

**THE ROLE OF USAGE EXAMPLES IN NORTHERN SOTHO-
ENGLISH/ENGLISH-NORTHERN SOTHO
BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES**

By

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the following people:

1. My responsible mother : T. M. Makwela
2. My late father : J. M. Makwela
3. My daughter : Ledile Mapao Makwela
4. My brothers : Thathane and Malesela Makwela
5. My sisters :Mamošole, Mokgadi, Mabore and
Mapula
6. My sisters in-law :Magadima and Mpelang Makwela

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- To my lovely daughter Ledile Makwela, I say to her ‘MO GO GATILEGO KGWAHLA YA PELE, LE YA MORAGO E GATE!
- TO OUR GOD Almighty: You are the creator of everything.

ABSTRACT

Some dictionaries are presented in such a way that their target users could not be able to retrieve the desired semantic information. This is especially seen in Northern Sotho bi-directional dictionaries (Northern Sotho-English/English- Northern Sotho Bilingual Dictionaries). Unfortunately, semantic information in these dictionaries is presented in an unsystematic way where translation equivalents are just presented without any extralinguistic information such as usage examples that would function to contextualise the given translation equivalent. The study evaluates these dictionaries in terms of the presentation of polysemous and synonym translation equivalents. The study finds that translation equivalents are not arranged systematically in the microstructure. It concludes that extralinguistic information in a form of contextual guidance and cotextual guidance be systematically used in the microstructure of Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries so that dictionary users could be able to retrieve systematically presented translation equivalents that would not confuse them but rather assist them to speak the target language in a communicative functional way.

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CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

Any presented lexical item (lemma) in a dictionary has its own usage in a particular language. The occurrence of these lexical items in a communicative context is very important to this usage information and that it is known as contextual guidance. Contextual guidance is given by means of words or phrases that are usually written in brackets next to each translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm of a bilingual dictionary. These entries serve an important purpose in a translation dictionary because they assist the dictionary user to choose the correct and appropriate translation equivalent from the translation equivalent paradigm. In a bilingual dictionary, usage examples point to a specific contextual use of a translation equivalent.

The following words (in brackets) are usage examples:

(1) **mountain** (stone)- very high hill.

hill (soil)- small mountain.

The examples in (1) show the importance of usage examples in a dictionary. These examples assist the dictionary user to communicate successfully when using the treated lemmata in a communicative context.

Hartmann (1984: 140) says that usage is the way in which a word, phrase is used to express a particular idea or the customary manner of using the words of a given language in speaking or writing. Usage examples are important in dictionaries because they show how treated words are typically used by a

speech community. As a result, these treated words are usually made easier by the usage examples supplied in a form of words or sentences.

2. RESEARCH PROBLEM

Northern Sotho translation dictionaries are presented in such a way that the dictionary user cannot use the retrieved meanings in a communication context. Meanings are just presented without any extra-linguistic information that would support them (meanings) to be used by the user in his/her communication. Lexicographers can use usage examples such as illustrative examples or contextual guidance, as they make the dictionary user to use the retrieved semantic information in a context. These usage examples are lacking in the microstructure of bilingual dictionaries where translation equivalents are presented. Lexicographers of Northern Sotho translation dictionaries do not include usage examples in their dictionaries and this does not enable the dictionary user to choose the correct and accurate equivalent for a specific context. The lexicographer's inclusion of usage examples will guide the dictionary user towards retrieving the correct and appropriate translation equivalent for a particular context.

Lack of usage examples will make the dictionary user to feel uncomfortable in choosing the presented translation equivalents. The lexicographer should bear in mind that not all users are familiar with all translation equivalents presented in the microstructure of dictionary. The dictionary users need the lexicographer who presents usage examples in a dictionary to enable them to have a successful communication in the target language.

Let us look at the following presentation by Mabilille and Dieterlen (1966):

(2) **sebete-** liver, patience, self- control (1966: 39)

To differentiate the meanings of these equivalents, let us see their meanings in *The Concise Oxford Dictionary* (1963):

(3) **liver-** is a large glandular organ in vertebrates secreting bile and purifying venous blood (1963:347)

patience- calm endurance of pain or any provocation (1963:712)

self- control- well disciplined (1963:890)

In the above articles, the dictionary user will have a problem in choosing the relevant translation equivalent because the lexicographer has not included usage examples as extra-linguistic information regarding translation equivalents. These three translation equivalents cannot be used interchangeably in a context. It would have been better if the lexicographer have used usage examples to enable the dictionary user to retrieve the required translation equivalents. The above translation equivalents paradigm cannot assist the dictionary user to communicate successfully in the target language. Without the appropriate translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm, the dictionary user may be tempted to use the translation equivalents in an interchangeable way. This would then lead the user to communicative failure because, for example, the words **patients** and **self-control** do not necessarily have the same meaning. We cannot assume that a dictionary user knows the typical use of all the translation equivalents

that are found in the above semantic comment. Instead, the dictionary user who is a Northern Sotho speaker may use these three equivalents in a communication context.

Let us look at the following article by Mabilile and Dieterlen (1966):

(4) **moseamo**-pillow, cushion. (1966: 294)

According to *The Concise Oxford Dictionary* (1963:294), the word **pillow** means ‘a cushion of linen, etc. stuffed with feathers, etc. as support for head in reclining, especially in bed’. In the same dictionary, the lexical item **cushion** means ‘mass of soft material stuffed into cloth or silk covering for sitting, kneeling’ (1963:301). These two definitions show us that the words, **pillow** and **cushion** are not complete synonyms. It will therefore be difficult for the dictionary user to use the translation equivalents successfully because of the lack of usage information guiding him/her how these equivalents are used in a context. The dictionary user will not know which translation equivalent to choose for a specific context. The English lexical items **pillow** and **cushion** cannot replace each other in any context and usage examples should have been used to assist the user with the context in which these equivalents may appear.

The following examples derive from Kriel, Prinsloo and Sathekge’s *English-Northern Sotho Dictionary* (1997):

(5) **toast**- šimela, beša, lekeletša. (1997:320)

The lexicographers have not included usage information regarding translation equivalents in the above article. That is, semantic information should have been supplied with extra- linguistic information in a way to enable the dictionary user to retrieve the relevant translation equivalent. There is no way in which the Northern Sotho lexical items **šimela**, **beša** and **lakaletša** could replace each other in a context. The Northern Sotho word **šimela** means ‘to put an animal’s meat e.g. a hare, on the sun without fire for few days and being eaten after it dries up’, **beša** means ‘to put meat on fire until it is cooked to be eaten’ and **lakaletša** meaning amongst other ‘congratulating someone on his/her birthday, examinations, wedding ceremony’, etc.

The following article from *Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary* (1971) is also problematic:

(6) **warble-** opela, tswirinya, letša. (1971: 330)

In the above presentation, the lexicographers have not included usage example to assist the dictionary users to choose the correct and appropriate translation equivalent. Given the fact that there is no absolute synonymy amongst the lexical items **opela**, **tswirinya** and **letša**, the dictionary user cannot obtain communication success when using the above-presented equivalents. Something should have been done to assist the dictionary user with extra-linguistic information.

(7) **morutwa-** pupil, student, disciple, scholar. (*Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary* (1971))

These four equivalents have their own different meanings and the lexicographer should have supplied usage information in order to differentiate their occurrence in a communicative context.

The following example from *Northern Sotho Terminology and Orthography No.4*. (1988) is also problematic:

(8) **barrage**- letamo, sediba.(1988: 100)

The lexical items **letamo** and **sediba** are carriers of water. One would want to know more information regarding these items. This can be easier if the lexicographer supplies usage information regarding these lexical items. Otherwise, if this is not done the dictionary user who might not be the native speaker of Northern Sotho will not be able to differentiate these equivalents.

In this regard Zgusta (1971: 95) argues that the lexicographer will see an endless variety of types of near synonyms and that when compiling near synonyms, the most important thing is to analyze their respective lexical meanings into the single senses. That is, to find the critical semantic feature, to establish the connotation (which may differ from one sense to another) and the respective ranges of application (which may also differ from one sense to another). This means that an application of meaning in a context is important for the user.

3. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

3.1. AIM

The aim of the proposed study is to evaluate Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries in terms of the presentation of translation equivalents in their microstructures.

The following questions will lead the researcher to achieve the aim of the study:

- What can be done to present semantic information in such a way that those dictionary users may use in a communicative functional way?
- Which extra- linguistic information can be used as usage examples in Northern Sotho-English and English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries?
- Which most appropriate symbols or tools can be used in the microstructure of these dictionaries that could make the context clear to the dictionary users?

3.2. OBJECTIVES

- . To identify accurate and appropriate extra-linguistic information that would serve as usage examples in Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries.
- . To identify and differentiate between types of contextual guidance that can be used in Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries.
- . To determine possible positions in the microstructure of Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries where the illustrative examples can be presented.

. To distinguishes between meaning and non-meaning in bilingual dictionaries.

4. LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to provide a sound theoretical framework for the study, available literature is reviewed below:

4.1 MPHAHLELE (2001)

According to Mphahlele (2001: 6) the use of contextual guidance by the lexicographer will help the target user of a dictionary to communicate successfully. In other words, the use of contextual guidance assists the dictionary user to choose the correct equivalent and to achieve communicative equivalence in his/her communication. He gives the following example from Kritzinger and Steyn's to illustrate his argument:

(9) **kies**- choose, elect, pick. (1970: 115)

Mphahlele (2001: 12) continues that the above article displays a relation of lexical divergence. According to him, the article will not assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success because the lexicographers have not included contextual guidance in the semantic comment. He argues that lexicographers should have included contextual guidance because there is no absolute synonyms between members of the target language synonym paradigm. This means that the lexical items **choose**, **elect** and **pick** are not

absolute synonyms and therefore extra-linguistic information in the form of examples is necessary.

He further gave the following examples to illustrate his arguments:

(10) **gate-** sefero, lesoro, mpshiko (1991: 45)

He argues that the omission of contextual guidance in the translation equivalent paradigm implies that the three synonyms **sefero**, **lesoro** and **mpshiko** can replace each other in any context. The three translation equivalents are partial synonyms and they cannot replace each other in every context. This is to say that the lexicographer should have included usage information of the translation equivalents to show that they can replace each other in some indicated contexts. If the translation equivalents **sefero**, **lesoro** and **mpshiko** are used interchangeably, this will result in communication embarrassment.

4.2 AL-KASIMI (1977)

Al- Kasimi (1977: 90) comments that ‘the only way to define meaning of the word is to describe (usually by illustrative phrases or sentences) the distribution of the word. This means that the distribution of words may be done in a form of sentences or phrases. In other words, usage examples can serve to illustrate the semantic range or distribution of the word in the ordinary communication. Al-Kasimi (1977:90-91) says that he employs usage examples to illustrate the grammatical (phonological, morphological, syntactical) behaviour of the defined word in addition to their illustration of

meaning. He stresses that an example illustrates one of the characteristics of the uncountable, namely, the use of an itemizer. This is to say that the characteristics of the defined word may be seen in the usage example.

