

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE FORMULATION OF A MODEL FOR COMPILING
AN ENGLISH-OSHIKWANYAMA DICTIONARY FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL
LEARNERS**

by

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DECLARATION

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I declare that the above thesis is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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SUMMARY

This study emerges from the field of theoretical lexicography, also referred to as dictionary research. It is important as it focuses on the development of Oshikwanyama facets; Oshikwanyama linguistics and Oshikwanyama practical and theoretical lexicography. It can be used as a guiding tool to the compilers of future dictionaries, and it can also be of great assistance to anyone studying and understanding pertinent issues pertaining to the compilation of higher quality bilingual dictionaries for secondary school learners. The study proposes a model to be adopted in compiling a secondary school dictionary for Oshikwanyama learners. The model is of great importance as it equips the compilers of the proposed dictionary with the skills and knowledge of what to cover in the proposed dictionary. The study also reviewed the bilingual *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, published in 2019 by the Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee to determine its relevance in terms of the criteria that can be adopted in compiling the Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners. The study's theoretical framework comprised of three fundamental theories. The first theory, the *Function theory*, established by Henning Bergenholtz and Sven Tarp, is concerned with dictionary functions and the needs of the target user. Therefore, it was used to identify dictionary functions and the target users of the reviewed *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, as well as the proposed *Oshikwanyama-English Dictionary for Secondary School Learners*. The second theory, *Text theory*, proposed by Herbert Ernst Wiegand, focuses on the textual structures of dictionaries. It was used to review the structures of the *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary* and in identifying the structures that should be adopted to compile an Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners. The third theory, *Communication theory*, proposed by Herman L. Beyer, focuses on dictionaries as centres of communication. A qualitative design in the form of text analysis was employed to study the structures and contents of the reviewed *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*. Systematic sampling with a random start was employed to sample the pages that serve as the centre of this study's review. Systematic dictionary research, which consists of functional text segmentation and philological methods, was adopted. After critically reviewing the functions and structures of the *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, the findings revealed that some aspects in the frame structure of the reviewed dictionary have been well-presented while some have not been presented well, as they obstruct the target users from getting answers to their questions. Based on relevant literature and the review conducted, suggestions were made and they can be adopted to compile the proposed *English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for Secondary School learners*.

KEY TERMS

macrostructure, microstructure, Oshiwambo, Oshikwanyama, theoretical lexicography, frame structure, access structure, dictionary article, the comment on form, the comment on semantics

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to the following people:

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- My grannies: Secilia Nangolo [Mukwanekamba], Pitilapoyo yaHaufiku [Mukwanangobe] and Helaria (Shorty) yaHamadila; and
- All my Oshikwanyama and English learners at Nuuyoma SS in Oshikuku [Omusati Region] between the years of 2016 and 2021.

ABBREVIATIONS

The following are some of the significant abbreviations used in this study, provided with their full forms:

EKD	=	English-Kwanyama Dictionary
EO	=	English-Oshikwanyama
EODSSL	=	English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for Secondary School Learners
L1	=	First Language
FL	=	Foreign Language
L2	=	Second Language
OE	=	Oshikwanyama-English
OE/EOD	=	Oshikwanyama-English/ English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary
SL	=	Source Language
TL	=	Target Language
R21	=	It is the Oshikwanyama code as per Malcolm Guthrie's discussion of the classification of Bantu languages.
R22	=	It is the Oshindonga code as per Malcolm Guthrie's discussion of the classification of Bantu languages.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction and background of the study

This study belongs to a field of dictionary research, which is also referred to as theoretical lexicography. Its prime purpose was to deeply investigate and thoroughly study the best criteria or requirements for a user-friendly bilingual dictionary, which can be used to formulate a model for compiling a bilingual Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners.

According to Wiegand (1984), dictionary research consists of four main components, and these components are user research, dictionary criticism, history of lexicography as well as the general theory of lexicography. In the same vein, Hartmann (2013) discussed perspectives in metalexicographical research, and these are namely, dictionary history, dictionary criticism, dictionary typology, and dictionary *IT*. The present study then, to a certain extent, dealt with dictionary criticism, because it evaluated the structures and contents of some existing bilingual dictionaries in Oshikwanyama, to assess their usefulness. After evaluating the structures and contents of the existing Oshikwanyama bilingual dictionaries, a model was then formulated (in the present study) to guide in compiling an extraordinary bilingual Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners who are mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama.

A number of printed bilingual dictionaries in Oshikwanyama lexicography are observed. These dictionaries are: *Wörterbuch des Oshikuanjama mit Vergleichung des Oshindonga und Otjiherero*, compiled by Brincker in 1891, *Deutscher Wortführer für die Bantu-Dialekte Otjiherero, Oshindonga and Oshikuanjama*, compiled by Brincker in 1897, *English-Kwanyama Dictionary*, compiled by Tobias and Turvey in 1954, and *Kwanyama-English Dictionary*, compiled by B.H.C. Turvey, and edited by Zimmerman and Taapopi in 1977. There is yet another multilingual dictionary, *Afrikaans-English/Ndonga-Kwanyama Terminology*, which was published in 1977, under the Department of Bantu Education. These above-mentioned dictionaries were compiled (in the pre-independent era) before Namibia got its independence in 1990, and one of their prime purposes was that of making sure that communication between the local ordinary people and missionaries could take place (Shikesho, 2019). After the independence of this country, Oshikwanyama has only managed to publish

three dictionaries. The first dictionary, which is a thesaurus, was published in 2008, entitled *Webster's Kwanyama-English Thesaurus Dictionary*, by M. Parker (This thesaurus was unavailable for this study's scrutiny). The second dictionary was published in Angola in 2016, under the name *Oshikwanyama dictionary of names*, translated from Portuguese (This lexicographical work belongs to a certain typology and does not contain much of the structures that should be part and parcel of the present study. Therefore, it was not analysed in the present study. It only consists of names with their translations in Portuguese). The third dictionary was published in Namibia, in 2019, by Namibia Publishing House (NPH), and its usefulness is to some extent compromised. This simply means that the compilers of the dictionary in question (*Oshikwanyama-English / English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*), to a certain extent, did not consider all the requirements that have to be followed in producing or compiling a user-friendly bilingual dictionary.

The lexicographical works that were produced before the independence of this country [Namibia] were part of an externally motivated lexicographic process which is opposed to an internally motivated process, and with the purpose that included more than a mere linguistic description of the language (Gouws, 2007). An externally motivated process is distinguished from an internally motivated process, as Gouws (2007) clarifies that it (the externally motivated process) focuses on dictionaries that have been compiled to meet the needs that are encountered by external members in a particular linguistic community in their religious, socio-economic, and political dealings with the local people of that particular community. An internally motivated process, on the other hand, focuses on dictionaries that are compiled to meet the needs that are encountered by local members of a particular linguistic community in dealing with all community activities among themselves.

Therefore, a new dictionary will be compiled following the aims and structures of formulating a model for compiling an English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for secondary school learners as it has been established in the present study.

1.2 An overview of Oshiwambo and Oshikwanyama

Languages are classified into different families in the world. One of these families is called the Niger-Congo. Within the Niger-Congo phylum, there are sub-families. In these sub-families, there is what is called the Bantoid family. Within this family, there is a group of languages called Bantu languages. Morphologically speaking, the term "Bantu" consists of two parts. The

prefix *ba-* and the root *-ntu*. This term was taken from the isiZulu word “abantu”, which means people. It is worth explicitly explaining the derivation of the prefix *ba-* in the term Bantu. The prefix *ba-* is in its plural form, and stands for “many”. So the plural prefix in that term is different, depending on the language (cf. Maho, 1998; McCormack, 2007). In Oshikwanyama, the prefix *ba-* of isiZulu is replaced by *ova*, whereas in Oshindonga, it becomes *aa*, and in Otjiherero it becomes *ova*. The singular form of this prefix in isiZulu is *umu*, whereas in Oshikwanyama it is *omu*, and in Oshindonga it is *omu*. When the singular prefix *omu* is added to the root *-ntu* or *nhu*, it becomes “omunhu” or “omuntu”, which means a person.

This name, Bantu, was therefore given to these languages on the basis that there is a similarity of the stem (**-ntu**) which is found in all these languages.

Many people, especially during the colonial era, misinterpreted this term, as they thought it was referring to black people, but on the contrary, it belongs to a group of languages that share a similar stem “**-ntu**” (Haacke, Mbenzi, Kavari & Namaseb, 2012).

According to McCormack (2007) and Wills (2011), during the apartheid era in South Africa, the term ‘Bantu’ carried negative connotations as it was used as a derogatory term. The term “Bantu” was used in the Bantu Education in South Africa, as a piece of a broad trend over the apartheid policies, to employ Bantu derogatorily, focusing on Black South Africans. In addition, the Bantu education system was established in training and fitting the people of Africa for their role in the evolving apartheid society.

Education was regarded as a part of the overall apartheid system involving pass laws, job reservation, urban restrictions as well as ‘homelands’. Therefore, the Bantu’s function was one of a worker, labourer, and servant only. The central idea of Bantu Education was only to provide basic training for manual, low status and low-income jobs (Wills, 2011).

The notion of this term “Bantu”, according to Der Waal (2011), particularly in the second half of the 20th century, became entangled with the policy of apartheid, as it referred to blacks and their perceived low political understanding and position. Because of this negative connotation, the term has conjured strong negative emotions among the people who were against apartheid.

Since the apartheid policy was punctured to an increasing extent, the negative connotation grew and made the term itself not to be accepted. In South Africa, the freedom struggle as well as the global rejection of apartheid, affected the use of this term. The use of this term decreased from the beginning of the 1980s onwards, and it was replaced by the term “black”. Today the

term “Bantu” is rarely used outside its references to African languages, although it can be heard among conventional whites and coloureds (Der Waal, 2011).

Der Waal (2011) argues that the use of the term ‘Bantu’ was initialised within a particular social context and it gave rise to strong resistance in terms of its negative associations. As the resistance altered the context, the use of the term “Bantu” had to adapt and this process, in the end, led to the insignificance or the death of the term, especially since people experienced it as a dictatorial and undemocratic phenomenon.

1.2.1 Oshiwambo

One of the languages that belong to the Bantu category is Oshiwambo. This indigenous language is spoken by most people in Namibia. According to Shifidi (2014), this language (Oshiwambo) is spoken by more than a million and a half speakers across the country. The people who speak Oshiwambo language are referred to as Ovawambo, and the Ovawambo make up more than half of the Namibian population, which is about 2.4 million (Shikesho, 2019).

In addition, Zimmermann and Hasheela (1998), Shifidi (2014) and Mbenzi (2014), posit that the Oshiwambo language is made up of about eleven dialects, namely Oshingandjera, Oshikwanyama, Oshindonga, Oshikwaluudhi, Oshikwambi, Oshimbada, Oshivale, Oshikafima, Oshindombodhola, Oshikolonkadhi, and Oshimbalantu. In her study during her stay in Angola, Halme (2004) argued that the Oshiwambo language consists of twelve dialects. The dialect of which the former studies did not mention is Oshiunda, which becomes the twelfth dialect number, based on Halme's (2004:1) research. Therefore, on this basis, the total number of dialects that make up Oshiwambo language is twelve.

It is also confirmed that speakers of these dialects understand each other because the morphology, syntax and semantics are similar. The differences are mainly in pronunciation and intonation (Shifidi, 2014 & Mbenzi, 2019). There are only a few cases in which some lexical items in these languages are totally different, especially in Oshikwanyama, in which one can find items or words such as *epata* and in Oshindonga the word that means the same is *elugo*. Another word in Oshikwanyama is *oshipale* and in Oshindonga or Oshikwambi, this is referred to as *olupale*. *Olupale* in Oshikwanyama refers to a meeting place where household members usually meet, especially after dinner, to discuss pertinent issues that affect their daily lives. However, this situation does not hinder any communication to prevail, since these dialects are

close to one another. Whilst native speakers understand what these terms are referring to, the problem may arise in a situation involving non-native speakers of Oshiwambo or children who do not know these languages' synonyms or have not interacted with different people from the other Oshiwambo dialects.

Furthermore, Oshiwambo in the Namibian context has been serving as a medium for religious, socioeconomic, educational and administrative purposes for many years. The two dialects, Oshikwanyama and Oshindonga, have been accepted as standardised written languages in Namibia. Based on Zimmermann and Hasheela's research (1998), due to the influence of the missionaries who were based in Ondonga (the place where speakers of Oshindonga are based), the other Oshiwambo dialects based in the north western part of Namibia, Oshimbalanhu, Oshikolonkadhi, Oshikwaluudhi, Oshingandjera and Oshikwambi, adopted Oshindonga for religious and educational purposes. This is precisely the reason why Oshindonga has become the largest written language in the country with approximately 400 000 users.

The second of the **three main goals** of The Language Policy for schools in Namibia states the following:

Education should promote the language and cultural identity of learners through the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction in Grades 1-3 and the teaching of mother tongue throughout formal education. Grade 4 is a transitional year in which the mother tongue plays a supportive role in the teaching. Mother tongue should be taught as a subject (Ministry of Basic Education, Sports and Culture, 2003: 2).

To elaborate on the preceding statement, it is required for all learners, from Grade 1 to Grade 3, to be taught in their mother tongue (medium of instruction). Therefore, the two Oshiwambo dialects, Oshikwanyama and Oshindonga, are taught as school subjects in some Namibian schools from Grade 1. Besides the pre-primary, primary, upper primary and secondary phases at schools in which Oshikwanyama and Oshindonga are taught as separate subjects and as mediums of instruction, these dialects are not taught as separate subjects at the secondary school curriculum phase at the University of Namibia, but they are merged and taught as one subject, which is Oshiwambo. One of the reasons why Oshiwambo, at the University of Namibia's main Campus (Secondary Education), is taught as a single subject, is that of promoting all the Oshiwambo dialects and the avoidance of tribalism and racial differences (Zimmermann & Hasheela, 1998; Shikesho, 2019).

The current situation in Namibia as far as this issue is concerned, is complex. Although Oshiwambo is taught as a subject at the University of Namibia, teachers who complete the language course are only compelled to teach either Oshikwanyama or Oshindonga. One of the reasons why only Oshindonga and Oshikwanyama are taught as school subjects is that of the lack of the writing systems in the other dialects of Oshiwambo. Oshiwambo language needs to be advanced. Thus there is a need for researchers, academics and everyone interested in writing and developing the other Oshiwambo dialects to produce more books, so that, in the near future, these dialects will also be able to be functional in schools.

In Namibia, the other institutions of higher learning, such as NAMCOL (The Namibian College of Open Learning), the Institute of Open Learning (IOL), and the International University of Management (IUM), offer only two Oshiwambo languages (Oshikwanyama and Oshindonga). The students who take the African language courses in Oshiwambo (whether they are not from Oshikwanyama or Oshindonga dialects), have no other options, but to choose only between Oshikwanyama and Oshindonga. A large number of learners from other dialects apart from Oshikwanyama and Oshimbadja are therefore compelled to be taught Oshindonga in schools. Only a small number of learners from the other dialects of Oshiwambo, apart from Oshikwanyama and Oshimbadja, take Oshikwanyama in schools. The learners that are Oshimbadja speakers, particularly those close to the Angolan border with Namibia and the cross-borders, are taught in Oshikwanyama. At other towns in Namibia, learners are either taught in Oshikwanyama or Oshindonga, regardless of their native dialects.

Oshikwambi, one of the Oshiwambo dialects, is also used (written and spoken) for religious purposes, particularly in Catholic churches in Namibia. Oshikwambi is not yet used in schools.

1.2.2 Oshikwanyama

The following are sub-sections giving more information on Oshikwanyama. These sub-sections are the language classification of Oshikwanyama in Africa, the current status of Oshikwanyama, the Oshikwanyama writing system, and the history and status of Oshikwanyama lexicography.

1.2.2.1 The language classification of Oshikwanyama

Languages have been classified into different families in the world in general and in Africa in particular. So far, the exact number of languages spoken in Africa is not known, but it is

estimated that there are more than 2000 languages spoken by about 1.1 billion people (cf. Sands & Gunnink, 2017). Some languages have neither been described nor recorded due to limited access to the places, which was a challenge to researchers. Languages in Africa have been linguistically classified either typologically or genetically (Historically), based on Haacke et al. (2009).

While a typological classification of languages, based on Haacke et al. (2009), is a process of classifying the nature of a particular language in its present state, a genetic classification classifies languages based on their historical origin and their development.

Based on Haacke et al. (2009), to classify languages from a historical perspective (genetically) is very difficult based on the notion that some languages did not have any written records of the earlier times. Due to this challenge, therefore, the typological classification is the best and this was adopted in the current study.

Typologically, African languages are classified into four main *phyla* (singular: *phylum*). This salient language classification was made by an American linguist, Joseph Greenberg (1963), who classified them into four different phyla. The four families are, therefore, Congo-Kordofanian, Niro Saharan, Afro-Asiatic, and Khoesaaan (Maho, 1998; Haacke et al., 2009).

The first family is the Congo-Kordofanian, which is the main phylum. This phylum is made up of two branches. The major branch under this phylum is called the *Niger-Congo*, which is believed to be the third-largest family in the world, after Indo-European as well as Sino-Tibetan which are situated in eastern Asia. Niger-Congo is the largest family in Africa which consists of more than a thousand languages “ranging from South Africa to a northern border that stretches from Kenya in the east to Senegal in the west” (Haacke et al., 2009: 13).

Kordofanian (under the Niger-Congo family), is another small group with an isolated group of about 30 languages in Kordofan of central Sudan.

Within the Niger-Congo, six sub-families exist and Benue-Congo is the largest and it is situated somewhere between southern and central Africa. Within Benue-Congo, there is *Bantoid* (the Bantu-like languages), which includes the *Bantu* languages family (Haacke et al., 2009).

The origin of the term *Bantu* has been explained in the introductory paragraphs of this Section. This term, *Bantu*, based on Maho (1998), is just a linguistic term that deals with an entire family

of languages. Haacke et al. (2009) also explain that this term, *Bantu*, is just a linguistic term, and it is fully acceptable either internationally or in Africa, and not biased in the manner in which others misinterpreted it during the colonial time (Compare the preceding sub-section on how some people, particularly South Africans felt about this term).

In addition, it was back then in the middle of the nineteenth century when a German linguist in Cape Town, Wilhelm Bleek, undertook a first comparative study of "Bantu" and "Hottentot" languages (Bleek, 1862) and demonstrated that some of these languages, like isiZulu, isiXhosa, Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi, Tshivenda and many others, have very similar grammars (noun class system and that many words of their vocabulary were of the same etymology). These languages have then proven to be related to languages that are described from countries further north, for example in the Congo (Maho, 1998; Haacke et al., 2009).

Furthermore, in light of the fact that these different people did not have any knowledge of one another, they naturally did not have any name that they could use to speak or refer to all these related languages. Bleek (1862), therefore, came up with an artificial name in the identification of this family that he was describing. He then chose a word that appeared in all the *Bantu* languages in some form or other, depending on the language's sound system. He then selected the word *abantu*, which refers to "people" as translated from isiZulu (Maho, 1998 & Haacke et al., 2009). The following is an example of different *Bantu* languages provided by Haacke et al. (2009: 2) (from Otjiherero to Kiswahili) in which there is a plural prefix of the stem referring to "person". The stem is bolded.

Otjiherero	<i>ova+ndu</i>
Oshindonga	<i>aa+ntu</i>
Oshikwanyama	<i>ova+nhu</i>
Silozi	<i>ba+tu</i>
Shiyeyi	<i>ava+tu</i>
Rukwangali	<i>va+ntu</i>
Setswana	<i>ba+tho</i>
IsiXhosa	<i>aba+ntu</i>
Kiswahili	<i>wa+tu</i>
Tshivenda	<i>vha+thu</i>
Xitsonga	<i>va+nhu</i>

Based on the preceding example, it can be confirmed that Oshikwanyama is a *Bantu* language, because of its suffix stem *-nhu* appearing in the term that refers to a person or people (*omunhu* or *ova-nhu*).

Many of the *Bantu* languages provided in the preceding example are spoken in Namibia, except Shiyeyi, isiXhosa, Kiswahili, Tshivenda and Xitsonga.

In summary, the following is a classification of Oshikwanyama in its family of languages (Cf: Shikesho, 2019: 68):

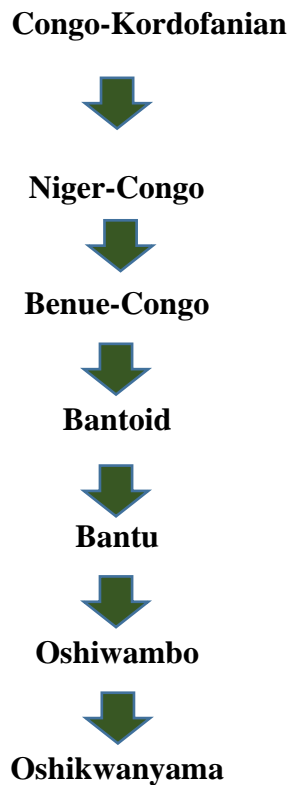


Figure 1.1 A typological classification of Oshikwanyama

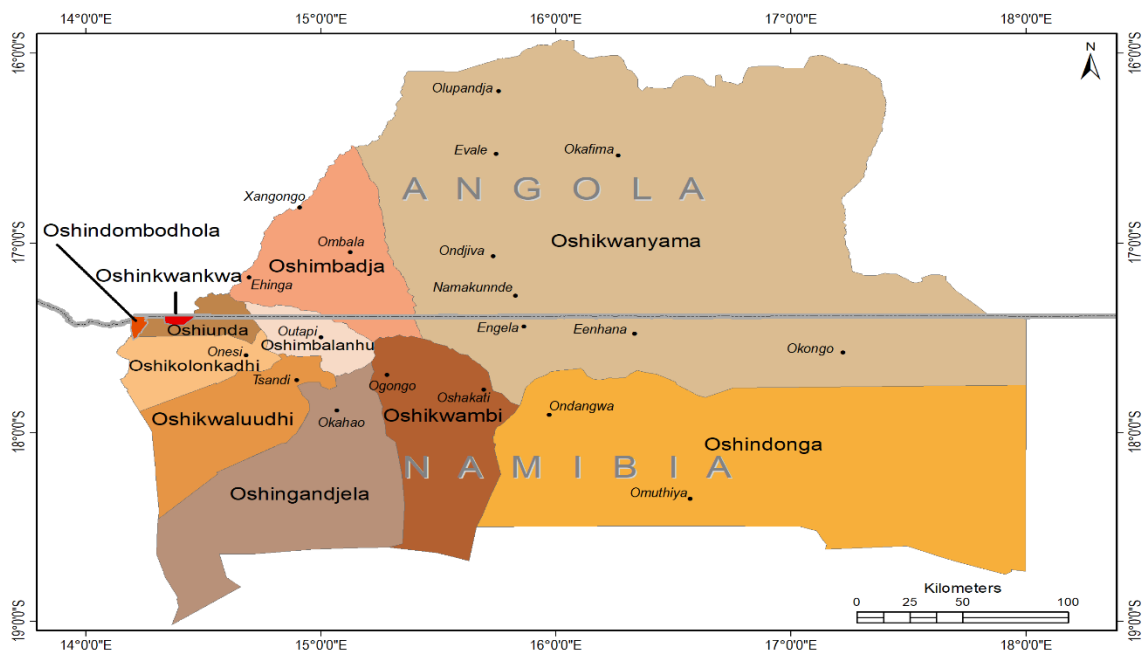
The other three phyla, Niro Saharan, Afro-Asiatic, and Khoesaaan are not discussed in the present study.

