and source language speakers. This is the reason why a bilingual dictionary is essential to students, travelers and linguists. He continues to say that a dictionary user would like to know the meaning of foreign language words in the entries and it will, therefore, be important to provide information on how these foreign language words differ in meaning.

Mafela (2005) indicates that the lack of inclusion of meaning discrimination impedes the user to choose the most appropriate equivalent in case of entries having more than one equivalent each. He further suggests that a lexicographer has to complement the translation equivalents with necessary additional information because, without additional information, it would be difficult for a dictionary user to select the correct equivalent. Meaning discrimination, in this case, helps to observe differences between meanings of equivalents of the same entry word.

According to Mafela (2005), the extra-linguistic information will enable dictionary users to interpret the meaning of utterances in the context in which they are made. He stresses that, to achieve meaning discrimination, additional information can be supplied in many ways, such as providing short definitions of equivalents; indicating parts of speech; giving context word and phrases; and adding etymology; usage of labels and illustrative examples. A bilingual dictionary should provide meaning discrimination that will help users to choose the adequate equivalent. Unless the problem of meaning discrimination is solved systematically, bilingual dictionaries cannot be a "dependable guide to proper

equivalent". This means that the primary function of a dictionary is to capture the user's interest by giving the word in a context. The user can understand the grammatical and semantic rules governing the usage of a word, by showing rules in action.

2.2.7 Gouws (1999)

According to Gouws (1999:9), the importance of semantic information and its central position in the article structure of a translation dictionary arguments that the lemma and the translation profile have to be obligatory components of each article. Translation profile includes translation equivalents. This includes context guidance and illustrative materials. The following example is given by Gouws (1999:10):

> **plooi,** fold, furl wrinkle (face); crease (trouser) meat,
> gathering (skirt).

According to Gouws (1999), in the above-mentioned article "plooi," the entries **face**, **trouser** and **skirt** are given within parenthesis immediately after the relevant translation equivalents. This thus means that Gouws has provided semantic information as primary and encyclopedic information as secondary. Gouws (1999:9) further arguments thus:

> That the translation profile has to be regarded as a compulsory
> component of the dictionary article, and this includes entries
> like context guidance and illustrative examples, has direct
> implications for practicing lexicographer and dictionary.

This means that all information in the microstructures of a dictionary is regarded as equally important because it helps both lexicographers and dictionary users.

2.2.8. Svense'n (1993)

According to Svense'n (1993:145) comments have an important role in the discrimination of meaning that is, guiding the user towards the correct equivalent. In

order to describe the lack of agreement between the source and target language, one must add certain distinctive features on the side where the meaning range is wider.

Svense'n (1993) states that a very common method of discriminating meaning in active dictionaries is by means of synonyms of the headword. Hereunder are examples of the usage synonyms of the lemma as supplied meaning by Svense'n (1993:146):

Figure *n* **I** (*number*) chiffre **2**. (*diagram*) figure   **3**. (*shape*) form

This method is the most unusual for homographs:

1. **Genalt** *m* (*Inhalt*) content
2. **Gehat** *n* (*Brzahlung*) salary

Meaning can also be discriminated by means of superodinate concepts:

Menager *V.tr*   **1.** (*Utiliser*) be sparing in the use of
                of **2.** (*organizer*) prepare carefully

The same method can be applied to homographs:

1. **Siren** *f* (appareil) Siren
2. **Siren** *f* (femme) mermaid

If a suitable superordinate concept is not found, one can provide examples of various possible subordinates concepts. This shows that if primary information is given and is not enough then usage examples have to be supplied in order to help a dictionary user.

Encyclopedic Information

Svense'n (1993:147) further indicates that for culture specific items, it may be necessary

to discriminate the meaning by means of encyclopedic information. Svense'n gives the

following examples: -

> **advokat** (*allegem*) lawyer; (*amerik*) attorneys; (*brit*: der nicht or honereen Gerechteh auftreken kann) Solicitor*; (brit:* der auch vor hoheren Gerichten auftreten und zum Richter ernannt werden kann) barrister.

> **erbschaftssateur** (brit) death duty; (1894-1975) estate duty; (1975-86) *etwa*.Capital transfer tax; (1986) inheritance tax (amerik) estate tax; death tax, inheritance tax.

Bilingual Dictionaries

Svense'n (1993:164) stresses that, the meaning is represented not by definitions or paraphrases but by target languages counterpart in the expressional aspects. This means that no further information will be needed about the word. In some instances this principle does not apply. Equivalents may be only partial and in this case the meaning must be more specific and encyclopedic information should be given.

It is usual to say that encyclopedic definitions should give no more information than is needed by the relevant communication situation. Svense'n (1993:104) further says that no one has expressed this better than the Fowler brothers in their preface of the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*:

> This book is designed as a dictionary, and not as an encyclopedia
> that is the uses of words and phrases as such are its subject matter,
> and it is concerned with giving information about the things for
> which those words and phrases stand only so far as correct use of
> one word depends upon knowledge of these things.

Although the Fowlers manifesto relates to a monolingual dictionary, it can as well serve as an aim in bilingual dictionaries.

Passive dictionaries

In passive dictionaries, the encyclopedic component is more significant on the target-language side. The word and expressions of the source language arise in a cultural milieu and in a conceptual system, which is foreign to the user, and a bare equivalently however, complete, is sometimes not enough. This shows that in order to arrive at correct understanding of a given text, the user often needs further explanations.

The most important kind of encyclopedic supplementary information naturally relates to culture-specific matters, for instance weights and measures:

> **ligne** *f* line (2:256mm)

Metaphor and metonymy are often explained in this way:

> **pleitegeier** *m*   threat of bankruptcy (symbolized by a vulture)
> **quai** d orsay1   Paris Street where French foreign office is situated
> 　　　　　　　11 the French Foreign Office.

The following are examples on the borderline of etymology, and one can indeed question whether the comments are justifiable in a translation – orientation dictionary:

> **midinette** *f* young working girl, esp seamastree (who leaves
> work at midday).

> **leporello** *n*   long strip or paper folded concertina wise (after
> 　　　　　　　the long catalogue of amours recited by Don Glovanni's
> 　　　　　　　Servant Leporello in Mozart's opera)

Svense'n also stresses that the important information regarding connotations can also be

given by means of added encyclopedic information:

> **gubburgerliche kuche** *f* good plain cooking (implying
>
> quantity rather than refinement, as supposedly typical
>
> of the bourgeoisie)

Active Dictionaries

The user of the active dictionary will usually see the non-linguistic component from the context (factual and linguistic) within the translation to be made Svense'n (1993:165). The encyclopedic component has its main function on the target language side at discrimination meanings where there is vast of equivalents.

2.2.9   Mpofu (2001)

According to Mpofu (2001), in compiling a bilingual dictionary, lexicographers are mostly concerned with semantic equivalent. As a result, the practice of bilingual dictionary compilers is usually that of giving one word equivalent. This equivalent is at times difficult to arrive at because of disparities and incommensurability between languages and culture.

A bilingual dictionary, then, is one where two languages are used, one for the lemma and the other for the glosses. In case of Xitsonga – English dictionaries, the lemmas are in Xitsonga and the glosses in English, Examples from *Xitsonga–English Pocket Dictionary* (1995:198):

> r**hanga,** begin, start, be or go ahead, precede,
>
>   preliminary; *swo rhanga*, former
>
> **rhanga** – kind of pumkin, turnip
>
> **rharhambula**, scraten , tear
>
> **rhelela**, go down hill, descend, come down
>
> **rhelela**, plan

> **rhukubya**, swelling, bruise, blister, scald
>
> **rhumba**, boil, suppurating tumour.

According to Mpofu (2001:243) a minimally acceptable translation is one where the surface meaning of a SL and TL are approximately similar and also one that preserves the structures of the source language. This means that, the ideal in translation is to achieve structural and semantic equivalence. It is obvious that absolute equivalence between any two languages, however, is rare. The reason for this is that one is dealing with languages with different structures and socio-cultural setting.

Mpofu (2001:243) indicates that semantic problems involved in bilingual dictionaries are more complicated than those in monolingual ones because the latter (monolingual dictionaries) are written for people who participate in and understand the culture being described, whereas the former (bilingual dictionaries) describe a culture which differs from that of the users.

Mpofu (2001:243) highlights that the major task of a bilingual lexicographer is to find appropriate equivalents but in some cases, the entries take the form of explanatory or descriptive equivalents as exemplified in the *Xitsonga – English Pocket Dictionary* (1995:146):

> **makwakwa** (pl) fruits of the *nkwankwa*
>
> **malokazi**, a certain female person
>
> **mangava**, extraordinary happening, iniquity

2.2.10 Bullon (1995)

Bullon (1995:5) highlights three classifications or labels in dictionaries.

Labels

1   **Words which are used only or mainly in one region or country are marked:**

BrE   British English

AmE   American English

AusE   Austrilian English

2   **Words which are used in a particular situation, or show a particular attitude:**

formal   a word that is suitable for formal speech or writing, but would not normally be used in ordinary conversation.

informal   a word or phrase that is used in normal conversation, but may not be suitable for use in more formal contexts, for example in writing essays or business letters.

humorous a word that is normally used in a joking way.

3   **Words which are used in a particular context or type of language:**

biblical   a word that is used in the language of the Bible, and would sound old-fashioned to a modern speaker.

law   a word with a technical meaning used by lawyers, in legal documents.

literary   a word used mainly in English literature, and not in normal speech or writing.

medical   a word or phrase that is more likely to be used by doctors than ordinary people, and that often has a more common equivalent.

not polite a word or phrase that is considered rude, and that might offend some people.

old-fashioned a word that was commonly used in the past, but would sound old-fashioned today.

old use   a word used in earlier centuries.

spoken   a word or phrase used only, or nearly always, in conversation.

taboo   a word that should not be used because it is very rude or offensive.

technical   a word used by doctors, scientists and other specialists.

trademark   a word that is the official name of a particular product.

written   a word or phrase that is used only, or nearly always, in written English.

This shows that lexical items in a translation dictionary do not all have a standard usage. Some of these lexical items are restricted to a particular situation of usage.

2.2.11 PALMER (1993)

According to Palmer (1993:29) reference deals with the relationship between the linguistic element, words, sentences etc. and the non-linguistic world of experience. This shows that sense relates to the complex system of relationships that hold between the linguistic elements (mostly the words); it is concerned only with intra-linguistic relations.

Therefore it might seem reasonable to argue that semantics is concerned only with the way we relate our language to our experience and so to say that reference is an essential element of semantics.

Palmer (1993:56) further indicates that the description of language could not be complete without some reference to context of situation in which a language operates. A more extreme view sees the meaning of linguistic elements as "Totally" accounted for in terms of the situation.

This shows that the usage of language is important. For example, the way one talks shows people who one is and who one would like to be. Palmer (1993:82) supports this by giving an example of slang which is the language of the rebels who do not use the language of the establishment. The moment that a respectable person uses slang and it is no longer used by the rebels, its social status changes and it is no longer considered slang.

2.3   CONCLUSION

The review of literature on primacy of semantic comment has been made in this chapter. The study would like to add to this existing knowledge regarding semantic comments by adding new lexicographic suggestions. The study would also attempt to make additions to the argument of literatures, especially with regard to extra-linguistic information.