4.3 FEINAUER (1999)

According to Feinauer (1999: 30), lexicographical examples are divided in two categories, namely, verbal and non-verbal material. According to Feinauer (1999: 30) non-verbal material is rendered in the form of illustrations. She states that the most important task of the examples is to explicate the syntactic performance of the lemma by placing it into syntactical context. Furthermore, she argues that the examples show typical combinations and various uses of the lemma that can be deduced from the context within which it is placed. Feinauer (1999: 30) continues to argue that there are two types of examples and these are, “citations” and “invented examples”. She says that citations are quotations from actual language that are obtained from the written or spoken language. She argues that those lexicographers or their co-workers make up invented examples in the form of full sentences or parts of sentences.

4.4 LANDAU (1989)

Landau (1989: 163) says that the underlying presumption of citation files is that though small compared to the uses of language, they truly represent the state of the language; and even the largest citation file represents only a tiny fraction of the immense volume of speech and writing that occur every single day. He argues that since citation files are based predominantly on

writing, it is fairly certain that translation citation files do not accurately represent all uses of language. He states that invented phrases are frequently essential to tell the reader how the definition is actually used in ordinary contexts.

4.5 HARTMANN (1984)

Hartmann (1984: 140) describes usage as the way in which a word, phrase, etc is used to express a particular idea or the customary manner of using the words of a given language in speaking or writing. He argues that usage notes give a good deal of information about grammar, the fine differences of meaning, the most common practices and advice on the best forms to use in formal writing. According to Hartmann (1984: 140) today usage generally implies the way words and phrases are actually used and that it also refers to the question of suitability of words and phrases in particular contexts such as time, place, or circumstance. Hartmann (1984: 140) continues that most likely the user will need usage information when writing or speaking rather than reading or listening.

He argues that a usage note comments on how the word is typically used and in what situational contexts it is frequently found; and that the note may serve to supplement the definition with information on the syntax or status of a word.

1.4.6 ZGUSTA (1971)

Zgusta (1971: 166) argues that in larger dictionaries, quoted examples are to be preferred over invented ones. He continues to say that in dealing with actual quotations, one is constantly frustrated by the inclusion of words that are needlessly difficult or irrelevant to the usage. In this case, Zgusta is emphasizing the accuracy of the examples in the microstructures of dictionaries. His concern is that if appropriate examples are given they will not assist the user to understand the presented meaning.

5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study will contribute to the theory of lexicography as the sub-discipline of lexicography. That is, it will fill the void in African language lexicography with regard to the usability of retrieved meanings. It will be use by lexicography students who will be doing research in future.

6. RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The rationale of the study is to show that usage examples are very important extra linguistic information that made dictionary users to communicate successfully. In this study, the researcher will make sure that the quality of usage examples (if any) in Northern Sotho-English/ English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries is improved.

7. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

7.1. SECONDARY RESEARCH METHOD

The secondary research method will be used in this study as follows:

7.1.1. TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

The study will evaluate Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho dictionaries in terms of the presentation of translation equivalents and usage examples presented after them. In other words textual analysis method will be used in this study. In doing this, lexicographic texts such as textbooks, journals, dissertations will be used to support arguments. Where applicable, mistakes committed by lexicographers for not supplying translation equivalents with relevant examples will be corrected. This means that correct suggested versions of the articles will be given. Other dictionaries that present better usage examples will be used as models.

8. DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study will only focus on Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries in terms of the presentation of usage examples.

1.9 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

In this chapter, different concepts will be introduced and defined. The importance of defining these concepts is to give the lemma its translation equivalent. These translation equivalents will be given relevant extra-linguistic information or usage information. This implies that the researcher will use the terms in different ways to make effective communication to the

user. The following sets of definitions are those that are to be used throughout the research. These are a dictionary, bilingual dictionary, lexicography, lexicographer, lemma, macrostructure, microstructure, usage examples and contextual guidance. They are offered in this chapter to avoid ambiguities for the translation equivalents.

1.9.1 **DICTIONARY**

Zgusta (1971: 197) defines a dictionary as a systematically arranged list of socialized linguistic forms, that is, compiled from the speech-habits of a given speech-community. A dictionary is compiled by the lexicographer in such a way that the qualified reader does understand the meaning of each separate form. The user will be informed of the relevant facts concerning the function of that form in its community.

According to Merriam-Webster dictionary series (1990: 352), a dictionary is a reference book listing alphabetically terms or names which are important to a particular subject or activity along with discussion of their meanings and applications.

Zgusta (1971) and Merriam-Webster (1990)'s definitions are strongly supported by Longman (1995: 375), who says that a dictionary is a book that gives a list of words in alphabetical order and they explain their meanings in the same or another language.

The above three definitions of a dictionary revolve around one description, that is the listing of alphabetical forms; terms or names important to a particular language together with their meanings.

Ridler (1961: 331) argues that a dictionary is a book dealing with the individual words of a language (or specify classes of them). This is done to set the orthography, pronunciation, signification, synonyms, derivation and history of a dictionary.

Let us look at the following examples of a dictionary article from Longman (1995):

(11) **illustrative-** helping to explain the meaning
of something (1995: 709)

Usage- the way that words are used in a language
(1995: 1583)

User- someone or something that uses a product,
service, etc. (1995: 1584)

The presented examples above are a combination of lexical items that are alphabetically arranged, together with their meanings. They make the dictionary user to communicate successfully in his/her speech-community.

1.9.2 BILINGUAL DICTIONARY

According to Landau (1989: 7), a bilingual dictionary consists of an alphabetical list of words or expressions in one language (the source

language). This means that relevant equivalents are given in another language (the target language). He continues to say that the purpose of presenting two languages in a dictionary is to provide help to someone who understands one language but not the other. The presumption is that one of the languages is the user's native language.

Mphahlele (2003: 40)'s definition describes bilingual dictionary as a dictionary that records two languages at the same time. In this dictionary, one language is recorded as source language whilst the other is the target language. He stresses that a bilingual dictionary sometimes is referred to as a translation dictionary.

The above two definitions of a dictionary revolve around the recordings of two languages. These are the source and target languages.

Haas in Landau (1989: 9-10) remarks that a bilingual dictionary provides a translation for each word in the source language. He continues to say that its coverage of the source language lexicon is complete grammatical, syntactic and semantic information. It is provided with usage guidance, names are included and there are special vocabulary items such as scientific terms. This is to say that there are aids and alternative spellings, which are indicated. There is pronunciation which is included and that it is compact in size, which obviously limits its coverage of items.

To show that a bilingual dictionary records two languages, that is the source and target languages as equivalents, Kriel, Prinsloo and Sathekge's (1997) *Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho* together with *Terminology and Orthography No 4* (1988) are used hereunder as examples:

- (12) **bogobe-** porridge (1977: 11)
bohlapelo- bathroom (1977: 11)
dinko- noses (1977: 23)
phefo- wind (1977: 128)
segwegwe- frog (1977: 142)
- band-** lepanta (1988: 99)
bedbug- tšhitšhidi (1988: 101)
half- seripagare (1988: 193)
pea- erekisi (1977: 293)
warmth- borutho (1988: 343)

The above presentations are the Northern Sotho (source language) lexical items translated into English as target language equivalents.

That is, they are the translation equivalents items providing meanings for the source language. These examples are user-friendly because they can assist both the speakers of Northern Sotho and English to achieve communicative success.

1.9.3 LEXICOGRAPHY

According to Crystal (1987: 108), lexicography is the process of compiling dictionaries. Crystal continues to say that as part and parcel of lexicography, it is then defined as the study of the vocabulary items (lexemes) of a language. This includes their meanings, relations, changes in their form and meaning through time.

Matthews (1997: 207) defines lexicography as the writing of dictionary for practical use or for any other purpose.

Barnhart (2000: 1204) says that lexicography is the writing or making of dictionaries.

The main point in the above three definitions of lexicography is based only on compiling, writing of a dictionary. That is, the above definitions are clear enough because the user cannot deduce how are those words arranged when the lexicographer compiles a dictionary.

For clarification, let us consider the definition by Svensén (1993):

Svensén (1993: 1) argues that lexicography is often defined as dictionary compilation that first and foremost lays stress on the product, that is, a dictionary. Svensén continues to say that lexicography is a branch of applied linguistic that consists in observing, collecting, selecting and describing units from the stock of words. Those words are combined in one or more languages and also that it includes the development and description of the theories and methods that are to be the basis of this activity.

The lexicographer has to arrange headwords in their alphabetical order. This will enable the dictionary user to choose the correct and appropriate translation equivalent to the lemma given. This implies that the dictionary user will have a communication success. Svensén (1993)'s definition gives us a broad meaning of lexicography.

Many dictionaries have been compiled over the years and below follow few of them commonly used in South Africa:

- (13) *Oxford Illustrative Dictionary* (1962)
- Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1995)
- The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar* (1994)
- The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics* (1997)
- The World book Dictionary* (2000)
- A Dictionary of Linguistic and Phonetics* (1991)
- Linguistic and Bilingual Dictionaries* (1977)
- Sesuto- English Dictionary* (1966)
- Northern Sotho- English/English- Northern Sotho Dictionary* (1997)
- South African Multi- language Dictionary and Phrase Book* (1991)

The above few examples of dictionaries will assist the user to remember that it is because of the lexicographers that dictionaries be compiled. This is a clear fact because those dictionaries are presented above.

1.9.4 LEXICOGRAPHER

Ridler (1970: 233) defines a lexicographer as a writer or compiler of a dictionary.

Barnhart (2000: 1204) regards a lexicographer as a writer or maker of a dictionary.

Mphahlele (2002: 26) remarks that a lexicographer is a person who writes and edits a dictionary. Whereas on the internet, a lexicographer is seen as someone whose job is to look at what words mean and how they are used and also to use this information to write entries for a dictionary.

1.9.5 LEMMA

Mphahlele (2002: 23) states that a lemma is any bolded lexical, sub-lexical or multi-lexical unit that appears as a treatment unit in the vertical position of a dictionary.

Peter (1962: 468) defines a lemma as a headword of a dictionary article.

Barnhart (2000: 1198) says that a lemma is a subsidiary or auxiliary proposition to be used in the proof of main propositions.

This is a general definition of the term lemma. Without a lemma, there will be no definition, meaning or usage in a dictionary. In the *South African Multi-language dictionary* (1991), that is Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho as languages chosen from this dictionary, the following words in bold are presented hereunder as the lemmata:

Northern Sotho- English

(14) **dikgong**- firewood.

faele- file.

hlale- fibre.

hlapi- fish.

sebešo- fireplace.

English- Northern Sotho

idea- kgopolo.

identify- -hlaola.

house- ngwako.

howl- -golola.

huge- -gologolo.

The above examples are user-friendly because they can assist the dictionary user to deduce the correct lemma. That is the dictionary user will be able to identify the lemma, if he/she see it on the left hand side of a dictionary being bolded. Therefore, the presented examples above are the true reflection from the dictionary.

1.9.6 **MACROSTRUCTURE**

Mphahlele (2002: 29) defines macrostructure as 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.

Mphahlele's (2002) definition is nearly the same as Svensén's (1993: 223), who says the macrostructure means the relative arrangement of the dictionary entries.

Let us look at the following presentation by *South African Multi-Language dictionary* (1991), this is the Northern Sotho-English as languages chosen from this dictionary, the words in bold hereunder are the macrostructures:

- (15) **boitapišo**- trouble (1991: 233)
- boitatolo**- alibi (1991: 233)
- boitekelo**- experiment (1991: 233)
- boitemogelo**- experience (1991: 233)
- boipolao**- suicide (1991: 233)

English-Northern Sotho

- gradually**- ka bonya (1991: 85)
- grain**- mabele (1991: 85)
- grammar**- popopolelo (1991: 85)
- granadilla**- koronatela (1991: 85)
- granary**- sešego (1991: 85)

These examples (words in bold) are user-friendly because they can assist the dictionary user to see that words on his/her left-hand side are alphabetically arranged in the macrostructure.