1.2.2.2 The current status of Oshikwanyama

As established in the preceding section about Oshiwambo, Oshikwanyama is a dialect of Oshiwambo. It is spoken by some people in the northern part of Namibia and the southern part of Angola. Oshikwanyama is one of the standardised dialects of Oshiwambo in Namibia, as stated in the previous section. Compared to the other Oshiwambo dialects, Oshikwanyama has received greater attention in the Namibian education system and other formal and informal activities (Shikesho, 2019).

According to Ndanyakukwa (2016), the number of Oshikwanyama-speaking people in Angola is close to 400 000. This number also includes the close-related varieties, Oshimbadja and Oshivale. In Namibia, according to Shikesho (2019), the number of Oshikwanyama speakers is close to 260 000. Guthrie (1971) has classified Oshikwanyama as R 21, which is close to Oshindonga, which is R 22, based on the classification of Bantu languages.

The following map indicates the position of Oshikwanyama in both countries (Namibia and Angola).



Map 1: The position of Oshikwanyama in Angola and Namibia (*Shikesho, 2019:11*).

Although people travel from place to place and from town to town due to various reasons, the preceding map indicates the position where Oshikwanyama was originally spoken in the two countries. It can be evidently observed that Oshikwanyama is largely spoken in Angola, compared to Namibia. The map also indicates the other dialects of Oshiwambo that are spoken in these two countries.

It is also confirmed by Zimmermann and Hasheela (1998) that Oshikwanyama consists of sub-dialects such as Oshimbadja, Oshivale, Oshikafima, and Oshindombodhola, and they are situated in Angola, in the eastern part of the Kunene River. All these sub-dialects are mostly spoken in the east of the Kunene River. These sub-dialects are also indicated in the map.

1.2.2.3 The Oshikwanyama writing system and publications

The orthography of Oshikwanyama has gone through several changes during the nineteenth century. Halme (2004:8) explains that the first Oshikwanyama orthography was introduced and then established by the Germany Missionary, Brincker (1891) in his book "*Lehrbuch des Osikuanjama*"

In addition, several other orthographies were observed in Oshikwanyama, for instance, the Engela orthography, and Oniipa orthography (Hasheela, 1981). These orthographies were not official then.

As explained in the preceding sections that Oshikwanyama is spoken in the two countries, it is also worth pointing out here that each of these two countries has its language policy, according to Halme (2004). This was as a result of the unstable political situations in these countries then, so cooperation in the field of language was very minimal until the 80s. In Namibia, (South West Africa by then) under the South African government, all the Oshikwanyama reference materials were developed in support of the Bantu Education System. In 1966, the official Oshikwanyama Orthography Number 1 was introduced. Seven years later (in 1973), under the Department of Bantu Education of the Republic of South Africa, the Oshikwanyama Orthography Number 2 was produced (Hasheela, 1981 & Halme, 2004). It is confirmed that no major changes have been made to the official orthography then. The latest Oshikwanyama orthography, which started its revision in 1998, was published in 2004. Several major changes can be observed in this orthography, including the official name of the language (Oshikwanyama) (Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, 2004).

In Angola, *the Instituto de Linguas Nacionais*, the institute which dealt with researching national languages by that time, introduced an orthography for Oshikwanyama as part of a UNDP funded project to come up with alphabets for six national languages. Therefore, the official orthography for Oshikwanyama was introduced by the group that was selected by the *Instituto de Linguas Nacionais* in Ondjiva, Province of Kunene, in 1979. Namibia was represented by its leading Organisation by then and still, SWAPO. This orthography was then approved at both national and international levels (Halme, 2004: 9).

The use of the Oshikwanyama language entails a wide range of domains in Namibia compared to Angola. Therefore, a great deal of cooperation between these two countries needed to be established so that the issue of language could be ironed out. There was a workshop in

Okahandja, Namibia, on Cross-border Languages, in 1996. One of the salient issues was to discuss a common orthography for Oshikwanyama, but, unfortunately, the discussion did not produce any fruits. This simply means that the members of the delegate, both from Namibia and Angola did not reach any agreement at all (Legere, 1998).

The major problem discussed was the Oshikwanyama writing system, which was (and still is) different in these two countries, namely the disjunctive and conjunctive writing of the verbs. The disjunctive writing system is used in Namibia while the conjunctive writing system is used in Angola. Until today (2020), the matter of using a common official Oshikwanyama orthography for these two countries remains unresolved.

The main problem when it comes to the present orthography in Namibia is the disjunctive writing system of verbs which makes it very hard to read and write, particularly to someone who has not studied the language formally, including the native speakers of Oshikwanyama in Angola. Halme (2004) explains that although the disjunctive system is very complex, it is very well-established compared to the conjunctive one used in Angola, as it is not well-established. It has been found that in Namibian schools, the major cause of mistakes is caused by the disjunctive writing system. Halme (2004) gives one advantage of using the disjunctive writing of verbs, as it is not randomly cut into pieces. The most closely related components are kept together, while the morphemes with looser ties to the stem are kept apart. For example, the derivational extensions are written conjunctively with the stem, whereas most inflectional morphemes preceding the stem are written disjunctively (Halme, 2004: 9).

Cole (1975) argues that if Bantu languages want to have a proper and satisfying analysis, all foreign preconceptions should be discarded. The foreign preconceptions are those of following the foreign writing system (writing disjunctively); for example, *Ame ohandi nu* \approx I am drinking. Cole (1975) further suggests that Bantu languages need to be examined by following a point of view of Bantu word structure. Therefore, a disjunctively writing system should be discouraged. A conjunctively writing system is preferred for Bantu languages. This system requires all prefixal and suffixal formatives to be attached to the stem or roots, especially the verbal stem (Cole, 1975). For example, *Ame ohandinu* \approx I am drinking.

This study suggests that for Oshikwanyama to develop very well in these two countries, a common orthography needs to be established. These two nations should agree on how they will solve this issue which has lasted for almost a century now. The present study suggests the constructively writing system as suggested by Cole (1975).

According to Nafuka (Personal communication, May 24, 2020), there is a very influential person in Angola, Pedro Tongeni, who has always been invited to attend language workshops, and served in the language committee, here in Namibia when it comes to Oshikwanyama. Tongeni has influenced the Oshikwanyama people in Angola, in adapting to the Oshikwanyama writing system used in Namibia. As such, several people in Angola have started adapting to this system.

In 2014, there was a cultural festival in Angola in which they invited Paavo Hasheela to attend the festival. During this occasion, the members of the organising committee discussed the issue of the writing of Oshikwanyama in Angola, and they agreed to adapt the official Oshikwanyama orthography of Namibia (P. Hasheela, personal communication, May 26, 2020).

From a historical perspective, the first people to write in Oshikwanyama are the German missionaries. These missionaries also produced several books in Oshikwanyama and then recorded its grammar. The first Missionary, Herman Tönjes, thoroughly examined some of the Oshikwanyama structures. Furthermore, Tönjes was associated with the Oshikwanyama speaking people at Onamakunde in Angola and was slowly taught by them Oshikwanyama. Tönjes wrote an Oshikwanyama grammar textbook entitled *Ovambo Sprache (Osikuanjama)*, and later on, produced a German-Oshikwanyama dictionary in 1910 entitled *Wörterbuch der Ovambo Sprache (Osikuanjama-Deutsch)*. These books were salient to anyone who was learning Oshikwanyama (Ngodji, 2004 & Halme, 2004).

In addition, the Oshikwanyama translated version of the New Testament that was published in English in 1903 was also completed by the Germans in 1927. Halme (2004) also adds that there was a disagreement on the orthography between the missionaries. It is also established here that the Anglicans also published some books in the 1920s.

Since not so many publications were produced and recorded for Oshikwanyama in Angola, Halme (2004) claims that the majority of the active writers are in Namibia.

One of the indigenous people who worked and contributed significantly to Oshikwanyama is Gabriel S. Taapopi. The secondary school in Ongwediva in the northern part of Namibia, known as Gabriel Taapopi Secondary School, was named after him, after the significant contribution he made for Oshikwanyama in terms of its development.

Gabriel Taapopi pioneered Oshikwanyama because he worked with the last missionaries that came to Oukwanyama or rather Owambo. Taapopi worked in Ongwediva, at a school called ‘boys’ school’ where he taught many people, including Tk. P. Hasheela, Tk. A. L. Nghifikua, Tk. M. Hamutumua, among others. Taapopi worked at Uukwaluudhi as a secretary (Hamushanga woshiwana), and later he transferred to Windhoek and worked at the Language Bureau of the Department of National Education (P. Hasheela, personal communication, May 26, 2020). He was later replaced by Paavo Hasheela who also contributed significantly to the development of Oshikwanyama. Gabriel Taapopi produced a lot of books in Oshikwanyama. He produced books such as *Ila tu leshe*, *Lihongeni*, and others. Together with Zimmerman, who obtained his Master’s degree in Oshikwanyama, Taapopi was involved in editing Turveys’ dictionary, *Kwanyama-English Dictionary*. Apart from school books, Taapopi also made a significant contribution in assisting in the Oshikwanyama bible translation. Many words in the bible have been corrected with the help of Gabriel Taapopi (Ngodji, 2004).

Gabriel Taapopi was good with languages. He studied at the University of South Africa, and apparently, it is where he was introduced to Hebrew. Because of his understanding of Hebrew, he could translate it (Hebrew) into Oshikwanyama. Although several people appreciate Taapopi, Shinana (Personal communication with Ngodji, on 15 April, 2004, Engela, Namibia) argues that he made some unnecessary changes in Oshikwanyama on the basis that he mixed some Oshikwanyama lexical items (words) with those of Oshindonga.

Furthermore, Taapopi used to attend several important meetings in Oukwanyama, due to his linguistic understanding. He attended meetings, including the one which was held at Engela, in Oukwanyama (now Ohangwena Region) in 1972. This meeting’s main subject was to discuss pertinent issues concerning words as well as the numerical systems in Oshikwanyama that would also be adapted in the bible.

Taapopi was also among the members who approved the bible manuscript. The bible translation committee was signed in July 1972. He represented the Language Board. The focus of this study is not necessarily meant to give a history of the bible in Oukwanyama, but it came in to speak of G. S. Taapopi’s tremendous job in developing Oshikwanyama. For a detailed history of the Oshikwanyama bible translation, Ngodji (2004) can be used as a starting point. Mbenzi (2019) also adds that some hymns in *Ehangano* (*which means association, federation, league, society, or union in English. This name expresses the idea of unity among various language groups in Namibia. Ehangano is a collection of Oshindonga, Oshikwanyama and a*

few Rukavango hymns) were written by Gabriel Taapopi. This hymn book was published in 1949.

Another active and recognised writer in the history of Oshikwanyama in Namibia is the well-known person, Tatekulu Paavo Hasheela, who was the first person to serve in The National Institute for Educational Development (NIED) in Okahandja, before he was replaced by Mirjam Hamutenya (Katonyala). People who also worked as Oshikwanyama education officers at NIED include, Aletta Shikukumwa, Soini Nghiuuelekua, Maria Hanghuwo and Sylvia Noa. Some of Paavo Hasheela's publications are currently frequently used by students at tertiary level, both at national and international educational institutions.

Hasheela published a grammar book in 1986 entitled *Oshikwanyamenena* (1986) and it has an improved version, *Oshikwanyamenena Shipe*, which was published in 2007. In Riikka Halme's Oshikwanyama tonal grammar book (*A tonal Grammar of Oshikwanyama*, 2004), Halme (2004) concludes that the book is not that linguistically satisfactory. Halme (2004) also commented on the Oshikwanyama grammar book that was written by Paavo Hasheela and Zimmermann in 1998 and concluded that the book has some shortcomings, particularly when it comes to the establishment of tones. Although these two books have those shortcomings as already established in the preceding statements, their contributions to Oshikwanyama as a language cannot be ignored. These writers' efforts are acknowledged. Many of the grammar and literature books were later published in post-independent Namibia.

Apart from Hasheela's and Zimmerman's publications, there are also a lot of books that were written by different authors, for the development of Oshikwanyama. Many books were published for educational purposes and others for reading for pleasure. Recently, many people have published in Oshikwanyama. They produced literary texts, grammar books and many others. This simply means that Oshikwanyama in Namibia is advancing to another level compared to that of Angola, even though it is also developing, but at a slower pace. Therefore, there is a need for the youth to start writing and be active in Oshikwanyama, so that after some time in the near future, it can be one of the official languages, in both Namibia and Angola.

Interestingly, there has been and are still several studies that have been taken to investigate pertinent issues in Oshikwanyama. Some of these studies are conducted by both Angolan and Namibian nationals (P. Hasheela, personal communication, May 26, 2020).

Oshikwanyama has been active in society. Based on Halme (2004), some local newspapers in Namibia, such as *The Namibian*, *Omukwetu*, among others, have some sections that are written

in Oshikwanyama. Today, some international and national news is written in Oshikwanyama in the local newspapers such as, among others, *Kundana*, *The Namibian*, *Omukwetu*, *The Namibian Sun*, and *The Namibian New Era*. There are also online newspapers, such as *Omutumwa*, in which Oshikwanyama is playing a greater role. There are also some radio stations in which Oshikwanyama is playing a major role. These radio stations are, among others, *Katimukupulwapale Dingi (Kati FM)*, *Omulunga Radio*, *Radio Energy*, *Shipi FM*, *Channel Seven*, *Shalom Radio*, and *Eagle FM*. Some of these stations have time slots which are dedicated to Oshikwanyama. The Namibian Broadcasting Corporation's TV (NBC), the National Television and the leading TV channel in Namibia, also reads the news in Oshiwambo in which Oshikwanyama is also featuring.

Although most of the newspapers in Angola are largely written in Portuguese, the national television broadcasts weekly programmes in all the six national languages, including Oshiwambo, in which Oshikwanyama is playing a vital role. In addition, the Angolan national radio broadcaster, *Rádio Nacional de Angola*, under *Rádio 'Ngola Yetu* in Luanda, has time slots for Oshiwambo, and Oshikwanyama plays a salient role in comparison with the other Oshiwambo languages in Angola (Shikesho, 2019). Martin A. (Personal communication, 20 April 2020), one of the University of Namibia's Law students, and has been staying in Angola, confirmed that there are time slots which are dedicated to Oshiwambo, of which Oshikwanyama plays a crucial role on *Rádio Cunene*, in Ondjiva, in the Cunene Province. It has also been established that there is a *Rádio Ecclesia* (Catholic Radio station), based in Ondjiva, in which there are timeslots that are dedicated for Oshiwambo and in which Oshikwanyama features. Additionally, according to Martin (2020), *Rádio Huila* and *Rádio Mais* are Angolan Radio stations in which Oshiwambo (including Oshikwanyama) features on a part-time basis.

Currently, a lot of public activities are conducted in Oshikwanyama in both countries, for example, in church services, parental meetings at schools, etc. Shikesho (2019) also confirms that there is a large body of Oshikwanyama literature that has been produced for religious purposes, including many revised editions of the translated Holy Bible, called *Ombibeli Iyapuki*.

Oshikwanyama is also used on social media such as Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter, and Instagram, among others. Members of the public have created various social media groups in which they discuss pertinent issues that affect the Ovakwanyama. The members also discuss

issues such as values and customs, current issues and many others. Such groups are, for example, *Nekwa Litoka [WhatsApp]*, *Ovakwanyama Oludi laMushindi waKanhene [Facebook]*, *Shiiva omufyuululwakalo woye [Facebook]*, and many others.

1.2.2.4 History and status of Oshikwanyama lexicography

The Oshikwanyama lexicography is still in its initial stage. It has been found that only a few dictionaries were produced in the past one and half centuries. A number of recorded dictionaries that were compiled and produced in Oshikwanyama is provided below.

According to Halme (2004), the first Oshikwanyama dictionary, *Wörterbuch des Oshikuanjama mit Vergleichung des Oshindonga und Otjiherero*, was compiled in 1891 by H.P. Brincker. It is confirmed that this publication came in two volumes. The first volume consists of non-nouns and the second volume entails nouns arranged according to their classes. Translation equivalents in Oshindonga and Otjiherero are also provided for most of the lemmata in the dictionary (Brincker, 1891).

In 1897, according to Fivaz (2003), it is confirmed that an Oshikwanyama dictionary was produced by the same compiler, Brincker. This dictionary's title is *Deutscher Wortführer für die Bantu-Dialekte Otjiherero, Oshindonga und Oshikuanjama*. This lexicographical work, unfortunately, was lost because it was not archived in museums, libraries or any other retrieval place. The possible way it can be retrieved is when one tries to search and locate it at the compiler's country of origin.

Tobias and Turvey (1954), Fivaz (2003) and Halme (2004) further add that there is another Oshikwanyama dictionary that was compiled by the Rhenish Missionary, Hermann Tönjes, in 1910. This dictionary was produced in German and titled *Wörterbuch der Ovambo Sprache (Osikuanjama-Deutsch)*.

In 1954, 44 years later, the dictionary, *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* by Tobias and Turvey was published. In 1977, 23 years later, the *Kwanyama-English Dictionary*, currently out of print and unavailable, was compiled by Turvey and edited by Taapopi and Zimmermann. This work is based on Hermann Tönjes' work at the beginning of the 20th century.

In 1977, another lexicographical work, *Afrikaans-English/Ndonga-Kwanyama terminology* was published, under the Department of Bantu Education system.

Another thesaurus, which is a dictionary type, was produced in 2008, by a scholar by the name of M. Parker. The name of this thesaurus is *Webster's English-Kwanyama Thesaurus Dictionary*.

In 2016, in Ondjiva, Angola, another bilingual dictionary of names in Oshikwanyama, *Dicionário de nomes em Oshikwanyama*, was launched. This lexicographical work was compiled by an active journalist and writer, known as Cecilia Ndanyakukwa “Pandeinge” Ndesuda Shomgeleni. This 94 page dictionary, with nine chapters, consists of 500 Oshikwanyama names, functioning as lemmas. Their translation equivalents are in Portuguese, the official language of Angola. This work does not only include personal names but also names of animals, drinks, festivals, calendars, fruits as well as historical sites (Kanhameni, 2016; Silva, 2016).

Furthermore, in compiling this work, according to Kanhameni (2016) and Silva (2016), the compiler contacted many important people that know Oshikwanyama, such as linguists, people that know more about Oshikwanyama culture and traditions, and other ecclesiastical entities. This work was inspired by the Oshikwanyama language, which is, in fact, one of the Oshikwanyama-speaking people's cultural symbols. It portrays anthropological, cultural as well as social aspects of not only people living in Cunene province in Angola but also to every Oshikwanyama-speaking person. It is also a starting point for the Portuguese-speaking people who are eager to learn Oshikwanyama names.

In 2019, in Namibia, another general *Oshikwanyama-English / English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary* was compiled, and it is available at the Namibia Publishing House (NPH). This dictionary was compiled by the Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, based on the work of Zimmerman and Taapopi (1977). From a personal point of view, the dictionary is well-designed and well-established, compared to the existing Oshikwanyama dictionaries which she describes as glossaries (M. Hanghuwo, personal communication, March 13, 2020). From a lexicographical perspective and according to the Function Theory of Lexicography, this dictionary lacks to establish the target users, its purpose and functions within the society in which it functions. According to Wiegand's (1990) Text theory, this lexicographical work does not follow the procedural structure of the comment on form and the comment on semantics, as established in a seminal work produced by Gouws and Prinsloo (2005). Detailed information is provided on the comment on semantics and the comment on form in the chapters to follow.

The present study then suggests an urgent compilation of a new dictionary, in covering the needs of the learners in the secondary schools that are doing Oshikwanyama. Thus, much work needs to be established to develop the lexicography of Oshikwanyama. By doing so, the state of Oshikwanyama lexicography in particular and Oshiwambo lexicography, in general, will be improved. Therefore, the present study provides ideas on producing dictionaries of higher quality, especially for the secondary school learners of Oshikwanyama.

1.3 Statement of the research problem

Oshikwanyama has been a dominating language in Namibia and it has been regarded as one of the mediums of communication for socioeconomic, religious and other purposes for many years, and as a medium of instruction and a school subject from primary to secondary schools (Shikesho, 2019). This also includes higher institutions such as the Namibian College of Open Learning (NAMCOL), the International University of Management (IUM), the Institute for Open Learning (IOL) as well as the University of Namibia (UNAM). Namibia gained independence in 1990, but no comprehensive study has been conducted in Oshikwanyama lexicography that aims at the development of new dictionaries that can assist to improve the status of Oshikwanyama.

Regardless of the recently produced lexicographical materials as established in the previous section, the current study is positive that there is an urgent need for an up-to-date dictionary of Oshikwanyama. Some of these dictionaries, for example, the *Kwanyama-English Dictionary*, was compiled in 1977 (Zimmermann & Hasheela, 1998), and, at present, it is out of print and unavailable.

So far, no dictionaries in Oshikwanyama have been produced for learners at school. All of them were compiled only for general users.

For Tobias and Turvey's *English-Kwanyama Dictionary*, major shortcomings have been observed by Mbenzi (1996) and Shikesho (2019). It has been found that this dictionary is not recommended to be used by secondary school learners, because of incorrect presentations and a lack of some microstructural features such as labels and pronunciation. It has also been revealed that the orthography which is used in that dictionary is now archaic. Therefore, there is an urgent need to develop a new dictionary that will cater to the needs of secondary school

learners. This dictionary beeds to present microstructural features such as lexicographical labels, pronunciation, typographical and non-typographical markers, and many others that will be of necessity for secondary school learners.

In addition, the recently published *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, compiled in 2019, has also been observed that it does not, to a certain extent, fit to be utilised by secondary school learners due to a lot of microstructural and macrostructural issues it contains. Besides, it was not compiled for the learners' sake, but the public at large.

The other special dictionaries, for example, *Webster's Oshikwanyama thesaurus dictionary (2008)* and *Oshikwanyama dictionary of names (2016)*, belong to special fields and they are not recognised as dictionaries due to some dictionary entries that are not presented.

Consequently, immediate action is needed to compile a new bilingual Oshikwanyama dictionary that can be used by secondary school learners who are mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama; one that can provide answers to their questions, when the need for consulting a dictionary arises. Other learners whose mother tongues are non-Oshikwnayama, who may find themselves attending a secondary school where they have to study Oshikwanyama can also benefit from the proposed dictionary. This can also assist in improving and developing Oshikwanyama lexicography. To achieve all this, a model that can be followed in compiling a new English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners of Oshikwanyama is needed, and it is what the current study aims [to develeop a model that can be adopted in compiling the above-mentioned dictionary].