CHAPTER 3

ARRANGEMENT OF MICROSTRUCRURAL ELEMENTS IN A DICTIONARY

3.1.   INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the focus will be on the presentation of semantic comments in *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005).   The analysis will also highlight the articles that seem to be misrepresented in the *Xitsonga /English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005). The researcher will also attempt to identify problematic articles and support the argument by giving correct version of the articles.

3.2.   ARRANGEMENT OF MICROSTRUCTURAL ELEMENTS IN *XITSONGA / ENGLISH DIKIXINARI /DICTIONARY* (2005)

A full article in a dictionary should consist of a lemma, part of speech, translation equivalent (in case of a bilingual dictionary) and usage information (extra-linguistic information and contextual guidance). What follows is a discussion of whether the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) has adhered to this requirement. The researcher will also attempt to identify problematic articles and argument by giving correct version of the articles.

3.2.1. Parts of Speech form in *Xitsonga /English Dikixinari /Dictionary* (2005)

Lexicographers may assume that dictionary users know the part of speech to which a lemma belongs. Part of speech in a dictionary plays an important role for the user to achieve communicative success. According to Al–Kasimi (1977:64) the search for equivalents should be preceded by a contrastive analysis of source and target language in order to determine the ranks in a grammatical hierarchy (e.g. sentence clause − group − word − morpheme), to determine corresponding grammatical categories (e.g. plurality, gender, etc) and to determine reciprocal part of speech. He further indicates that usually

an English equivalent of a German noun will first be sought among English nouns. In this case Xitsonga nouns should be given translation equivalents that must be first sought among the English nouns. This principle has not been followed in the *Xitsonga /English Dikixinari /Dictionary (2005).*

Let us look at the following examples from *Xitsonga /English Dikixinari /Dictionary* (2005:24, 25, 29, 32):

kwala	*rien*	here
kusuhani	*rien*	here
kwihi	*rien*	here
la	*rien*	here
laha	*rien*	here
lomu	*rien*	here
langutela	*rien*	anticipate, await
langutisa	*rien*	look, review
mapapila	*rien*	letters
migingiriko	*riv*	activities, business

The above articles are problematic because lexicographers have presented the parts of speech that are incorrect. This is a lexicographic blunder that will mislead the dictionary user to achieve communicative success. The inconsistent use of incorrect part of speech, in this case will not only affect the user of a dictionary but the translation dictionary's aim of assisting the users to have good knowledge about the parts of speech. Instead of helping the dictionary user to have excellent communication, the inconsistent use of parts of speech could lead the user to communicative embarrassment.

Lexicographers have assumed that the following headwords **kwala, kusuhani, kwihi, la**, are verbs (maendli). This is incorrect as these words are adverbs. These articles will have helped the users to achieve communicative success if the articles were presented as follows:

kusuhi *rieng*	near
kwihi *rieng*	where
la *rieng*	here

The above presentation correctly denotes that **kwala, kusuhi, kwihi, la** are adverbs *(maengeteri).*

Al-Kasimi (1977:65) is of the view that that substantives and adjectives of the target language cannot always be considered as equivalents to the substantives and adjectives of the source language. In case of Xitsonga and English there are words that although sharing the same meaning, they cannot take the same part of speech. But lexicographers in this dictionary have not although sharing the same meaning, they considered the parts of speech in the target language which may cause confusion to users such as the following examples.

langutela	*rien*	anticipate, await
langutisa	*rien*	look, review

The above presentation is inadequate, because in Xitsonga (source language) **langutela** and **langutisa** belong to a group or class of verbs (*marhavi ya riendli*), but the English (target language) equivalents do not have such as part of speech but they group them as verbs. Article of **langutisa, langutela** should have been presented as follows:

Langutela	*rhav. rien.*	anticipate, await.
Langutisa	*rhav. rien.*	look, review

If the article should have been presented in this manner the dictionary will be user friendly. The user can easily follows that lemmata **langutela** and **langutisa** in a source language falls under "*marhavi ya maendli*". This will have helped the user to know that two different languages may have two different grammatical patterns to determine certain

aspect of experience. In order to produce an accurate translation of the English sentence. Translation equivalents 'anticipate' 'await' 'look' and 'review' are verbs in target language (English) but in source language which in this case is Xitsonga**, langutisa** and **langutela** only belong to the class / group of verb but are not verbs.

In the case of nouns, the dictionary should indicate whether such nouns are in singular or plural form. In *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari*/*Dictionary* (2005) lexicographers could not indicate this aspect, for example (2005:29, 32):

        mapapila   *riv*   letters
        migingiriko *riv*   activities business

The above article is problematic because **mapapila** and **migingiriko** may sometimes take another form (singularity). Lexicographers should have indicated it. In order to advise the users that the lemmata **mapapila** and **migingiriko** may in some cases take the singular form. The article should have been presented as follows.

        Mapapila   *riv +vuny*   letters
        Migingiriko *riv+ vuny*   activities business

Vuny represent vuyingi (plural). When a user utters statements using words such as "**mapapila**, and "**migingiriko** he or she will use it correctly knowing that they are in a singular or plural form. Lexicographers must know that parts of speech should be presented correctly to help or assist those who are still learning or interested in learning two or more languages.

3.2.2. Contextual Guidance

Contextual guidance is the information in the microstructure of a dictionary, which indicates how a particular lemma is used in a language.

According to Makwela (2005), the functions of contextual guidance are as follows:

- To assist the dictionary user to choose the correct equivalent.
- To enable dictionary users to achieve communicative success from the translation equivalent paradigm.
- They help the target user of a dictionary to communicate successfully as the retrieved translation equivalent will be used in a good way in daily communication.

Mphahlele (2001:05) clearly indicates the lexicography principles on how to use contextual guidance:

> The extra-linguistic information presented after each
> Translation equivalent is very important because it
> enables the user to understand and use the target
> language items successfully.

Lexicographers of bilingual dictionaries should include enough illustrative examples in the semantic comment. Gouws (1992) in Mphahlele says, "one of the major functions of these examples is to recontextualise the lemma. When a lemma is recontextualised there is no doubt that user should achieve semantic and communicative success. Lexicographers should bear in mind that lack of contextual guidance confirms the decontextualisation of the translation equivalents. The closer the semantic difference between two translation equivalents gets, the harder it is for the user to choose the correct equivalents". This means that contextual guidance is needed when translation equivalents are closer to each other in meaning i.e. near synonyms (partial synonyms).

When the target language synonym paradigm consists of near synonyms, it is advisable for the lexicographers to include contextual guidance because the synonyms often make it difficult for the user to choose the correct and suitable equivalent for a specific context. The inclusion of contextual guidance helps the dictionary user to choose the most

appropriate translation equivalences and this will help to achieve communication success. When translation equivalents in a target language synonym paradigm are not supplemented by additional information, the dictionary makes unfair demands on the user because he or she has to differentiate between near synonyms. When semantic correspondence between synonyms is not supported by stylistic correspondence, the lack of additional information may be a detrimental effect on a communication process. Lack of contextual guidance to mark stylistic restrictions of the near synonyms impede the correct use of language by the users and can lead to communicative embarrassment.

It is vital to mention that in order for the user to achieve communicative success, a lexicographer must enter the translation equivalent that has the highest usage frequency as the first translation should also be supplied with contextual guidance. Dictionary users often know a translation equivalent with the highest usage frequency and this will encourage users to comprehend the remaining equivalents that are found in a paradigm. This means that, the dictionary user is guided from the "known" to the "unknown" translation equivalents.

The following presentation illustrates the point:

nghozi accident (car), danger (electricity)

The translation equivalent **accident** has the highest usage frequency and this presentation can assist the user to understand the remaining translation equivalents that are found in the translation equivalent paradigm.

3.2.2.1 Divergence

According to Gouws (1999:23) "divergence is a prevailing equivalent relation where one lemma has more than one translation equivalent". This means that divergence prevails when a headword has more than one translation equivalent in a translation equivalent paradigm. Divergence is a result of either polysemic lemma which may need a separate

translation equivalent for each polysemous lemma or presentation of a target language synonym paradigm.

Divergence can be divided into two sub- categories. An article of a polysmeous lemma displays a relation of "semantic divergence" and the occurrence of the target language synonym paradigm shows a relation of lexical divergence. According to Mphahlele (2001:9) it is obligatory that lexicographers include contextual guidance in an article that displays a relation of semantic divergence.

Lack of contextual guidance is problematic in articles displaying an equivalent relation of semantic divergence. This means that there should not be a mere listing of translation equivalents but higher density of information is needed in order to help the dictionary user to retrieve the required information easily. Lexicographers should expand the semantic comment in a translation dictionary so that a target user will be able to achieve communicative success. The expansion of semantic comment may be in the form of illustrative examples or glosses. Glosses are single words used to indicate the context of a translation equivalent. Lexicographers must make sure that there is no arbitrary choice of glosses in an article. The arbitrary choice of glosses will confuse dictionary users and will impede the possibility to establish communicative success. The existing translation dictionaries in Xitsonga are poorly structured and will often leave a user confused regarding the choice of translation equivalents. As a result of this problem, a dictionary user often ends up choosing wrong translation equivalents for a particular context. Let us examine the following example from the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:1):

ala *rien.* refuse, decline, dispute, resist

The above article displaces an equivalent relation of poli–equivalence because there is a heterogeneous divergence. That is, there are both lexical and semantic divergences in the article. The article is problematic because there is no contextual guidance addressed at the translation equivalents. Zgusta (1971:294) states that the listing of translation

equivalents does not assist the target user in his or her choice of the equivalents because coordination of the lemma and translation equivalents cannot always convey necessary semantic, pragmatic and communicative values. This study agrees with Zgusta because mere listing of translation equivalents cannot always help the dictionary user to obtain communicative fluency and equivalence. Bilingual dictionaries that consist of mere listing of translation are now abandoned by their users who have to seek help elsewhere. Compiling dictionaries that include giving contextual guidance or glosses in the semantic comment can solve this problem. The aforementioned article from *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) should have looked as follows:

> **ala** *rien.* refuse (punishment), decline (nomination), dispute (complain), resist
>
> (immune)

This is an acceptable and effective way of presenting translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm. The presentation will help dictionary users to achieve communicative success in the target language. The mere listing of translation equivalents will not serve any purpose because translation equivalents 'refuse', 'decline', 'dispute' and 'resist' cannot replace each other in all contexts. The article is now user friendly because it has a good presentation of glosses.

Let us look at another sample from the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary (*2005:1):

> **avanyisa** *rien.* divide, separate, judge, adjudicate, sentence.

The above article is also problematic as it consists of mere listing of translation equivalents. Lexicographers have not included contextual guidance in the above semantic comment. One cannot assume that a dictionary user knows the typical use of all the translation equivalents that are found in the above semantic comment. As translation equivalents are not in the source language, it is advisable for the compiler of the dictionary to include usage information regarding the translation equivalents. In order to

assist dictionary users in achieving communicative equivalence, the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) should have included contextual guidance in the translation profile. The following presentation would have been better:

> **avanyisa** *rien.* divide (apple); separate (people); judge (offence); adjudicate (parade); sentence (criminal)

This suggested article displays a user-friendly semantic comment. Unfortunately this kind of presentation is not consistently used in existing translation dictionaries. The user of a dictionary is often presented with a semantic comment that includes little or no contextual guidance. If a translation dictionary only provides translation equivalents, the target user's aim to obtain communicative success will fail as illustrated by the following article from the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:6):

> **dyondzo** *rien.* education, lesson, course, lecture, training.