1.9.7 MICROSTRUCTURE

Mphahlele (2002: 31) defines microstructure as any linguistic information that comes after the lemma in the article of a dictionary that reflects

pronunciation, circumflex, labeling, definitions and usage examples about the lemma.

According to Svensén (1993: 210), microstructure is the structure of the individual dictionary entries, their various parts, the mutual relationship of them and that it also includes the typographic conventions used (various type-faces and type-size, punctuation and special symbols). Svensén continues to say that in bilingual dictionaries, it is often possible to combine parts of speech in straightforward cases, where the equivalents are the same or the different can be shown in a simple manner.

Svensén (1993: 210) gives the following as examples from French and German:

(16) **reactionnaire** (adj)- reactionary- (noun)

antiseptisch (adj)- antiseptic (ally)- (u. adverb)

Information on the right-hand side of the lemmata forms part of the microstructure. These are words such as ‘reactionary’ as a noun and ‘antiseptic (ally) as an adverb.

Gouws, Ponelis and Zgusta (1992: 77- 104) argue that the microstructural entries include pronunciation, part of speech, labels, variant spellings, morphological information, etymology, combinations and collocations encyclopedic notes and citations. They continue to say that lemmata receive a comprehensive treatment in the microstructure. This implies that the

microstructural treatment presented in a dictionary has to be regarded as extremely valuable contribution to lexicography in general.

The above definitions imply that it is important for the lexicographer (s) to define lemmata and apply different forms such as inflexion, noun, noun phrase or pronunciation, to give the target language user guidance regarding the meanings in the microstructure of a dictionary.

Therefore, it is very important that pronunciations, encyclopedic information, usage examples, etc. should always be given in the microstructure.

Mabille and Dieterlen (1966: 242- 300) have the following examples:

(17) **Head word Meaning Examples**

Head word	Meaning	Examples
meno	teeth	(for eating)
motho	human being, male or female	(a poor person, a poor fellow)

The information on the righthand side of the meaning and the usage examples are the microstructural elements. Those elements are words such as **teeth, human being-male or female**, the usage examples (**for eating, a poor person, a poor fellow**)

The microstructure can be seen in the following abbreviations:

(18) **Abbreviation** **Meaning**

H.E.D	Higher Education Diploma.
E.D	Edition, Edwina, Education.
UNIN	University of the North.
H₂O	Water.

Higher Education Diploma, Edition, Edwina, Education, Ermelo, University of the North and **Water** are in the microstructure. These are written in the microstructure to enable the dictionary user to develop a broad understanding of words and their meanings in a dictionary.

(19) **Headword** **Meaning**

goose	leganse
meet	kopana le

The translation equivalents ‘leganse’ and ‘kopana le’ are in the microstructure. This will enable the dictionary user to be familiar with, and able to use the words in the microstructure to have communicative success. The dictionary user will be aware of the need to have the microstructure of words in a dictionary. Therefore, the dictionary user will have

communicative success. In this case, the microstructures of all the above lemmata have been well presented

1.9.8 USAGE EXAMPLE

Landau (1989: 174) says that usage refers to any or all uses of language spoken or written and it bears the same as related to other aspects of language. He continues to say that the vast flow of words in sound and writing circulates and constitutes the medium through which speech is perceived as intelligible. The meaning of words is discerned and grammar is understood. He says that usage is used in another sense as well. According to him usage may also take in the study of any limitations on use, whether geographic, social or temporal.

Matthews (1997: 392) defines usage as traditionally the way a language is customarily spoken or written as opposed to the rules laid down by grammarians and thus, in particular forms or constructions, it may be 'justified by usage' even though rule apparently prescribes them.

Brandford (1994: 1075) sees a usage example as a customary practice, especially in language use or as creating a precedent in law.

Peter (1962: 906) remarks that usage is the manner of using or treating use of words.

Let us look at the following usage examples in *Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary* (1971) that is, Northern Sotho-English:

(20) **bega-** report (scandal)

bolela- talk (news), speak (lies)

eiye- onion (for cooking)

kopanya- join (opinions), Unite (congregations)

penta- paint (walls)

English-Northern Sotho examples from *Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary* (1971) are as follows:

belt- lepanta (la roko)

milk- maswi (a kgomo)

leaves- matlakala (a puku), mahlare (a more)

read- bala (ditaba)

wear- apara (dikobo), tšwara (borokgo)

1.9.9 CONTEXTUAL GUIDANCE

Mphahlele (2002: 51) states that contextual guidance is the contextual information in the microstructure of a dictionary, which indicates how a particular lemma is used in a language. That is, contextual guidance indicates the linguistic occurrence of a lexical item in a language. He continues to say that the use of contextual guidance by the lexicographer will help the target user of a dictionary to communicate successfully. In other words, the use of contextual guidance will assist the dictionary user to choose the correct equivalent and to achieve communicative equivalence. This implies that translation equivalents should be supplied with sufficient contextual guidance, after the translation equivalent paradigm. Lack of

contextual guidance will end up confusing users because they will not know which translation equivalent is important and relevant for a given context.

The following examples from *Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary* illustrate the use of contextual guidance:

Northern Sotho-English:

- (21) **ala-** arrange the sheet (of a bed)
- bose-** savour (of peanuts)
- dipoelo-** profits (of goods), gain (of money)
- heke-** gate (in a fence)
- kopanya-** unite (people)

English-Northern Sotho:

- cloth-** lešela (la go hlapa)
- fats-** makhura (a kolobe)
- guide-** mohlahli (wa kgwele ya maoto)
- heart -** pelo (ya kgomo)
- redeem -** phološa (dibeng)

In the above presentation, the examples show the importance of contextual guidance. It is necessary, because it will assist the dictionary user to communicate successfully in a particular context. That is, these are additional entries supporting the presented equivalents and/definitions.

1.9.10 **CONCLUSION**

Concepts defined in this section of the study are used frequently in the study. Their definition would enable the reader to be able to understand the flow of the study. This chapter serves as an introduction to this study and even the aim and research problem would allow the reader to understand the point for understanding the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter focus primarily on the review of literature based on theoretical usage examples in dictionaries. Lexicographers have written on this work and their views will be reviewed in this chapter.

2.1.1 MPHAHLELE (2001)

Mphahlele (2001: 6) argues that the problem with many of existing translation dictionaries is that they enter the translation equivalent without additional supporting entries giving contextual guidance. The additional entries are very important in the microstructure of a translation dictionary because every translation equivalent in a translation equivalent paradigm cannot replace each other in all contexts.

According to him, if a dictionary compiler is not giving contextual guidance in his dictionary, that particular dictionary will not lead the target user anywhere. He says that the main aim of the dictionary should not only be to establish semantic equivalence between the source and the target languages, but also the establishment of communicative equivalence and to lead the user to obtain communicative success. He argues that supplying the additional entries in the microstructure could facilitate this. He continues to say that a mere listing of translation equivalent limits the semantic comment

of a translation dictionary. This implies that the user is helped to make the correct choice of equivalence for specific contexts. He stresses that by adding required information that is needed and necessary in a dictionary and that an extended translation profile where translation equivalents interact with other microstructural items are necessary for the optimal retrieval of information. He mentions that lexicographers should enter a translation profile that has a high density of information to enable dictionary users to achieve communicative equivalence. In this case, there should be an expansion of the semantic comment so that the user can achieve communicative success. He further says that the inclusion of contextual guidance in this case helps the dictionary user to choose the most appropriate translation equivalents.

Mphahlele (2001: 8) stresses that in order for the users to achieve communicative success, the lexicographer must enter the translation equivalent that has the highest usage frequency as the first translation equivalent in a synonym paradigm. According to him, such translation a equivalent that has the highest usage frequency should also be supplied with contextual guidance. In other words, the dictionary user is guided from the known to the unknown translation equivalents.

2.1.2 GOUWS (1999)

Gouws (1999: 24) says that the lack of contextual guidance is especially troublesome in articles displaying an equivalent relation of semantic divergence. This means that in a case of divergence, there should not be a mere listing of translation equivalents but a higher density of encyclopedic

information is needed in order to help the dictionary user to retrieve the required information easily. He stresses that lexicographers must supplement the translation equivalents with entries directed at contextual guidance.

Mphahlele (2001: 10) argues that the expansion of the semantic comment may be in the form of glosses. He indicates that glosses are single words used to indicate the context of a translation equivalent. According to him, lexicographers must make sure that there is no arbitrary choice of glosses in an article. That is, the arbitrary choice of glosses will confuse dictionary users and will ultimately disturb the dictionary user to establish possible communicative equivalents. He acknowledges that as a result of this problem dictionary users often end up choosing the wrong and inappropriate translation equivalents for a particular context.

Mphahlele (2001) gives the following examples from Kritzinger and Steyn's (1970) translation dictionary:

(1) **aanneem-** accept, adopt, assume, admit; confirm (1970: 3)

Mphahlele (2001) states that the above article displays an equivalent relation of poli-equivalence because there is heterogeneous divergence. That is, there are both lexical and semantic divergences in the article. He says that the article is problematic because there are no glosses or contextual guidance after the translation equivalents. Mphahlele continues that there is only a mere listing of translation equivalents and the translation dictionaries that consist of a mere listing of translation equivalents are abandoned by their users who have to get information somewhere else. That is, the functions of

these dictionaries should be restored and these could be done by compilation of the translation dictionaries that include entries that give contextual guidance or glosses in the semantic comment. He further uses present tense for the following examples from the same Glossary:

(2) **daling-** descent; fall, drop, slump (1970: 46)

Mphahlele (2001: 11) argues that there are both lexical and semantic divergences in the above paradigm and that the lexicographer has not included contextual guidance in the mentioned semantic comment. According to him it is advisable for the compiler of the dictionary to include usage information/examples regarding the translation equivalents. This implies that the dictionary users would be assisted in achieving communicative equivalence. Therefore, the two lexicographers should have included contextual guidance in this translation equivalent paradigm.

2.1.3 FEINAUER (1999)

According to Feinauer (1999: 33) examples are very important at the lemmas that have polysemous and they also help in the effective transfer of meaning, since they should help the users to make the complicity of the lemma to be clear. Feinauer (1999) remarks that the excessive use of the examples will have a detrimental effect to users. She states that most dictionaries are not consistent enough regarding this lexicographical requirement and that a polysemic lemma in a context should be supplied with relevant examples to enable the user to deduce the required extra linguistic information. She comments that this is because sometimes there

are no examples at a polysemic lemma and that at other instances only some polysemic distinctions within a specific dictionary article receive examples. Feinauer (1999: 33) present the following examples from HAT, where by some of the distinctions do have examples whilst others have no examples:

- (3) **snytsel**: (cutting) 1. Iets wat gesny of afgesny is, ...
(something that is cut or cut off), Snytsel voe in die krip
(A cut of foder in the manger) Die dag se snytsel koring
in `n mied pak (To heap the day`s cut of corn in a stack)
ses snytels lusern per jaar (Six cuttings of alfalfa per year)
2. Repie van uitgerolde deeg gesny (Dough cut into threads)
van snytels en melk kan `n heerlike pot melksnytels gekook
word (Dough threads and milk can be cooked into a lovely
dish) 3. Stukkies metaal, hout, plastiek, ens. Wat deur
snygereedskap verwyder is (Pieces of metal, wood, plastic,
etc. taken off by means of cutting tools).