1.4 Research questions

This study sought to answer the following four research questions:

- What are the functions of a bilingual dictionary?
- What are the best criteria for compiling a user-friendly bilingual dictionary for secondary school learners?
- To what extent will the proposed dictionary satisfy the user needs?
- What contribution to the development of Oshikwanyama lexicography will the proposed dictionary provide?

1.5 Research aim and objectives

This study functions on the following aim and objectives.

1.5.1 Research aim

This study aimed to develop a model that can be applied in compiling a user-friendly English-Oshikwanyama dictionary that can be used by secondary school learners who are mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama. This salient study focused on the development of Oshikwanyama's practical and theoretical lexicography. The development of Oshikwanyama lexicography can only be arrived at when features and requirements of a user-friendly bilingual dictionary are investigated and discussed based on the existing literature.

1.5.2 Research objectives

The following are the research objectives for this study:

- To investigate and discuss the functions of a bilingual dictionary;
- To investigate and discuss the best criteria for compiling a user-friendly bilingual dictionary for secondary school learners;
- To find out the extent the proposed dictionary will satisfy the user needs; and
- To discuss the contribution to the development of Oshikwanyama lexicography the proposed dictionary will provide.

1.6 Justification of the study

Although Oshikwanyama is one of the two standardised Oshiwambo dialects (treated as a language) and is frequently used in both basic and tertiary education, so far comprehensive research done in Oshikwanyama lexicography, which aims at the development of Oshikwanyama, is limited.

Although a vast number of international studies have proposed models for compiling bilingual dictionaries for secondary school learners, nothing has been done nationally, particularly in Oshikwanyama lexicography. Therefore, this study aims to fill this big space. Several studies have focused on the best criteria that should be followed when it comes to compiling a bilingual learner's dictionary. These studies are, among others, the study conducted by Tarp and Gouws

(2012) on School dictionaries for First-Language learners, Gouws (2004a) on outer texts in bilingual dictionaries, Gouws (2004b) on monolingual and bilingual learners' dictionaries, Gouws (1993) on Afrikaans learners' dictionaries for a multilingual South Africa, and Steyn (2004) on the access structure in learners' dictionaries.

Up to date, only two scholars have attempted to evaluate Oshikwanyama general dictionaries, i.e. *English-Kwanyama Dictionary*, for their usefulness (Mbenzi, 1996 & Shikesho, 2019). Therefore, a lot of research needs to be undertaken in the lexicography of Oshikwanyama which is growing at a very slow pace.

The dictionaries that were compiled so far in Oshikwanyama were not compiled based on specific criteria. Therefore, this study came up with the best criteria that can be followed when compiling a future bilingual dictionary. Special attention is given to secondary school learners.

1.7 Significance of the study

Since this is the first study done in relation to Oshikwanyama, proposing a model for compiling a user-friendly bilingual dictionary for Oshikwanyama secondary school learners, many values have been established. This study does not only act as a guiding tool to the compilers of future dictionaries, but it can also be of great assistance to anyone who has an idea of studying and understanding pertinent issues pertaining to the compilation of bilingual dictionaries.

This study is also important to Oshikwanyama in particular and Oshiwambo language in general. The Oshikwanyama lexicography lacks dictionaries that have been compiled for learners, particularly secondary school learners. By carrying out this salient study, future researchers can be assisted in following major aspects and strategies in compiling higher quality bilingual dictionaries for secondary school learners, that can also assist in the development of not only the Oshikwanyama dialect in particular but also the Oshiwambo language in general.

Gouws (2004b) explains the significance of a learner's dictionary when it comes to the school environment. Firstly, it could be of prime importance to the teacher as a teaching aid. Secondly, it could also be used by learners as a learning material. Therefore, this study is of great assistance to compilers who would like to develop any bilingual school dictionaries for

Oshikwanyama secondary school learners that will be of great help to the Oshikwanyama learners.

1.8 Definition of terms

The following are definitions of some terminologies that are in this study: dictionary, bilingual dictionary, dictionary article, equivalent relation, lemma, macrostructure, microstructure and access structure.

1.8.1 Dictionary

Bergenholtz and Tarp (2004:30) provide two definitions of the word dictionary. According to them, a dictionary is a lexicographic reference work that consists of dictionary articles that relate to individual topics or elements of a language, and possibly several other texts as well, which can be consulted if one needs to be assisted in terms of text reception, text production or translation or would perhaps like to have broad knowledge on a certain lexical item (word), part of a lexical item or a combination of lexical items. Secondly, a dictionary is defined as a lexicographic reference work that contains several dictionaries, each of which corresponds to the definition of an individual dictionary, for instance, a reference work that consists of dictionary articles that are related to individual topics or the elements of language, and possibly several other texts as well, which can be consulted if one needs to be assisted in terms of text reception, text production or translation or would perhaps like to have broad knowledge on a certain lexical item (word), part of a lexical item or a combination of lexical items.

This study provides a simplified version or definition of the term dictionary. A dictionary is an electronic or print reference material or book that comprises of lexical items of either one or more than one language. These lexical items then make up what is called a dictionary article. Within the dictionary article, these lexical items are positioned based on their functions. Some of these lexical items in the dictionary article can be a lemma or lemmas, and some are used to give explanations on the meaning of the lemma or lemmas. If the book consists of more than two languages, the source language and the target language, then the lexical items that explain the meaning of the lemma in the target language are referred to as translation equivalents. All in all, a dictionary is a book that gives the meaning of the lexical items (words) that are listed, either based on a particular language alphabet, or arranged thematically. The purpose is to assist

someone who does not understand the meaning of a particular item to have an understanding of what that particular item, functioning as a lemma, means.

1.8.2 Bilingual dictionary

There are numerous definitions of the concept ‘bilingual dictionary’ by various scholars in the field of metalexigraphy. The following definitions are arranged in order, based on the year of publication of the sources from which these definitions are taken.

Zgusta (1971) defines a bilingual dictionary as the presentation of two languages in a certain dictionary to translate texts from one language into another or to produce texts in a certain language, apart from the user’s native one or both.

Landau (1989) also defines a bilingual dictionary as a dictionary that is made up of a list of lexical items or expressions in one language, which is the source language, for which exact translation equivalents are provided in another language, which is the target language, for the aim of assisting someone who only understands one language but not the other.

Coward and Grimes (2000) also define a bilingual dictionary as a dictionary that focuses on providing translation equivalents concerning another language.

Gouws (2004: 6) defines a bilingual dictionary, focusing on learners’ dictionaries as dictionaries that are “typically seen as dictionaries in which lexical items from two given partner languages are co-ordinated. The source language provides the lemmata or primary treatment units whereas the target language provides the translation equivalents.”

In summary, the entire idea about a bilingual dictionary is that it needs two languages. One of these languages is the source language and the other one is the target language. The items in the source language are then given translation equivalents in the target language to assist the target users who know one language only to better understand the other language presented in the dictionary.

1.8.3 Dictionary article

A lot of studies have used the terms dictionary article and dictionary entry in different ways to refer to one dictionary item. To be consistent and clear enough in this study’s explanations and

illustrations, these two terms have been used, according to the definitions by Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) and Mongwe (2006).

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 115) define a dictionary article as an article that is typically made up of a macrostructural element, which functions as a lemma and as a guiding element, as well as many other microstructural entries that are primarily presented as part of the treatment of the lemma. Similarly, according to Mongwe (2006), a dictionary article is the name given to all entries for a certain lemma. It consists of all dictionary entries, such as the headword, its synonyms, parts of speech, equivalents, pronunciation, spelling, and examples, among others.

In this study, the term article or dictionary article is used to refer to all entries that are provided for a certain lemma. This means that all information that is presented by a certain lemma, including the lemma itself, have made up a dictionary article. The following is an example of a dictionary article taken from Tobias and Turvey (1954: 54):

effloresce, v.i., *temuna(a)*.
effluent, adj. transl. by *kunguluka(a) mo*,
flow out. Effluence, n., *ekungulukemo*.
Effluvium, n., *edimba*.
efflux, n., *emanepo*.
effort, n., (endeavour) *ehetkelo*; (exertion)
ēñono, elama; with effort (difficulty),
noudiu, kelama; he did it with —, *okue*
si: ninga kelama. Effortlessly, adv. *noupu*
(easily).

Example 1.1 An example of articles presented in EKD

Example 1.1 presents four dictionary articles. The first article is made up of a lemma, which is *effloresce*, followed by the indication of part of speech, which is *v.i.* for verb intransitive, and the translation equivalent in Oshikwanyama, which is *temunun(a)*. The second article is introduced by lemma *effluent*, the third article is introduced by lemma, *efflux*, and the last lemma is introduced by lemma *effort*, followed by the part of speech indication, and the other information which follows the part of speech indication.

1.8.4 Dictionary entry

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 115) explain the concept ‘dictionary entry’ as follows: “The term entry is rather used to refer to each and every constituent of a dictionary article.” This simply means that there is more than one entry in any dictionary article. These entries are, among others, lemmas, part of speech entry, etymology, examples, translation equivalents, grammatical notes, structural markers, etc. The following example gives clarity on dictionary entries (cf. Tobias & Turvey, 1954: 106).

**leer, n., *efeulo losinaumbudi* (lit. villain’s
glance).**
lees, n., *ehete*.

Example 1.2 An example of dictionary entries

Example 1.2 presents two dictionary articles. The first article is introduced by the lemma *leer*, and the second article is introduced by the lemma *lees*. In the first article, four dictionary entries are observed. The first entry is *leer* as a lemma, the second entry is the part of speech indicator, *n.*, the third entry is the Oshikwanyama translation equivalent, *efeulo losinaumbudi*, and the fourth entry is the context usage (*lit. Villain’s glance*). In addition, the second article consists of only three dictionary entries. The first entry is the lemma *lees*, followed by the second entry which presents the part of speech, *n.* (noun), and the last entry is the Oshikwanyama translation equivalent, *ehete*.

Therefore, in this study, the term dictionary entry is used to refer to all the constituent parts of a dictionary article. These parts are, among others, lemma, part of speech marker or indicator, usage note, and the translation equivalents.

1.8.5 Equivalent relation

Another important terminology that is used predominantly in this study is equivalent relation. Equivalent relation is the relation that prevails between the source language and the target language items (Gouws, 2002; Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

In the same vein, Hartmann and James (1998) view equivalent relation (equivalence) as the relationship between lexical items or phrases, from two or more languages of which the same meaning is shared, for instance, the relation between the lemma and all items that are in the target language and are part of the comment on semantics (equivalent relation paradigm). Three different types of equivalent relations have been identified, and they are full equivalence, partial equivalence and zero equivalence (Gouws, 2002; Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005, 2010).

Full equivalence (Congruence) is a one-to-one equivalent relation that prevails when the source language and the target language items are equivalent when it comes to the semantic level. In other words, both source and target language forms have the same meaning, and therefore, the translation equivalent can substitute the source language item in all its existence (Gouws, 2002). In addition, Svensén (2009) expounds that full equivalence primarily takes place in certain types of lexical items and expressions, especially in certain domains, i.e. in Science and Technology, in which concepts are primarily created on an international basis, and they are even standardised.

In the same vein, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) explain that both the source language and the target language items have identical meanings, function on the same stylistic level and represent the same register. Items in the target language can, therefore, be used as a translation equivalent of the items in the source language without any kind of limitations. This type of equivalence for compilers of dictionaries is regarded as the simplest one as it does not have a lot of problems.

Partial equivalence (divergence) is viewed as the most typical equivalent relation in dealing with translation dictionaries. It is defined by Gouws (2002) and Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) as a type of equivalence featured by a one to more than one relation that prevails between the source and the target language forms. This means that the translation equivalent paradigm should be made up of more than one translation equivalent in a lemma. Within partial equivalence, different sub-types are identified, and they are lexical divergence, semantic divergence as well as poly-divergence. Lexical divergence occurs when a monosemous lexical item, which is functioning as a lemma has more than one translation equivalent. These equivalents are either synonyms or partial synonyms in the target language. It is emphasised by Wang (2012) that supporting information on the synonyms is of paramount importance, or else, the user will have a problem in selecting the appropriate translation equivalent. Supporting

information, such as examples, may be used on synonyms for the user to understand and use them appropriately and correctly.

Semantic divergence prevails at instances “where the lemma sign represents a polysemous lexical item” (Gouws, 2002: 198). The dictionary user may find it very difficult to select the correct translation equivalent, especially when complementing entries are not provided by the lexicographer in such an article. It, therefore, cannot be assumed by any dictionary compiler that the dictionary users will know as to which translation equivalent to choose for a given situation. Therefore, dictionary compilers should use extra approaches or strategies to assist the target users in the retrieval of information (Gouws, 2002).

Zero equivalence prevails when the target language does not have lexical items or expressions as equivalents for the source language item. Surrogate equivalence belongs to different categories and their choice is determined by the nature of a particular lexical gap (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005; Gouws & Prinsloo, 2008). Two types of lexical gaps are identified, namely, linguistic gaps and referential gaps (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005; Wang, 2012). Linguistic gaps deal with a situation that arises:

When the speakers of the two languages are both familiar with a certain concept but one language, especially the target language, does not have a word to refer to it, but the other language, that is the source language has such word (Gouws, 2008: 20).

Concerning referential gaps, based on Wang (2012), they occur when the equivalent or referent in the target language does not exist. In other words, the target language users have no idea to which the source language item is referring, because the referent does not exist in their language. Many of these words, based on Wang (2012), are culturally bound. It is then important for the lexicographer to provide a brief explanation of meanings that act as a surrogate equivalent. In addition, language changes are treated differently when it comes to lexical gaps. Therefore, the use of loan words can also be of paramount importance, acting as surrogate equivalence.

Various challenges confront dictionary compilers when it comes to these three types of equivalence in ensuring that the target user will be able to optimally access the information from a certain dictionary article. Therefore, translation equivalents that are suitable in the target language would be available for each item in the source language.

1.8.6 Lemma

Another term that is frequently used in this study is lemma. A lemma (plural lemmata) is a lexical item that functions as a guiding element of the article in the dictionary (Mongwe, 2006).

In this study, a lemma is a part of the dictionary's macrostructure that introduces a dictionary article. It is the lexical item that comes first at the beginning of the article, to which all the information from the comment on form to the comment on semantics is directed. In many dictionaries, it is always bolded for easy access of the user. It is used in this study to replace the term "headword". The following example from Tobias and Turvey (1954) presents different lemmas (headwords):

leg, n., okuulu. Leggings, n., oikamasa.
legacy, n., efia.
legal, adj., sa efua koveta, (that allowed by law) or use n., oveta preceded by g.p.
legate, n., omutumua uomuPapa ua Loma; (archaic) omutumua uohamba.
legatee, n., omufilua uefia; ou a filua efia.
legend, n., ongano.
leghorn, n., eputukuua, name given to all large imported fowls.

Example 1.3 Example of lemmas in a dictionary

Example 1.3 presents seven dictionary articles. Each article is introduced by a bolded lexical item. This bolded entry is then what is called a lemma. Therefore, seven lemmas are presented in example 1.3. The lemmas in Example 1.3 are therefore *leg*, *legacy*, *legal*, *legate*, *legatee*, *legend* and *leghorn*.

1.8.7 Macrostructure

Different scholars in the field of metalexigraphy have attempted to define a dictionary's macrostructure. According to Gouws (1996), a dictionary's macrostructure is the structure of the dictionary that deals with the structure and the arrangement of the lemma list. Therefore, it can be regarded as the collection of lemma signs being the basic treatment units of the dictionary.

Wiegand (1996) is also in the same vein and defines a dictionary's macrostructure as the structure of a dictionary that leads to the other dictionary structures in which the dictionary articles are put, and attached.

Blanche (2006) also expresses the same ideas as Gouws (1996) and Wiegand (1996), that the macrostructure of the dictionary deals with the complete organisation of the dictionary's central list. This is the overall structure in which the dictionary compiler as well as the user locate information. Although there are a lot of arrangements of the dictionary's macrostructure, such as, thematic, chronologic or frequency, the most common arrangement is the alphabetical one.

Based on the preceding definitions of macrostructure as provided by various scholars, a dictionary's macrostructure is then defined as the arrangement of the dictionary's lemma list. This arrangement of the lemma list can be done in various ways, i.e. alphabetically, thematically, chronologically or based on the words' frequency of usage.

1.8.8 Microstructure

The microstructure is the aspect of the dictionary that focuses on the structure of the dictionary articles. Furthermore, it is regarded as the total set of data categories following the lemma sign (Gouws, 1996).

To expand Gouws's (1996) definition, Hartmann and James (1998), view the dictionary's microstructure as the structure that provides information on the lemmas, with comments on their formal properties (i.e. spelling, lemma sign, pronunciation, parts of speech, etc.) and comments on their semantic properties (i.e. translation equivalents, usage, etymology, etc.).

Given the preceding definitions, a dictionary's microstructure can then be defined as the structure that deals with the individual dictionary articles and their components. It includes how entries (on the comment on form as well as on the comment on semantics) in the dictionary article are presented. Typographical conventions used in the dictionary such as typefaces, punctuation, and symbols, are also included in the dictionary's microstructure.

1.8.9 Access structure

Access structure, which Gouws (1993; 1996) also refers to as the *search path*, is the major component of the dictionary that assists the dictionary user to get to the information he or she is looking for in the dictionary.

Access structure consists of two structures, namely *outer access structure* and *inner access structure*. The *outer access structure*'s function is to guide the user up to the lemma he or she is looking up in the dictionary, while the *inner access structure*'s function is to assist the user in reaching specific information within a dictionary article (Gouws, 2004a).

Based on the definitions provided in the preceding paragraphs by Gouws (1993; 1996; 2004a), access structure is then defined in this study as a search route or a structure of lexicographical markers, which guide the dictionary user to the required information they are looking for within the dictionary. Access structure is further divided into two types, namely, the outer access structure and the inner access structure. The former guides the dictionary user up to the lemma, which introduces the article from which the required information will be retrieved, and the latter guides the dictionary user within an article of the dictionary to the search zone in which the required data is provided or presented.

1.9 Research design and methodology

Before the type of research design is established, it is worth defining the concept 'research design'. A plan used for the selection of subjects, research sites as well as the procedures of collecting data in answering the research question(s) is referred to as a research design. The prime purpose of the research design is none other than to produce credible results (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

For Durrheim (2004), a research design is defined as a strategic framework for action that functions as a bridge that prevails between research questions as well as the execution, or research strategy implementation.

According to Bhat (2019), research design is a framework that comprises of techniques and methods that are purposefully selected by a researcher to combine different research components logically for the aim of solving the main research problem.

Based on the definitions of research design by various scholars, a research design in this study, is then defined as a plan adopted by a researcher to conduct his or her research. It consists of the choice of methods of research, tools for collecting data, as well as the theoretical approaches that are used in analysing data. Worth noting is that a research design provides insights on how research is conducted depending on a certain methodology.

1.9.1 Methods of research

One of the influential scholars in the fields of metalexigraphy and practical lexicography was Herbert Ernst Wiegand. Wiegand produced numerous articles that have concrete ideas when it comes to these two fields. In one of his articles, Wiegand (2010: 251) defines a method as “an ordered set of instructions to act which have to be followed in at least one orderly sequence and in compliance with the conditions of correctness which are part of the method properties to receive the desired result.”

Based on this definition, it can be proffered that a method is then a set of instructions and procedures that can be followed by researchers in an orderly manner and in accordance with the correctness which belongs to the properties of the method, to receive the required outcomes.

There are different types of methods such as qualitative methods, quantitative methods, and mixed methods among others that are used in collecting information for a certain study. Before the method that is used in this study is selected, a brief explanation of the three methods is provided here.

Firstly, the qualitative method, according to Aliaga and Gunderson (2006), is a method that often uses words or language, pictures or photographs and observations to describe and analyse the data. It is further explained that qualitative analysis results in rich data that provides an in-depth understanding or picture, and it is particularly of paramount importance when it comes to exploring how and why things have occurred.

Secondly, a quantitative method is a research method that uses the data that is produced in numbers, and these data are analysed by using statistical and mathematical methods. Therefore, research is not quantitative, if numbers are not involved (Aliaga & Gunderson, 2006).

The last method that can also be given attention is the mixed method. Generally, based on Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2008), mixed methods is the kind of research in which collecting, analysing as well as interpreting both qualitative and quantitative data in a study or in a series of studies that investigate similar underlying phenomenon are involved.

When dealing with a mixed method of research, according to Creswell and Clark (2007), we are making philosophical assumptions and methods of inquiry. As a methodology, mixed research involves philosophical assumptions that lead the process of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of both qualitative and quantitative data, either in a single study or in a series of studies. Its overall idea is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination gives a better understanding of research problems.

One very important method used in metalexigraphy is Critical Dictionary Research. Critical dictionary research, as the subject matter, consists of the whole amount of scientific as well as non-scientific texts which are present in the field of lexicography and dictionary research and all dictionaries, because, in most cases, these are the subjects of that whole amount of texts (Schierholz, 2015).

In light of this, critical dictionary research in a broader sense consists of the texts from each and every research field, for instance, works on research of dictionary use, on dictionary production, on dictionary research history, on the systematic research on dictionary, and texts dealing with the overall number of all dictionaries.

An important point to make here as far as critical dictionary research is concerned is that it deals with the analysis of dictionaries themselves on the basis of all the features they have. In doing this, an evaluation of single aspects or the whole dictionary, and this evaluation will then be published in journals, dictionary criticisms, essays, or reviews. The results of this are that in critical dictionary research framework, in a broader sense, all methods which were carried out in the single research fields of lexicography as well as dictionary research, belong to the subject matter.

When it comes to critical research on dictionaries in a narrower sense, most methods from the mentioned research fields of dictionary research play a salient role. Some of the following

methods can be included, based on Schierholz (2015): (a) the text segmentation methods and structure constructing methods, which are adapted by most of the dictionary critics for the reason of finding out the existing structures in an existing dictionary. These structures can be analysed and criticised based on the appropriateness of the dictionary type, dictionary functions, groups of users and many others.

In addition, philological (qualitative) methods are essential when it comes to the analysis that deals with dictionary text contents, for example, to find out actual or cultural retrospective, trendy and ideological influences in meaning paraphrases, outer texts, etc.

Quantitative analysis as well as statistical methods are also important and necessary, for instance, if a reviewer would like to provide a reasonable estimation of the number of items that are included in a certain dictionary. This includes methods on a projection of the lemma number because it is not possible at all to read the entire dictionary or to count all lemmas that are included in that dictionary. Instead of this, a sample needs to be taken from the dictionary, which takes into consideration the whole word list from A to Z equally.

The current study used mixed method research, using both qualitative and quantitative methods as discussed in the preceding paragraphs. Among various methods that have been provided by Schierholz (2015) in the field of metalexigraphy, *a qualitative method*, which is also referred to as *philological methods* in dictionary research, was selected, as one of the two methods that were used in his study. Schierholz (2015: 326) defines the *philological methods* as procedures in which “new insights are primarily collected from hermeneutical work, for example, by the processes of comprehension and interpretation... For the recording and presentation of these data, special tools have been developed, and these are content analysis, text analysis, conversation analysis or discourse analysis.”