The above article displays relation of lexical divergence. The article will not help dictionary users to achieve communicative success because lexicographers have not included contextual guidance. Compilers should have included contextual guidance because there is no absolute synonym between members of the target language synonyms paradigm. Even if they were absolute synonyms, usage information would still have been necessary. The lexical items 'education', 'lesson'; 'course'; 'lecture' and 'training' are not synonyms. Translation equivalents provided above cannot in anyway replace each other in any context. The following example would have served an important semantic purpose:

> **dyondzo** *rien.* education (primary), lesson (English), course (Engineering),
>   lecture (Sciences), training (Computers).

A lexicographer should always make sure that his or her translation dictionary's semantic comment is expanded so that the user can contextualize words that are not familiar to her

or him. Even if translation equivalents are near synonyms compilers must give the usage information regarding the translation equivalents.

heta *rien* finish ,accomplish, exhaust (2005:13)

There is a problem in the above article besides the lack of usage information, the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) assumes that translation equivalents that are provided in the above article are synonyms. The problem with this article is that the compilers are assuming that translation equivalents that are found in the above paradigm can replace each other in all contexts. This hampers the users to achieve communicative success. The lexical items "finish', 'accomplish' and 'exhaust' cannot replace each other and usage information would have been necessary. According to Al–kasimi (1977:62), it is not easy to establish absolute correspondence between the related words in two different languages. The following article will have been of assistance to the user to retrieve the required information:

heta *rien* finish (work), accomplish (mission), exhaust (energy)

This article is far much better than the article that was not furnished with contextual guidance. The above presentation is user-friendly because users are able to deduce that the translation equivalents cannot replace each other in all contexts. In other words, dictionary users will be able to deduce that *work can be finished,* mission *can be accomplished* and *energy can be exhausted*.

Let us look at the following presentation in *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:1):

amukela *rien* receive, accept, accommodate, acknowledge, admit, adopt, approve, take, welcome.

The lemma **amukela** consists of nine translations equivalents. The above article displays

a relation of poli–equivalence. That is, there are both lexical and semantic divergences in the paradigm. The problem with the above article is that it consists of more listing of translation equivalents. The compilers of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) should have included contextual guidance in the translation profile. The following article would have been better:

> **amukela** *rien.* receive (parcel), accept (proposal), accommodate (patients), approve (deal), take (responsibility) welcome (visitors)

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

Let us look at the following presentation:

> **hatlisa** - fast, quick, rapid (2005:12)

The above translation equivalent displays a relation of lexical divergence where mono – equivalence prevails. The study would like to point out that the omission of contextual guidance in the translation equivalents paradigm implies that the three synonyms, 'fast', 'quick' and 'rapid' can replace each other in any context. This research does not agree with this because the three translation equivalents are partial synonyms and they cannot therefore replace each other in every context. The following improvements would have assisted the non-native speakers to retrieve translation equivalents:

> **hatlisa** - fast (motion), quick (learn), rapid (action)

If translation equivalents were supplied with contextual guidance, it would have been much easier for translation dictionaries users to meet their demands but most

unfortunately they are not designed to meet the demands of well-defined target users. It is so difficult for the users of translation dictionaries to use the target language because when they consult the translation dictionary, they come across translation equivalents that are listed without contextual guidance. It is unfortunate that learners, educators, language practitioners and any other user of this dictionary cannot rely on it in order to achieve communicative equivalence. It is the duty of the lexicographers of the translation dictionary to make sure that these people are supplied with comprehensive, detailed and user friendly translation dictionaries that will assist them to learn more about their second language. Translation equivalents are not isolated words that function independently in a dictionary but they depend on other lexical items to form meaningful sentences. If lexicographers of translation dictionaries use a textual approach to their dictionaries, dictionary users will not have problems to use the translation equivalents in the correct combinations.

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

3.2.3. Presentation of translation equivalents

There are two types of translation equivalents in translation dictionaries. That is, synonym translation equivalents and polysemous translation equivalents. Synonym translation equivalents are translation equivalents that have the same meaning as each other and they can replace each other in any context. The translation equivalents are more or less semantically related. Polysemous translation equivalents are translation equivalents that have a polysemous sense of the lemma. This means that polysemous translation equivalents have meanings that are nearly related to each other and in this sense cannot replace each other in any context.

Moreover, commas and semicolons usually separate translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm. In order to ensure communicative equivalence, a

lexicographer should not choose commas and semicolons haphazardly. A consistent use of commas and semicolons as structural markers in the translation dictionary ensures communicative equivalence because a user will be able to know that a particular paradigm consists of synonyms because of commas that have been used in the separation of translation equivalents. Commas and semicolons are important structural markets that ensure a clear and easy transfer of meaning. Commas and semicolons indicate certain semantic relations between translation equivalents in the paradigm. On one hand dictionary users are able deduce that a translation equivalent paradigm contains target language synonyms if commas are used to separate the translation equivalents. On the other hand, those that are separated by semicolons represent different polysemous senses of the headword. A consistent use of commas and semicolons as structural markers in the separation of the translation equivalents in a paradigm lead to communicative success.

Lexicographers should not assume that dictionary users know the function of commas and semicolons in the translation dictionary. The user should be assisted in making a correct choice of translation equivalents that will render the same semantic value of a lemma in the specific context. A consistent choice of commas and semicolons enables the user to have a successful information retrieval. If the choice of structural markers is done arbitrarily, the transfer of semantic information will be impeded. Communicative equivalents can only be achieved if commas and semicolons are used consistently to separate target language forms in the translation equivalent paradigm. It must be stated clearly in the front matter of the translation dictionary that translation equivalents that represent different polysemous senses of the lemma are separated per lexicographic convention by means of semicolons (;) and that the translation equivalents which represent different target language synonyms are separated per lexicographic convention by means of commas (,). This method of meaning discrimination is also emphasized by Al–kasimi (1977:70) as he states that "synonyms or near synonyms are separated by commas and different meaning by semicolons. If this is clearly stated in the front matter of the translation dictionary, lexicographers have a challenge to follow this rule when presenting translation equivalent paradigms in their dictionaries". The inconsistent use of these structural markets could lead the user to communicative embarrassment, as the user

will often choose the wrong translation equivalent. For illustration, let us look at the following articles of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:48).

kambela *riv.* examination, test, check up, review

The lemma **kambela** consists of four translation equivalents. A comma has been used to separate these equivalents. A comma is a structural marker that indicates that the translation equivalents are synonyms. Dictionary users should bear in mind that commas are very important structural markers in bilingual dictionaries and that they ensure a clear transfer of linguistic meaning. This indicates that they are markers that ensure communicative equivalence between the source and target language. Therefore, hypothetically, lexicographers have used an appropriate structural marker in separating these four equivalents. According to the compilers, these four lexical items could replace each other in many contexts. The user, in this case, in order to ensure that the equivalents are synonyms should ask the following questions:

- Is it true that the four equivalents are able to be used at any time regardless of whether a word is **examination, test, check up and review?**
- Would the word **test and check-up** be used interchangeably in the communicative context?

The following sentence examples should provide one with an exclusive answer:

- At the end of the year, I will be writing my final <u>examination.</u>
- At the end of the year I will be writing my final <u>test</u>.
- At the end of the year I will be writing my final <u>check up</u>.
- At the end of the year, I will be writing my final <u>review</u>

The third and fourth sentences, that is, "*at the end of the year I will be writing my final check up*" and "*at the end of the year I will be writing my final review*" are not good English sentences as they are not linguistically correct. The equivalents are partial

synonyms that cannot be used interchangeably. The dictionary user would want to know more about extra-linguistic information regarding these equivalents. This could be easier if the lexicographer gives contextual guidance after each translation equivalent of these English lexical items as in the following examples:

My **examination** will start in June.
(**Xikambelo** xa mina xi ta sungula hi Khotavuxika).

I have to prepare for the coming **test.**
(Ndzi fanele ku tilulamisela **xikambelwana** lexi taka).

I will be going for **check – up** of broken feet again next week.
(Ndzi ta ya eku **kamberiweni** nenge lowu nga tshoveka nakambe vhiki leri ta ka).

I have to **review** my work.
(Ndzi fanele ku **kambisisa** ntirho wa mina nakambe)

Again, lexicographers are wrong to separate these equivalents with commas but instead, semicolons could have been used to indicate that these equivalents express polysemous sense:

kambela   -   examination (formal); test (knowledge); check-up; review
(situation)

This article is adequate. The usage of semicolons in the translation equivalents of the lemma "**kambela**" shows that the lexical items **examination, test, check-up** and **review** cannot be used to replace each other in all communicative contexts and they are concluded to be polysemous translation equivalents. By introducing semicolons in the above article the users are warned that those equivalents posses polysemous senses. The inclusion or usage examples of translation equivalents will also help the user to use the equivalents in separate contexts in a communication situation. The usage examples are

those kind of examples presented to show the use of words in a particular language. They are used to differentiate the relationship between the lemma and the translation equivalent in a context. This means that, a dictionary user will be able to see that signs are used to communicate and they are not just used for showing direction only. In this case, the dictionary user is able to retrieve the required semantic information and that will enable the non – native speakers of English, that is Xitsonga speakers, to use the dictionary effectively. This kind of article can assist the user to understand the meaning of the source language word as the target language. The users will know exactly which translation equivalent is appropriate for the lemma **kambela** in a particular context. Let us look at the following diagrams to illustrate this argument:

kambela   **A**   **B**   **C**   **D**

examination   test   check-up   review
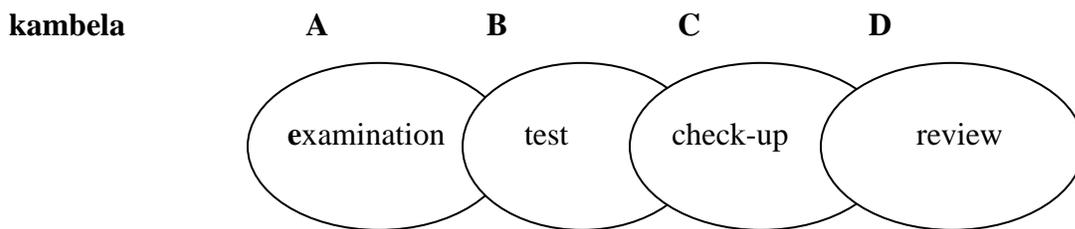
The article presented above shows the intersection between four lexical items. These lexical items are **examination, test check-up** and **review**. This shows that the four items are equivalents lemmas of **kambela**. It is in this diagram where the intersection indicates that the four words can be used in some of the context.   In this case the word **examination** in circle A is a partial e**quivalent** to the lexical item **test** in circle B. This is to say that the word test in circle B is also partially equivalent to the lexical items examinations and check-up in circle A and C. **Check-up** in circles C is also a partial synonym of **review** in circle D. Therefore, the four intersections in circle A, test in circle B, check-up in circle C and review in circle D are partial synonyms. The diagram clearly shows that the English translation equivalent could substitute each other in some contexts because of their semantic relationship as partial synonyms in English. With the help of contextual guidance, the dictionary user will know that the translation equivalents **examination, test, checkup** and **review** cannot be used interchangeably in the microstructure.