Feinauer (1999) says that at the first presentation, that is, polysemic of **snytsel** (cutting), there are too many examples. She argues that the user cannot deduce anything that is syntactically or semantically new from the last two combinations that is less than sentences. In this case the examples at the second distinction is good, but the last distinction has no examples at all. She stresses that the lexicographer should make sure that the examples contains information that is syntactically or semantically new from the last two combinations, but especially the first example according to which the last examples of the lemma are made in order that the user could produce his or her own contexts with the particular lemma in a semantically suitable

context. She (1999: 34) further use the lemma “**gedy**” (thrive) in the HAT as an example:

- (4) **gedy-** (thrive) 1. Weilig, voorspoedig groei, goed aard, floreer...to grow well; agree well; flourish),
Graan sal in hierdie grond gedy (Grain will grow well in this soil), Die kinders gedy in die simpatieke atmosfeer van die ouerhuis (The children thrive in the sympathetic atmosphere of their home), Die diere gedy in die welige weiveld...(The animals thrive in the lush grazing).

Feinauer (1999) continues to say that the second presentation (for **gedy**), have enough examples that are appropriate and these examples have excellent generating power. This implies that the user can conclude that the lemma **gedy** can be used for plants, people and animals.

2.1.4 ZGUSTA (1971)

Zgusta (1971: 263), states that lexicographers or their co-workers made up invented examples and that the status of invented examples is usually less than that of citations since they are not verifiable. Although not verifiable, invented examples are very useful instruments especially for smaller types of general monolingual dictionaries which do not have the budget to produce facts taken as true for reasoning (for encyclopedic information) in the macrostructure of the dictionary. He continues to say that invented examples are also useful since they can set up an example sentence exactly according to the needs of the dictionary user. He stresses that in learner’s dictionary

like CCELD (*Cambridge Concise English Learners Dictionary*), the lexicographers use invented examples only and the dictionary user should be continually regarded in this type of examples. Zgusta (1971) gives the following invented examples from CCELD to stress his arguments:

(5) **baby**- a baby is a very young child, usually one that has not yet started to walk or talk, e.g. more and more women want to have their babies by natural child birth.

feminist- a feminist is a person who believes in and supports feminism...e.g. the feminist response to the new law (used as an adjective).

Zgusta (1971) says that the above-invented examples have been exactly presented according to the knowledge of the dictionary user. The examples have been invented to enable the user to have the opportunity to communicate successfully. He continues by saying that invented examples and citations can further be subdivided into three categories: **combinations less than a sentence**, **collocations** and **example sentence**. According to him an example sentence is a full sentence, with all the prototypical parts of a sentence, which explains or describes or give information about the macrostructure in the dictionary.

Let us look at the following example from Zgusta (1971):

(6) **jip**- if a horse or donkey **jibs**, it stops suddenly, and refuses to continue. Once again the donkey

jibbed you will not pass it.

Zgusta (1971) remarks that in the above presentation the lexicographer could use all three types of examples in the article of one lemma and he/she can shift within the same article between invented examples and citations. He argues that example material does not form part of the definitions and it provides information on use, whilst the meaning provide semantic information. That is, examples should support definitions and complement them, while at the same time it provide the slot for supplementary information that does not as such belong in the definition. He stresses that examples should be written in Italics, why? Because separating these examples from the definitions it is a good method.

To illustrate his argument, let us look into the following example presented in the article of **kraaibekblikskêr** (type of scissors) in the WAT VIII:

- (7) **kraaibekblikskêr**-blikskêr met gebuigde, snawel vormige kake: (plate-shears with curved, beak- like cutters.) Die kraaibekblikskêr word gebruik om sowel bolronde as holronde patrone mee uit te sny. Dit is dus ook die aangewese skêr om te gebruik waar sierpatrone met baie draaie en krulle uitgekrip moet word (C.B. Lategan: Handwerkteorie II, 1957, 26)
(The kraaibekblikskêr is used to cut out both convex and concave patterns. It is also the proper scissors to use when decorating patterns

with many frills should be cut out).

According to Zgusta (1971) the usage information of the article is situated in the citation and it is not given as part of the definitions. That is, there is a separation of the definiens (definitions) and the example material. He states that example material should really be used as complement to the definiens and neither citations nor invented examples may be chosen at random or purposeless. This is to say that the lexicographer should use examples economically and productively since space in dictionaries is usually restricted. He continues to say that one or two representative examples that convey the necessary information are enough, whereas three or more examples that illustrate the same usage are unnecessary. Therefore, the examples should be economical and productive.

2.1.5 HARTMANN (1984)

Hartmann (1984: 145) argues that a usage note gives information about the use of a word by providing a modifier or a comment. According to him, usage notes are also given to function for words as their definitions when there is little or no substitutable meaning to the word. He uses some of the examples from the W3 as follows:

(8) **gee**...-often used as an introductory expletive for emphasis and sometimes to express surprise or enthusiasm.

at...- used as a function word to indicate presence
prepositions **on**, **in** or **near**.

He continues to say that usage notes also comment on how the word is typically used and in what situational context it is frequently found. This indicates that the descriptive usage note may be used to convey emotive overtones and other connotations of a word. According to him, terms of ethnic and derogation generally require supplementary notes.

2.1.6 SVENSÉN (1993)

As far as glosses are concerned, Svensén (1993: 329) comments that glosses are used to specify the partial equivalents: they specify to the part of the entry words, multiple meaning where the respective partial equivalent belongs and thereby disambiguate its own multiple meaning easily. He gives an example of a gloss as follows:

(9) what was achieved notwithstanding the difficulties,

as similar to an explanation. Another example is the gloss:

somebody is dead,

which is according to him similar to an explanatory equivalent and the other one is,

profession,

that resembles or is like a simple synonym, et cetera. He stresses that in this type of glosses, it is not very important to give too much attention to the

limited range of application which makes one part of the entry words multiple meaning equivalent with (a part of the multiple meaning of) the partial equivalent. Therefore, he argues that, it is not an easy task to deduce upon these glosses, especially when they are based on a restriction of application and when there is no standard- descriptive monolingual dictionary of the respective language at hand. He gives an example of the Chinese word **shen-ju** which has (in its verbal function) the German equivalents of the words **einsichen**, **eindringen** which approximately means ‘to soak (through) to penetrate’ He stresses that in English language usage, this lexical item (shen-ju) has been stretched out to have the gloss as in the following example:

(10) **to soak (through), to penetrate (e.g. capital, liquids).**

Svensén (1993) comments that in other cases, the lexicographer would sometimes see it to be useful to add a gloss because of something that is not included in the dictionary, that is usage information, but which could nevertheless be relevant.

He stresses that the Czechoslovakian word or lexical item **Czechoslovakian krátkost** means ‘shortness’, and that this can be respectfully used in both references such as **to time** and **to space**. This means that in a Czech-Chinese dictionary this would require two Chinese equivalents, i.e. one on each application. He argues that the Czech word is frequently used in reference to disambiguate that the words **to time** be only really in reference to the equivalent **to space**. He continues that in this case the lexicographer may incline to indicate only the “temporal” equivalent that is the Chinese gloss

Chinese- tuan - chan and omit the ‘spatial’ one. According to him, it is therefore an advantage to add the following gloss:

(11) [Czech] **krátkost** “shortness”, [Chin.] **tuan-chan**
(temporal)

The above gloss has been presented or included in order to specify the “temporal” equivalent against the (absent) “spatial” one. Svensén (1993) continues to say that it happens that entries which do not present any polysemy are nevertheless furnished with glosses. According to him the consequences are that in very precise dictionaries a gloss tends to lose its purpose of disambiguation or specification and tends more to become an encyclopedic explanation. Svensén (1993) mentions that in a Rumanian – Czechoslovakian dictionary we read the following:

(12) [Rum.] “muezzin”, [Czech.] “muezzin” meaning
(“Mohammedan”)

[Rum.] “muftin”, [Czech.] “mufti” means (“Mohammedan
priest”)

He states that as there are only “**Mohammedan muezzins**” and “**muftis**”, we have before us explanations. That is, the rather encyclopedic or at least non-linguistic character of the latter is stressed by the fact that it consists not only of the adjective “**Mohammedan**”, but it also has the noun “**priest**”.

Svensén (1993) expatiates that there are the Latin terminology that is added in some dictionaries to the botanical and Zoological (and only rarely to

other) words. He says that this type of glosses disambiguate the meaning to some extent. He suggests that if an equivalent of the English word **flax**, is **sought**, it may appear that there are different equivalents according to the different species of the word **flax**.

Svensén (1993) continues that on the other hand the Latin term (**linus...**) can be the word **then** being used as the disambiguating gloss, but that it is hard to discern this use from those cases where the addition of the Latin term is of a purely encyclopedic character. He therefore stresses that if they are neither too long nor too frequent they may considerably enhance the user's comprehension of words, which may have excellent, absolute equivalents, but that the user may ignore it in both the source and target languages, irrespective of which is his/her native language.

There is another subdivision of the type of usage examples that is pictorial illustrations. These types of illustrations is seen by Svensén (1993: 172) as being used in a single object whereby it may show just one object of the same kind concerned without comment and that the one which is shown become representative of its class. He states that pictorial illustrations may specify the parts of the object because these have to be mentioned in the definition at the borderline of encyclopedic redundancy.

According to him pictorial illustration of a class contains several different types of classes, it is useful to show more than one (and not a very large) number of subordinate concepts and it is again reasonable to deal with them all together. He illustrates the examples by providing the following class of the word **brush**, for his argument:

(13) **brush**: tooth-brush, scrubbing-brush, hair-brush,
nail-brush, paint-brush.

Svensén (1993) stresses that there are several types of brushes, so the lexicographer should mention them through pictures to enable the user to have a thorough knowledge of that particular class. That is, there are different types of names for brushes that fall under the main class of **brush**.

2.1.7 AL- KASIMI (1977)

Al-Kasimi (1977: 88) says that illustrative examples should be used systematically and consistently and at least one citation should govern each separate meaning of every entry. According to Al-Kasimi, the illustrative examples should be translated into the user's native language because they will become useless or time-consuming and as such they will contain some other words whose meaning will be unknown to the user.

He continues to say illustrative examples should be so selective to reflect the culture of the speakers of the target language, and they should be brief and informative. That is, they should illustrate the use of the word and enhance the user's understanding of its grammatical behaviour, semantic range, stylistic affiliations, or all of these disciplines. He continues to say that if they are used (examples) they must be systematically and economically arranged and be considered only where verbal explanations are unable to describe the meaning content with sufficient precision, concentration, completeness and clarity. He therefore concludes that an illustrative example

can be any phrase or sentence that illustrates the use of the item defined or translated and these are one of several terms used interchangeably by various writers.

Fleming in Al-Kasimi (1977: 96) says that pictorial illustrations are those configurations of line, dot, or area and any combination of these three resembling events or object (person, places, and things) either as perceived or as generally conceived. He stresses that pictorial illustrations in a dictionary should also be expanded to include the verbal modifiers that go with it. In this sense the verbal modifiers usually consist of (a) non-sentences (i.e. titles, labels, and legends) and (b) sentence (usually adjacent captions). Thus a pictorial illustration is made up of a picture plus verbal modifiers.