Based on the preceding definition, this study used philological methods (qualitative method) in the form of text analysis or content analysis in evaluating the existing Oshikwanyama dictionaries’ structure and contents for their appropriateness. In addition to philological methods (qualitative method), the quantitative method was also adapted in counting the number of articles, pages, and lemmas that were investigated, as Schierholz (2015) proposes in his proposed different methods for use in critical dictionary research.

1.9.2 Population and sampling

While Creswell (2012) defines population as a group of individuals who have the same features, Check and Schutt (2012) define it as the whole set of individuals or other entities to which findings of a certain study are generalised. In terms of formulating the proposed model, the target population for this study were all the primary and secondary printed and online sources about compiling learners' dictionaries by various scholars in the field of metalexigraphy. For evaluation, the target population for this study was all the structures in the Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary.

By reading through numerous articles, journals, and reviews in the field of metalexigraphy, Bukowska (2010) observes that sampling techniques are not considered by lexicographers. These techniques have rarely or not been exhaustively described, although several researchers do their sampling for them to generalise and make conclusions on the entire dictionary text, which is too big to be critically analysed as a whole. Before a sample was established for this study, it was worth defining the term sample.

Bukowska (2010: 10) proffers that "Sampling can be viewed as part of statistical practice, the process of selecting individual observations which are supposed to yield some knowledge about the total."

Salkind (2010) defines sampling as follows: Sampling prevails when researchers thoroughly conduct an examination on a portion or sample of a larger group of potential participants and use the results to make statements that apply to this broader group or population.

In this study, a sample is therefore defined as a practice that is used in lexicography by a researcher or a reviewer or an evaluator to select a small part or a few structures that are part of the dictionary and do analysis of them and make the final judgment that can be used to generalise the findings as a representation of the entire dictionary on the basis of the results produced. This simply means that dictionary pages, dictionary articles, outer matters and others, can be sampled. Among the types of sampling that are used in metalexigraphy, two were selected for this study, namely, systematic sampling as well as purposive sampling.

Systematic sampling is defined as a plan of action in which the population components are collected systematically throughout the entire population. In metalexigraphy, a list of pages, for instance, in a dictionary and a list of articles or lemmas are almost always available.

Systematic sampling involves selecting a starting point and working continuously through the word list in a regular procedure. A good example in dictionary research is by taking every 20th page of the dictionary to be evaluated or every 20th lemma or article (Bukowska, 2010).

What is important when it comes to systematic sampling is that the first page is always chosen at random. This method of sampling is regarded as the best because of better estimations that it yields due to the coverage of the entire alphabet. It is suggested by Babbie and Mouton (2001) that for the avoidance of possible human bias when adapting to the systematic sampling, the first element has to be chosen randomly, that is why this method is also referred to as systematic sample with a random start. What is important to note here is that systematic sampling is applied only to the central lists of the selected Oshikwanyama dictionary for this study, *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary (OEEOD)*. The items investigated are such as macrostructural elements, and microstructural elements, among others. Since this dictionary has two parts (Oshikwanyama-English and English-Oshikwanyama), each was analysed separately. The first part of this dictionary's central list, which is *Oshikwanyama-English*, consists of 281 pages. Ten pages were sampled (4%). The first sampled page of the *OE*'s central list, which is page 3, was selected randomly. All the 28th pages were sampled in this first part of the dictionary. So the sampled pages that are a representation of the *OE*'s central list are 3, 31, 59, 87, 115, 143, 171, 199, 227, and 255.

The second part of this dictionary's central list, *English-Oshikwanyama (EO)* consists of 290 pages (287-577). The sample of this second part consists of 11 pages. The first sampled page of the *EO*'s central list, which is page 289 was selected randomly. All the 28th pages were then sampled. Therefore, the sampled pages were 289, 317, 345, 373, 401, 429, 457, 485, 513, 541, and 569. For the evaluation of each page, the compiler critically studied all the articles contained in each page of the sample. For a focused analysis of this study, all the sampled pages scanned and entered into a corpus.

Apart from systematic sampling that was adapted in evaluating the selected recently published Oshikwanyama bilingual dictionary (*OEEOD*), purposive sampling was also used and it was adopted in this study. Purposive sampling is defined by Black (2010) as a type of sampling technique in which a researcher depends on judgment when selecting members of the population to be part and parcel of the study. This sampling type, non-probability in nature, takes place when components chosen for the sample are selected through the researcher's judgment. This type of sampling is also referred to as judgment, subjective or selective

sampling. This method was used in studying the outer texts (front and back matters) of the *OEEOD*. The outer texts of this dictionary were investigated based on a checklist of major items that needed to be investigated, such as user's guidelines, the target user, and dictionary purposes, among others.

Literature on compiling bilingual learners' dictionaries also formed part of this study. The reason why the researcher chose purposive sampling was so as to investigate and select the best printed and online sources that explicitly explain and discuss the best criteria that are used in compiling a user-friendly bilingual learner's dictionary. These criteria were then used in coming up with a model that can be used to compile the bilingual Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners.

1.9.3 Tools and data collection

Data collection is defined as a systematic approach used in gathering and measuring information from various sources to get a final and accurate image of the field of interest. It allows a person or organisation in answering relevant questions, evaluate results and do predictions on future probabilities and trends (Roller, 2016).

Data collection is also defined by Kabir (2016) as the process of collecting and assessing information on variables of interest, in an accepted systematic fashion that allows one to answer the stated research questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate results.

Kabir (2016) further comments that the collection of data is a very demanding job that requires careful planning, hard work, patience, perseverance and many others in order to be able to complete the task successfully. The collection of data always begins with deciding on what type of data is required followed by the selection of a sample from a particular population. Thereafter, one is required to use a certain instrument in collecting the data from the sample selected.

For the collection of data, in terms of formulating a model, this study used the existing documents, primary and secondary, printed and online sources, on the compilation of learners' dictionaries.

The primary sources that were used in this study are those that are used frequently in metalexical research. They deal with learners' dictionaries, for instance, bilingual

learners' dictionary structures, methods in dictionary research, macrostructural elements in learners' bilingual dictionaries, microstructural aspects in learners' dictionaries, access structure in learners' dictionaries, and many others.

Features to be investigated for the model of compiling an Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners were carefully selected based on the relevant lexicographical literature obtained from both primary and secondary sources. This simply means that this study did not use other methods of collecting data, such as interviews, questionnaires or observations.

The primary sources from which the collection of data was made in this study's part of evaluation are the primary sources which are structures, such as the outer and inner texts of the *OE-EOD*.

1.9.4 Data analysis and theoretical approaches

Data analysis is a method that is used in research in which data is collected and organised to give relevant information. Its prime purpose is to find out what the data is trying to tell the researcher. For example, *Is the data showing something? How is the data showing it?*

There are a lot of methods that can be used in analysing data in different domains of research. This study used text / document analysis to analyse and describe the best criteria, derived from selected existing studies, which are adopted in compiling a user-friendly bilingual dictionary for secondary school learners of Oshikwanyama as a First Language.

Text analysis refers to a type of methodology which is used in research for the description and interpretation of the contents, structures, as well as the functions of the messages that are contained in texts (Pumilia-Gnarini, Favaron, Pacetti, Bishop & Guerra, 2013).

To have a good understanding of a text, whether by a human being or by a computer, units of meanings are identified in the text and the rules dominating these units and the corresponding meaning units provide the final and complete text meaning (Gross, 1990).

In other words, text analysis is an analysis or scrutiny of the text conducted by the researcher, looking at what he or she reads in the text. The researcher reads the content of the text in depth instead of just reading the text superficially. In the lexicographical context, text analysis is used by researchers of dictionaries to read in detail and critically what the dictionaries entail. All the

structures, for example, outer texts (preface, user's guidelines, indexes) and inner texts (lemma, translation equivalents, among others) have to be read in detail. Conclusions are made by looking at both the shortcomings and strengths of the dictionary analysed.

Text analysis is also conducted in studying the relevant lexicographical approaches and searching for salient information on both printed and online lexicographical materials (journal articles, conference papers, books, theses and dissertations, etc.) about compiling bilingual learners' dictionaries. Some examples regarding a dictionary's outer and inner texts are derived from the readily available Oshikwanyama dictionaries that were produced in pre- and post-independent Namibia.

In addition to text analysis, the *functional text segmentation* method, as part of systematic dictionary research, was used in terms of analysing the existing and readily available Oshikwanyama dictionaries' microstructures, as proposed by Schierholz (2015).

Functional text segmentation is a method used by a dictionary evaluator or analyser in analysing dictionary article contents. These contents include, among others, phrases, lexical items, parts of speech, abbreviations, punctuation marks and blanks (Schierholz, 2015).

To put it in other words, the business of functional text segmentation is to critically study how the functional texts in the dictionary, such as dictionary articles are presented. It consists of analysing and judging the presentation of lemmas, i.e. how they are ordered, the presentation of senses of parts of speech, of the translation equivalents, of etymology, of labels, and many other entries in a single dictionary article.

1.10 Theoretical Framework

This study was directed by three theories of lexicography developed by various scholars in the field of metalexigraphy; namely, Function theory, Text theory and Communication theory.

1.10.1 The Function Theory

It was the idea of the scholars from the Centre for Lexicography at the Aarhus School of Business in Denmark, to establish and develop the *Function Theory*, also known as the *Modern Theory of lexicographic functions*. This idea came in the late 1980s. For the establishment of the *Function Theory*, several articles have been published by many scholars at that school, including Sven Tarp and Henning Bergenholtz, as the two leading proponents (Tarp, 2008).

Two main ideas are based on the *Function Theory* (Tarp (2008)). The first idea regards lexicography as an independent discipline and not a sub-discipline of linguistics as other studies argue. The *Function Theory* argues that dictionaries, as human-made products, are the subject field of lexicography, while language, something believed to be inherent in human beings, is regarded as the subject field of linguistics. The second idea for the establishment of the *Function Theory*, based on Tarp (2008), is that dictionaries are regarded as utility products that can satisfy certain human needs. The user needs are explained later on in this section. The primary purpose of the dictionary, based on the idea of Tarp (2008:43), is “to satisfy these specific types of needs, and they are not regarded as separate and isolated, instead, they are seen as being closely linked to specific types of potential users in specific types of situation.”

The four main components of the *Function Theory*, according to Tarp (2008) and Tarp (2013), are *user*, *user needs*, *user situation* and *the assistance* that dictionaries provide to satisfy the target user needs. In addition, these components are interconnected and therefore need to be analysed separately and then compared with other components to make it possible for synthesising the elements that are identified by analysis (Tarp, 2008). Based on ideas by Tarp (2008), the first three of the four elements, *user*, *user situations* and *user needs*, are viewed as the starting point for both theoretical and practical lexicography. The first three elements, *user*, *user situation* and *user needs* are viewed as the prime components and as starting points that should be considered in both metalexigraphy and practical lexicography. These components are discussed separately in the following sub-sections.

1.10.1.1 The four prime elements of The Function Theory

(a) *The user*

The prime focus of the function theory, according to Tarp (2013), is the potential dictionary user. The reason that is behind this approach is that the demands and dictionary's expectations may be mirror images or shadows of their real need. Significantly, users make use of their lexicographical works, i.e. dictionaries, when they expect them to give answers to their questions, and do not use and consult them if they do not expect getting answers to their questions there.

As dictionary compilers, based on Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003), they should determine the indented user group type, and the type of the user situations to which needs or problems may be identified that can be easily covered when lexicographical data is given, for the functions and the genuine purpose of the dictionary. For a good and proper understanding of the dictionary's potential user, according to Tarp (2013), a typology of relevant user characteristics has been established. The following is the list of the lexicographically relevant criteria, based on user characteristics (cf. Tarp, 2008: 55; 2013: 463).

- What is the mother tongue of the users?
- To what extent do they master their mother tongue?
- To what extent do they master a specific foreign language?
- To what extent do they master a specific specialised language in their mother tongue?
- To what extent do they master a specific specialised language in a foreign language?
- How much experience of translation do they have?
- How great is their general cultural knowledge?
- How great is their knowledge of culture in a specific foreign language area?
- How much do they know about a specific subject or science?

Besides the nine characteristics that have been provided above, some other relevant characteristics prevail, i.e., lexicographical qualifications that are initiated when users shift from being potential dictionary users to being actual dictionary users when busy consulting a dictionary, thereby generating a new type of need that is targeted at getting as well as interpreting the lexicographical data gathered and included in the dictionary. The criteria for defining these lexicographical qualifications have been summarised into three questions by Tarp (2013:464) as follows:

1. How much do users know about lexicography?

2. What general experience of dictionary usage do they have?
3. What specific experience do they have of a specific dictionary?

Tarp (2013) positively comments that providing answers to the first nine questions as well as the three other questions based on lexicographical qualifications make it easier and possible in defining the most important characteristics of potential users, and thereby classifying the different user types.

(b) The user situation

Apart from the potential dictionary user, the *Function Theory* also focuses on the user situation, in which lexicographically relevant needs may arise that may lead to an actual dictionary-usage situation (Tarp, 2013). This leads to the identification of the two types of user situation, *cognitive situation* as well as *communicative situation*.

The former is related to an area of knowledge that is fixed and not so complicated to study, while the latter is a bit more complex. A lot of changing factors that should be considered when any communicative situation prevails are observed. These factors are, for example, the sender-receiver model, based on Wang (2012). Furthermore, in terms of communicative situation, potential users may run into issues or problems that need to be solved so as to guarantee a successful communication process, for instance, text reception, text production or translation.

Based on Tarp (2013), as far as cognitive situation is concerned, potential users may have an idea of increasing their level of knowledge on a certain topic or subject.

(c) The user needs

It is expressed by Wang (2012) that to speak about user needs in isolation is difficult, because they need to be set into a specific situation's context, and that can only be done after identifying the potential users' characteristics.

In terms of user needs, according to Tarp (2013), a distinction is made between the two types of needs, namely primary user needs and secondary user needs. *Primary user needs*, as the first type or group, are the needs that lead to the usage situation of a dictionary, and *secondary user*

needs as the second type or group, as needs that arise when dictionary users are searching for assistance in a dictionary.

It is further explained by Tarp (2013: 465) that “primary user needs are always needs for information, which can be used to solve problems or gain knowledge. Secondary needs are needs for particular information, needs for instruction as well as education in dictionary usage.”

To elaborate on the preceding quote by Tarp (2013), the differences between primary and secondary needs are: Primary user needs are those needs that prompt the user to consult a dictionary to get information, i.e. information on how lexical items (words) are used in a sentence, information on a part of speech, etc., solving problems, i.e. the differences between lexical items, such as *quite* and *quiet*, and how to use them in a given context, and increasing knowledge, i.e. how to use synonyms in a sentence, etc. Secondary user needs are then the needs that arise when the user is busy consulting a dictionary, and may feel the need of getting more information on what they are busy reading in the dictionary. These are needs for further information, for instruction or for giving lessons or classes on how a dictionary is used.

(d) Lexicographical assistance

The assistance that is provided by dictionaries is what helps to fulfil the needs as discussed in (c). For Tarp (2013), the assistance that is provided by dictionaries to the users consists of lexicographical data from which the users can get information, in covering and solving their problems in specific situations. This is what is called dictionary functions, because it deals with the satisfaction of user needs. Furthermore, the lexicographic data all target satisfying the user’s information demands in terms of the primary user need. This concept is referred to as primary or function-related data (Tarp, 2013).

Apart from primary related data, Tarp (2013) explains that there is also secondary or usage-related data, which is contained in dictionaries, in which users can get or retrieve information on the usage of dictionary, and thereby satisfy their secondary needs.

Wang (2012) further explains that the assistance provided by dictionaries is important because it assists in fulfilling the user needs as provided earlier on in (c). Therefore, the dictionary

content is an abstract element, made up of lexicographical data, from which users can obtain information, to satisfy their needs in specific situations.

It is asserted by Tono (2010) that dictionary compilers must consider the steps or elements of the function theory when compiling their dictionaries. These steps are summarised by Tono (2010: 13) as illustrated in the following figure:

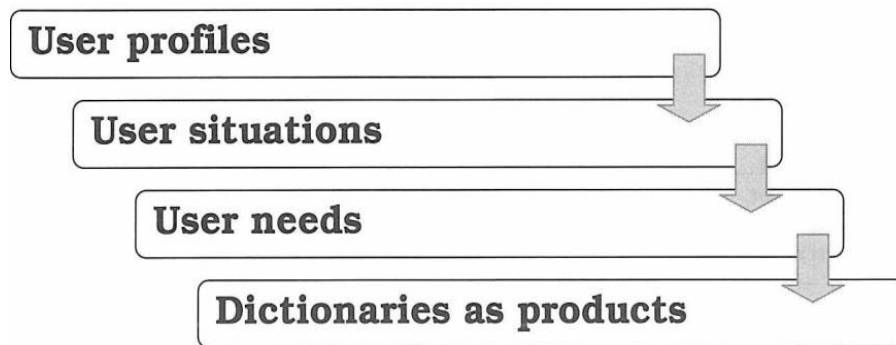


Figure 1.2 The function theory approach (Steps to dictionary compilation)

The function theory was important to this study based on the following points: Firstly, it was applied in this study to identify the proposed dictionary functions, the characteristics of the target user of the proposed dictionary as well as the needs of the target users of the proposed *English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary* for Oshikwanyama learners at secondary schools in Namibia. Secondly, the function theory prime elements such as *user*, *user situation*, *user need* and *assistance that the dictionary provides* to cover the needs are used in evaluating the existing Oshikwanyama dictionaries.

1.10.2 The Text Theory

Another significant theory that was applied in this study is the *Text Theory*. It was considered as important in this study because it is applied in studying and getting the relevant textual structures that were adopted in the model for the compilation of the proposed Oshikwanyama bilingual dictionary for secondary school learners who are doing Oshikwanyama as their first language. It was also applied in studying and analysing the existing Oshikwanyama dictionaries in terms of their structures, i.e. the central lists. One of the most influential and pro-active scholars in this discipline, based on Tarp (2008), is Herbert Ernst Wiegand.

The *Text Theory* or *The Theory of Lexicographical Texts* was proposed and established by Herbert Ernst Wiegand at the University of Heidelberg, Germany in the 1990s, based on the main principle that dictionary articles are texts (Müller-Spitzer, 2013; Beyer & Augart, 2017). This theory, based on Wiegand's view, argues that dictionaries or lexicographical tools should be useful. Wiegand's investigations on dictionaries and dictionary articles have assisted many lexicographers to have a deep understanding of the various textual structures in dictionaries and dictionary articles. This theory is crucial because it assists lexicographers of today to compile better dictionaries. Based on Müller-Spitzer (2013), Wiegand's *Text Theory* has been used frequently in both practical and theoretical lexicography.

It is stated by Tarp (2008:102) that Wiegand was the first scholar "to identify dozens of types and subtypes of structure, the most important of which are overall text structure, macrostructure and microstructure." These structures, such as microstructure and macrostructure, are of prime importance in any lexicographical work.

Müller-Spitzer (2013) also agrees with Tarp (2008) in the sense that dictionaries, based on Wiegand's Text Theory, comprised of a central list of dictionary articles, accompanied by some external texts, i.e, user guidelines as well as indexes, among other texts. These external texts are partial lexicographic texts with some special structural properties. When planning and analysing dictionaries, it is suggested for various kinds of structures that are crucial to be differentiated. For example, (i) the data distribution structure, which determines the distribution of lexicographic data to different parts of a dictionary (article stretches, outer texts, etc.), (ii) access structures, which determine how users can assess lexicographical data, (iii) the macrostructure, which consists of guiding elements which determine the ordering of lemmata, (iv) the microstructure, which is made up of lexicographic items in one article accompanied by their typographic and non-typographic structural markers, and lastly, (v) the mediostructure.

Svensén (2009) agrees with Müller-Spitzer (2013) and features seven distinct kinds of dictionary structures. These structures are macrostructure, megastructure, microstructure, dispersion structure, cross-reference structure (mediostructure), get to structure (access structure) and addressing structure. Svensén (2009) has recommended that three structures among the seven recorded above, are urgent and should be considered by any dictionary compiler, particularly concerning incorporating or assessing any lexicographical work. The

three structures are the megastructure, macrostructure and microstructure. Every one of these three structures, as indicated by Svensén (2009), work on its level.

Most definitely, Svensén (2009) clarifies that the megastructure manages the general structure of the dictionary, while the macrostructure, as expressed as of now, manages the structure of the lemma list, and the microstructure manages the structures of dictionary articles. The other four structures, as indicated by Svensén (2009: 77), that is, the “distribution structure, cross-reference structure, access structure and addressing structure, operate at several levels, often cutting across the main structures.”

The cross-reference structure, as indicated by Svensén (2009), otherwise called mediostructure, is viewed as the structure of the markers which offer headings or directions to the dictionary users between different places in the dictionary with the explanation of giving them access to extra data, aside from what they discovered as of now. In print dictionaries, as indicated by Svensén (2009), one of the noteworthy elements of cross-reference is that of sparing space.

Aside from the cross-reference structure, there is additionally an access structure which is viewed as the basic structural markers that direct the users to the data they are searching for. It has two sorts, the principal type is the outer access structure and the subsequent kind is the internal structure (Svensén, 2009). The structural markers which direct the users to the lemma they are searching for in the dictionary are viewed as the outer access structure, for example, the running heads, which are constantly situated at the upper left of the left-hand pages and the upper right of the right-hand pages. It shows the main lemma and last lemma on a specific page in the dictionary. Furthermore, the way where lemmata are arranged (for example, strictly alphabetical) is additionally part of the outer access structure, since it controls the users to the lemma they are searching for in the dictionary.

The inner access structure, as indicated by Svensén (2009), is the basic structural marker that shows the users the data they are searching for about the lemma. It consists of typographical structural markers, for instance, typefaces (Times, Helvetica), textual style types (bold, italics, and small capital), and a few hues. It additionally consists of non-typographical structural markers that normally comprise of numbers, letters, accentuation marks, brackets and symbols.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) further indicate that every dictionary comprises of an impressive number of different texts which are accepted to be functional dictionary components as a "big" text. Text positioning in any dictionary comprises three significant areas, the front matter, the

central list and the back matter. It is additionally expressed that this distinction supports and spurs two distinct ways to deal with dictionary structures, the word book structure and the word list structure.

The word book structure, as per Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), focuses on the arrangements of the central list of the dictionary. The central list, which is frequently viewed as the core of any dictionary maybe, truth be told, a necessary and critical component of any dictionary. Furthermore, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) have included that the central list essentially suits article stretches that represent letters or a combination of letters that are not occurring in the alphabet of that dictionary, however, being part of an alphabet of a particular language.

Aside from the word book structure, there might be additional texts which are found either in front or at the back of the central list. These texts, as indicated by Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), are all in all referred to as outer texts, and inside the outer texts, a distinction can likewise be made between the front matter texts and the back matter texts as primary parts of a dictionary structure.