A diagram below is an illustration where these translation equivalents are complete synonyms:

kambela

examination

test

check-up

review
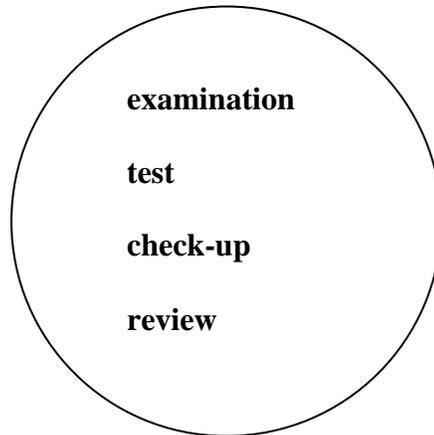
The four lexical items of the lemma **kambela** have been presented in one circle. This simply indicates that they are united together in one diagram as one thing. In this instance, the user can use this word interchangeably in all contexts. This diagram is the presentation of the case where only a comma is used to separate the translation equivalent, and this means that the translation equivalent can be used interchangeably to separate each other in all contexts. Of course, as already indicated, this is not true. The lexicographer should know that the inclusion of illustrative examples is very important to assist dictionary users. If there are illustrative examples, the dictionary user will then choose the appropriate translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. The illustrative examples should be so selective to reflect the culture of the speaker of the target language, and they should be brief and informative, that is, they should illustrate the use of the word and enhance the users understanding of its grammatical behavior, semantic range, stylistic affiliations or all of these disciplines. Al-Kasimi emphasizes the importance of illustration examples in dictionaries. Although these translation equivalents cannot be used interchangeably to replace one another in all contexts, it is important to note that these translations equivalents do not have same usage in English. That is, they do not have the same frequency use than others. The diagram below simply represents these lexical items in terms of their usage in a language with the lemma **kambela** being represented outside the circles:
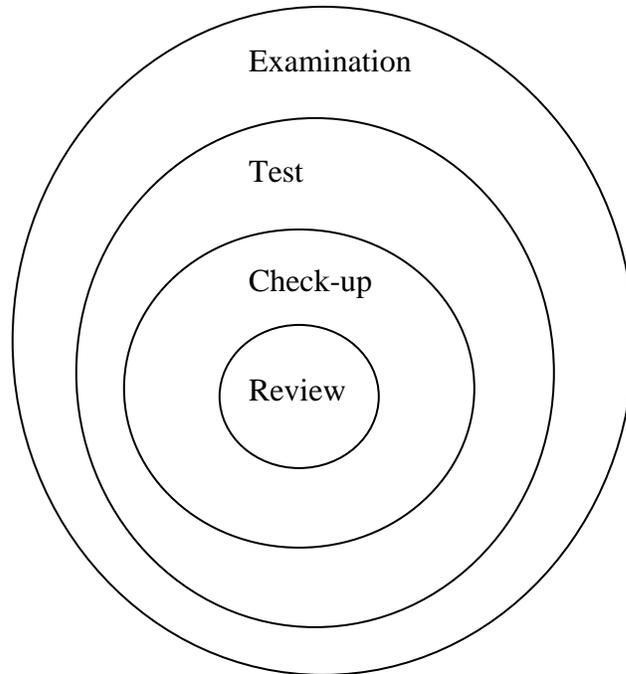
The above illustration represents the level of usage frequency amongst these translation equivalents of Xitsonga lexical items **kambela**. This means that the diagram can be interpreted as indicating that the word **examination** is commonly used than its partial synonyms **test**, **check-up**, and **review.** Furthermore, the second bigger circle contains the lexical item **test** and this indicates that the lexical item **test** is frequently used than its synonym pairs check-up and review. In this case the review in circle D indicates that it is not frequently used. The above diagram denotes that the translation equivalent in a translation equivalent paradigm should be given contextual guidance to enhance their retrievability in a translation equivalent paradigm and even though the items can be used interchangeably in some contexts, they are not used on the same frequency level in English. This is helpful for the dictionary users because he or she will know that some translation equivalents are commonly used than the others in a language. Zgusta (1971:263) supports that invented examples are very useful instruments especially for general monolingual dictionaries that do not have the budget to produce facts taken as true for reasoning in the microstructure of the dictionary. He continues to say that invented examples are also useful since they can set up example sentence exactly according to the needs of the dictionary user. Even in the translation dictionary, the users

may opt to use his or her own inverted examples.

3.2.3.1 Problems in distinguishing between the synonym and polysemy

The important question is whether lexicographers of translation dictionaries account for semantic relations like synonyms and polysemous words systematically or haphazardly. Does the presentation of a translation equivalent paradigm confuse the user of the dictionary because of the inconsistent use of commas and semicolons? Is the choice of these structural markers consistent and accurate? The problem is that most lexicographers, with special reference to the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) use commas instead of semicolons in the separation of translation equivalents representing different polysemous senses of the lemma.

This inaccurate representation cannot help users to achieve communicative equivalence. Let us examine the following examples from *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:86):

xivumbeko *riv*. built, structure, physique

The use of comma in the separation of the above translation equivalent denotes that **built, structured** and **physique** are synonyms. Is this correct? The *Concise Oxford Dictionary* (1964:155, 1279, 915) defines

Built - as a construction by putting parts or material rightly together
Structure - manner in which a building or organism or other complete whole of the essential parts of something, make constitution

Physique - bodily structure, organization & development.

The definitions show that **built**, **structure** and ph**ysique** are not synonyms but the polysemous senses of the lemma that cannot replace each other. The lexicographer is

suggesting that all transaction equivalents of lemma **xivumbeko** can be used interchangeable to replace one another in a communication context. This is wrong, because there is no way in which translation equivalent **built**, **structure** and **physique** can replace one another in a communication context. For example, when a person says, "I want to build a double-storey–house" it does not necessarily mean he or she wants to **structure** a double-storey house.

The semantic comment in a translation dictionary has to be comprehensive enough for a user to detect the mutual relationship between members of the target language synonym paradigm without a problem. Gouws (1999) warns that there are semantic comments that are not comprehensive and this is the case with the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005). Many articles in this dictionary do not assist the user to retrieve the required information easily. Lexicographers must make sure that they give enough and accurate information about the target language The internal ordering of the translation equivalents in a target language synonym paradigm has to reflect the usage frequency of the target language forms. Unfortunately, our lexicographers have not ordered the translation equivalents in their order of usage frequency. The equivalents are presented in unsystematic way. In this dictionary one finds that the translation equivalent that is frequently used appears after the equivalents that are not commonly used. The following article could have been better:

xivumbeko structure**;** built; physique

The definitions of the translation equivalents **built, structure** and **physique** have shown that they do not fall within the semantic category. As such the researcher has argued that the article of **xivumbeko** (in second article) commas are no longer used unsystematically but are used in communicative functional way. A semicolon is introduced in the article (second) to show that the translation equivalents **structure; built; physique** are polysemous senses because they cannot replace each other in any communicative context. In this case dictionary users cannot experience communication failure in their daily communication. They cannot use built; physique and structure to refer to the same

semantic activity.

The following presentation in *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:26, 75) is also confusing:

letela	guide, orientate, lecture
lungisa	fix, correct, arrange
vulavula	speak, talk, express, refer

These examples show that the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) has a serious problem in distinguishing between synonymy and polysemy. Commas have been used to separate all translation equivalents in a translation equivalent paradigm. Lexicographers in this case have used commas incorrectly in a translation equivalent paradigm. It is wrong to separate the translation equivalents that are polysemous by a comma. Let us look at the definitions of the translation equivalents of the lemma **letela** from *Concise Oxford Dictionary* (1964: 545, 855, 690):

guide	-	one who shows the way
orientate	-	bring into a clearly understood relation
lecture	-	discourse before audience or class given subject

From this definition, it is evident that lexicographers have made a serious lexicographic blunder by separating the translation equivalents, **guide**, **orientate** and **lecture** with a comma, because the three are not synonyms but only share some semantic senses. In the above article the target language paradigm is not comprehensible because it is not easy for the dictionary user to detect mutual relationship between members of target language paradigm. This will lead to communicative failure. In presenting a semantic comment, lexicographers of translation dictionaries should endeavor to succeed with presentation that leads to optimal retrieval of information.

In this case, the researcher may argue that the compilers of *Xitsonga/English*

Dikixinari/Dictionary (2005) did not know how to use the structural markers: - commas and semicolons. They have only used commas in the separation of translation equivalents. Lexicographers must bear in mind that commas and semicolons represent specific values. Lexicographers have to explain the system they opted for in the user's guidelines of their dictionaries. The system opted for should be applied consistently. This will then assist the user to achieve success. The article would have assisted dictionary users to retrieve the required semantic information if it were presented as follows:

l**etela**   guide; orientate; lecture

The substitution of commas by semicolons in the article correct the mistake made by lexicographers. In this corrected version, it shows that the translation equivalents **guide**, **orientate** and **lecture** cannot replace each other in any communicative context. The word **guide**, **orientate** and **lecture** are not synonyms but polysemous in nature. This will obviously assist the dictionary user to retrieve the required information and to be aware of the fact that **guide**, **orientate** and **lecture** cannot be used to replace each other in a communicative context.

Let us look at how *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:75) has used commas and semicolon in presenting language paradigm.

vulavula   speak, talk, express, refers

The above article is problematic as the lexicographer suggests that all translation equivalents of the lemma **vulavula** can be used interchangeably (to replace another) in a communication context. This is incorrect, because there is no way in which translation equivalents **speak**, **talk**, **express** and **refer** can replace one another in a communication context. This can be best explained by this illustration: **vulavula.**

A
vulavula
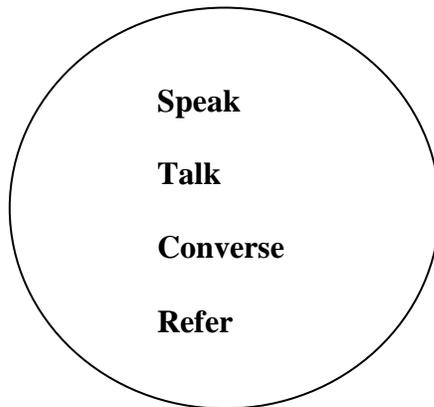
This structure indicates that all four are synonyms and they can represent each other in a communicative context.

Let us look at the following definition of the translation equivalent of the lemma "**vulavula**".

> **speak** -   use articulate utterance in ordinary.
>   (not singing) voice. Fowler H.W. and Fowler (1964:1229)
>
> **talk** -   converse, communicate ideas by spoken ideas.
>   Fowler H.W. and Fowler (1964:1320).
>
> **express** - To tell someone about a feeling, opinion or aim by speaking or
>   writing about it. Delahunty (2005:487).
>
> **refer** -   trace or ascribe to person or thing as cause or source
>   Fowler H.W. and Fowler (1964:1039).