According to Hill (in Al-Kasimi 1977: 97), in his article "*The Typology of Writing Systems*", pictures have played a major role in human communication and in the evolution of the symbolic representations of languages. He stresses that pictorial illustrations usually appear on separate plates foldout sheets, or alongside the printed texts. In this case pictorial illustrations certainly add to the size and cost of the dictionary.

Smith (in Al-Kasimi 1977: 98) argues that pictorial illustrations help the dictionary user to understand and remember the content of the accompanying verbal equivalent, because they motivate him or her, they reinforce users about what they read and symbolically enhance and deepen the meaning of the verbal equivalent. He continues to say that pictorial illustrations can be employed in the dictionary on a large scale, because they are usually used in dictionaries with nouns, specifically concrete nouns, not

the abstract ones. He states that nouns typically form a relatively high percentage of the language in comparison with the other parts of speech. He therefore, stresses that pictorial illustrations can be employed with more words other than one might assume. It is in this case that pictorial illustrations can be accordingly employed in the bilingual dictionary to illustrate objects familiar to the user as well as those cultural items that are peculiar to the foreign language.

2.1.8 LANDAU (1989)

According to Landau (1989: 166) the illustrative quotations or invented phrases are a critical part of the dictionary definition that gives examples in meaning and they should not be regarded as mere appurtenances. He mentions that they can give ideas of information about collocation, various types of usage (degree of formality, humorous or sedate context), connotation (affective implications) grammatical course pointing out meaning context (if it is a verb, does it take an indirect object?). He continues to say there is often no better way to provide this information than by the use of an illustrative quotation. Landau (1989) continues that invented phrases are always very important to tell the user how the definition is used in an ordinary context.

He stresses that on the other hand, an unabridged dictionary such as NID3 uses invented illustrative phrases as well as quotations in general and that invented phrase makes sense when it is used many times in dictionaries. He remarks that in such cases the citations are of no importance whereas on the opposite side they provide necessary evidence for constructing a short and

well-suitable illustrative phrase. According to him, real usage has the weight of authority behind citations, but the illustrative quotations have more support on the definition of the lemma in the microstructure. That is, illustrative quotations can indicate their range of application.

Landau (1989) argues that quotations that are wisely selected by the lexicographer (s) can be substituted for part of the definition by indicating to the user who knows how to interpret them to show the limits of literalness of a definition.

He uses the adjective **suspect** from the NID3 dictionary as follows:

- (14) **suspect**- having the nature or status of suspicion,
e.g. a suspicious person or thing, provocative or
worthy of suspicion, hold one suspicious until his
innocence is proved, treat all innovations as suspicion.

Landau (1989) argues that the first citation, which is the invented example, gives the most common literal usage and the second citation illustrates that the lexical item **suspect** is not confined to people, but may be used abstractly and in this sense the word suggests 'skepticism' on the part of the person 'suspecting'; rather than the thing describing suspicion. He stresses that the third citation is again relating to 'a person' but this illustrates that it can be applied metaphorically to suggest that the person 'suspected' is untruthworthy (not trusted), unreliable, or unfaithful. This implies that the metaphor equates the official party position with right behaviour and stigmatizes

dissent as morally culpable and in this case no two citations are alike in the collocation.

He remarks that the word **suspect** in the first and third citations is followed by prepositional clauses **until** and **to** which are respectively introduced. From this point of view, in the first citation someone can be “**held suspect**” and in the second citation he or she can be “**treated as suspect**”. Therefore, from the second citation the word “**suspect**” need not be followed by a clause.

Malone (in Landau 1989: 163) had an assumption that citation files are representative of actual usage and that the usefulness of them are flawed particularly in their representation of technical words in widespread popular use. He states that citation files are limited by impracticality of coping with thousands of citations for every word, even if such large numbers of citations could be grouped together. According to him collection of citations is subject chiefly to the availability of certain written materials that are over-represented compared to other written material and all speech.

Malone (in Landau 1989: 163) has the following definition presentation for the word “**Mahogany**” which he constructed from the preponderance of his citations for his arguments:

- (15) **mahogany**- a more or less hard and heavy wood derived from various related and unrelated tropical trees, the wood usually has interlocked or crossed grain, they varies in color between reddish brown

and brownish yellow, it seasons well, and takes a high polish, it is much used for fine cabinet work and in making other articles of luxury or superior quality, e.g. yachts and fine furniture.

Landau (1989) says that Malone's article presents evidence for doubting that citation files are fairly and fully representing the written language or the spoken one.

2.1.9 CONCLUSION

The review of literature on usage examples have been made in this chapter. The study would like to add to this existing knowledge regarding usage examples by adding new lexicographic inventions or suggestions.

The study would like to add to the existing knowledge reviewed above. That is, it would attempt to make additions to the arguments of literatures; especially with regard to the issue of contextual guidance.

CHAPTER 3

EVALUATION OF NORTHERN SOTHO-ENGLISH/ENGLISH-NORTHERN SOTHO BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES IN TERMS OF TRANSLATION EQUIVALENTS:

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the study will evaluate Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries in terms of the presentation of translation equivalents. A critical analysis of the existing lexicographic practice is done in this chapter. The evaluation will also consist of corrections of articles that the researcher thinks are misrepresented in those dictionaries.

Usage examples are the units of language that form the basis for verbal communication. Translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm should be arranged in such a way that any article may be supplied with extra linguistic information about the lemma in a dictionary. A typical entry of a bilingual dictionary should have its own translation equivalent/s that has/have semantic information with whereby extra-linguistic information is included. This will enable the dictionary user to achieve communicative success. That is, he/she will be given a chance to choose the correct and relevant translation equivalents.

Lemmata in the dictionary should be given their appropriate translation equivalent or equivalents supplied with relevant usage examples. Lack of usage examples in translation dictionaries has not succeeded in assisting the dictionary user to retrieve semantic information.

This chapter will focus primarily on the works of Prinsloo and Sathekge's *New Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionary* (1996) and Kriel, Prinsloo and Sathekge's, *Popular Northern Sotho-English/Northern Sotho- English bilingual dictionary* (1997). The researcher will also use monolingual dictionaries to support her argument by giving correct versions of the articles. These monolingual dictionaries are:

- *Illustrated Reverse Dictionary* (1990)
- *The Concise Oxford Dictionary* (1963)
- *The English Oxford Dictionary* (1970)
- *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* (1980)
- *The World Book Dictionary* (2000)

The following are examples of articles from Prinsloo and Sathekge's *Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho Bilingual Dictionary* (1996):

- (1) **bolela**- speak, say, talk (1996: 74)
- (2) **kata**- trot; tramp; wrestle; fell; rape (1996: 92).

The following are also the article from *The Popular Northern Sotho-English/English- Northern Sotho Bilingual dictionary* (1997).

(3) **cover-** sekhurumelo, seširo; sepipetše (1997: 210)

The above ten lexical items in these articles are not well presented. The lack of contextual guidance by the lexicographers will not help the target users of the bilingual dictionaries to communicate successfully. In other words, misrepresented of contextual guidance will not assist the dictionary user to choose the correct equivalent and to achieve communicative equivalence.

3.2 CONTEXTUAL GUIDANCE

3.2.1 WHAT IS CONTEXTUAL GUIDANCE?

Mphahlele (2002: 51) says that contextual guidance is the contextual information in the microstructure of a dictionary, which indicates how a particular lemma is used in a language. This means that contextual guidance indicates the linguistic occurrence of a lexical item in a language. That is, how a word occurs in a lexicon of a particular language.

3.2.2 FUNCTIONS OF CONTEXTUAL GUIDANCE

According to Mphahlele (2002), the uses 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.

The following examples illustrate the above definition of contextual guidance:

- (4) **dikgobe**- tears (cry); boiled cereal (type of food);
fishes (invertebrate animals)
- (5) **copy**- kopolla (metsotso); ngwalolla (lengwalo);
etšiša (papadi)

The above examples show the importance of usage examples in a dictionary. These examples will assist the dictionary user to choose the correct equivalent and that they will enable the user to communicate successfully when using the treated lemmata. This means that the dictionary user will be able to choose the correct equivalent because of the words that have been written in brackets. These words clearly indicate the occurrence of a translation equivalent in a lexicon.

3.2.3 EVALUATION OF NORTHERN SOTHO-ENGLISH/ENGLISH-NORTHERN SOTHO BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES:

NEW SEPEDI DICTIONARY: ENGLISH- NORTHERN SOTHO/ NORTHERN SOTHO- ENGLISH DICTIONARY (1996):

The Northern Sotho speakers commonly use this dictionary. It is necessary that in this study, it be evaluated.

Let us look at the following presentation by Prinsloo and Sathekge's (1996) in this dictionary:

(6) **bolela**- speak, say, talk (1996: 74)

The lemma **bolela** consists of three translation equivalents. A comma has rightly or commonly separated 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 and easy transfer of linguistic meaning. This means that they are markers that ensure communicative equivalence between the source and target language. Therefore, lexicographers have used an appropriate structural marker in separating these three equivalents. According to the compilers, these three lexical items could replace each other in many contexts. The user, in this case, is able to see that the equivalents are synonyms. One would ask some questions:

- Is it true that these three equivalents are able to be used or be chosen at any time regardless of whether a word is **speak**, **say** and **talk**?
- Will the words **speak** and **say** be used interchangeably in all communication context?
- Could this presentation lead a dictionary user to obtain communicative success?
- If yes, therefore such a dictionary is not going to assist a particular user to speak very good English.

Let us look at the following examples:

(7) Matome speaks nonsense today.

Matome say nonsense today.

Matome talk nonsense today.

The second sentence “Matome say nonsense today” is not a good English sentence. It is not linguistically correct. The three equivalents are partial synonyms that cannot be used interchangeably in a context. Context of **speak**, **say** and **talk** deal with an action of communication. The dictionary user would want to know more about extra linguistic information regarding these equivalents. This can be easier if the lexicographer gives contextual guidance after each translation equivalent of these English lexical items. These lexical items have been used as complete synonyms but they are partial synonyms. In the above article, no relevant contextual information is added in the target language. Therefore, the dictionary will not assist the user with the required semantic information.

The exclusion of contextual guidance in the translation equivalent paradigm implies that the three equivalents could replace each other in any context. The lexicographer should have presented usage examples after each translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. When synonym equivalent prevails in an article it would really be difficult for the dictionary user to use the target language because he/she will not be able to choose the correct equivalents. This type of an article is creating unnecessary demands to the dictionary user, as he/she does not know which translation equivalent to choose. How can a dictionary user deduce that the equivalents **say** and

talk are not absolute synonyms? Therefore, the above article will make dictionary users not to be able to achieve communicative success in a context.

Instead of using the translation equivalent in an appropriate way, the user will use the equivalents in a correct way in English communication. Therefore, he/she will use these partial synonyms as follows:

(8) You must speak pure English (o swanetše go bolela Seisimane sa go hlweka.)

With those few words I would like to say thank you
(ka mafoko ao a makopana ke bolela gore ke a leboga.)

This person is full of talks (motho yo o bolela kudu.)