Front matter texts contain all the texts that go before the central list, and the back matter text makes up the outer texts that come following the central list. In this way, the two texts (the front and the back issue) make up the outer texts of any dictionary, and their occurrence sets up a kind of dictionary structure, which is referred to as the frame structure of a dictionary (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

The significant point here with respect to the dictionary's central list is that it is viewed as a compulsory structure in any dictionary, contrasted with the outer text, which is viewed as discretionary. As indicated by Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), there is one outer text that must be remembered for the dictionary, which is viewed as the second mandatory text, by and large, introduced in the front matter, which incorporates guidelines that will help the users with the best way to utilise the dictionary.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) further indicate that it is highly unlikely for any lexicographer to assume that the particular dictionary's target user will know the most proficient method to use, to decipher and to comprehend the full presentation of the dictionary, except if in any case the structure, content, presentation and the utilisation (usage) of a dictionary are explicitly explained to the user. This kind of text ought to likewise be consolidated independently. A user's guideline's text is a good example.

1.10.2.1 Microstructural components

This sub-section quickly presents components that are part of the microstructure as talked about by a few researchers. Microstructure is defined by Jackson (2002) that it has to do with the data which is ordered inside the dictionary articles. This implies both the range and the type of data within the dictionary article will vary depend on the type of lemma and the type of dictionary, which obviously should incorporate some of the following aspects as provided by Jackson (2002) and Gouws and Prinsloo (2005):

(a) Spelling (Orthography)

The ordinary spelling is shown by the lemma sign, yet any varieties will follow as variation of lemma signs. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) further indicate that orthographical direction is remarkable, because it assists users to discover the lemma sign as well as to retrieve the vital data on the spelling of a specific lexical item. Additional spelling data or guidance is suited, particularly when any given lexical item which functions as a lemma has spelling variations.

(b) Pronunciation

This is always presented inside sections [] or slashes // related to any varieties. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) write that different strategies for introducing pronunciation in dictionaries exist. These strategies are distinctive with regard to the amount of pronunciation a dictionary article offers. A few dictionaries can give complete phonetic interpretation utilising the symbols from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), while others demonstrate a fractional translation of the word or rather " only an orthographic transcription, trying to capture the word in the ordinary writing " (Gouws and Prinsloo, 2005: 119).

(c) Inflections

The arrangement of words is the prime focal point of this component. Existing words may change contingent upon their linguistic significance, for instance, plurals, past tense, etc. Furthermore, some spelling modifications here must be shown, for example, multiplying of consonants, and dropping of sounds, for example [e], or changing the glide [y] to [i]. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) additionally declare that entries that demonstrate morphological information, for example, plurals just as diminutives are likewise accommodated here.

(d) Part of speech

What assumes a predominant job here in terms of indication of this part of the microstructure is conventional abbreviations. The shortened form, for example, *adj.* typically stands for 'adjective', *n.* stands 'noun', and *adv.* stands for 'adverb'. Action words are additionally marked *v.t.* when they are transitive and when they are intransitive they are set as *v.i.*

(e) Senses

At the point when a lexeme has different meanings, each sense must be isolated, and when the various senses belong to a different word class or subclass, then it must be demonstrated before the concerned sense.

(f) Translation equivalents

Translation equivalents are the fundamental foci of bilingual dictionaries. Modjadji (2012) explains that structural markers that are much of the time utilised, most definitely, are a comma (,) and a semi-colon (;). A comma isolates equivalent words (synonyms) and fractional equivalents (partial synonyms) (lexical things that supplant each other in all occurrences) and a semicolon separates polysemous senses, which are lexical items which cannot replace each other in any context. Each translation equivalent can remain on its own, because of its different meaning. This study then embraces the numbering style of isolating polysemous senses, for the user to just get the data rapidly and effortlessly.

(g) Examples

Examples or illustrations are normally accommodated for the explanation of meanings. This implies that contextualisation assumes an exceptionally predominant job here. Examples can also verifiably give linguistic data about the lemma and additionally translation equivalents. Examples in many cases are normally presented in italics.

Different components, for example, usage, run-ons, and the historical background of words are additionally included in the microstructure of certain dictionaries. Collocations, or the syntactic operation of words, are also data that is included in the dictionary's microstructure.

1.10.2.2 The types of microstructure

In light of the Text Theory, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) affirm that a dictionary's microstructure comprises of two significant segments. These parts are the comment on form and the comment on semantics. The former is the inquiry field in which all the kinds of information that have to do with the type of the lemma sign are obliged. These information types incorporate, among others, phonetics, orthographic structures, articulation, morphological information, and grammatical features. It is also important to mention here that the lemma sign is a part of the comment on form as it provides data on the spelling of the significant lexical item.

The comment on semantics is the search field in which all the data types that concern and reflect semantic as well as pragmatic features of the lexical item which is presented by the lemma are accommodated, such as definitions or translation equivalents, etymological data, lexicographical labels, co-text entries (words that precede or come after a given lexical item, that assist in the understanding of the meaning) and context entries (the information about the given lexical item) and other data such as inserted inner texts (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

The comment on semantics is the inquiry field in which all the information types that concern and reflect semantic and pragmatic features of the lexical unit which is presented by the lemma are accommodated, for example, definitions or translation equivalents, etymological information, lexicographical labels, co-text entries (words that go before or come after a given lexical item, that aid in the understanding of meaning) and context entries (the data about the given lexical item) and other information, for example, inserted inner texts (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

(a) Monosemous lemma articles

Another significant structure in the microstructure of a dictionary is a monosemous lemma article. This is a straightforward structure where the lexical item is introduced by the lemma that belongs to a single part of speech and is monosemous. Although dictionary articles of this sort can be composed in various manners, a significant number of them share certain fundamental features with regards to the most significant kinds of data and their structure interrelationships.

(b) Polysemous lemma articles

When there is just a single grammatical feature introduced in an article and the treated lexical item has just one meaning, certain fundamental standards must be followed. The article must be divided into different senses, and the senses are separated in some order. For each sense, a similar sort of data is given as in the article of a polysemous lemma. With respect to structural indication, senses are generally isolated by structural markers in the form of a section mark comprising of bold Arabic numerals (sense number), and each section may begin a new paragraph for great clarity (Svensén, 2009).

Regarding the situating of translated examples, Svensén (2009) recognises three types of microstructures, namely, integrated microstructure, unintegrated microstructure, as well as the partially integrated microstructure.

Svensén (2009) characterises the integrated microstructure such as when every translation example included in the dictionary article is designated to an individual sense of the lemma. In this way, the article is regarded to have an integrated microstructure. This kind of microstructure appears to be clear and effectively comprehended. It doesn't have issues because the division into senses is generally founded on semantic standards, and it is evident which sense of the lemma a specific example ought to be considered to represent.

Unintegrated microstructure is a microstructure where all the translation equivalents are united by certain dictionaries into a syntagmatic block towards the end of the dictionary articles. Therefore, an entry that is sorted out as indicated by this guideline has an unintegrated microstructure (Svensén, 2009).

(c) Lexicographical labels

Lexicographical labels are also among the components that are part of the comments on semantics. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) clarify that lexicographical labels' main function is to give relevant directions to the dictionary's target user. An item in a dictionary is utilised by the pragmatic markers label to relate it to the world outside a dictionary article. Furthermore, labels can be utilised to demonstrate whether a specific term either has a place with a specific field, it is colloquial, or it is old, among others. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) arrange lexicographical labels that are normally or commonly used into three distinct classes. These three classes are subject field labels, stylistic labels, and chronolectic labels. Subject field labels are utilised in showing that a specific item belongs to a specific specialised field that is not part of the lexicon targeted in a particular dictionary. Subject field labels do not just deal with scholastic items but in addition, they deal with sports and diversions, for instance, music.

The subsequent classification is the stylistic labels that "are used in general dictionaries to mark deviations from the standard variety and neutral register and style of everyday language use" (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005: 130). The more frequently utilised labels are slang, non-literal, formal or casual, and colloquial.

The last classification is the chronolectic labels that are used "to mark a word or one of its senses or uses as deviating in terms of its typical time of use" (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005: 131). It may be obsolete or another structure. Old structures can be labelled, however, neologisms may not, because they become some part of the standard variety (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

Aside from the microstructure type picked, it is additionally worth calling attention to the positioning or ordering of translated examples. The translated examples included in an article must be ordered by the standard which the users understand. The main chance is to let the context to form the basis of arranging. Arranging as per context partners should be possible by

categorical sorting and by alphabetical sorting, as indicated by Svensén (2009). It is better if arranging first by categories and afterwards within every category, in alphabetical order.

According to Svensén (2009), within each category, the expressions are in order if arranged by the spelling of the base type of the form of the context partner. For the facilitation of searching, these words can be furnished with an uncommon structural marker, that is, either through bold typing or underlining.

1.10.2.3 Types of article structure

Before the various kinds of articles in printed dictionaries are discussed in the following paragraphs, it is essential to take a gander at the meaning of the term a dictionary article as provided by Wiegand, Feinauer and Gouws (2013) in their discussion of textual structures. Albeit numerous researchers have endeavoured to characterise a dictionary article, this investigation has chosen the definition by Wiegand, Feinauer and Gouws (2013: 137) which posits that it “is an accessible dictionary entry characterised by three distinctive features.” These distinctive features are as follows:

- (a) A dictionary article shows at least one external access text element.
- (b) It is a constituent of a word list.
- (c) It consists of lexicographical data made accessible, including at least one such part, through which the dictionary user can unlock lexicographic information mentioned by the access text element.

As per the previously mentioned analysts, the outside access text component is the hyperonym for a wide range of text segments of a structure conveying a set for an outer access structure. These hyponyms for outside access text components are, for instance, external text entrance, outer text entrance, insert entrance, index entrance, carrier of the guiding element and carrier of a cross-reference. Lemmata are viewed as the most familiar carriers of the guiding components or elements, which is the reason why it is also viewed as a hyponym for carrier of the guiding components (Wiegand, Feinauer & Gouws, 2013).

Wiegand, Feinauer and Gouws (2013) give a few classes of article formation features in dictionary articles that can be recognised with the system of a general theory of lexicography,

and they are condensation features, access structural features, data distribution features, medio structural features, text architectural features, microstructural features, quantity features, standardisation features, addressing features and search area structural features. In addition, features, for example, dictionary subject related features, process related features, user related features and function related features have also been distinguished, despite the fact that they have no reference to the dictionary form.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) provide four different types of articles in printed dictionaries. These types of articles are single-complex articles, cross-reference articles, main and sub-articles, and niched and nested articles. They are briefly discussed as follows:

(a) Single articles and complex articles

Countless articles in any lexicographical work (dictionaries) may give space to a lot of search fields where explicit information types must be assigned to. In this way, these search fields may incorporate, for instance, a zone of items giving data on pronunciation, for items giving morphological information, for things giving a paraphrase of meaning or the translation equivalents bilingual dictionaries. The data distribution structure arranges the previously mentioned search field that needs to oblige the information types that occur mostly in all the articles. These search fields need in any event, to be introduced in a deliberate and undeviating manner to a search area structure.

Specific users who acclimate themselves with the contents of the user's guidelines text of any dictionary ought to have knowledge on what kind of data they could expect in any dictionary article and in which search fields a given type of data will be located (Gouws & Prinsloo 2005).

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 95) express the possibility that "displaying a standardised structure and microstructural data categories that is characteristic of the default article of a given dictionary leads to these articles to be classified as single articles." This essentially implies that single articles demonstrate the essential treatment relegated to the average lemma sign and represent the standard article structures.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) further express that a significant job can be played by complex articles in furnishing a lexicographer with a chance to represent a greater number of data in an

article than the endorsed least which is catered for in default articles. One of the types of lexical units that qualify to be treated in a complex article is the class of culture-bound items. With regard to culture-bound items, a more complete treatment than a simple definition is important. Therefore, for this situation, the lexicographer may include a cultural notation as an extra microstructural category or a paraphrase of meaning might be expounded for incorporation of data on the cultural features of the lexical item provided.

(b) Cross-reference articles

Cross-reference articles regularly comprise a restricted treatment with fewer information classifications on offer than the base required to qualify the article as showing a compulsory microstructure. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 94) have given a case of the article as follows:

woodman n. forester

Contrasted with different articles in this cross-reference, the article which is presented by the lemma sign, ‘woodman’ offers a constrained treatment of the lemma sign. Hence, this sort of limited treatment prevails when the lemma is a lesser utilised individual from an equivalent word gathering and the treatment is chiefly guided at a cross-reference passage that guides the user to the lemma which represents the equivalent or synonym with a higher frequency of usage. It additionally occurs, for instance, where the users cross-alluded to a lemma representing a spelling variation or a plural type of the lexical item represented by the guiding element of the article with the limited treatment. Look at Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 94) underneath:

pollock var. of *pollack

ladies pl. of *woman

Therefore, it can be summed up by saying that articles that show a restricted treatment with a cross-reference article frequently being the fundamental section in the article are referred to as cross-reference articles. Some cross-reference articles, as per Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 94), comprise just the lemma sign and the cross-reference entry. For example:

molelo, see mollo.

molelo, see mollo.

(c) Niched and nested articles

The previously mentioned dictionary articles, for example, single articles, complex articles, and cross-reference articles, are grouped based on microstructural criteria. A typology of articles can also be resolved on a macrostructural base and thus, a differentiation between niched and nested articles is made.

In a dictionary, there are two different ways of arranging the lemmata. They can either be arranged to utilise a straight alphabetical ordering in which the lemmata are introduced in a vertical ordering or a horizontal arrangement. A niched article works inside a bunch of niched articles, i.e. articles with niched lemmata as controlling components. Aside from the way that these articles are introduced in a horizontal ordering, they are ordered or arranged in a strict alphabetical order.

Inside any (cluster) bunch of articles arranged horizontally, different subgroupings are identified, and within each subgrouping, an alphabetical arrangement happens, yet the cluster that doesn't show a strict alphabetical ordering, consequently, nested articles in this group occur. A nested article is an article that functions within a group of nested articles, which is a cluster that displays a deviation from the strict alphabetical ordering (Gouws and Prinsloo, 2005). To streamline this statement, nesting meddles with alphabetical order. It creates sub-articles of main articles. To that degree, nesting produces a hybrid transition between the macrostructure and the microstructure.

To put it all together, lexicographers need to know about the different kinds of lemmata and the different types of articles when compiling their dictionaries. Consequently, cautious thought ought to be given to the types of lemmata and the types of articles that will be suitable for a particular dictionary on the basis of its typology, and its target user as well as its situation of usage. Consequently, these choices ought to affect the identified functions for the particular dictionary (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

The Text theory was therefore used to study and identify the textual structures that relevant in compiling a user-friendly and modern bilingual *English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary* (Mono-directional) for learners doing Oshikwanyama as their first language at secondary schools in Namibia. It will also be adapted in evaluating the textual structures that are contained in the *EO/OED*.

1.10.3 The Communication Theory and dictionary purposes

The two theories that have been discussed in the previous sub-sections, the *Function theory* and the *Text theory*, deal with the concept *genuine purpose* of any dictionary in describing the intended dictionary's purposes. *The Communication Theory* or *The theory of lexicographical communication* which was and is still being developed by Professor Herman Beyer at the University of Namibia since 2014 focuses on the idea that dictionaries are compiled for the target user for communication to prevail.

1.10.3.1 The genesis of lexicographical communication

The theory of lexicographical communication was developed by Prof Herman Beyer, former Head of Afrikaans Section at the University of Namibia. Beyer proposed this theory in 2006, and this theory is still in its earliest stages, and its discussion is available in Beyer (2006; 2014) and Beyer and Augart (2017).

According to Beyer (2006; 2017), the lexicographical theory of communication or communication theory is based on two focal precepts: (1) at its centre, it views lexicography as an activity that takes place in communication; and (2) as an indirect communication interceded by the text. These fundamental points of departure permit one to take a step back, figuratively speaking, and to adopt a comprehensive and eclectic methodology. Aside from the current body of theoretical and theoretical meta-lexicographic knowledge at the researcher's disposal, these precepts provide an opportunity to also take advantage of the potential of interpersonal communication theory, media theory, mass communication theory, document design, psychology, text linguistics, linguistic pragmatics and of course the other linguistic disciplines traditionally associated with lexicography, such as lexicology and sociolinguistics. The communication theory subsequently perceives over all that meta-lexicography is an interdisciplinary field of enquiry.

Based on Beyer (2014) and Beyer and Augart (2017), the idea that lexicography is related to some form of interpersonal communication is not unique to the communication theory. As per Tarp (2008: 34), the function theory has at its starting point “a simple model of communication.” Yong and Peng (2007), who enlivened the improvement of the communication theory beyond a framework of dictionary evaluation, approach bilingual lexicography from a communicative point of view, albeit, as indicated by Ptaszyński (2009: 213), this methodology does not happen as expected, since “the theoretical model proposed by the authors does not follow from their empirical study.” It is also clarified by Beyer (2006; 2014) in some detail, how lexicography can be viewed as a kind of interpersonal yet indirect communication by including general and interpersonal communication theory and linguistic pragmatics. Currently, this is the area that is focused on by communication theory.

Furthermore, according to Beyer (2014), the fact that lexicographical communication mainly takes place indirectly by means of the medium of text, warrants text-directed research within frameworks such as text linguistics and text theory elements.

Lexicographical communication as a concept, based on Beyer (2014), refers to a specialised type of communication limited to specific information types (for instance, about lexical items) and a specific medium type (for instance, the dictionary) for specific types of effects. As far as lexicographical communication goes, the lexicographer is usually the person that plays a significant role of the sender and the target user plays the role of the receiver.

Figure 1.3 shows a model of communication that has summarised the whole theory of lexicographical communication (cf. Beyer, 2006; 2014).

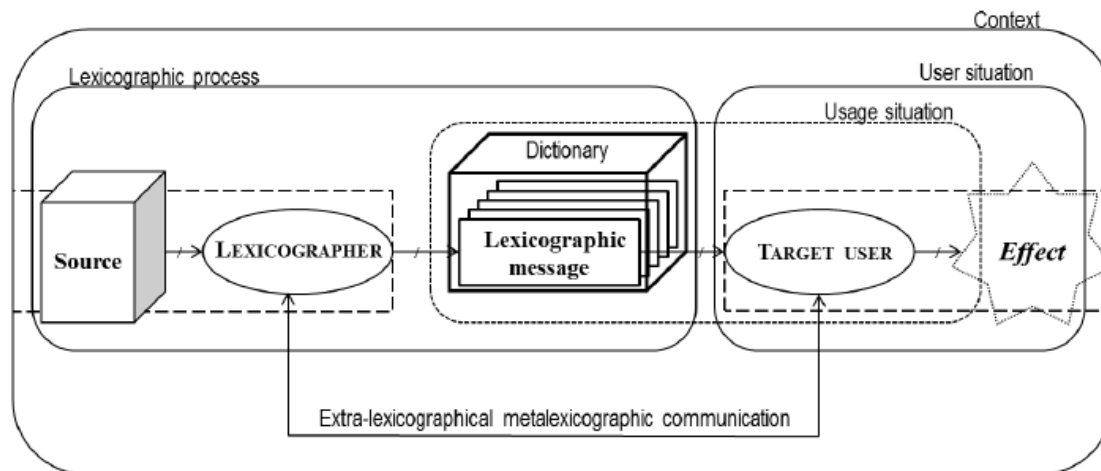


Figure 1.3 A communication model of lexicography

Based on the model in Figure 1.3, several components of the process of lexicographical communication are identified and described, as done in Beyer’s preliminary work (Beyer, 2006).

According to Beyer (2014), it can be seen that two components are regarded as major or prime components of this process, namely the lexicographic process on one side, and the dictionary consultation process (for instance the user situation in figure 1.3) on the other side. These components overlap to both enclose the lexicographic message and its container, the dictionary, as the medium of lexicographical communication.

Other components are seen in the model (Beyer, 2014) and these components, for example, the source, the lexicographer, the target user and the user situation, are associated with one of these two major components. Although these components can be individually identified and described, the model exhibits their mutual dependency and necessity: lexicographical communication cannot occur if one of these components is missing. “The only component that overarches the primary components is the context component, which represents variables that are not part of the communication process per se, but determine the values of at least a subset of the variables in all other components while the reverse is not applicable to the same extent” (Beyer, 2014: 39).

On the basis of the lexicographical communication model provided in figure 1.3, the Theory of Lexicographical Communication can be summarised as describing a sub-process, the lexicographic process, during which the lexicographer sources, selects and encodes lexicographical information in a lexicographic text segment, preceded by a second sub-process, which is the dictionary consultation process, during which the dictionary user decodes and interprets the lexicographic message in the usage situation. The effect of the communication process then follows, when the user applies the meaning of the lexicographic message to the user situation. Both sub-processes and their effect as indicated in the figure, take place in a certain context. Both the lexicographic messages and its container, the dictionary, are at the centre (Beyer, 2014).

As explained in the previous paragraphs, according to Beyer (2014), the business of communication is to convey information. In human communication, the concept of information can be described as follows, based on Cleary (2003: 5) and Steinberg (2007: 45-46): “Information is the factual knowledge, ideas, thoughts and feelings that can be conveyed by means of communication.” For communication to prevail and be conveyed, it, in the first place, has to be constructed into a message, which can then be encoded into an utterance (based on Cruse's stages of linguistic communication). Based on the description of information, the concept message can be logically defined:

When one is talking about a message, they are referring to a unit of information that can be encoded in an utterance. An utterance, on the other hand, is a discrete unit of communication that is made up of a sign or an ordered string of signs forming symbols (in terms of linguistic communication: sounds and letters forming lexical units) used by the sender to encode a message according to the code (the grammar) of the code system (the language) that is used for communication (Beyer, 2014).

According to Beyer (2014), in lexicographical communication, explicit kinds of data (for example, about lexical items or words) are developed in specific types of messages that are encoded in specific kinds of utterances (for example lexicographic text segments) during the lexicographic process. During the dictionary consultation process, the target user finds and decodes the utterances to reconstruct the messages and infer the data, which is interpreted against the user's frame of reference and afterwards applied to the user situation.

1.10.3.2 Dictionary purposes

Based on *Communication theory*, three essential dictionary purposes have been identified (Beyer & Augart, 2017). These dictionary purposes are *macro-contextual purposes*, *meso-contextual purposes* and *micro-contextual purposes*.

Macro-contextual purposes, according to Beyer and Augart (2017), is the first class of purposes that deals with the socio-cultural contributions that any produced dictionary would provide in the general public in which it functions. For example, to document the lexical stock of a language to assist in the standardisation of a language as well as to give assistance in language and teaching. Furthermore, macro-contextual purposes could target, for example, the improvement of the status of a language.

Meso-contextual purposes, the second class of purposes, are related to the user situation, the situation, for instance, in which the dictionary's target user experiences specific information needs that result in user questions and user consultation objectives. These purposes, based on the function theory as discussed in 1.10.1 (cf. Tarp & Bergenholtz, 2003), are also known as dictionary functions. Therefore, meso-contextual purposes are described as the user situation for which it is designed (Beyer & Augart, 2017).