Definitions as presented above prove that the four translations equivalents are not synonyms but share polysemous senses. For example: When a person says *you talk nonsense,* it does not necessarily mean a person: -

speaks non-sense

expresses non-sense

refers non-sense

The translation equivalents indicate that there is no one-to-one semantic relation. The definitions show that **talk** and **speak** are synonyms but the other translation equivalents do not fall within the same semantic category. As such this study argues that the article of **vulavula** as presented in the dictionary is not user friendly. The article would have been of assistance if it was presented as follows:

vulavula speak, talk; express; refer

The above article is adequate because the comma is no longer used unsystematically but is used in a communicative functional way. A comma has been used to separate **speak** and **talk** to show that they are synonyms. A semicolon is introduced to separate **talk**, **express** and **refer** to indicate that they share polysemous senses. In this case dictionary users cannot experience communicative embarrassment in their daily communication.

Let us look at the structural representation of the article of **vulavula**.

B
Vulavula
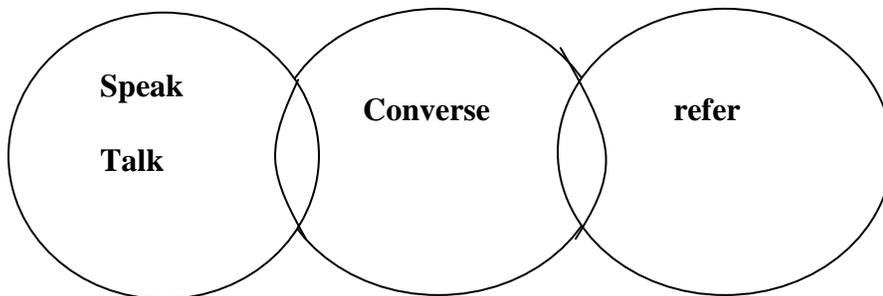
The illustration B is correct because it indicates that **speak** and **talk** are synonyms and they can be used interchangeably in some communicative contexts. **Converse** and **refer**

do not have one-to-one semantic relation with **speak** and **talk**. This means that they only share polysemous senses.

3.3   CONCLUSION

Semantic comment of a translation dictionary should not be restricted to listing of usage examples. In assisting dictionary users to make the correct choice of equivalents for a specific context, additional information is needed and imperative. This means that an expansion of translation profile where translation equivalents interact with other microstructural items is necessary of the retrieval of information. This then contributes to successful transfer of meaning.

CHAPTER 4

GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT EXTRA-LINGUISTIC INFORMATION

4.1.   INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to discuss general information about extra-linguistic information. Semantic information is not the same as encyclopedic information. Semantic information is primary whilst encyclopedic information is secondary in a dictionary. The semantic component usually fills the most prominent part of the article. Beside the translation equivalents, an article of a translation dictionary could include some other linguistic as well as a certain amount of extra-linguistic information. A dictionary article has to contain additional information that will clearly indicate information on linguistic context in which translation equivalents can occur in a typical occurrence.

Semantic information is known as translation equivalent of the lemma. In giving translation equivalents sometimes lexicographers cannot differentiate between semantic information, which should always be primary and extra- linguistic information, which should then be secondary. In a bilingual dictionary semantic information is presented by translation equivalents of the lemma.

Encyclopedic information is the extra- linguistic information, which is found in a microstructure of a dictionary. This information is usually found immediately after the translation equivalents of the lemma. Lexicographers should always bear in mind that although extra-linguistic is secondary, it is very important as it shows how a particular lemma activates and functions within different context. It is therefore important for lexicographers to supply translation equivalents of a lemma in a satisfactory way.

4.2.   Semantic Information versus Extra-linguistic information

Although translation dictionaries are intended to give equivalent of a lemma, the lexicographers of these dictionaries often confuse equivalents and extra-linguistic

information. They include encyclopedic information in the part of a dictionary article that is strictly meant for semantic meaning. This as a result, misleads the dictionary users because he or she will end up regarding contextual evidence as semantic meaning of a particular lemma. Gouws (1996:16) writes that "translation equivalence, the first aim of the lexicographers of a bilingual dictionary, implies a semantic co-ordination between a lemma and its translation equivalent paradigm". Although these items represent that semantic value of the lemma and create a relation of semantic equivalence, the dictionary users receive no assistance in getting the correct equivalent for specific context. In helping the user to make the correct choice of equivalents for a specific context, additional information is necessary. This shows that an extended translation profile where translation equivalents interact with other micro structural items is necessary for the optimal retrieval of information. For a user to achieve communicative equivalence, lexicographers should enter a translation profile that has a high density of information. That is, there should be an expansion or semantic comment so that the user achieves communicative success.

According to lexicographic principle, semantic information must always be extended by extra-linguistic information in order to establish communicative equivalence and to lead the user to obtain communicative success. Lexicographers of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) have not followed this principle. Let us look at the following articles of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:3, 4, 5, 9, 11, 14, 15, 18, 35, 59, 88):

	Xitsonga	English
1.	**ba mati**	(mali) bribe; (murhundzu) urinate
2.	**baleka**	(munhu) escape, flee; (nchumu) erupt, burst, (xiluva) bloom.
3.	**bara**	(byalwa) bar; (xitirho) wheelbarrow
4.	**byalwa**	(mbewu) sow; (swimilana) plant
5.	**chayela**	(movha) drive, (swiharhi) whip
6.	**foloja**	(swihari) abort; (vanhu) miscarry

7.	**gonya**	(xiganga) climb, ascend; (minxavo) escalate, zoom
8.	**hola**	(mali) earn; (mavabyi) heal
9.	**holota**	(swihari) abort
10.	**khabinete**	(mfumo) cabinet; fanichara (cupboard)
11.	**muahluri**	(nawu) judge; (vuyimbeleri) adjudicator, (vatirhi) arbiter
12.	**ntsutsumo**	(mintlangu) race
13.	**ntswalo**	(mali) interest
14.	**nwa**	(mati) drink
15.	**poso**	(mapapila) mail
16.	**pfuxeta**	(xikambelo) revise; (muako) renovate
17.	**yimbela**	(mufi) bury

The articles above are all problematic. Lexicographers of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) have given extra-linguistic information before giving semantic information. When extra-linguistic information is presented before semantic information, it causes problem to the users. Dictionary users will automatically regard extra-linguistic information as translation equivalents. Let us look at the example (1) on page (69):

18.   **ba mati** - (mali) bribe, (murhundzu) urinate

The lexicographer here is suggesting that **mali** (money) **murhundzu** (urine) are translation equivalents for **ba mati**. This is totally wrong. The lemma **ba mati** is in Xitsonga, as source language and **mali** and **murhundzu** are also present in Xitsonga. This article presents a serious problem. The words **bribe** and **urinate** have been given as extra-linguistic information, to indicate how to use the translation equivalents **mali** **(**money**)** and **murhundzu** (urine) in a context. This will likely confuse dictionary users because they will end up regarding extra-linguistic information **mali** and **murhundzu** as semantic information of the lemma **ba mati** and **bribe** and **urinate** as extra-linguistic information. This will obviously result in communicative embarrassment. The article of

ba mati should look as follows:

	Xitsonga	*English*
19.	**ba mati**	bribe (mali), urinate (murhundzu)

This kind of lexicography is user-friendly because the dictionary user will be able to depict that the article of **ba mati** has two translation equivalents that is **bribe** and **urinate**. The word **mali** and **murhundzu** are extra-linguistic information that will assist the user in communicative context.

Let us look at the following example from *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:4):

20.   **bara** -   (byalwa) bar; (xitirho) wheelbarrow

It is a common principle that an extra-linguistic or contextual guidance is given by means of words of phrases that are written in brackets next to each translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm (Mphahlele, 2001:6). These entries serve an important purpose in a dictionary because they help the user to choose the correct and appropriate translation equivalents from the translation equivalent paradigm. Lexicographers of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) could not adhere to the common principle. The way the article of **bara** has been presented, indicate that **byalwa** (bear) and **xitirho** (tool) are translation equivalents of the lemma **bara** which is absolutely incorrect. The word **byalwa** and **xitirho** has been supplied in the place of semantic information, which is primary, and give translation equivalent of the lemma. The words **bar** and **wheelbarrow** have been presented as extra-linguistic information, which is secondary information. The confusion in presenting primary and secondary information impedes the possibility to reach communicative equivalence. The article should have been of helpful in this way:

21. **bara**   bar (byalwa), wheelbarrow (xitirho)

It is important to mention that for a user to achieve communicative success, lexicographer must first give translation equivalent then contextual guidance, because translation equivalents in a target language synonym paradigm are to be supplemented by additional information. The dictionary makes unfair demands on the users because the users have to distinguish between semantic information and extra-linguistic information. In other words, the dictionary user must be guided from the translation equivalents to communicative functions. This clearly indicates that the word **bar** and **wheelbarrow** are translation equivalents of lemma **bara**. The words **byalwa** (beer) and **xitirho** (tool) are extra-linguistic information. The translation equivalents **bar** and **wheelbarrow** have no one to one semantic relation. Therefore they are not interchangeably hence extra-linguistic information has been added. Such articles help the user to achieve communicative success.

This study suggests that examples 2, 4 – 17 should have been presented as follows:

Xitsonga	English
22. **baleka**	escape (munhu); (nchumu) erupt, burst, xiluva (bloom)
byalwa	sow (mbewu); plant (swimilana)
chayela	drive (movha); whip (swiharhi)
foloja	abort (swihari); micary (vanhu)
gonya	climb (xiganga); ascend; escalated (minxavo)
hola	earn (mali); heal (mavabyi)
holola	abort (swihari)
khabinete	cabinet (mfumo); cupboard (fanichara)
muahluri	judge (nawu); adjudicator (vuyimbeleri)
	arbiter (vatirhi)
ntsutsumo	race (mintlangu)
ntswalo	interest (mali)

nwa	drink (mati)
poso	mail (mapapila)
pfuxeta	revise (xikambelo); renovate (muako)
yimbela	bury (mufi)

The above articles are better because semantic information has been expanded by including extra-linguistic information.

Lexicographers are often not sensitive enough to language when compiling translation dictionaries. Language sensitivity is very important in bilingual lexicography. The success of lexicography depends on language sensitivity. That is why dictionaries that are compiled by insensitive lexicographers rarely assist their users to achieve communicative equivalence. Lexicographers must bear in mind that dictionaries are regarded as authorative source of linguistic information. If dictionary compilers are not sensitive to language their dictionaries will not achieve the aim of fostering multilingualism because the source and target languages are not coordinated successfully. Lexicographers have to follow certain procedures to determine whether the equivalents he chooses are absolute or not. Al–Kasimi (1977) suggested that a broad range of typical context in the source language in which the entry word occurs may be collected in order to have an accurate and choice of equivalents.

Translation dictionaries play an important role to promote communicative success between speakers of different languages in a multilingual society, for example, South Africa. The general concept amongst the users is that bilingual dictionaries supply meaning of the word in the other language. This is not only a wrong conception but it also underestimates the extent of the semantic information included in translation dictionaries. Let us look at the example (8) on page (70):

Xitsonga	English

23.	**hola**	(mali) earn; (mavabyi) heal

Lexicographers assume that dictionary users will have problems in understanding the translation equivalents of the lemma, **hola**. Lexicographers then supply extra-linguistic information in a source language and in the place of semantic information such article does not help users to achieve communicative success. A user who is willing to learn another language will then fail to get the required information. The manner in which the article has been presented indicates that **mali** and **mavabyi** are translation equivalents (semantic information) of the lemma **hola.** For argument sake, this means that lemma which means that the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) is a monolingual dictionary because Xitsonga as a source language has been presented in the semantic comment instead of using English (which in this case is a target language).