The appearance of the words **speak**, **say** and **talk** in the above three sentences clearly indicates that they cannot replace each other in all context. This is because if the lexical item **speak**, is placed in the place of **say** in the sentence “with those few words I say thank you”, and then the sentence will read “with those few words I speak thank you”. Obviously, such a sentence will not be linguistically correct.

Ridler (1970) and Kahn (1990) define the words **speak**, **say** and **talk** as follows:

(9) **speak**- to utter or pronounce words, articulate sounds,
to use or exercise the faculty of speech, or to
express one’s thoughts by words (1970: 533)

(10) **say**- to put into words, give to, e.g. disclose, say something that one should not give away secret or private information (divulge), to say something deliberately or formally (deliver oneself of) (1990: 470)

(11) **talk**- to convey or exchange ideas, thoughts, information, etc. by means of speech of ordinary intercourse (1970: 56)

These above definitions are not the same and therefore, it means that the equivalents cannot replace each other in all contexts. Really, these definitions indicate that the words are partial synonyms.

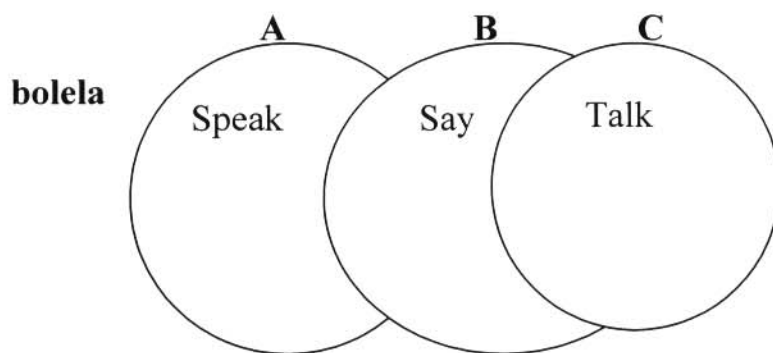
An article of **bolela** should have looked as follows:

(12) **bolela**- speak (signs or sounds), say (opinion, fact), talk (conversation)

This article is well presented. 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 equivalents in a context. In this type of article, the presentation of translation equivalent will enable the user to use the equivalents in separate contexts in a communication situation. This means that, a dictionary user will be able to see that signs are used to communicate and that they are not just used for direction only (to show direction). In this case, the user is able to retrieve the

required semantic information and that this will enable the non-native speaker of English; that is Northern Sotho speakers, to use the dictionary to produce fluent English. This kind of article can assist the user to understand the meaning of the source language word in English as the target language. The dictionary user will know which translation equivalent is good for the lemma **bolela** in a particular context.

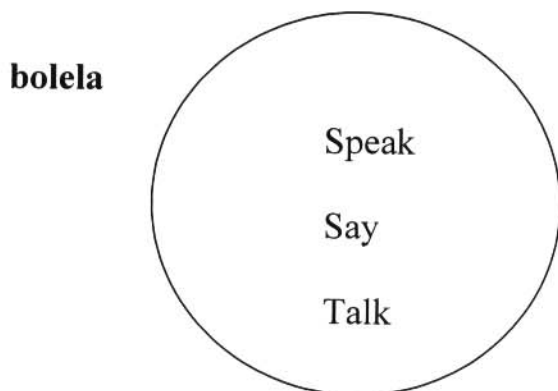
Let us consider the following diagrams to illustrate this argument:



This diagram shows the intersection between the three lexical items. These lexical items are **speak**, **say** and **talk**. The diagram shows that the three lexical items are the equivalents of the lemma **bolela**. It is in this diagram where the intersection shows that the three words can be used in some of the context. In this case, the word **speak** in circle A is partially equivalent to the lexical item **say** in circle B. This is to say that the word **say** in circle B is also partially equivalent to the lexical items **speak** and **talk** in circles A and C. Therefore, the three intersected diagrams show that the three lexical items are partial synonyms. These diagrams clearly indicate 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

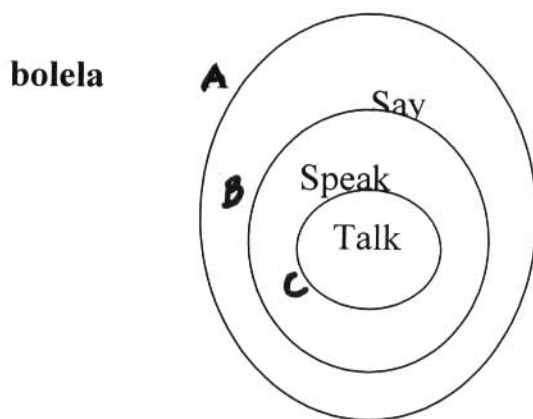
equivalents **speak**, **say** and **talk** cannot be used interchangeably in the microstructure or translation equivalent paradigm.

A diagram below is an illustration when these equivalents were complete synonyms:



The translation equivalents of the word **bolela** have been presented in one diagram. The diagram simply denotes that they are united together in one diagram like a one big family living together as one. In this case, the dictionary user can use these lexical items interchangeably in all contexts. This diagram is the representation or illustration of the case where only a comma is used to separate the translation equivalent; and this means that the translation equivalents can be used interchangeably to separate each other in all contexts. This therefore 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. According to Al- Kasimi (1997: 88), illustrative examples should be used systematically and consistently and that they should be translated into the user's native language because they will become useless and as such will contain some other words whose meaning will be unknown to the user. He

continues that illustrative examples should be so selective to reflect the culture of the speakers of the target language, and they should be brief and informative. That is, they should illustrate the use of the word and enhance the user's understanding of its grammatical behaviour, semantic range, stylistic affiliations, or all of these disciplines. Al-Kasimi simply emphasizes the importance of illustrative examples in dictionaries. Although these translation equivalents cannot be used interchangeably to replace one other in all contexts, it is also very important to note that these translation equivalents do not have the same usage in English. That is, they do not have the same frequency use than others. The diagram bellow simply represents these lexical items in terms of their usage in a language with the lemma **bolela** being represented outside the circles:



The diagram represents the level of usage frequency amongst these translation equivalents of the Northern Sotho lexical item **bolela**. This means, the diagram can be interpreted as indicating that the word say is commonly or frequently used than its synonyms **speak** and **talk**. Circle A represents the lexical item **say** as an indication that it is frequently used. Furthermore, the second bigger circle (circle B) contains the lexical item **speak**. This means that the second circle indicates that the lexical item

speak is frequently used than its synonym **talk**. The third small circle (circle C) contains the word **talk** as an indication that it is not frequently used. The above diagram simply denotes that the translation equivalents in a translation equivalent paradigm should be given contextual guidance, to enhance their retrievability in a translation equivalent paradigm; and that even though the items can be used interchangeably in some contexts, they are not used on the same frequency level in English. This is good for the dictionary user because he/she will know that some translation equivalents are commonly used than the others in a language. It depends whether the lexicographer uses his own examples or invented examples and Zgusta also supports this. It is therefore, very important for the lexicographer(s) to represent translation equivalents with invented examples.

Zgusta (1971: 263) stresses 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 an example sentence exactly according to the needs of the dictionary user. Even in the translation dictionary, the dictionary user may opt to use his/her own invented examples.

3.2.4 ARRANGEMENT OF TRANSLATION EQUIVALENTS IN THE TRANSLATION EQUIVALENT PARADIGM.

As already discussed briefly before, when the lexicographer is including these equivalents in the translation equivalents paradigm; he/she should not arrange them unsystematically. Even if contextual guidance is used in the

translation equivalent paradigm, this procedure may impede the successful retrieval of semantic information if the translation equivalents have been haphazardly arranged. It is argued here that lexicographers must be very consistent in the presentation of both the translation equivalents and contextual guidance. The level of usage information must always be displayed/indicated in the dictionary microstructure. Lexicographers must arrange the translation equivalents according to their usage frequency (their common usage). Which means, the most frequently used translation equivalents should be presented first in the translation equivalent paradigm; because we may assume here that these translation equivalents that are frequently used are well known by the speakers. Therefore, systematic arrangement of translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm will assist dictionary users to get the semantic information easily. This means that users must be taught from known to unknown. If a translation equivalent is commonly used in a language it is, known by the speakers. Therefore, it is better that they are presented in accordance with the knowledge of the users.

Mphahlele (2001: 32) stresses that the compiler of a dictionary (lexicographer) should make sure that a synonym lemma which is frequently used in a synonym pair receives comprehensive treatment (definition or translation equivalents) whilst other synonyms within that pair should receive complete treatment. This simply denotes that in a case of the presentation of translation equivalents, the frequency of usage must be displayed. Therefore, the systematic arrangement of the article of **bolela** with its translation equivalents would be as follows:

(13) **bolela**- say (something), speak (gently),
talk (about yourself)

The above article shows that the translation equivalents are now systematically arranged. They are not haphazardly arranged and that dictionary users will receive semantic information easily. In the above article, users are taught from unknown to the known. The level of usage information has been indicated in the dictionary microstructure. This means that the most frequently used translation equivalent has been presented first in the translation equivalent paradigm.

3.3 COTEXTUAL GUIDANCE

3.3.1 WHAT IS COTEXTUAL GUIDANCE?

Cotextual guidance is the additional information in the microstructure of a bilingual dictionary, which is presented in a form of a sentence to indicate the real occurrence of a translation equivalent in a language. It is because of cotextual guidance that the dictionary user is able to see how a particular lexical item appearing as a translation equivalent in a dictionary functions in a lexicon of a language.

According to Gibbon (1999: 7), cotextual words or phrases act as equivalent discrimination either for different equivalents or for different senses of the lemma or within target language synonym paradigms.

3.3.1 FUNCTIONS OR USES OF COTEXTUAL GUIDANCE

- It must be noted by the lexicographers that the use of cotextual guidance in articles is not space saving, as the whole sentences are presented in the microstructures of a dictionary.
- The uses of cotextual guidance make users to read translation equivalents easily.
- They enable the dictionary user to understand the syntactical appearance of a word in a lexicon because of the sentences that have been given.
- They increase the lexicographic information in a dictionary article.
- They produce the relation between the information anticipated by the user and the information value the user expects to gain from consulting a dictionary or dictionary article.
- It makes the dictionary user to gain more information in a dictionary article and be more satisfied.

Let us look at the following presentation from Gouws (2000)

(14) **alleen**: alone, by oneself, single, lonely; mere(ly);
 bare; single-handed; friendliness; only;
 ~ die DIEF Vang, catch the thief single-handed;
 die GEDAGTE~, the Mere thoughts; die Huis
 staan~, the house stands in its own grounds;
 hy is nie~nie, he is tipsy; ~ Maar omdat, only
 because; (2000: 2)

The above presentation shows the importance of cotextual guidance. It is user-friendly because it will assist dictionary users to achieve knowledge in

the microstructure of the translation equivalent paradigm about the presented translation equivalent.

The article of **bolela** below illustrate the use of cotextual guidance:

- (14) **bolela**- say, speak, talk (he says about what not well understood: O bolela seo se sa kwešišagalego gabotse, could you please speak aloud? A o ka bolelela godimo hle? Don't talk to me, talk to my lawyer: O se ka bolela le nna, bolela le ramolao wa ka).