Micro-contextual purposes, the third class of purposes, are the dictionary purposes that are related to the usage situation. This is "the immediate situation in which the target user is in the process of consulting a dictionary in order to achieve a user consultation objective, which is usually to find an answer to a set of user questions as they arise in a particular user situation" (Beyer & Augart, 2017:11).

In this study, the theory of lexicographical communication is of paramount importance as it is applied for different functions. In the first place, the first function or purpose is to investigate whether the existing Oshikwanyama dictionaries under this study contain all the information needed by the user for the purpose of communication to be conveyed. Another function is to ensure that the information presented in the dictionary has effects on the users or there is room for improvement in future dictionaries, particularly in the learners' dictionaries.

The third function of communication theory is then to identify *macro-*, *meso-* and *micro-* contextual purposes of a user-friendly bilingual English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for secondary school learners who are doing Oshikwanyama as their First Language in Namibia.

1.11 Ethical considerations

Resnik (2015) defines the term ethics as the norms of conduct that differentiate between acceptable and unacceptable behaviour. There are many reasons as to why it is of utmost importance for researchers to stick to ethical norms in conducting research. One of the reasons is that norms promote the research aims, for instance, knowledge, truth, and error avoidance. Examples include, prohibitions against cooking up or misrepresenting research, data advancing the truth and reducing error.

It is further articulated that research ethics give guidelines or rules that support researchers to conduct research so that it is done on the basis of what is morally right, fair and without harming anyone during the process of conducting it. Researchers have some responsibilities to ensure that their research projects that are carried out are in line with the set ethical standards. So, every research project step, from developing research questions up to the final stage, which is publication, needs to be guided by research ethics in ensuring that the project's honesty has prevailed (Hickey, 2018).

In light of what has been established in the preceding paragraphs in terms of research ethics, firstly, plagiarism is regarded as a serious case in the academic world. Therefore, all sources, which are used for information in this study, whether they are primary or secondary, are highly acknowledged. Secondly, any sources used in this study are not replicated and used for personal interest, but only for study purposes.

Furthermore, in any published documents that will be derived from this thesis, it is strictly significant to acknowledge that that particular publication is a part or whole (as adapted) of this thesis as submitted for the PhD (LAN LIN & LIT) degree at the University of South Africa. An application for ethical clearance was submitted and approval was granted by the UNISA College of Human Science Ethics Committee.

1.12 Scope and Chapter breakdown

This study was an investigation into the formulation of a model for compiling an English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for Secondary School Learners. The literature used in this study was primarily the ones that deal only with bilingual dictionaries compilation. A special reference is given to learners' bilingual dictionaries. This study also pays closer attention and evaluates only the readily available Oshikwanyama dictionary for its appropriateness and user-friendliness, and further developments of future Oshikwanyama dictionaries. The selected Oshikwanyama dictionary to be part of this study's evaluation is the recently published *Oshikwanyama-English / English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary* (OE/EOD) published in 2019.

This study is divided into six detailed chapters as explained below.

Chapter One

This is an introductory chapter, and covers topics such as background information of Oshiwambo language in general and Oshikwanyama dialect in particular, the status of Oshikwanyama lexicography, problem statement, aim and objectives of research, justification of research, rationale of the study, definition of terms, research design, theoretical framework and ethical considerations.

Chapter Two

Chapter Two focuses on the review of works of literature related to the topic of this research project. The sources that deal with the development of a model that can be applied in compiling a user-friendly bilingual dictionary in general and secondary school learners, in particular, are studied and synthesised. The focus is not only on the African languages' lexicography, but it also covers international lexicographical sources.

Chapter Three

This chapter deals with a critical review of the existing bilingual dictionary in Oshikwanyama (*Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*), reflecting on the good elements and gaps that exist. Among others, the discussion includes the aspects of structure and functions of this dictionary.

Chapter Four

This chapter proposes a model that can be adapted in compiling a user-friendly English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners.

Chapter Five

This chapter presents the research findings based on the review and the proposal of a model that can be adapted, as presented in chapters Three and Four respectively.

Chapter Six

This is a concluding chapter that reflects on the study summary and some recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

According to Winchester and Salji (2016), a literature review is a collection of ideas, views and conclusions from different scholars about a particular topic of interest. According to these scholars, there are many prevailing reasons why a researcher has to review a relevant piece of literature, which might influence the style as well as the length of a review.

A literature review is additionally defined by McCombes (2020) as a survey of scholarly sources on a selected topic, and it provides an outline of current knowledge, permitting a scholar to spot relevant theories, methods, and gaps within the existing research. Furthermore, writing a literature review involves finding relevant publications such as books and journal articles, critically analysing them, and justifying what one has found. According to McCombes (2020), seeking relevant literature, judging sources, determining themes, debates and gaps, defining the structure and writing your literature review are five key steps that ought to be thought of once one is reviewing any piece of academic work. What is important to point out in terms of a literature review is that the literature review does not solely summarise sources, however, it conjointly analyses, synthesises, and critically evaluates sources to produce an image of the state on the topic.

Therefore, a literature review is a critical evaluation of the current collective knowledge on a topic. To conduct a literature review is of prime importance, because it helps to develop the research idea, consolidate the existing knowledge about a certain subject and enable the researcher in identifying any gaps in knowledge and how the study would contribute to further understanding.

2.2 Works of literature reviewed

Mongwe (2006) explains the purpose of compiling bilingual dictionaries. The purpose is none other than achieving communicative equivalence. Therefore, compilers of bilingual learners' dictionaries should ensure that their target users can obtain and achieve communicative

equivalence. A dictionary is not user-friendly if communicative equivalence is not achieved. Most of the earlier bilingual dictionaries are not user-friendly because of the lack of adherence to a user-driven approach (Mongwe, 2006). It is emphasised by Gouws (2004: 68) that “dictionaries should be compiled for effective use and be regarded as useful instruments.” Therefore, it is of utmost importance for the compilers of bilingual dictionaries to plan properly, so that their users will be able to get the required information from the dictionaries that they consult without any problems.

The first part of this chapter reviews the criteria for compiling a bilingual learner’s dictionary, as this is the main focus of this important study. The second part looks at the access structure in the learner’s dictionaries. The evaluation of dictionaries, which is the last part of Chapter Two, is also discussed in this chapter, because it is an important aspect in this study, as new ideas and methods for compiling bilingual dictionaries for learners will be adopted, to ensure that a higher quality printed bilingual English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners of Oshikwanyama is proposed.

2.2.1 Criteria for compiling a bilingual learner’s dictionary

The criteria that are discussed here do not apply to the printed versions only but also the electronic ones as the world is advancing every day through modern technology. Therefore, the near future Oshikwanyama compilers of dictionaries are compelled to produce electronic versions of new lexicographical works. This will also add to the development of Oshikwanyama.

Several studies have focused on the best criteria that should be followed when it comes to compiling a bilingual learner’s dictionary. These studies are, among others, the study conducted by Tarp and Gouws (2012) on school dictionaries for First-Language learners, Gouws (2004a) on outer texts in bilingual dictionaries, Gouws (2004b) on monolingual and bilingual learners’ dictionaries, Gouws (1993) on Afrikaans learners’ dictionaries for a multilingual South Africa, and Steyn (2004) on the access structure in learners’ dictionaries. These studies are reviewed separately.

Dictionaries are still regarded as containers of knowledge in today’s world (cf. Tarp & Gouws, 2012). They are the most important sources in a particular speech community, because they

provide answers to the community's problems regarding language and other matters. Therefore, these problems can be resolved or retrieved by the use of a dictionary.

In their article on school dictionaries for First Language learners, Tarp and Gouws (2012) explain that the school system is one of the environments in which a user relies on the dictionary to get answers and solutions to a wide range of problems. This is an unfortunate situation, because dictionary consultation does not offer assistance in solving these users' problems. Some prevailing reasons are, such as, the dictionary is produced, but it does not meet the needs of the target users, the educator or a teacher referring the users (in this case, the learners) to a dictionary that is used in school, but does not fit to be used in school, or the lack of dictionary using skills.

Tarp and Gouws (2012) suggest to lexicographers of school dictionaries to consider and consult teachers at school to find out whether the learners can understand how the data are presented in the first language dictionaries. They further add that the dictionary using skills of the learners should influence how article entries are presented, such as the paraphrasing of meaning.

Furthermore, higher-quality school dictionaries should only be compiled if lexicographers integrate expert knowledge from different entities. It is further stated that lexicographers should join work with experienced teachers, textbook writers as well as curriculum developers in planning and compiling new school dictionaries of higher quality. This group of people will not only give ideas on what learners should know, but also on what they are still not prepared for in terms of assimilation.

It is also emphasised by these scholars, Tarp and Gouws (2012), that whenever a lexicographer is compiling a dictionary, they must also consider the age group of the target users, in this case, the learners. In terms of compiling a dictionary for lower grade learners, the compilers need to consider using simpler lexical items in their dictionaries. A dictionary that consists of advanced terminology will never assist them, and will not reach any success, and the purpose for which it is designed will never be served, as the words or lexical items might be too difficult for the learners as target users. Some learners may end up not using the dictionary because of the terminology used in the dictionary, and the dictionary might be too difficult to use. This also applies to the compilation of a dictionary for secondary school learners, for instance, Grade 8-12 learners, but the lexical items that have been used in the dictionary are too easy to use or are

too difficult to use. This way, the dictionary will never achieve its purpose. Therefore, according to Tarp and Gouws (2012), considering the age group when compiling a school dictionary is of paramount importance.

It is also believed that in compiling a dictionary for school learners, the corpus should be largely composed, consisting of different terms and concepts from different subjects that are offered at schools. The terms that are frequently used in subjects such as Biology, Agriculture, Chemistry, Design and Technology, etc., should be selected and used in the dictionary. In addition, Tarp and Gouws (2012: 371) comment that:

A well composed corpus of textbooks and exam syllabuses may also provide a reliable scientific basis for determining the amount and complexity of the lexicographical data which lower and intermediate learners are actually able to handle and assimilate without getting lost in data primarily destined to satisfy the needs of upper-grade students.

To expand on the above quoted statement, a well-established corpus that includes school materials such as textbooks and syllabi designed for the lower grades gives a reliable scientific idea to determine the amount and complexity of the data that is designed for the lower and middle learners of which they can use to retrieve the information presented in them (school materials) with ease, and without getting lost instead of using materials that are designed and composed to be used by upper-grade learners that will make their needs not to be satisfied at all.

Furthermore, Tarp and Gouws (2012) have established that one of the prevailing problems regarding school dictionaries or in using dictionaries in schools is the lack of dictionary culture. Dictionary culture is then divided into two types, according to Tarp and Gouws (2012: 358), and they are societal (collective) dictionary culture and individual (ideolectal) dictionary culture. The former type implies that the general and wide-spread dictionary culture prevails within a given speech community, while the latter functions “within the individual member of a speech community, in spite of a lack of a societal dictionary culture” (Tarp & Gouws, 2012: 358). If a certain speech community then lacks a societal dictionary culture, then the idea of school dictionaries is likely to be treated insufficiently.

Enhancing a societal dictionary culture and ensuring a more scientific approach to the idea of school dictionaries is by introducing both dictionary using skills as well as intensive using

opportunities in both early and later years of schooling. The only way this can be achieved is only if learners have sufficient access to well-devised school dictionaries. Tarp and Gouws (2012) suggest that for this to be done, government intervention is of prime importance and this should be exercised.

Most importantly, the planning and compilation of a school dictionary should be made up of a strong team. This team will ensure that a higher quality school dictionary has been compiled and the team should be seen as working together, combining lexicographic, curriculum and pedagogical expertise. If any of these fields of expertise is missing, then there is a higher possibility of compiling a school dictionary of lesser quality than expected (Tarp & Gouws, 2012).

First language learners' existing dictionaries may vary in form and content either from one country to another or within the same language community. In terms of this variation, school dictionaries may have a big number of various functions on the basis of the foreseen user group which has to be categorised according to age (grade) and the corresponding intellectual, linguistic, cultural, and encyclopaedic development of the learners and in terms of the various learning situation types in which learners may find it necessary to consult or use a dictionary (Tarp & Gouws, 2012).

Tarp and Gouws (2012) clarify that when learners, regardless of their age or grade, experience problems in understanding written or oral texts, they may need information about the meaning of individual words (translation equivalents in bilingual dictionaries), idioms or proverbs, and when these reception problems lead to a lexicographical consultation, they may need an adequate access system and information on orthography, information on parts of speech and irregular inflection forms to confirm that they have found the right article and the corresponding lexicographical data from which they can retrieve the needed information in solving their original reception problems. When the same children experience problems that relate to text production, they may need information on orthography, information on pronunciation, inflection, pragmatic restrictions, word formation, syntactic properties, collocations, synonyms, antonyms, etc. To access the dictionary and confirm that they have found the right article, they may need an adequate access system as well as information about meaning (translation equivalents in bilingual dictionaries) as well as part of speech.

Tarp and Gouws (2012) conclude that although learners should be able to retrieve the information defined by the curriculum and that is corresponding to their specific grade from a dictionary covering this grade, it does not exclude the notion that dictionaries should be more user-friendly, for example, with the paraphrases of meaning for monolingual dictionaries, or with the translation equivalents for bilingual dictionaries, written in a very simple language, the appropriate lexicographical data should be presented in a simplified manner and also presented in a more didactic way, and also the improved access structure.

Tarp and Gouws (2012) have provided the following functions of the first language learners' dictionaries. These functions are in four categories, namely: communicative functions which are related directly to language learning, cognitive functions which are directly related to language learning, the cognitive function that is not related directly to language learning, and the operational function which is not related directly to language learning.

1. *Communicative functions which are related directly to language learning:*
 - To assist school children with text reception (written or oral)
 - To assist school children with text production (written or oral)
2. *Cognitive functions related directly to language learning*
 - To assist school children with the learning of the grammar
 - To assist school children with vocabulary learning
 - To assist school children with learning about the world
3. *Cognitive function not related directly to language learning*
 - To assist school children with learning about etymology
4. *Operational function not related directly to language learning*
 - To assist children in developing dictionary skills.

In his study on monolingual and bilingual learners' dictionaries, Gouws (2004b) mentions that three important structures have to be considered by any lexicographer in terms of dictionary compilation. In this case, a particular reference is given to a learner's dictionary. These three structures are the front matter, the central list, and the back matter. These structures make up an overall structure, which is also known as a frame structure. It is then suggested by Gouws (2004b) that whenever a lexicographer is planning to compile any dictionary, including a learners' dictionary, the overall structure, the frame structure which consists of the front matter, the central list and the back matter should be considered.

Therefore, in compiling a higher quality bilingual dictionary for secondary school learners that are doing Oshikwanyama as a first language, the three structures that have been established by Gouws (2004b) should be considered. What has been discussed by Gouws (2004b) is highlighted in the following figure:

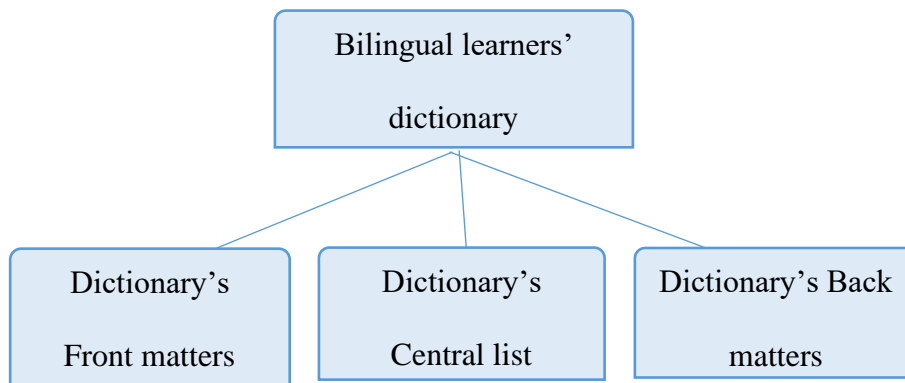


Figure 2.1 The frame structure of First language learners' bilingual dictionary

Furthermore, Gouws (2004a) clarifies that the central list and any text that occurs either in the dictionary's front or back matter can be extended. This extension can be complete or partial. In terms of a partial extension, it leads to a given text which is being complemented by either front or back matter texts. A complete extension leads to a text that is complemented by both front and back matter texts of the dictionary.

Three criteria that can be used in evaluating and compiling bilingual dictionaries, according to Gouws (1996) (as cited in Kromann et al. 1991: 2713) are the user aspect, the linguistic aspect and the empirical aspect. The first criterion is the user aspect. This aspect deals with ascertaining a specific target user group as well as the specific lexicographical needs of this particular target user group. It is further stated that the position of the user in any bilingual learners' dictionary is significant, and before the dictionary is designed, the compiler of the dictionary should analyse the needs of the user. This simply means that the compilation of a dictionary, based on both its macro and microstructure, should be co-determined by the needs and reference skills of the target user. Therefore, the lexicographer needs to put the target user into consideration when compiling a dictionary.

The second aspect, which is the empirical aspect, consists of the formation of acceptable databases as well as the collection of material. The last aspect, which is the linguistic aspects, demands a systematic approach for the compiler based on the treatment of equivalence relations that prevail between lexical fields of both the source language and the target language, but also in the treatment of syntagmatic and pragmatic relations that prevail between these fields. Worth noting it that both the linguistic and the empirical aspects should not be isolated from the framework set by the user aspect (Gouws, 1996: 18).

Apart from the ideas of Kromann (1991), Zofgen (1994), explains that future dictionaries should have to follow a lexicographical-pragmatic approach which is oriented to at least three parameters. These parameters are the user, the situation in which the dictionary will be used, and the nature and extent of the information to be treated in the dictionary.

Gouws (1996) also emphasises three major dictionary structural components, and these are macrostructure, microstructure and access structure. While macrostructure is the component that deals with the collection of the lemma signs as the basic treatment units of the dictionary, the microstructure is the component that deals with the structure of the lemmata. This simply means that it is the total set of data categories that follow the lemma sign.

The access structure, which Gouws (1996) regards as the search path, is the structure or component that guides the user to the information they are looking for in the dictionary. Within the access structure, a distinction is made between the outer access structure and the inner access structure. The outer structure leads or guides the user to the lemma they are looking for, and the inner access structure assists the user in reaching specific information categories within the article. For any dictionary to be user-friendly, according to Gouws (1996), lexicographers need to consider improving the quality of the access structure in such a way that the access structure can lead to quick retrieval of information in the dictionary. In improving the access structure, Gouws (1996) provides the following: improving the outer access structure and the inner access structure.

Several ways can be used in altering the access structure. On one hand, according to Gouws (1996), special entries may be added by the lexicographer or change the way macrostructural elements are presented. On the other hand, it is suggested for lexicographers to add additional access structures in creating a poly-accessible dictionary.

Gouws (1996) suggests that special entries using structural markers and a typographical innovation to change the face of the lemma signs could be used, as used in some South African dictionaries. These structural markers are such as asterisks, among others.

Gouws (1996) further suggests that compilers of future dictionaries need to make it easier for the users to access the information presented in the article with ease. They will only do this when they construct the article in a way that is clear and easy to understand in terms of information retrieval. The user should be familiar with the inner structure of the dictionary articles and again with the order of the different positions of the article.

Gouws (1996) suggests that for the inner access structure to be improved, structural markers that show the borders between information categories and the position as well as the scope of different search areas should be provided. Other structural markers that can be used are pictures, and an example of this could be that of a diamond in the example taken from a dictionary called *Tweetalige Aanleerderswoordeboek / Bilingual Learner's Dictionary*. This dictionary used a diamond to indicate the occurrence of collocations which are always preceded by a diamond. Furthermore, the search area which contains the positions of articles that accommodate the information on the part of speech on how plurals and other derives are formed is marked with a small square. An upside-down triangle is also presented in this dictionary to indicate examples.

In addition, Gouws (1996) supports the ideas of Wiegand (1995) who makes provision for the inclusion of the inserted inner texts as part of the article. Wiegand (1995) believes that these types of texts are appropriate, especially to the learners' dictionaries. These types of texts, according to Gouws (1996), are unique because they are different from the other texts or the rest of the article as they are presented differently, for instance, in tables or boxes.

In the same vein, Gouws (1993) emphasises that lexicographers do not need to put more information in learners' dictionaries. The information on learners' dictionaries has to be presented in such a way that it is problem-free and can be easily retrieved. Therefore, attention needs to be given to different access structures used to enhance information retrieval. Gouws (1993: 29) further argues that "a restricted and a simplified microstructure leads to a decrease in the density of information but to an increase in the explicitness and retrievability."

Gouws's (1993) study then suggests that when compiling a dictionary, especially a learners' dictionary, the lexicographer should include only as much immediate information, which may be relevant and requires the learner's attention. Too much detailed information will confuse and distract learners, especially when they are preoccupied by many tasks, such as assignments, tests, etc. Therefore, accessibility and retrieval of information in learners' dictionaries should be considered.

Another important consideration when compiling a learner's dictionary is the treatment of the microstructure. Gouws (1993) suggests that a dictionary's microstructure should be offered in a very simplified manner. This access should be given explicitly so as to provide the easiest possible transfer of information.

Gouws (2004a) indicates that the central list is the heart of the dictionary, and it is a carrier of information. The outer texts (front and back matter texts) are not functional parts of a dictionary, even though both or one of them may contain important texts such as the user's guidelines which have major functions in the dictionary.

What is crucial here, based on Gouws (2004a), is that with regards to the learners' dictionaries, the user's guidelines text in the front matter should be included. This is due because such will guide the learners on how the information presented in the dictionary is accessed.

Outer texts are then divided into two folders, namely unintegrated and integrated outer texts. Unintegrated outer texts offer less contribution to the genuine purpose of the dictionary, although they are also important parts of the dictionary. These texts, among others, are the title page, introduction and foreword. Integrated outer texts are significant because they contribute to achieving the genuine purpose of the dictionary. In other words, they add value and contribute to the successful dictionary consultation process (Gouws, 2004a).

While the front matter text, according to Steyn (2004), is a section that comes before the central list, the back matter text is a section that comes after the central list. The central list is then the textual component between the front matter and the back matter and it is regarded as the most typical venue for dictionary consultation procedures. Therefore, the information presented in the central list should facilitate fast as well as undisturbed access to the required data.

Steyn (2004) agrees with Gouws (1993; 2004a) that there is one very important text that is part of the integrated outer text, and that this should be included in the dictionary's front matter section. This text is the user's guidelines. This text is also referred to as a "help text", because it assists the user to have a more successful dictionary consultation procedure. Therefore, the inclusion of the user's guidelines text helps learners to have a deep understanding of the content and structure of the dictionary.

Furthermore, Steyn (2004) adds important and compulsory structures for a learner's dictionary. These structures are such as the alphabetical order, the access alphabet, running heads, and many others. A few optional structures prevail in some dictionaries to enhance access to the macrostructure, and they are thumb indexes, coloured pages, etc.

The study by Steyn (2004) suggests that the alphabetical ordering of lemmata, on a macrostructural level, is crucial. This will enable the learners to access the lemmata with ease. Besides, learners already have prior knowledge of letters of the alphabet. Therefore, they will be able to find the correct lemma they are looking up in a shorter time. Lemmata that are arranged in alphabetical order will not only help learners in accessing the information easily, but this will also save their time, so that they can do some other school activities that are also important.