The article should have been better presented as follows:

	Xitsonga	English
24.	**hola**	earn (money); heal (illness)

The relation in the article of a translation dictionary between the lemma, (that is the source language form) and translation equivalents (in target language form) are known as an equivalent relation. The above article will help the users to get optimal retrieval of the information. The translation equivalents, **earn** and **heal** have been presented as primary information and expanded with **money** and **illness** as secondary information to show how the equivalents can be used in context. However, translation equivalents only form a part of the transfer of semantic information in a dictionary, other types of semantic information often has direct implications for the unambiguous interpretation of the translation equivalents in the article. The need for cohesion in a dictionary article leads to the interaction between different types of semantic and other information in an article. Therefore no entry in a dictionary article should be evaluated in isolation. One has to take cognizance of its position and function in a wider context.

Let us look at example 16, the article of **pfuxeta:**

	Xitsonga	English
25.	p**fuxeta**	(xikambelo) revise, (muako) renovate

The article above prevails a monosemous lexical item, functioning as a lemma sign, which has more than one translation equivalent. The translation equivalents **revise** and **renovate** are polysemous; **xikambelo** and **muako** are extra-linguistic information which was supposed to be presented after the translation equivalents. Lexicographers have made a lexicographic blunder, by supplying extra-linguistic information and expand it with semantic information. Another problem is that lexicographers seem not to know which language has to be used on the microstructure of a translation dictionary. Lexicographer in this case should have used English as a target language. Lexicographer has haphazardly and unsystematically presented semantic information and extra-linguistic information semantic comment. This study suggests that the article of **pfuxeta** should have been presented as follows:

	Xitsonga	English
26.	**pfuxeta**	revise (examination); renovate (building)

Semantic divergence can be regarded as the most typical occurrence of partial equivalence. It prevails where the lemma sign represents a polysemous lexical item. The translation equivalents **revise** and **renovate** are not absolute synonyms but they are polysemous. Therefore extra-linguistic information should be added in brackets next to translation equivalents and written in target language in order to assist the typical environment. Lexical divergence does not demand sophisticated system to ensure the optimal retrieval of information but it does require a consistent application of a well devised model. The following examples (2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 17) on page (69 – 70) should have been presented as:

	Xitsonga	English
27.	**baleka**	escape (person), flee; erupt (thing), burst, bloom (rose)

chayela	drive (car), whip (animals)
foloja	abort (animals) ; miscarry (human being)
gonya	climb (sleep) ; ascend ; escalate (prices), zoom
holota	abort (animals)
khabinete	cabinet (government) ; cupboard (furniture)
muahluri	judge (law) ; adjudicator (music) , arbiter (workers)
ntsutsumo	race (sports)
ntswalo	interest (money)
nwa	drink (water)
poso	mail (letters)
yimbela	bury (cops)

The information on semantic comments has been systematically arranged, because semantic information presented as lexical meaning has been supplemented by extra-linguistic information. The articles above contain information on usage of a translation equivalent and also indicate a linguistic context on how translation equivalent can occur in a typical occurrence. In the treatment of above articles extra-linguistic information has been presented after translation equivalents. This will enable the user to understand and use the target language item successfully.

4.3.   Cross Referencing

A translation dictionary comprises of lexical items. These lexical items represent the entire lexicon of a language. No lexicon item functions independently in a dictionary, but function as a dependent member of a lexicon. Dictionary as a book of knowledge, it must be seen as a text which consist of lexical items that are coordinated with each other. In this case a lemmata and translation equivalents are part of the dictionary and they function in coherence with each other. This coherence makes the target users of a bilingual dictionary to regard the lemmata and translation equivalents as part of the lexicon of a language treated by a specific dictionary.

Cross-referencing as a lexicographic procedure refers the user from a reference position to a reference address. This is done by means of a reference entries "see and compare". In all cases in a *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) the reference marker **SEE (VONA)** and **COMPARE (PIMANISA)** should always be written in capital letters so that the user of dictionary should not confuse the marker with an element that presents the meaning in the article. The reference marker **SEE** should always be used for cross-referencing of complete synonyms where synonym pair has one to one semantic relationship.

In case of partial synonyms, the reference marker **COMPARE** should always be used. This means that the synonym pairs (partial) are compared to one another. In a translation dictionary, the lexicographer must regard each lemma as part of the whole dictionary. To make sure that these related lemmata are treated in co-ordination with each other, cross-referencing should be applied in translation dictionaries. This means that cross-referencing should be used in the treatment of, for example, partial synonym lemmata or complete synonym lemmata to show the interaction between the related lemmata. This would enable the users to achieve communicative success; consequently the users of dictionaries will learn more words in a short space of time. The user will be able to see that two or more lemmata share the same translation equivalents. Therefore the related words can be interchangeable.

4.3.1   Treatment of partial synonyms

Partial synonyms are the synonyms with nearly identical meaning and can replace each other in some context. In case of partial synonyms, cross-referencing should not be the same as that of complete synonyms because partial synonyms do not share every aspect of their respective meanings. Where polysemous words share one or more senses the word with lesser frequency of usage may include a mere cross – referencing to the relevant sense of the lemma in the respective sub – comment on semantics.

The following are examples of partial synonyms in *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:13, 11, 17, 35, 33, 34, 42, 116, 141):

	Xitsonga		English
28.	**hiseka**	-	zealous
	gingirika	-	active; zealous
29.	**jaha**	-	lad
	mufana	-	boy, lad
30.	**minyikelo**	-	contribution
	mipfuneto	-	contribution, support
	nhlengo	-	contribution, collection, offering
31.	**ndhawu**	-	place, scene, venue, zone
	muganga	-	village, zone

	English		Xitsonga
32.	**elegent**	-	saseka, hlawuleka, xiyimo xa lehenhla
	outstanding	-	hlawuleka, ha saleke

The above partial synonym pairs share some meanings and this relation should be indicated in a dictionary by means of reference marker **COMPARE**. Partial synonyms in translation dictionary should receive lexicographic treatment because their meaning is not totally the same. The lexicographic principle is that, the frequently used synonyms should receive full treatment whilst those that are not frequently used receive cross – referencing.

Let us see how *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:11,13) has treated this issue:

	Xitsonga		English
33.	**hiseka**	-	zealous
	gingirika	-	active, zealous

The lemmata **hiseka** and **gingirika** have been supplied with translation equivalents that are not the same and this case they are partial synonyms. In the article of **hiseka** there is one translation equivalent and in the article of the lemma **gingirika** there are two translation equivalents. In this article, lexicographers should have indicated to the dictionary user that the two lemmata are partial synonyms. This study would like to argue that in case of partial synonyms, cross referencing should be given to the lemma that have more translation equivalents. This means that the lemma **gingirika** is the most frequently used in Xitsonga hence it should receive more translation equivalents than its synonym counterpart. Let us look at how *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:11, 13) should have been presented the article:

	English		Xitsonga
34.	**hiseka**	-	zealous
	gingirika	-	active, zealous COMPARE hiseka

This kind of presentation is user friendly because the user will be able to see that the lemma **gingirika** is most frequently used and that it is partial related to the lemma **hiseka**. In the article of gingirika there is the translation equivalent "zealous" which is used as an equivalent in the article of "hiseka", this means that the user can easily identify that the lemmata **hiseka** and **gingirika** share some translation equivalents and they may not be used interchangeably. Therefore, the reference marker **COMPARE** is used to indicate this.

Let us look at the following article from *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:17, 35):

	Xitsonga	English
35.	**jaha**	lad
	mufana	boy, lad

The headwords **jaha** and **mufana** are partial synonyms and they cannot replace each other in all contexts. The lemma **jaha** has only one translation equivalent that maintain a relation of absolute equivalence is "lad" in other words, the article of the lemma **mufana** should receive cross – referencing to the lemma **jaha** because the lemma **mufana** has more translation equivalents. Both lemmata should receive full lexicographic treatment, the article of **mufana** must also receive cross referencing.

The article should have been better:

	Xitsonga	English
36.	**Jaha**	lad
	mufana	boy, lad, COMPARE

The above treatment assists the users to see the relation of partial synonyms in the source language. The user can easily see that the headword **mufana** is the frequently used and it is partially related to the lemma **jaha**. In other words, the users will be able to detect that lemmata share some translation equivalents and they cannot replace each other in many contexts. **COMPARE** is used to show that **mufana** and **jaha** are partial synonyms.

Let us look at the following article from *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:33, 34, 47):

	Xitsonga		English
37.	**minyikelo**	-	contribution
	mpfunelo	-	contribution, support
	nhlengo	-	contribution, collection, offering

The lexical items **minyikelo**, **mpfunelo** and **nhlengo** are partial synonyms. This means that they cannot replace each other in some context. The translation equivalent that maintains a relation of absolute equivalent is **contribution**. In other words, the article of the lemma **nhlengo** should receive cross-referencing to the articles of the lemmata **minyikelo** and **mpfunelo**, because the lemma **nhlengo** has more translation equivalents. This means that this lemma should receive full lexicographic treatment, with article of **nhlengo** having cross-referencing.

The article of **minyikelo**, **mpfunelo** and **nhlengo** should look as follows:

	Xitsonga		English
38.	**minyikelo**	-	contribution .
	mpfunelo	-	contribution, support.
	nhlengo	-	contribution, collection COMPARE nhlengo, mpfuneto

From the above article, the dictionary user will be aware that the translation equivalents that are found in the article of the lemma **nhlengo** cannot replace the lemmata **minyikelo** and **mpfuxeto** in all contexts. Therefore lemma, **nhlengo** should receive the cross-referencing of the lemmata, **mpfuxeto** and **minyikelo**.

Let us look at the following article from *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:116, 141):

	English	Xitsonga
39.	**elegent**	saseka, hlawuleka, xiyimo xa lehenhla
	outstanding	hlawuleka – ha saleke

The above articles have a relation of partial synonyms. In this case the lexicographers give all lemmata translation equivalents. The dictionary users cannot see that the lemmata "elegant" and "outstanding" are partial synonyms because the two lemmata

have receive full lexicographic treatment on semantic comment without any reference marker indicating any relationship. Therefore, the lemma **elegan**t should receive cross-referencing to the lemma **outstanding**, because the lemma has more translation equivalents than the lemma **outstanding**. The translation equivalents that are found with the headword **elegant** cannot interchangeably with the lemma "outstanding" in all contexts. Therefore "**elegant**" and "**outstanding**" are partial synonyms and cannot replace each other in many contexts.

The above treatment would be better if it looks as follows:

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>English</td><td></td><td>Xitsonga</td></tr>
<tr><td>40.</td><td>**elegant**</td><td>-</td><td>saseka, hlawuleka, , xiyimo xa lehenhla</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>COMPARE outstanding</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>**outstanding**</td><td>-</td><td>hlawuleka , ha saleke</td></tr>
</table>

The above presentation is better because the dictionary users will be able to see the relation between the two lemmata. This kind of lexicography is user friendly because the users are able to see that the item **outstanding** does not have the same translation equivalence as the lemma **elegant** because they are partial synonyms.