In this article, the translation equivalents have been well presented with cotextual guidance. This type of translation equivalents presentation is very important to assist the dictionary user to choose the relevant translation equivalent of the lemma. Users will be able to see immediately if the translation equivalent they require can be found in the translation equivalent paradigm, together with information regarding how it is used in a language. This means that cotextual guidance is even intended to help the user to make an immediate choice of the correct equivalents of the lemmata. A mother-tongue speaker, that is, Northern Sotho or good second language speaker, an English speaker can retrieve the desired semantic information faster in the microstructure. This will especially be helpful for lexicographers when trying to compile translation equivalents in the microstructure of a dictionary. Therefore, lexicographers must be prepared to change the status quo with regard to the contextualisation of translation equivalents in their dictionaries.

The appearance of cotextual information above regarding the translation equivalents have make it easier for the dictionary user to be able to see how the translation equivalent he/she wants, for a particular communication context is used in a language. Therefore, with this information, the user sees the semantic information, presented in a form of translation equivalents, easily retrievable.

In this case, lexicographers are encouraged to use cotextual guidance in articles that he/she deems they are necessary. In other words, the lexicographer/s must be able to identify those articles that would appear to be difficult for the user to comprehend even when correct structural markers are used. In that case, then it is very important for the cotextual guidance to be used instead of contextual guidance making semantic information easily retrievable.

3.4 SEMICOLONS IN THE MICROSTRUCTURE

Let us consider the following treatment:

(16) **kata**- trot; tramp; wrestle; fell; rape (1996: 92)

The equivalents in the above article are rightly separated by semicolons. This means that the lexicographers have given five translation equivalents of the lemma **kata** in the microstructure. Semicolons have been used to indicate that these equivalents are polysemous senses of the lemma. This means that the lemma has semantic divergence in the translation equivalent paradigm. Semantic divergence means that the lemma has more than one

translation equivalents that are polysemous in the translation equivalent paradigm. In this case, semicolons are used to indicate this semantic relationship. When the structural markers are used communicative equivalence between the source and the target language is achieved by the dictionary users, as they are able to deduce that there are polysemous translation equivalents. The lexicographers did well to separate these equivalents with semicolons as they are not synonymous to each other. In this sense, it won't be surprising if dictionary users do not use these equivalents interchangeably in a context. Although the semicolons have been used as structural markers, the following questions are important to be asked:

- Can this presentation of polysemic equivalents assist the dictionary users to achieve communicative success?
- Will the dictionary users be able to choose the correct equivalent amongst there five equivalents?
- Can this polysemic presentation enable the dictionary user to be able to use them in a communication context?
- How is the level f usage frequency amongst there polysemic equivalents?
- Are they any other extra linguistic information that can be presented in the above microstructure to enhance further retrieval of semantic information presented as translation equivalents?

The above article is not complete until other extra linguistic information is presented.

Let us consider the following examples:

I hear the tramp of donkeys passing the ground

(Ke kwa go kata ga di phoofolo ge di kgabola lebala)

Lucky fell from the tree and hurt himself.

(Lucky o kata godimo ga mohlare gomme o ikgobaditše.)

The second sentence has been used interchangeably to mean the first sentence usage. The lexicographers could have noted that these five equivalents are polysemous sense of the lemma that cannot be used interchangeably in all cases in the microstructure of translation equivalent paradigm of a dictionary. The dictionary user wants to achieve more communicative equivalence in his/her search of the equivalents. This type of article presentation would have been good if lexicographers included illustrative examples in the microstructure. How can users see/know that the lexicographer leads him/her from the unknown to the known? The article of **kata** above must be furnished with extra linguistic information.

Consider the following examples of the concordance form of the word **kata**:

Backward	Word	Forward
1. Matšatšing a lehono banna ba	kata	bana ba bona
2. Ke kwa	go kata	ga diphoofolo ge di kgabola tsela
3. Maphodisa a	kata	ka morago ga mošimane
4. Mošimane	o wele	godimo ga mohlare bjalo ka lerotse
5. Banna ba babedi ba	kata(nela)	moputso

According to Sinclair (1991: 170), the concordance (a word in context) is at the center of corpus linguistic, because it gives access to many important language patterns in texts.

By reading the suggested examples above, one can notice that polysemous equivalents cannot be used to mean one and the same thing. These equivalents cannot be used interchangeably in the microstructure of a dictionary.

The word **kata** refers to rape a person (women and/children) as in line 1, and line 2 refers to the animals that were passing by the road and somebody heard their footsteps, when they were walking or running. In line 3 the word **kata** means that the policemen were chasing a robbery. The word **kata** in line 4 means that the boy fell down the tree without even trying to protect himself. The fifth line of the lexical item **kata** indicates that there was an award that two men were fighting for (either a trophy, medal, money, etc).

To clearly differentiate the above lexical items, let us consider their definitions from different monolingual dictionaries:

Hawkins (1963) defines the word **trot** as:

- (17) **trot**- (of horse) proceed at steady pace
faster than walk lifting each diagonal
pair of legs alternately with brief, intervals
during which body is unsupported (1963: 1394).

According to Kähn (1990) the term **tramp**, means:

(14) down-and-out movement (drifter) especially
one that moves about as a stowaway on
trains (hobo) (1990: 553)

Fowler (1980) writes this about the word **wrestle**, as follows:

(19) a struggle between two persons each trying to
throw the other by grasping his body or limbs , to
endeavour. To overpower another person, especially
in a contest govern by the fixed rules, by grasping his
body or limbs and tripping or overbalancing him
(1980: 2579).

Webster (1990) and Barnhart (2000) defines the word **fell**, as follows:

(20) to sew (a seam) by folding on raw edge
under the other and sewing flat on the
wrong side (1990: 4545)
- to cause to fall, cut , knock, or strive down,
e.g. one blow felled him to the ground (2000: 783)

Webster (1990) says the term **rape**, is:

(17) a criminal offence, consider a form of rape,
of having sexual intercourse with a girl who

is below the age of consent even if it took place on her initiatives (statutory rape) (1990: 437).

- a European herb (*Brassica napus*) of the mustard family grown as a forage crop for. Sheep and hogs and for its seeds which yield rape oil and are bird food (1990:975).

The above definitions show that the translation equivalents **trot**; **tramp**; **wrestle**; **fell** and **rape** are polysemous words to each other and that they cannot be used interchangeably in a context. This must be clearly displayed as such in a bilingual dictionary. The following examples show that the above words cannot be used to mean one and the same thing:

(22) Mašilo trot at a moderate pace with his short trides along the street.

The boy tramp up and down all day looking for his mother.

John wrestles with enemies in his life.

I fell down from the tree.

The rape was reported to the police.

With this information above, the article of the Northern Sotho lemma will be better if presented as follows:

(23) **kata-** trot (of horse); tramp (of person); wrestle (a person with force); fell (from the tree);

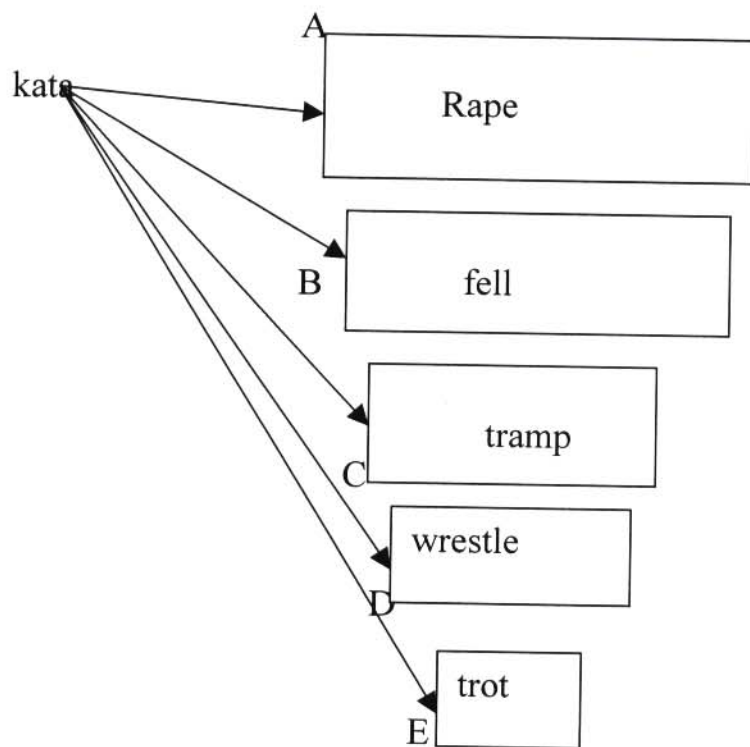
rape (of a woman, a herb, refuse of grapes).

It is important for the lexicographers to include usage examples after each translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. In other words by including contextual guidance for English translation equivalents, users will get the desired information. If illustrative examples will be presented in the target language, it would give users chances to retrieve the required information. This has to be reflected in a dictionary to boast the standard of lexicography. It means that the dictionary users will get the extra linguistic information, that is, the translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm. It implies that the dictionary user will be using these equivalents in separate contexts.

The dictionary user will have information that the word **rape** cannot only be used to refer to ‘the sexual intercourse’ but also used as ‘yield rape oil and for bird food’. In this case, a seed can also be raped so that it will be used as cooked seed for food, raw like nutseed to be eaten, et cetera. It implies that the word **kata** is also not just to mean rape, but also for **trot; tramp; wrestle** and **fell**. This means that the lexical item **kata** can be used for peoples, animal’s herb, food, oil and others. An article of **kata** could sometimes represented diagrammatically as follows:

- (24) ~~**kata**~~- trot (of horse); tramp (of person); wrestle
(a person with force); fell (of American Empire);
rape (of a child).

Amongst these five equivalents, there is only one that is usually used by the speakers. For this reason, the following representation will be better to validate my argument:



This type of representation shows the boards that differ in size. The boards are arranged in such a way that they are joined by chain from the top to the bottom. These chains imply that the lexical items inside the boards are type of polysemic words that are polysemous to the lemma **kata**. What is the intention of the researcher to represent these lexical items in a chained board? The big board is representing the item **rape**. This means that speakers, meaning the sexual harassment of women, children and old people, usually use the word rape of the lemma kata. Board A represent the word **rape** to be too sensitive to the reader. This means that the word **rape** is frequently used in our daily news as the worse criminal offence in our

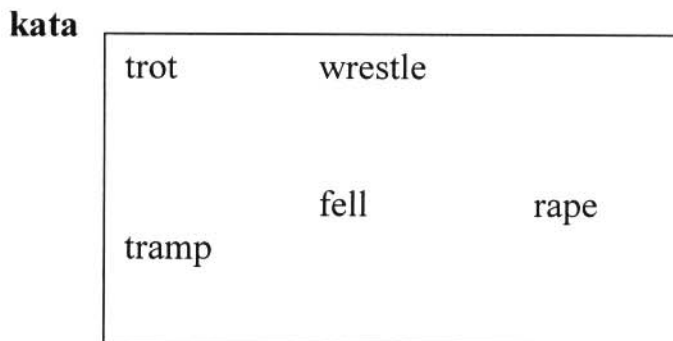
country of South Africa. It is, in this case that the lexical item is written in a big board. Even though the word itself is polysemous, dictionary users always expect that when they immediately see the word **rape** their minds become aroused. In some other instances, this type of word cause people to become angry (conscious minds). The frequent use of this lexical item is very important even though there is no presentation of contextual guidance. The user will see that the equivalent **rape** is more important than its polysemous equivalents **trot**; **tramp**; **wrestle** and **fell**. The second presentation of the equivalent **fell** in b, as it is bigger, represent the equivalent as important but less important than the word **rape**. The word **fell** (kata) is used more, especially referring to people. It is also used to say: 'I fell from the tree' than to say 'I rape from the tree'. It means that the bigger board in B is also more important to a type of usage or specific use in a separate context. The word 'tramp' in board C above is also very important to English usage as in the sentence ' the boy tramp up and down all day looking for his grandmother'. In the non- native speaker of Northern Sotho, the sentence is 'mošemane o gwanta goba gwataka a e ya godimo le fase a nyakana le makgolo a gagwe'. It means that it would be ugly if the speaker says: 'the boy fell up and down looking for his grandmother'. (Mošemane o wa godimo le fase a nyakana le makgolo wa gagwe). That is why it is so important that the lexicographer presents articles with relevant usage information to give the user a brief understanding of the choice of relevant equivalents for a particular lemma.