Gouws and Prinsloo have provided salient information in their seminal work which was published in 2005. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) state that a dictionary article is made up of two prime components, and they are the comment on form and the comment on semantics. Numerous studies in the field of theoretical lexicography, especially those focused on dictionary research have suggested dictionaries to be carriers or containers of different types of texts. This simply means, according to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), that each and every lexicographical work should consist of texts that are functional components of the dictionary, and they view the dictionary as a "big" text.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) are of the idea that in positioning the text in a lexicographical work, one has to consider the three prime structures or areas. These areas are then the front matter, the central list and the back matter. This simply means that the proposed bilingual dictionary

for First Language Oshikwanyama learners at secondary should be divided according to these three structures.

Based on these structures, particularly on the central list of the dictionary, a distinction is made between the word list structure and the word book structure. The word list structure only deals with the central list of a dictionary. When one is referring to the central list of the dictionary, he or she is referring to the heart of the dictionary. This is what Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 58) regard and refer to as the dictionary. The central list is what is called the compulsory text of every dictionary.

Furthermore, in bilingual lexicography, particularly the learners' dictionary, the central list is made up of article stretches, i.e. all the articles included under a specific letter of the alphabet, arranged based on the first letter of the lemmata which functions as the article's guiding elements.

In addition, according to these scholars (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005), the central list of any dictionary does not only typically accommodate article stretches that are representing the full alphabets, but it can also accommodate article stretches that represent letters or combinations of letters that do not occur in the ordinary language, but in fact, part of the specific language's alphabet. Furthermore, each article that is accommodated in the dictionary's central list is regarded as a text on its right.

On the other hand, based on Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), the word book structure area or approach, an area or approach prevalent in the majority of modern-day lexicographical works, and strongly promoted by research on dictionary, complements the central list by including some extra texts that are located either before and/ or after the central list. Collectively, these texts are the ones that are referred to as outer texts. Within these outer texts then, there is another division of structures that are called front matter texts as well as back matter texts. The former consists of all the texts that precede the central list and the latter contains all the texts that follow the central list.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) add that these two texts, the front and the back matter, constitute the dictionaries' outer texts, and their occurrence forms a type of dictionary structure, which is known as the frame structure of a dictionary.

Although the central list of the dictionary, according to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), is a compulsory text, the outer texts can be regarded as optional. Although these texts are regarded as the optional texts, there is that important outer text which must not be excluded by lexicographers when compiling their dictionaries. This text, which should be treated and included as the second compulsory text in any dictionary, is the one, for instance, the text which is usually presented in the front matter, which consists of the guidelines that will aid the users of the compiled dictionary, especially on how the compiled dictionary should be used. This raises the idea that there is no way for any lexicographer to be of the opinion that the target user of the specific lexicographical work will have knowledge of how lexicographic presentation in a dictionary is used, interpreted and / or understood, unless it is explained by lexicographers to the user in a separate text, for instance in the user's guidelines.

Dictionary articles consist of two components, as explained by Gouws and Prinsloo in their seminal work of 2005. These components are *the comment on form* and *the comment on semantics*. The comment on form, according to these scholars, is the search field in which all the types of data that have to do with the form of the lemma sign are accommodated. These types of data include, among others, orthographic forms, pronunciation, morphological data, and parts of speech. What is important to mention here is that the lemma sign is also regarded as part of the comment on form because it gives information on the spelling of the relevant lexical item.

The comment on semantics is the search field in which all the data types that deal with and reflect semantic and pragmatic features of the lexical item which is presented by the lemma are accommodated. These features include translation equivalents, etymological data, lexicographical labels, co-text and context entries and other data such as inserted inner texts (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

These components that Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) discussed, as reviewed in the preceding sections are also applicable and important to the present study. This simply means that all elements, such as the frame structure of the dictionary (outer texts – front and back matters of the dictionary, and inner text – the central list which consists of the two microstructural elements, the comment on form and the comment on semantics) are relevant to the present study, because they were considered in coming up with a model for compiling a bilingual

Oshikwanyama dictionary that can be of significant assistance to the secondary school learners of Oshikwanyama as a First Language.

Mongwe (2006) has provided the structures that relate to bilingual dictionaries. The structures are the macrostructure, microstructure, access structure and frame structure. Mongwe (2006) also clarifies that the frame structure is constituted by the front matter text, back matter texts as well as the central list. In the front matter, there should be the table of contents, which leads the user to the information presented in the dictionary's central list or to the other different texts presented in the front and back matter texts of the dictionary; the foreword, which is a short introduction about the dictionary to the user; acknowledgement, which is a text in which the compiler (s) of a particular dictionary give his or her vote of thanks to people, organisations, etc., who assisted him or her during the process of compiling the dictionary. The users' guidelines is an important text in any dictionary. This is the kind of text in which the users are provided with the usage information which leads them to retrieve the information without experiencing problems or difficulties.

When compiling a dictionary, lexicographers are cautioned by Mongwe (2006) that the information presented in the text needs to be explained explicitly in the dictionary in terms of usage by the users of the dictionary. The symbols and articles containing items representing word class, and structural markers (typographical and non-typographical structural markers) assist the user in identifying and interpreting items that should be explained explicitly to the user in this text.

Based on Mongwe (2006), depending on the dictionary's function, the central list is of prime importance as it is the main body of the dictionary and it assists the users in various ways. The central list of every dictionary covers article structures from A-Z. Running heads are observable on the top of the pages of the dictionary in the central list. These running heads assist the user in identifying the first as well as the last lemmata on each page of the dictionary. It is also confirmed that the running heads assist the user to find the lemmata with ease. Furthermore, the central list consists of or is divided into article stretches and each article stretch consists of articles with a lemma that starts with a particular letter. Each article then contains a lemma which functions as a guiding element of the article and entries that are

directed at the lemma treatment. The macrostructure of the dictionary is formed up only by the lemmata and the other entries in the article make up the microstructure (Mongwe, 2006).

Mongwe (2006) advises compilers of learners' dictionaries that for the users not to have problems with selecting the correct translation equivalent, compilers should add additional information such as partial equivalence (divergence), and zero equivalence (surrogate), in illustrating the correct usage of the translation equivalent. This will lead to successful communication as far as dictionary compilation is concerned.

Most importantly, whenever a lexicographer is indicating synonyms, they should use a structural marker called *comma*. The comma is not only used to indicate synonyms, but it is also used to mark a specific type of equivalent relation, as established by Mongwe (2006). If semicolons are used, then it indicates to the user that the lemma is not only indicating a polysemous lexical item, but it also indicates that the prevailing equivalent relation is one of the semantic divergences.

Based on the text theory, the microstructure of any dictionary consists of the following two comments:

(a) The comment on form

- Lemma form
- Orthographic variants
- Pronunciation
- Morphology
- Part of speech

(b) The comment on semantics

- Translation equivalents
- Example structure
- Collocations

Therefore, the compilers of the bilingual dictionary should consider these components if they would like to have a bilingual dictionary of higher quality that can lead to a successful consultation process.

Although the back matter text is regarded as optional and not a functional component of the dictionary, it is this part of a dictionary that should be made up of elements such as bibliography, appendix, addendum, and explanation of abbreviations, pictures and references associated with the postures, relevant literature that can be consulted regarding extra-information on the dictionary. Additionally, Mongwe (2006) explains that this text type/component also includes a number of texts that deal with both communication-oriented and knowledge-oriented functions. The communication-oriented functions may help the user in solving issues that relate to text production in the native language, text production in the foreign language, text reception in the native language and text reception in the foreign language. The knowledge oriented functions help the target user in providing aspects such as general cultural and encyclopaedic data, specific data about the subject field and data about the language (Mongwe, 2006).

In the same vein, Atkins (1985:16) has described a typical microstructure of both monolingual and bilingual learners. Atkins (1985:16) stresses the most important entries that should be included in a dictionary's article. This type of information is shared by both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, although there are notable differences here and there. The following article structure should be considered by any compiler of any bilingual learners' dictionary, as proposed by Atkins (1985: 16):

- 1) The headword and its variant spellings;
- 2) Pronunciation;
- 3) Indication of part(s) of speech;
- 4) Morphological information – potentially confusing irregular inflections;
- 5) Syntactic properties of the headword;
- 6) Translation equivalents of various senses of the headword;
- 7) Illustration of usage (including collocations, phraseology), always translated;
- 8) Indication of semantic information and selectional restrictions;
- 9) Indication of usage restrictions (with the help of labels); and
- 10) Cross-reference.

The preceding review on various studies was significant to this study as it assisted this study in following the best criteria used in compiling a bilingual secondary school learner's

dictionary. The important criteria for the selection of lemmata for the secondary school bilingual dictionaries as well as the microstructural components that prospective dictionary compilers for Oshikwanyama should consider were dealt with in detail, following the preceding studies as a starting point. Another important component in the compilation of a user-friendly bilingual learner's dictionary is the access structure in learners' bilingual dictionaries. This is reviewed briefly in the following section.

2.2.2 Access structure in learners' bilingual dictionaries

Access structure in learners' dictionaries is one of the most important structures to be considered whenever a lexicographer is compiling a learners' dictionary. This is because access structure helps learners to have access to the information they are looking for in the dictionary. A well compiled dictionary should have an easy access structure, so that the learners at this stage (secondary school learners, grades 8-12) can retrieve information in a shorter period due to their time, especially at school, which is always limited. In this regard, proactive scholars in the field of metalexigraphy have suggested how a learner's dictionary should be compiled when it comes to access structures. Among others, Steyn (2004), Gouws (2004) and many other scholars have provided their ideas.

In his study on access structure in learners' dictionaries, Steyn (2004) explains that lexicographical works, in this case, dictionaries, should be produced in terms of the target users as well as dictionary goals.

Apart from the target users as a criterion for measuring the success of dictionaries, another criterion is the accessibility of dictionaries. Therefore, the accessibility of dictionaries needs to be considered by present-day lexicographers. The way macro- and micro-structural information is situated and accessed determines the quality as well as the presentation.

Furthermore, it is also noted by Steyn (2004) that user-orientated, and accessible learners' dictionaries can contribute substantially to the improvement of communication, not only in a multilingual South Africa but also in Namibia or any other country, in terms of the different groups of language learners.

In addition, structures such as the outer access structure, inner access structure and meta-access structure are said to be functional structure elements that may enhance and increase the

retrievability of information and assist the target user in reaching, as fast and easily as possible, the information they are looking up in the dictionary.

Furthermore, Steyn (2004) suggests to the lexicographers, especially during the planning of a dictionary for learners, to draw up, among others, a dictionary plan that explains in detail how the outer access and the inner access structures are given or presented in the dictionary. By so doing, that particular dictionary plan will lead to a consistent application of lexicographical decisions. Decisions that deal with the access structure should also be explained and illustrated explicitly in the front matter text so that they can acquire skills on dictionary use and become effective and successful users of dictionaries (Steyn, 2004).

Two types of dictionary access structures have been identified, namely, the inner access structure and the outer access structure (cf. also Bergenholtz & Tarp, 1995: 16). The former is the structure that guides the user up to the lemma sign, which introduces the article from which the required information is to be retrieved, and the latter is the structure that leads the user within just a dictionary article to the search zone in which the relevant data is presented (Steyn, 2004).

Steyn (2004: 278) further articulates that the outer access structure of the dictionary begins right on the dictionary's cover page. The outer access structure consists of, i.e., the type and amount of information, as well as the presentation on the back and front pages of the dictionary.

The inner access structure of the dictionary is the second major component of the access structure. The user's internal search route begins with the lemma and proceeds into the article of the dictionary.

2.2.3 Data distribution structure

The data distribution structure determines firstly the strategic placement of data in the dictionary. The design of a data distribution structure as well as a data distribution programme needs to be part and parcel of the dictionary plan. The distribution structure is also described by Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995: 188), as the linguistic structure (and encyclopaedic) of information that is distributed across or occurring at different places in the dictionary.

This type of information may occur in three different places. These places are, in the individual articles, in different types of framed articles or separate components, for example, a dictionary

grammar. Furthermore, the inner access structure also refers to the form and ordering of data in the article of a dictionary.

Improvements in present-day learners' dictionaries, according to Steyn (2004), focus specifically on the two structures, namely, outer access structures as well as inner access structures. Frequently, these changes do not only increase the dictionary quality, but they also contribute to a text density increase. Due to this, this special balance is maintained, based on Svensén (1993:16) that:

It is not merely the information needs of different categories of users that are of importance. An equally important factor is their ability to find and make use of the information given. Here the lexicographer is forced into a difficult balancing act. On the one hand, the dictionary must contain as much information as possible without becoming unnecessarily bulky. On the other hand, this information must not be so compressed that the intended user will not be able to utilise it.

2.2.4 Bilingual dictionaries' functions

Bilingual dictionaries have several important functions. Some of the functions are found in Alexandrovna (2014), Mongwe (2006), Ella (2007), and Jembere (2011).

It is believed that these types of dictionaries have several functions as they are used frequently by various groups of users such as scholars, technical and literary translators, learners, and any other interested individuals.

According to Alexandrovna (2014), a bilingual dictionary is used by someone who is called the user, who does not have sufficient knowledge and would like to expand his or her knowledge of some two language aspects. He/she would like to use this kind of knowledge for communication in L1 or L2, or an individual who would like to become bilingual, for example, a learner or a speaker who wishes to communicate with the other speakers of the second language, or an individual who would like to achieve communication on the level of comprehension (for example a scientist, tradesman, or a tourist, etc.)

Alexandrovna (2014) further explains that a bilingual dictionary is important to learners or students because they have to use an acceptable bilingual dictionary that can assist them in reading simplified materials that are presented in the foreign language. This is corroborated by the fact “A good bilingual dictionary is an indispensable and important tool for the student at the intermediate stage of foreign language learning” (Alexandrovna, 2014: 14).

Mongwe (2006: 67) provides various functions of bilingual dictionaries when it comes to learners and provides an example of a history learner, who has a problem to understand the term “**freedom**” in the classroom. Therefore, to resolve this problem, the learner has to consult a dictionary to search for the term “**freedom**” which functions as a lemma and gets not only its meaning in English but also its translation equivalent. That way, the learner will not only have a good understanding of the term, but his lesson too, and whenever he or she encounters it, then he/she will be able to use it properly.

Another good example provided by Mongwe (2006: 67) is that of the word “**sacked**”. The learner will still use the same way of consulting his or her dictionary to get that lexical item in the dictionary. The learner will not only get its meaning in English and its translation equivalents in his/her vernacular language, but also the understanding of how the particular lexical item changes its form, in terms of grammar. He/she will have an understanding that the lexical item “**sacked**” is in its past test, and if it is in its present tense, then it is written as “**sack**”.

It is therefore concluded by Mongwe (2006), that a bilingual learner’s dictionary’s main functions are to assist in text reception as well as in text production, as discussed in two examples above. When it comes to text reception, the target user, the learner, in this case, has to receive and encounter different texts and understand them through reading and listening. After that, the learners will have to make use of the texts that he/she encounters through reading and listening, either in class or elsewhere, to speak or to write. This way, text production prevails.

Another investigation that was completed by Ella (2007) on the theoretical model for a *Fang-French-English* specialised multi-volume word dictionary clarifies unequivocally the major lexicographic functions. These lexicographic functions are communicative-oriented functions

and knowledge-oriented functions. These functions have additionally been talked about by Tarp (2000).

In terms of *communication-oriented functions*, six types have been identified, and they are believed to have a paradigmatic character at a relatively high level of abstraction. According to Ella (2007: 51), the target users are not mentioned but implied as those to be assisted.

- To assist with the reception of texts in the mother tongue
- To assist with the production of texts in the mother tongue
- To assist with the reception of texts in the foreign language
- To assist with the production of texts in the foreign language
- To assist with the translation of texts from the mother tongue into the foreign language
- To assist with the translation of texts from the foreign language into the mother tongue

According to Ella (2007: 51), based on a concrete dictionary, the functions are defined explicitly for them to be operational as follows: “The function of this Chinese-English dictionary is to assist professional translators with Chinese as their mother tongue in solving complex of problems that they run into when translating from Chinese to English.”

The second function, according to Ella (2007), which is the *knowledge-oriented functions*, consists of three different types, and as in communicative-oriented functions, these types also have a paradigmatic character at a relatively high level of abstraction. It is therefore worth pointing out that the target users are also not explicitly mentioned but implied as those to be provided with assistance. These types are as follows, based on Ella (2007: 52):

- To give general cultural and encyclopaedic information,
- To give special information about the subject field or the discipline, and
- To give information about the language (for example, when studying a foreign language).

According to Ella (2007: 52), a knowledge-oriented function is defined explicitly to become operational concerning a concrete dictionary as follows: “The function of this dictionary of biology is to assist students to solve the complex of problems that they run into when consulting a biology book or working on a biology lesson”.

In the same vein, in a study on *Lexicographic Standards of Selected Multilingual Dictionaries*, Jembere (2011) also identified two major dictionary functions, based on Function Theory (cf. Chapter One on Function Theory), and these functions are *cognitive oriented* and *communicative oriented functions*. According to Jembere (2011), these functions can be provided as the use of a dictionary for its user. It is obvious, however, that these functions may be found generally, and that not all of them would be relevant to each lexicographic work (dictionary).

Furthermore, Jembere (2011) explains the purpose for which the dictionary has been compiled, and suggests that the lexicographer must determine both the target user of the dictionary and the prime purpose(s) for which they will utilise the dictionary. It is broadly suggested that it is crucial to consider what dictionaries need to possess for them to be used by learners. Hereunder are the major functions of a bilingual dictionary, as provided by Jembere (2011). Although these functions are general, bilingual dictionaries may share them, and they apply to this current study.

(a) Dictionary functions as a reference work

With regards to this function, dictionary compilers claim that a dictionary can be used whether in the form of a folio edition or an electronic dictionary. It is a reflection of social change, and is used to find systematised information in a quick way. Therefore, it is a source of information that provides answers to basic if not all kinds of questions from users on words.

(b) Dictionary functions as a recorder of lexicons of a particular language

One of the prevailing functions of a dictionary is none other than to record the lexicon of a particular language. According to Jembere (2011), it provides the user with quick and abundant assistance in finding information on all aspects of the most current lexical items and their collocations, and in understanding ordinary, rare, and, in particular, difficult scientific and technical words. The user primarily would like to find the meaning of those lexical items (words) as quickly as possible, and favours compact packaging. Therefore, a dictionary is not only used as a reference work, but it also often

serves as a kind of storage facility, a storeroom for a language in which one can find much of what once existed and what exists currently.

(c) *Prestige*

It is established that the local dialect often gains in prestige if there is concrete evidence that the language utilised by a particular society in several competing major languages can be written, that its vocabulary is adequate and even extensive, and that books can be published in hitherto unwritten languages.

(d) *Bilingual dictionary functions in language learning*

According to Jembere (2011), there has been considerable interest recently in the part played by dictionaries in language development, particularly in the learning of second and foreign languages. This is one of the most functions of a bilingual dictionary, which is to assist the member of a particular community to gain fluency and vocabulary in the language of their choice. As their education progresses, learners become eager in acquiring fluency and vocabulary in their language use. Jembere (2011) further clarifies that a classroom situation will not provide them with all of the lexical items (words) the situation demands. They require a place in which they can find the equivalents in their second language for the thoughts they wish to establish. Others explain that for a language learner, a bilingual dictionary has basic uses such as a diagnostic tool for aural and reading comprehension in the object language, and a generating tool for object-language expression in speech or writing. Some suggest that dictionary makers need to consider learners' decoding needs, which are not vastly different from those of native speakers, and more specifically their encoding needs. According to Jembere (2011), learners' dictionaries should be made up of more explicit, more comprehensive, and more systematic information about the syntactic and lexical operation of lexical items than a dictionary for native speakers.

(e) *Intellectual growth of individuals*

Jembere (2011) explains that some members of the local community will collaborate as language helpers in the preparation of the reference book (dictionary). Jembere (2011)

further explains that these people will intellectually grow as they are already receiving some training from the linguist. Some individuals that are trained in the dictionary project will be able to go ahead with the preparation and development of curriculum materials for bilingual education programmes.

Some who received training through collaboration on the dictionary will grow the ability to more fully collaborate in different translation projects and they may develop the skills required to do independent work on translation, and write original literature for their people.

(f) *Contribution to bilingual/bicultural education*

According to Jembere (2011), the historical and traditional uses of a dictionary include making several kinds of information available to the general population. These include an authoritative guide on pronunciation, the meaning of obsolete lexical items (words) as found in literature, and definitions of foreign or other difficult words that had been adopted into the languages of the dictionaries. In a country that is characterised by a large immigrant population, an expanding public school system and popular education, and exploring commercial opportunities, the demand for inclusion of such information has unconditionally assisted users in acculturating them. Besides, in the era of globalisation, inter-lingual communication is becoming increasingly important.

(g) *Bilingual dictionary also plays a vital role in language standardisation*

Major publication in one of the variants of a particular language area will lead to increased knowledge of that particular variant on the part of individuals from the whole area. The net result may be that the dictionary exerts a unifying influence on the wider region, and it becomes easy to prepare and develop school materials for, and communicate across the whole area which was formerly fragmented. Particularly if the dictionary has included the different local dialect differences, speakers of all such dialects will broaden their vocabulary, and become conversant with the main variety of the local language as presented in the dictionary.

(h) *A bilingual dictionary acts as a record of cultural roots*

According to Jembere (2011), a dictionary plentifully supplied with illustrative sentences, adequate sense discriminations, and sufficient qualifying comments becomes a record of the folk wisdom and cultural heritage of a particular group of people. Even though people may not be able to approach the ethnographic and encyclopaedic style of a few of the dictionaries discussed in the supplement dealing with the history of bilingual dictionaries, a substantial record of the local system of ethnobiology, mathematics, scientific lore, and the folk taxonomy of shapes or textures through a well-constructed dictionary can be preserved.

(i) *A bilingual dictionary functions as an important tool for translation*

According to Jembere (2011), dictionary compilers claim that there are two types of translators who are beneficiaries. The translator may be a native speaker of the target language who needs the dictionary to give assistance in reading comprehension of the source language. This would be a dictionary describing the source language, using the translator's native language as the language of description, which is also referred to as the metalanguage. Preferably, the vocabulary of the dictionary selected for description would contain the vocabulary of the source text. The second kind of translator translates materials into a foreign language. For this purpose, the needs are quite different. The translator will need a dictionary that can be used as a generating tool for writing compositions in the target language.

In addition, if the source language is not the native language of the translator, he or she, just like the native translator, will also need a dictionary which is describing the source language, using the native language of the translator (or at least a language in which the translator is proficient) as the language of description (Jembere, 2011).

2.2.5 Evaluation of dictionaries

This sub-section of review on dictionary evaluation is essential to this study, because aspects that are tackled here are applied in Chapter Three, when a critical review of the selected

Oshikwanyama bilingual dictionary, namely, *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, is provided. The aspects that are reviewed here, together with the criteria that are followed in compiling a bilingual dictionary, particularly a first language learners' dictionary, as provided in the preceding section, were used in Chapter Four where the model is provided.