Lets us also look at the second part of the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:33, 42) the articles are presented as:

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>Xitsonga</td><td></td><td>English</td></tr>
<tr><td>41.</td><td>**muganga**</td><td>-</td><td>village, zone</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>**ndhawu**</td><td>-</td><td>place, scene, venue, zone</td></tr>
</table>

The above articles have a relation of partial synonyms. In this case the lexicographers give all lemmata translation equivalents. In this instance dictionary users cannot easily identify that the lemmata **muganga** and **ndhawu** are partial synonyms because the two

lemmata have full lexicographic treatment without any reference marker indicating any relationship. Therefore the lemma **ndhawu** should receive cross-referencing to the lemma **muganga**. The translation equivalents that are found in the lemma **ndhawu** cannot substitute the lemma **muganga** in all contexts. This means that the lemmata **muganga** and **ndhawu** are partial synonyms and cannot replace each other in many contexts.

The above articles would have been better if they were presented as follows:

	Xitsonga		English
42.	**muganga**	-	village, zone
	ndhawu	-	place, scene, venue, zone, COMPARE muganga

The above treatment is better, but one doubts if the lexicographers were aware that they were dealing with partial synonyms. If they were aware of this, at least a reference marker should have been used to indicate this partial synonym and again the translation equivalents **place**, **scene**, **venue** and **village** do not have the same meaning as **zone**.

Let us look at the definitions of the above equivalents from Major (2002:1074, 1674, 1262, 1529, 1597):

place	-	an area or position.
zone	-	an area that has an important or typical feature.
scene	-	a place where something happens.
venue	-	the place where activity or event happens .
village	-	a very small town in the countryside.

Looking at the meaning of the translation equivalents **place**, **zone**, **scene**, **venue** and **village,** it shows that the above lexical items are not complete synonyms. Therefore, they cannot substitute each other in any contexts. Gouws (1989) says that a semantic level lexical divergence implies a relation of equivalence between the lemma and each member

of the target language synonyms paradigm. He continues that in a case of partial synonym each one of the translation equivalents cannot replace each equivalents that are found in the article of one partial synonym lemma.

4.3.1   Treatment of absolute synonyms

According to theory of lexicography synonym lexical items should be included in a dictionary as lemmata. Lexicographers should make sure that synonyms are linked in a dictionary. When linking words in a dictionary lexicographers will make sure that lexical items that are frequently used are awarded a comprehensive treatment whereas those lexical items that are not frequently used within a synonym pair receive cross referencing to one is frequently used.

In all cases the reference marker "SEE" should be written in capital letters, so that the user of a dictionary should not confuse the marker with elements that present meaning in the article. The reference marker "SEE" should always be used to indicate cross referencing of a complete synonym where a synonym pair has one to one semantic relationship. Cross-references should be used in the treatment of synonym lemmata to show the interaction between the related lemmata. If a lexical item functions in a dictionary as part of a lexicon, this would then enable users of a dictionary to learn more words in a short space of time. In other words, these users are able to see that two or more lemmata share the same translation equivalents. Therefore dictionary users can use the related words interchangeably. Lexicographers in *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005*)* have inconsistently used "SEE" (VONA) in the semantic comment, some synonym pairs have not been linked to indicate that they are related to each other. This is a problem, because it fails the users to achieve communicative success.

Let us look at the following examples from *Xitsong/English Dikixinary/Dictionary* (2005: 45, 51, 61):

	Xitsonga		English
43.	**ngoti**	-	string
	ntambu	-	string
	rigoda	-	string

The above article is problematic. Lexicographers of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/ Dictionary* have failed to link the three absolute synonyms. This also fails the dictionary user to achieve communicative equivalence. Mphahlele (2001:77) writes that lemmata should not be treated in isolation from other related lemmata in a dictionary. To make sure that these related lemmata are treated in co-ordination with each other cross-referencing should be applied in a translation dictionary.

The synonyms for the lemma **ntambu** are **ngoti** and **rigoda**. In the articles of the lemmata **ngoti** and **rigoda**, lexicographers must not include translation equivalents that are found in the article of the lemma **ntambu**. Since the three lemmata are synonyms, the articles of **ntambu**, **ngoti** and **rigoda** must be presented as follows:

	Xitsonga		*English*
44.	**ntambu**	-	string
	ngoti	SEE	ntambu
	rigoda	SEE	ntambu

The above presentation helps to indicate the relation of synonym in the source language. This kind of treatment is economically, because the user will be able to see that the article of **ntambu** has the same translation equivalents as the headwords **ngoti** and **rigoda**. In other words, the three source language items are complete synonyms. The user can also deduce that the lexical item, **ntambu** is frequently used in Xitsonga as it has been given a full lexicographic treatment. Contextual guidance should always be furnished in the translation equivalent paradigm in semantic comment. In a case of cross-referencing contextual should be supplied in an article of a lemma that receive full lexicographic treatment. This means that, an article of **ntambu** should receive information regarding

translation equivalents supplied with contextual guidance, an article of a lemma, **ntambu** should look as follows:

	Xitsonga		English
45.	**ntambu**	-	string (to tie goods)

The usage information that has been given in the above translation equivalent paradigm shows that **ngoti**, **rigodi** and **ntambu** are synonyms that can be used to replace each other in any communicative context. This indicates that cross-referencing enables the user to be familiar with related lemmata and related translation equivalents in a dictionary and allows the user to communicate successfully.

In order to enter the lemmata with a limited lexicographic treatment and the lemmata with a complete lexicographic treatment, the lexicographer has to rely on representative corpus. A lexicographer also has a task of ascertaining whether a word is a synonym or not. If a lexicographer lacks linguistic expertise, this task will be difficult. The ability to differentiate between the lemmata with high frequency and the lemmata that are not frequently used will enable a compiler to apply cross – referencing in the most acceptable manner.

Most translation dictionaries do not apply cross–referencing correctly, because lexicographers of these dictionaries give all synonym lemmata a comprehensive lexicographic treatment. This mistake cannot assist the user to see co-ordination and cohesion of the articles in a dictionary. Users will always regard lemmata as independent of each other in a dictionary. This process will never facilitate a process of language learning. The repetition of the same translation equivalent paradigm in many articles is waste of time and duplication of presented information. Let us look at the following article from *Xitsonga /English Dikixinari /Dictionary* (2005:28:45):

	Xitsonga	English
46.	**makhonya**	veteran
	nghwazi	champion, veteran, winner

This is a duplication of the presented information. If a lexicographer knew that the headwords, **makhonya** and **nghwazi** are absolute synonyms he should have given a complete lexicographic treatment to the headword that has the highest usage frequency. In this case **nghwazi** has the highest usage frequency, therefore it should have received cross – reference to the lemma **makhonya**.

The following treatment would have helped the user to see co-ordination and cohesion between the two articles:

	Xitsonga		English
47.	**makhonya**	-	SEE nghwazi
	nghwazi	-	champion, veteran, winner

This clearly indicates that the two are closely related. The translation equivalent is the article of **makhonya** and can be used to substitute **nghwazi**. It is important for the compiler not to include translation equivalent in the article of **makhonya** because **makhonya** is not frequently used like the lexical item **nghwazi**. Mphahlele (2001:81) writes that without cross referencing, a synonym definition will not be acceptable unless cross referencing is used to refer to original lemma that has a complete lexicographic treatment. He further says that, "a meaning is a set of semantic features". This is cautioning against a mere listing of translation equivalent without usage information. Cross-referencing should always be associated with the treatment of synonym lemmata and also a translation equivalent paradigm should always be supplied with contextual guidance.

The alphabetical ordering and positioning of lemma should not determine whether it receives a full treatment or only a cross-reference entry. This should be determined by

the usage frequency of the synonym pair. Whether a lemma is ordered in the beginning of translation dictionary or not, the rule of cross referencing is that only those variant or synonym lemmata that are most frequently used must be supplied with complete lexicographic treatment (Mphahlele, 2001). The articles of **makhonya** and **nghwazi** above illustrate this point that **makhonya** does not receive a comprehensive lexicographic treatment, as it is not frequently used. For dictionary users to achieve communication equivalence, the microstructural entries in an article should not display article internal cohesion (a cohesion within an article) but they should display article external cohesion (a cohesion with other elements) (Mphahlele, 2001). Article external cohesion means that an article interacts with other article in the dictionary. As another way of assisting dictionary user to achieve communicative success, cross-referencing lead to article external cohesion in semantic comment. This promotes an idea that dictionaries have to display a textual approach.

Information regarding the functioning and use of with regard to cross-referencing, lexicographer of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* has haphazardly and inconsistently used the cross-referencing. Let us look at the following articles from *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:1, 5, 6, 11, 12, 15, 18, 21, 33, 45, 55, 59, 81, 83):

Xitsonga

48.	**amukeriwile**	vona	AMUKERIWEKE
	apila	vona	APHILA
	apili	vona	APHILA
	chimele	vona	CHIMELA
	chingwana	vona	CHIGWANA
	debyelela	vona	DEBYELEKA
	gwitsihala	vona	GWITSILA
	gwitsirisa	vona	GWITSILA
	haka	vona	ANGARHA
	hundziso	vona	HUNDZISELO

kalavatla	vona	KHALAVATLA
khomphyuta	vona	KHOMPYUTA
koveta	vona	KOVELA
morosa	vona	MOXA
nghiyi	vona	MUGIYI
nyamusoro	vona	DZWAVI
palamente	vona	PALAMENDE
pindzula	vona	BINDZULA
tsima	vona	TSIMU
tsimo	vona	TSIMU
wonga	vona	ONGA
xihumelo	vona	XIHAMBUKELO
xileriwa	vona	XILEMERIWA
xilepfu	vona	XILEBVU
xilondza	vona	XILONDZO
xilulamiso	vona	XILUNGHISI

In the above articles the presentation of the articles is done in this way: lemmata: (reference position), reference entries (vona) written in small letters then referent address presented in capital letters. In the very same dictionary there are articles that have been presented differently from the above ones. Let us look at the following presentation from *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:1, 3, 66, 11, 15, 19, 20, 33, 75, 77, 81):

<u>Xitsonga</u>

49.	**apulaya**	vona	**ENDLA XIKOMBELO**
	asiteriki	vona	**XINYELETANA**
	bayografi	vona	**MATIMU YA MUNHU**
	bayoloji	vona	**NTIVO – VUTOMI**
	beha	vona	**YIRISA**
	dewulana	vona	**MANGADYANA**
	divhosa	vona	**DLAYA VUKATI**

divhoso	vona	**HERISO WA VUKATI**
guma	vona	**FUNYA**
hlokohlisa	vona	**HOSINKULU**
kariti	vona	**KHADI**
kheza	vona	**HLELA**
khwapa	vona	**KEHELE**
khwaxu	vona	**MUKHOMOLELE**
motokari	vona	**MOVHA**
vulavula na	vona	**VULAVULA EKA**
vutihavelo	vona	**VUDLAYELA – SWIFUWO**
xihuku	vona	**XIGQOKO**

Lexicographers have presented the above articles in the following manner: lemmata (referent position) in bold, vona as reference entry then follows a referent address in bold. Both presentations in 48 and 49 represent cross-referencing. Both articles are problematic. The compilers of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) seem not to be clear on how to present articles with cross-referencing. According to common lexicographic procedures, referent entry should be written in target language, which in this case is English, and it should be in capital letters. Referent address should neither be in capital letters nor bold. Did Lexocographers of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) fulfill this common lexicographic procedure? The answer is no. Therefore lexicographers have failed to empower the users linguistically. The articles would have been better if they were presented as follows:

	Xitsonga	English	
50.	**amukeriwile**	SEE	amukeriweke
	apila	SEE	aphila
	apili	SEE	aphila
	chimele	SEE	chimela
	chugwana	SEE	chingwana
	debyelela	SEE	debyeleka

gwitshila	SEE	gwitsila	
haka	SEE	angarha	
hundziso	SEE	hundziselo	
kalavatla	SEE	khalavatla	
khomphyta	SEE	khompyuta	
koveta	SEE	kovela	
morosa	SEE	moxa	
nghiyi	SEE	mugiyi	
nyamusoro	SEE	dzwavi	
palamende	SEE	palamende	
pindzula	SEE	bindzula	
tsima	SEE	tsimu	
tsimo	SEE	tsimu	
wonga	SEE	onga	
xihumelo	SEE	xihambukelo	
xilen'wa	SEE	xilemeriwa	
xilepfu	SEE	xilebvu	
xilondza	SEE	xilondzo	
xilulamisi	SEE	xilunghisi	

The above presentation is acceptable because the entry is written target language and is in capital letters. Secondly referent addresses are in small letters. This procedure is good as it linguistically empowers the user of a dictionary.