The fourth presentation is the smallest board in d with the lexical item **wrestle**. It implies that the presentation of the equivalent is commonly used in sentence like 'this man knows how to wrestle his partner in boxing' than

to say ‘this man knows how to rape his partner in boxing’. This type of usage information is not acceptable. Even if the word **wrestle**, is a translation equivalent to the lemma **kata** it cannot be used interchangeably in the same context with the equivalent **rape**. You cannot use the word **fell** in a sentence the same as **trot** is used to mean one and the same thing. The smallest board representation in e indicates that the lexical item **trot** is less used in a language, than its equivalent ‘rape’. The word ‘trot’ has got no value when coming to terms concerning the term ‘rape’. The sentence ‘ the man trot the child in the morning, is less understandable than the sentence ‘ the man rape the child in the morning’. The presentation of **kata** in the form of board diagrams; shows the user that it is true these lexical item **trot**; **tramp**; **wrestle**; **fell** and **rape** cannot be used interchangeably in the translation equivalent paradigm. They are polysemous sense of the lemma that is rightly separated by semicolons. Therefore, the type of lemma presentation will assist the dictionary user to have a successful communication because it is user friendly.

Let us consider the following representation:

(25) kata- trot ; tramp; wrestle; fell; rape.



The translation equivalents in the board, in 25 above, show that these equivalents are synonyms. The equivalents of the lemma **kata** are grouped together to form a union. They look like plant or animal cell with different organelles that have the same function. Although we know that cell organelles have different functions, but diagrammatically, the equivalents are represented in one board to be used in all contexts. In this representation, the dictionary user will see that the lexical items **trot; tramp; wrestle; fell** and **rape** could be used to replace one another. The worst part is that there is no contextual guidance and that the equivalents are not systematically arranged according to their usage in the source and target language. If it would happen that the dictionary user is asked to choose the most appropriate diagram between diagrams 24 and 25, he/she will prefer to give diagram 24 as the correct one. This is because the equivalents in diagram 24 is well arranged according to its frequent use, than that in diagram 25, that has got no usage information in it. This is also because the equivalents in 25 are haphazardly arranged. There will be communication embarrassment in this kind of article presentation. Lexicographers should be careful when presenting translation equivalents in the microstructure of a dictionary. There is no way in which the lexical item **rape** can be used to mean the equivalents **fell** or **wrestle**.

3.5 ARRANGEMENT OF TRANSLATION EQUIVALENTS OF THE LEMMA “KATA” IN THE MICROSTRUCTURE

The translation equivalents of the lemma **kata** are not well presented. This means that the equivalents are not systematically arranged according to their frequency of use. This means that the equivalents are haphazardly arranged

in a dictionary. It implies that even if usage examples are used in the microstructure of the lemma **kata**; the procedure will cause communication breakdown or communication embarrassment. This will delay the successful retrieval of relevant extra linguistic information. Lexicographers should not mix translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm, for their own sake. The level of contextual evidence must always be indicated in the microstructure of a dictionary. The lexicographers should have arranged the translation equivalents **trot**; **tramp**; **wrestle**; **fell** and **rape** according to their usage frequency. For example, the lexical item **rape**, as it is most frequently used, should have been written first in the translation equivalent paradigm of the lemma **kata**. This means that the arrangement of these equivalents is not systematically formulated. Therefore, the arrangement of these lexical items is haphazardly arranged. It is therefore that, the arrangement of translation equivalents will not assist dictionary users to get the semantic information easily. This means that users have been taught from the unknown to the unknown. According to the lexicographers, this means that the speakers also know an equivalent that is not commonly used in a language. Therefore, the systematic arrangement of the article in 25 would be like this, as suggested:

(26) **kata**- rape (of women); fell (from the tree); tramp
(an animal); wrestle (a person with force); trot
(of a horse)

The translation equivalents of the lemma **kata** are now well arranged, that is, they are systematically arranged. This means that the equivalent **rape** is the one that should be first presented in the microstructure of a bilingual dictionary. It is in this case, that the equivalent **rape** is the only one that is

commonly used in a language. This implies that the dictionary user has now been taught from unknown to the known. This means that the level of usage information has been presented in the microstructure of a dictionary.

The use of contextual guidance in regard to the lemma **kata**:

- (27) **kata**- rape; fell; tramp; wrestle; trot (rape is the most criminal offence in our country: Go kata ke bosinyi bjo bogolo mo nageng ya ga bo rena. My uncle was drunken and fell asleep until noon: Malome o be a tagilwe kudu gomme a kata ke boroko a robala go fihlela le sobela. I cannot tramp all day long in the sun searching for a burglar: Nka se kgone go kata (gwataka) mosegare ka mo ka letšatšing ke nyakana le lehodu. Two men wrestle for money in the boxing room: Banna ba babedi ba katanela tšhelete ka mosakong wa matswele. A horse trot along the road to the sea: Pere e kata ka thoko ga tsela e lebile lewatleng)

The suggested examples in the article of **kata** are well represented regarding translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm. The use of contextual guidance in this article is very important to assist the dictionary users to retrieve the required semantic information in a dictionary. This means that the use of contextual guidance enable dictionary users to see the unknown to the known equivalents in the target language. The use of contextual guidance does not lead the user to communicative embarrassment. In this case, the dictionary user will achieve communicative success in the

given context. Therefore, lexicographers are advised to use cotextual guidance after each microstructure of a dictionary because they are user-friendly to lead dictionary users to a communicative equivalence in the source and target language.

The article of **cover** bellow, from *New Sepedi Dictionary* (1966) also serves the use of cotextual guidance:

(28) **cover-** sekhurumelo, seširo; sepipetši (sekhurumelo
sa pitša se be se somišwa go gadika mae kgale:
The cover of a pot was used to fry eggs in the
past. Seširo sa thelebišene ya gešu se pšhatlilwe
ke legadima: The cover (screen) of our television
has been broken by lightning. Sepipetši sa puku
ya ka se kgeigile go nyakega se sengwe: The cover
of my book is torned up and it needs the other one)

The lexicographers have used poli-equivalence arrangement of the translation equivalents in this article. This is because there is heterogeneous divergence. This means that there are both lexical and semantic divergences in the microstructure of the lemma cover. In this case, it means that the translation equivalents consist of both commas and semicolons. Therefore, the lexicographers have presented the above article correctly with its structural markers.

The compilers also presented the article systematically according to their frequent use. The translation equivalent **sekhurumelo** is commonly uses by

the speakers of both source and target languages. This means that the arrangement of this article is well presented. It means that these equivalents are not haphazardly arranged. In this case, the equivalents would not cause communicative embarrassment in a target language. It is therefore, user-friendly because the article displays a comprehensive way of dealing with a relation of extra linguistic information. In this case, the dictionary user will be able to know the immediate translation equivalent of the lemma **cover** in the microstructure of an article. This means that it will attract dictionary users because of its higher level of frequent arrangement in the translation equivalent paradigm. For argument say, Gouws (2000) writes that:

The alphabetical ordering system isolates the lemmata from the typical environments in which they occur and function in the situation of actual language usage. The lexicographic treatment should not only be directed at the linguistic qualities of the treatment units but should also focus on their occurrence in the language system (2000: 1)

The researcher has also presented the article with suggested words of cotextual guidance. The use of cotextual guidance will be easy and that it will enable users to read the translation equivalents and understand the meaning description in the microstructure of an article. In this case, the lexicographic semantic information will be increasing in a dictionary.

For this comment, Gouws (2000: 1) stresses that various microstructural procedures should be employed to assist the user with the necessary contextual and cotextual guidance. This means that the above article is an

accepted way of presenting translation equivalents in translation equivalent paradigms. This implies that the article will assist dictionary users to achieve communicative success in the target language of its equivalents. This type of presentation will serve a good purpose to the user to see that the equivalents **sekhurumelo**, **seširo** and **sepipetši** cannot replace each other in all contexts.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION

The main aim of this study was to evaluate Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries in terms of the presentation of translation equivalents in the translation equivalent paradigm of these dictionaries.

The study has discovered that these dictionaries (Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries) present translation equivalents as the only information in the microstructure of these dictionaries. This lexicographic approach as already indicated in the study, do not actually assist dictionary users in using the target language in a successful way. This is because dictionary users sometimes confuse translation equivalents that are polysemous sense of the lemma as synonyms that can sometimes substitute each other in many or all contexts. This therefore result in a communicative failure on the side of the dictionary users because what are polysemous sense of the lemma as sometimes seen as partial or complete synonyms and also, what are synonym translation equivalent are sometimes regarded as polysemous translation equivalents.

Lexicographers should note that contextual guidance or usage examples are very important in the microstructures of translation dictionaries. These extra linguistic information help dictionary users to mark the correct choice of equivalence or specific context; by adding the required semantic information that is needed in a dictionary. If they are included in the microstructure of

dictionaries for the optimal retrieval of extra linguistic information, users will be able to achieve communicative equivalence.

The study argues that usage information should be included in bilingual dictionaries as treatment units of translation equivalents. They should be treated in such a way that users would be able to deduce the relevant equivalents for a particular lemma. If contextual or cotextual is presented in the microstructure of a dictionary, users will be able to choose the correct equivalent regarding the articles as this has been demonstrated and argued in the study.

To avoid confusion to the users, lexicographers of Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries should compile dictionaries that will have semantic information to assist users to communicate successfully. Lexicographers should have options to present translation equivalents, that is, either they use contextual guidance, or usage examples and cotextual guidance.

The aim of the study has been achieved and the study will help the coming generation and students who will be doing or have interest to use this kind of research study. The researcher therefore recommends that:

- Every word in a language has its own specific meaning even if those words are synonyms, that is, partial synonyms. Therefore lexicographers should make an effort to discriminate this meaning as the use of contextual guidance.

- Usage examples, contextual and cotextual guidance should be used in Northern Sotho-English/English-Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries.
- Lexicographers should continue to acknowledge the issues of improving the use of usage examples in dictionaries to make dictionary users to retrieve the required semantic information.
 - Lexicographers should always know the function of usage examples is to recontextualised the lemma in the dictionary and that this lexicographic approach is essential in assisting users to get the desired semantic information.
 - If contextual or cotextual guidance is presented after each translation equivalent; dictionary users would be assisted to retrieve the correct translation equivalent in the translation equivalent paradigm.
 - Given the fact that translation equivalents may sometimes be nearer in meaning, such as in the case of partial synonyms, the study recommends that cotextual guidance that further discriminates or differentiates the contextual of such equivalents is still more necessary.

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