Articles would have received a better presentation if they were as follows:

	Xitsonga	English	
51.	**apulaya**	SEE	endla xikombelo
	asiteriki	SEE	xinyeletana
	bayografi	SEE	mati ya munhu
	bayoloji	SEE	ntivi – vutomi

beha	SEE	yirisa
dewulana	SEE	mangadyana
divhosa	SEE	dlaya vukati
divhoso	SEE	heriso wa vukati
guma	SEE	funya
hlokohlisa	SEE	konanisa
hosi – ndlopfu	SEE	hosinkulu
kariti	SEE	khadi
kheza	SEE	hlela
khwapa	SEE	kehele
khwaxa	SEE	muchomolele
motokari	SEE	movha
vulavula na	SEE	vulavula eka
vutihavelo	SEE	vudlayela swifuwo
xihuku	SEE	xigqoko

The above treatment is user friendly because the dictionary user will be able to see that in the above articles, lexicographer has used cross referencing to show the relationship between articles of synonym pairs as referent entry "**SEE**" has been inserted in the articles. The corrected articles 50 and 51 have been systematically and consistently presented. If articles 48 and 49 were presented as in 50 and 51 lexicographers would have achieved textual cohesions and empowered users linguistically.

4.4 LEXICOGRAPHIC LABEL

Lexicographic label indicates the restriction concerning usage of specific lexical items. Lexicographic label shows the prototypical information that should appear in general dictionaries. Label markers amongst other things they are directed at a guarantee of communicative success by the users of a particular lexical item. This means that lexicographic label helps dictionary users to communicate successfully because a user will use acceptable language in a specific situation. It may also be used as marker of

microstructural elements to indicate their restrictions.

Many translation dictionaries are dictionaries that provide translation equivalent for each lemma ordered in the macrostructure. Standard dictionaries endeavor to reflect the standard variety of the target language(s). Standard dictionaries are linguistic reference source mostly commonly used by the average members of a speech community and these users rely on a dictionary as authorative source of linguistic information. Although the restricted language use is not the target of these dictionaries, one often finds some items from these varieties in a standard dictionary. It is expected that standard dictionaries should contain labelling. This is because some of the lemmata that appear in the macrostructure of general translation dictionaries are not standardized forms of a particular language. In this case, lexicographic labels are required and necessary.

Beside semantic information, general translation dictionaries have to accommodate information on the usage of the lemma. That is these dictionaries must give a clear indication of a linguistic context in which specific lexical item can occur in a typical utterance. Mphahlele (2001:69) indicates "the lemma must be placed in its syntactical context in an article of a general dictionary. This placement of a lemma will make the target user to see that a specific lemma is restricted for standard use. When a lemma is labelled, translation equivalents for this lemma may also be restricted". In most cases, some of the translation equivalents of a labelled lemma are not restricted in terms of standard use. This therefore requires a careful application of labels in the translation equivalents paradigm because a careless application may result in the labeling of translation equivalent that follow standard usage. A relationship between a marker lemma and its labelled equivalents make semantic equivalence to hold between source language and target language form and this encourages communicative success. The unlabelled can confuse the user because he will assume that such a lemma is standardized. Consequently, the dictionary user can for example use slang language in a formal situation such as at meetings and churches.

A problem with many translation dictionaries is that they do not include lexicographic

label in their articles. These dictionaries do not include pragmatic information to indicate restriction of the lemmata and their translation equivalents. Given this problem, users of dictionaries are not able to differentiate between standardized lexical items and those with restricted use. This confusion makes users to use unacceptable language in a formal situation for example, user may use strong language without knowing that it offends the audience or congregation.

Lexicographers must not only label the lemmata that deviate from the standard use, they must also supply lexicographic labels to the translation equivalents that do not follow standard use. Before labeling these translation equivalents, compilers must bear in mind that translation equivalents for a labeled lemma are different, for example some may be restricted whilst others may follow standard use. This means that some of the translation equivalents may have a restricted use because they present the polysemous sense of the lemma. In partial synonyms, some of the synonyms may have a restricted use. Therefore a compiler must label only those equivalents that deviate from the standard use. The fact that some of the translation equivalents receive labels whilst others do not receive labels in a translation equivalent paradigm show that these equivalents cannot replace each in any context, even if these lexical items have been presented as synonyms.

The following article from *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005:108) will outline this point:

	English	Xitsonga
52.	**conceive**	nyimba, tika, xurha, kuma, khwiri /nyimba, anakanya

The above article is problematic, because the translation equivalents supplied are partial synonyms, some of the partial synonyms may have a restricted label. In the above presentation the user cannot obtain communicative equivalence as he or she will use a translation equivalent **nyimba** in situation such as church. The unlabelled translation equivalent poses a problem to the user of a dictionary because the user does not even

think that translation equivalents **nyimba** might be deviating from the standard use. For the dictionary user to communicate successfully, compilers of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) should have presented the above article as follows:

English   Xitsonga

53. **conceive**   nyimba (ndzhukano), tika, xurha, (xisasi), kuma,

          khwiri / nyima; anakanya

The above article is better and user friendly, because standard translation equivalents are not labelled whilst the translation equivalents with the restricted use receives lexicographic labels. The above article indicates that the lemma **conceive** is standard language and that translation equivalents differs with regard to their standardize usage. That is, the first translation equivalents **nyimba**, and **xurha** are restricted and **tika**, **kuma khwira**, **anakanya** represent standard use. Such representation is helpful to users to differentiate between restricted and standard language. After consulting the above article, one is able to deduce that the lexical item **nyimba** is offensive (ndzhukano) and if a dictionary user is sensitive enough he or she cannot attempt to use it in any situation. User of a dictionary can also be able to use lexical item **xurha** in formal situation without any fear that he or she may offend others. The user will know exactly that translation equivalent **xurha** is euphemism (xisasi) then is acceptable to use it and the target language speaker will understand it. For optimal retrieval of the required information, translation equivalent should also be awarded this pragmatic information. If lexicographers do label translation equivalent, target users cannot achieve communicative success.

4.5 CONCLUSION

Information regarding the function and use of cross-referencing should be included in the front matter of a dictionary. This information is very important for dictionary users because without it, users cannot understand how cross-referencing functions. If this information is not well explained, consequently it will impede the information on

semantic comment.

Lexicographic label in the translation equivalents paradigm does not mean that lexicographers have to forget to supply usage information (contextual guidance) regarding translation equivalents. A translation equivalent paradigm should always be supplied with extra-linguistic information. This is to say that lexicographic labels perform different function from semantic information and extra-linguistic information on a semantic comment of a translation dictionary.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to give conclusion of the study. This will be achieved by giving the summary of each chapter of the study, the findings and recommendation of this research.

5.2   SUMMARY

Chapter one serves as an introduction of the study. The chapter provides the introduction, background to the problem, the aim of the study, significance of the study, methodology, scope and definition of concepts.

Chapter two deals with literature review. The chapter introduces discussion of theories on the influence of semantic comments in a bilingual dictionary. Views of different theorists were given, namely: Gouws (1999), Mphahlele (2001), A1-kasimi (1977), Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), Mavoungou (2001), Mafela (2005), Gouws (1999) Svense'n (1993), Mpofu (2001), Bullon (1995) and Palmer (1993).

Chapter three concentrates on scanning the arrangements of microstructure elements in *Xitsonga/English Dikixinary /Dictionary* (2005). The chapter highlights part of speech, contextual guidance, divergence, presentation of translation equivalents and problems in distinguishing between the synonym and polysemy.

Chapter four focuses on general information about extra-linguistic information. The chapter outlines the semantic information versus extra- linguistic information. The issue of cross-referencing was treatment of partial synonym and treatment of absolute

synonyms has been highlighted. The recording of lexicographic label has also been treated.

Chapter 5 serves as a summary and conclusion of the research work as a whole, highlighting the first four chapters discussed, followed by the findings and recommendations in this study.

5.3   FINDINGS

The findings of the study are listed below as follows:

- It is difficult for users of translation dictionaries to use the target language because when they consult a translation dictionary, they often come across translation equivalents that are listed without contextual guidance. It is unfortunate that speakers of different languages cannot rely on translation dictionaries in order to achieve communicative success. It is the duty of lexicographers to make sure that these people living in multilingual countries like South Africa be supplied with most comprehensive, detailed, systematic and user friendly translation dictionaries which will empower them to learn more about their second languages.

- Not all lexical items in a translation dictionary have a standard usage. Some of these lemmas and translation equivalents are restricted to a situation of usage.

- The lexicographers of *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) often confuse translation equivalents with extra-linguistic information.

- The compilers of *Xitsonga /English Dikixinari/ Dictionary* (2005) seem not to be sensitive about the language used in the microstructure of a bilingual dictionary.

- Unsystematic and inconsistent recording of lemmata to indicate cross-reference

confuses the dictionary users.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The study's recommendations are that:

- Semantic comment is important as it narrows the knowledge gap between the source language and the target language. When it is applied, target users of a dictionary are able to know how translation equivalent can be used in communicative context.

- Realising that the *Xitsonga/English Dikixinari/Dictionary* (2005) has recorded the secondary information on the place of primary information, and visa versa, an urgent proposal is hereby directed to the *Xitsonga Dictionary Unit* to immediately compile a new dictionary that will be user-friendly.

- Contextual guidance should be supplied after the translation equivalents and written in a target language, in order to facilitate coordination between itself and the translation equivalent for the user to achieve communicative success.

- Every translation equivalent has its own specific meaning even if those words are partial synonyms. Therefore, lexicographers should make an effort to distinguish this meaning by using contextual guidance.

- Usage examples and contextual guidance should be in the target language.

- If extra-linguistic information precedes the translation equivalents, dictionary users would be assisted to retrieve the correct translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm.

- Given the fact that lemmata and translation equivalents may sometimes be

different from the standard use in standard translation dictionaries, the study therefore suggests that all lexical items that deviate from standard use must receive a lexicographic label.

- Cross-referencing should be consistently and systematically used in order to give access to additional relevant lexicographic data.

- The consistent use of commas will enable the user to see the relation between translation equivalents in the translation paradigm.

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