Every dictionary has its unique features and structures. Therefore, it is of paramount importance that it is thoroughly evaluated. Since various types of dictionaries are consulted by different users, it is also crucial for them to be evaluated so that their appropriateness is assessed. Jackson (2002) explains that a lot of dictionaries are published for commercial purposes, and different publishers invest a reasonable amount of money in their development, and they are tailored to perceived market needs. There is then a need to choose the criteria that will be used to evaluate a dictionary.

It is further explained by Jackson (2002) that reviewing and evaluating a dictionary is not exactly the same as reviewing a newspaper, a book, or any other piece of work. It is not possible for a reviewer to review the whole volume of a dictionary, and therefore, it is of paramount importance and best for dictionary reviewers to find new methods and approaches that will be used for review, for example, sampling, or carefully selecting a checklist of items and features that will be used to do the investigations and analysis.

It is also suggested by Jackson (2002) that it is best to, at least, have groups of reviewers, so that each group or individual will take a separate aspect for critical scrutiny, for example, the treatment of pronunciation, of grammar, of equivalents in bilingual dictionaries, of etymology, and many others.

The main communicative objective of dictionary evaluation, based on Swanepoel (2013), is to provide compilers of dictionaries with guidelines on how to deal with the improvement of the functional quality of their dictionaries. Swanepoel (2013:587) defines dictionary evaluation as a “praxis, involves the analysis, description and evaluation of the design features of a dictionary on the basis of one or more lexicographically relevant evaluation criteria.”

To expand this definition by Swanepoel (2013), dictionary evaluation is a practical activity that deals with the analysis, descriptions as well as evaluation of different features of dictionaries in terms of different criteria.

Another term in dictionary evaluation is “design feature”. This term, as mentioned in Swanepoel's definition, deals with the major features of both electronic and printed dictionaries

of different types which include content, outer texts, structure and presentation (Swanepoel, 2013). “The focus of the design elements of dictionaries follows from the functional approach to dictionary design, that simply means that each element of the design of a dictionary should be determined by the competencies of the dictionary’s target users, and the functions the dictionary has to fulfil in various kinds of communicative and cognitive contexts of usage” (Swanepoel, 2013: 587).

Svensén’s (2009) view is in the same vein as Swanepoel (2013), and additionally explains that a dictionary needs to be evaluated in terms of the qualities that it is asserted by the publisher to possess. It is then an acceptable procedure to first start by mentioning the target user groups and functions that the dictionary is compiled for, the type of data and information it entails, and the properties the dictionary has. It is however, argued by Svensén (2009) that many dictionaries fail to provide this kind of information, and in such cases, the evaluation only depends on the general criteria that are adopted, and are independent of the dictionary which is under evaluation.

Svensén (2009) suggests three prime aspects that should be considered when evaluating any lexicographical work. These three aspects are, the amount of information offered by the dictionary under review, the quality of the information the dictionary under review offered, and the way the information is presented in the dictionary which is being evaluated. Apart from the three prime aspects, there is a list of 32 aspects that should be taken into account by lexicographers when evaluating dictionaries, as suggested by Svensén (2009: 483). These aspects are: dictionary functions, dictionary users, advice given to the users, price, layout/web design, the compilers, comparison with other dictionaries, prehistory of the dictionary, reference to other reviewers, the reviewer, dictionary basis, outside matters, lemma selection, the establishment of the lemma, search and access options, entry structure, the normative/descriptive dimension, equivalents, grammar, orthography, pronunciation, semantic and encyclopaedic information, diasystematic information, etymology, examples, collocations, idioms, illustrations, synonymy/ antonym, cross-reference, entertainment value, and unified concluding evaluation.

In addition to the 32 aspects that should be considered when evaluating a dictionary, Svensén (2009) has suggested other three aspects, and they are the types and degrees of textual condensation, macrostructure, morphological information, and the requirements which state

that the dictionary should not convey some kind of stereotypes that involve sex, nationality, religion and race.

What is important to consider when it comes to evaluation is that there is no way for a review to just accommodate all the aspects mentioned in the preceding paragraph for it to be called a good review. Some aspects, however, should be viewed as compulsory for many dictionaries, while others are specific to certain types of dictionaries, for example, equivalents for bilingual dictionaries (Svensén, 2009). Equivalents are important to this study, because they are among the aspects that are considered in evaluating the *OE-EOD* in Chapter Three. Equivalents are also included in the criteria that will be adopted in Chapter 4 for compiling a user-friendly *EODSSL*.

In the same vein, there are still some other criteria that have been suggested for evaluating dictionaries by other scholars. Jackson (1996) proposes criteria to be followed when one evaluates a certain lexicographical work. The criteria are vocabulary, word formation, homographs, definitions, lexical relations, pronunciation, grammar, usage, examples, etymology, special features and criticism.

Svensén (2009: 484) provides a good suggestion to dictionary evaluators when they evaluate dictionaries:

In order to acquaint oneself with the dictionary, one may start by reading the preface and the user's guide. The next step could be to try to 'find one's bearings' in the dictionary by browsing here and there, reading entries of different kinds, finally, and proceeding to the back matter in order to see what it has to offer. However ... the outer and inner selection must be analysed and related to the function(s) and target group(s) of the dictionary. A randomly selected number of entries should be examined from different aspects, possibly on the basis of a checklist. It is also recommendable to make spot checks crosswise examining the overall treatment given to certain information types such as pronunciation, inflection, definitions/ equivalents, grammar, collocations, and idioms. Attention must also be paid to structural matters, such as microstructure and macrostructure, access structure and the form and function of cross-references.

It is then worth commenting and concluding the following major aspects or criteria that need to be taken into account when one is evaluating a dictionary. These important aspects are translation equivalents, etymologies, grammatical usage, syntax, idiomatic uses, origin and history of words, regional usage of words, antonyms, synonyms, homonyms, colour, potential users, size, number of pages, illustrations, reliability, the method used to compile a dictionary,

authority, age (dichromatic perspective), blurb (providing hints on other criteria), structure and contents, dependent on the purpose and target users of a dictionary.

Critical to note is that dictionary evaluation as a praxis does not only provide informed reviews to potential users on dictionaries, but it also contributes to further developments, not only in the field of theoretical lexicography but also in the field of practical lexicography for the improvements of future dictionaries.

Furthermore, De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) provide an explicit distinction between efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness of a text. Efficiency relates to “communicating with a minimum expenditure of effort by the participants.” Effectiveness relates to the extent to which a text establishes “favourable conditions for attaining a goal.” Lastly, appropriateness of a text is “the agreement between its setting and the ways in which the standards of textuality are upheld” (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981: 11). In terms of dictionary evaluation, efficiency and effectiveness refer to how easy it is for target user groups to use the dictionary and how effective the dictionary is to reach its purposes when it is used by the target group. Appropriateness refers to whether the structures and contents in the dictionary are in line with the dictionary as a text, which includes its purposes. To determine the appropriateness of a dictionary, one has to use text analysis, while to determine its efficiency and effectiveness, one needs to apply the empirical study of actual or simulated dictionary use by actual target users. The evaluation in this thesis focuses on the appropriateness of the selected Oshiwambo dictionary, namely, *EO/EOD*.

There is good advice that has been provided to dictionary reviewers by Bergenholtz and Gouws (2016) when it comes to reviewing a dictionary. They advise the reviewers to be fair. In many cases, publishing houses always expect good comments provided by reviewers, but it is also advisable to give negative comments to help the compilers of dictionaries to improve their future dictionaries. Most importantly, any dictionary type, regardless of whether it is appropriate or not appropriate, is a tool that a user makes use of in real situations, therefore, it should, by any means, be reviewed or evaluated.

Bergenholtz and Gouws (2016) provide a concluding suggestion that to have a fair review, that particular review should be correct. It would be best if one cites and summarises correctly without omitting important information. In this way, significant conclusions will be arrived at. It is also further advised that any review does not only need to apply fairness, but it also needs to be as critical as possible, in such a way that reviewers can give their personal views.

Therefore, it has to be balanced, that is, both objective and subjective. Lastly, Bergenholtz and Gouws (2016) inform reviewers that any dictionary user is a good candidate for reading reviews; therefore, reviews should not only aim at experts but also people that have less experience.

Lew and Szarowska (2017) have also explained the criteria they adopted in evaluating the online bilingual dictionaries of popular free English-Polish dictionaries. They followed the criteria which were first proposed by Pearsons and Nichols in their publication of 2013. These are coverage and treatment, as well as access and presentation:

Coverage of entries based on Lew and Szarowska (2017) consists of neologisms, specialised information technology vocabulary, and multi-word expressions with frequent verbs. In terms of treatment, the presence of labels for usage level, regional variety (i.e. British or American) and part of speech are included. The evaluation also consists of hyperlinked cross-reference forms, equivalents, examples, synonyms and others. Pronunciation indication has also been used as a criterion on the basis of the treatment of entries. Another criterion used by Lew and Szarowska (2017) is the presentation of example sentences. Additional information on usage, synonyms, antonyms and related words and phrases have also been used as criteria for evaluation. Grammar and collocation which consist of irregular forms of verbs, non-countability, comparative and superlative forms of irregular adjectives and collocations have also been part of the criteria adopted in the evaluation conducted by Lew and Szarowska (2017).

With regards to access, the evaluation conducted by Lew and Szarowska (2017) included items such as headword (lemma) identification, accessing inflected forms, and accessing misspelt words. Accessing multi-word units, type-ahead search and entry navigation devices were also part of the criteria in terms of accessibility of the dictionaries under evaluation. In terms of presentation the criteria for evaluating consists of the following (cf. Lew and Szarowska (2017: 145):

- Presence of pictorial illustrations, which have been found helpful in dictionary consultation
- Consistent entry form
- Full names of grammatical codes and symbols given in the user's mother tongue
- Use of bold type other than in the headword or equivalent
- No intrusive advertisements, which were found to impede dictionary consultation.

The preceding paragraphs on dictionary evaluation suffice this study as major aspects have been adequately canvassed. These aspects will then be used, not only in evaluating the selected Oshikwanyama dictionary but also in discussing the model that can be used to compile the *EODSSL*.

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed pieces of literature dealing with important aspects or criteria in compiling a user-friendly bilingual learner's dictionary, as provided by prominent scholars in metalexigraphy. The first part of this chapter focused on the criteria, which consisted of many important structures that should be considered in compiling a bilingual dictionary, particularly the learners' bilingual dictionaries. Some important structures that are essential in compiling a bilingual learners' dictionary, are, therefore, the frame structure, which consists of the front matter, the central list and the back matter. The information contained in the central list of the dictionary should be presented in a simplified manner as far as possible for a successful consultation of a dictionary as far as learners are concerned. In a dictionary's microstructure, two important components should be considered, and these components are the comment on form (lemma sign, orthography, spelling, parts of speech) and the comment on semantics (translation equivalents, etymology, labels and examples). In the second section of this chapter, a dictionary's access structure has been reviewed, and this is important, as it assists the user with the information they are looking up in the dictionary. This section also provided functions of a learners' dictionary. The evaluation of dictionaries was also focused on in this chapter, as it assists the proposed dictionary compilers to bear in mind the most important aspects to consider, especially the learners' dictionaries. Therefore, this study then used the preceding information in more detail, in coming up with a model that can be adapted to compile a user-friendly bilingual English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners (*EODSSL*).

CHAPTER THREE

AN OVERVIEW OF OSHIKWANYAMA BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with a critical review of bilingual Oshikwanyama dictionaries. Three bilingual dictionaries of Oshikwanyama are *English-Kwanyama Dictionary*, by Tobias and Turvey published in 1954, *Kwanyama-English Dictionary* by Turvey and published in 1977, and *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, compiled by Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee and published in 2019. The review in this chapter is done on the latest Oshikwanyama dictionary *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary* based on the reasons given below.

The functional use of the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary (EKD)* that was published in 1954 (67 years ago), is compromised, as its orthography is no longer in use. This means that, it is archaic. The *Kwanyama-English Dictionary (KED)* is currently out of print and unavailable, and it is believed that part of its orthography might also have some obsolete letters, as the Oshikwanyama orthography went through several editions and revisions after 1977, the year the dictionary was published.

It has also come to the researcher's attention, after having carefully read through the latest dictionary, the *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, that it is divided into two parts, and those two parts are the results or products of the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary (EKD)* and the *Kwanyama-English Dictionary (KED)*. In other words, the two earlier versions, as mentioned, have been merged to form up the *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*. It has also been established that no major changes were done in the two mentioned bilingual dictionaries, except the orthography. To avoid repeating the same items under review, and for space-saving purposes, this review only focusses on the recently published, *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary* [hereafter *OEEOD*], compiled by the Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee in 2019. For this claim, other aspects are also be revealed in the review of this chapter.

The review is based on the criteria that are adopted in ensuring that a user-friendly dictionary is compiled. This dictionary is divided into two parts, the part of the *Oshikwanyama-English* and the part of the *English-Oshikwanyama*. Therefore, each part is reviewed separately. Each part is divided into two sub-sections, namely, the outer texts (front and back matters), the inner texts (macrostructure and microstructure). The criteria that are part of the review have been discussed in Chapters One and Two of this study. The dictionary's target user(s) based on the function theory for dictionary purposes, as established by the communication theory, are also part of this review.

3.2 OEEOD's front and back covers

First of all, the first impression of this dictionary is given to the users by its front and back covers. The front and back covers of the dictionary are printed in blue, which is quite an attractive colour. Its title (*Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*) already attracts the users as they are introduced to the dictionary that is bidirectional, which means that it comprises of two parts. These two parts are that of Oshikwanyama as the source language and English as the target language, and that of English as the source language and Oshikwanyama as the target language.

Furthermore, on the dictionary's front cover, two more aspects are observed. The first aspect is that of showing that the dictionary was compiled by the Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, and the second aspect is that of indicating where the dictionary was published, which is Namibia Publishing House (NPH). Indicating the publisher's name and logo on the front cover page of any book has various reasons. One important reason is that of commercial purposes. It might be that the publisher would like to be recognised and to be consulted, should anyone feel that they would like to publish books of such kind. The information provided on the front cover of this work is sufficient, because too much information on the dictionary's front cover page does not fulfil any purpose, as it does not assist the target user with the information that compels them to use such a dictionary.

Information on the back cover of this dictionary is observed. It is indicated that the dictionary is made up of more than 10 000 Oshikwanyama lemmata with their translation equivalents in English, and vice versa. It is also indicated that the dictionary consists of approximately 1 000 loan words and newly coined terminology. It is also indicated on this page that a long

experienced gap has been filled by having a comprehensive reference source for Oshikwanyama speakers and those who are interested to learn the language.

Most importantly, the dictionary's back cover indicates as follows:

For the compilation of this dictionary materials were collected from mainly two early dictionaries, titled: *Kwanyama-English Dictionary* by B.H.C. Turvey et al., of 1977, and *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* of G.W.R. Tobias et al of 1954, as well as materials from publications of Macmillan Namibia Education Publishers. These works were revised and edited by Wolfgang Zimmermann, Gabriel Taapopi and Paavo Hasheela.

Example 1: A part of the OEEOD's back cover page.

Example 1 establishes that materials for compiling the *OEEOD* were collected primarily from two versions of Oshikwanyama dictionaries, namely, the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* of 1954 and the *Kwanyama-English Dictionary* of 1977. These early Oshikwanyama bilingual dictionaries were compiled by missionaries who served at Anglican churches in Oukwanyama from the 1920s to the late 1940s (Shikesho, 2019). It is also indicated that some materials were taken from Macmillan Namibia Education Publishers. As far as the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* is concerned, based on the study that was conducted recently, Wolfgang Zimmermann, Gabriel Taapopi and Paavo Hasheela were not part of this project (cf. Tobias & Turvey, 1954). This project was mainly done by G.W.R. Tobias and B.H.C. Turvey. In compiling this 1954 first edition, they were assisted by the local indigenous people who resided near Odibo and Onamunama where the compilers of the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* were working during that time respectively (Shikesho, 2019; N. Robson, personal communication, 20 May 2018). In the dictionary's front matters, the compilers themselves did not mention any of the writers such as Wolfgang Zimmerman, Gabriel Taapopi and Paavo Hasheela. Therefore, these writers were only involved in editing the *Kwanyama-English Dictionary* of 1977.

It is also indicated on the last part of this dictionary's back cover page that the orthography used is that of the current officially approved *Oshikwanyama Orthography* of 2004. This information is important to the users who are not interested to read the outdated orthography as observed in the earlier Oshikwanyama dictionaries, i.e. the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* and the *Kwanyama-English Dictionary* respectively. Therefore, the compilers of this dictionary have done a remarkable job by mentioning the orthography used.

3.3. OEEOD's outer texts

The outer texts of any dictionary consist of different texts, such as front matter texts and back matter texts (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005; Svensén, 2009; Wang, 2012). The front matter text of the *OE* part consists of different sections, and they are *foreword*, *pronunciation*, *notes*, and *abbreviations used in the dictionary*. It is also noticeable that this part of the dictionary does not have any back matter texts. The reason for the absence of the back matter text of this part of the dictionary could be that the dictionary continues with the second part, which is the *EO* part, which might have the back matter texts. The following is an analysis of the *OE*'s outer texts.

3.3.1 OE front matter texts

The front matter text of the *OE* part consists of different sections as presented in the preceding table. These sections are foreword, pronunciation, notes, and abbreviations used in the dictionary. On the second page of this dictionary, following the first page which is a repetition of the title page (front cover page), the information written first on this page has repeated the statement found in the back cover of the dictionary, as seen in Example 1. This information deals with how the materials were collected and compiled for this dictionary.

Then, follows a phrase “Oshikwanyama Dictionary”, which precedes the publisher’s logo. The phrase “Oshikwanyama Dictionary” is quite debatable here. One could say that the dictionary is not only meant for the Oshikwanyama speakers but also anyone learning the language. The part of English is excluded in the phrase, although when one takes a glance or a cursory look in the central list of the dictionary, they would find both languages, Oshikwanyama and English. So, the correct phrase to use should have been written as “Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary”, as written on the cover and the first pages of the dictionary. However, one could also argue that the dictionary was made for the development of the Oshikwanyama language, and it is precisely the reason why the English language was not mentioned here. Anyone who reasons that way would also not be ignored.

It is also indicated on this second page of the dictionary that the dictionary was compiled by the “Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee” in 2019. The name “Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee” is very broad. The members who served on that committee during the time of the project would have been very happy if their names were listed on this page. It is assumed that

they would have been proud of themselves for the work they have done. The Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, as far as it is known, was not composed of more than 20 members whose names, if they were listed, could not exhaust the space of either the front or the following page. Therefore, for future revisions of this dictionary. It is therefore suggested for the people who were involved in the project to be listed on this page if they cannot be accommodated on the front page of the dictionary.

3.3.1.1 Foreword

This section is found on the third page of the dictionary, which does not have any page reference number. This section is very short and it is presented by the editor, who edited the dictionary in 2005, fourteen years before the dictionary was published in 2019. Questions may arise as to how come the dictionary was compiled in 2019 but it was already edited in 2005. As far as it is known, the editing of any written work is done after all the work has been completed, but here it is quite the opposite. No one can be blamed, because most of the materials were taken from the earlier Oshikwanyama bilingual dictionaries, namely the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* of 1954 and the *Kwanyama-English Dictionary* of 1977. It could be inferred that this project might have started a long time ago, and the project was going into finality already in 2005 when the people involved in the project felt that what was done was not enough, therefore, there was a need for additional items. That could be the reason why the project ended in 2019, while a part of it was already edited in 2005, 14 years before the project's publication.

Additionally, it is indicated that the orthography used in the dictionary is the officially approved *Oshikwanyama Orthography 3* of the Ministry of Education. It is also established that the present-day accepted linguistic terminology is used in this dictionary. One of the prevailing reasons is to contribute “enormous better understanding of the language rules by teachers and users of the language.”

It is also in this section where the users of this dictionary are identified. It can be read that the users of the dictionary are teachers who need an understanding of how the language behaves. The term “teachers” in this study is also very broad. Teachers are found in every domain. There are pre-primary teachers, adult education teachers, driving teachers, religious teachers, high school teachers, primary school teachers, etc. It is also mentioned that “users of the language” are also the target language. The target user should have been specifically identified. The users

“teachers and users of the language” is a broad statement, therefore, it could be inferred that this dictionary has been published for general use, as no specific target user has been defined.

It is also significant to establish the purposes of this dictionary as seen in this section of the dictionary. First of all, the editor expressed that “...contributing a better understanding of the language rules by teachers and users of the language.” This simply means that the dictionary contains information on how the Oshikwanyama language behaves, in terms of grammar, syntax and many others. Here the user expects the dictionary to provide information on the parts of speech of the language, tenses, subject-verb-agreement, passive and active voices, direct and reported speech, punctuation, among others. This purpose has been defined well by the editor of this dictionary.

Another dictionary purpose found in this section is that of filling the gap of the long-felt need to have a dictionary of Oshikwanyama in Bantu Lexicography. This is true, as this dictionary has been added to the list of dictionaries that are in African languages.

3.3.1.2 Pronunciation

This section explains to the users the different kinds of vowels that prevail in Oshikwanyama. In the introductory sentence, the compilers of the dictionary have indicated that two kinds of vowels can be distinguished in Oshikwanyama. However, in their discussion, three types of vowels are discussed, namely, short vowels represented by one symbol, long vowels represented by double symbols and semi-vowels.

Furthermore, consonants are explained to the user as to how they are pronounced. Not all the letters of the Oshikwanyama alphabet are presented here. Only the consonants that might be pronounced wrongly by the user are presented. These consonants are such as [p], [t], [k] [v], [w], [x], [y]. In addition, the user is introduced to Oshikwanyama digraphs and trigraphs on how they are pronounced. Aspirated nasals are also provided in this part of the section. Phonetic changes, enclitics and orthography are also parts of the section of pronunciation.

Pronunciation is very important and it needs to be explained to the users, for example, how Oshikwanyama letters and lexical items are pronounced correctly. If this guidance is not provided, then the target user would have been confused on how he or she would come across a certain term or lexical item or letter in the text, and there is no proof of how they should be pronounced.

3.3.1.3 Notes

In this part of the dictionary's front matter text, the user is introduced to the manner the Oshikwanyama lexical items are lemmatised in the central list of the dictionary. The user is provided with an explanation on how some verbs are lemmatised in their singular imperative form ending in –a. It is also explained that to form the infinitive, the prefix (*oku-*) should be added to this form. Therefore, the imperative, for example, *denga* (strike) becomes *okudenga* (to strike). It is also indicated to the user how the final vowel is used to form the present indicative tense. It is presented in brackets after the entry of the verb. That is why the imperative, e.g. “*tala (e)*” denotes the infinitive *okutala* (to see); present indicative (*ohai tale*).

Furthermore, the user is also provided with an explanation on how adjectives and nouns are lemmatised. Nouns that belong to class 1a with their plurals in class 2a (*oo-*) are lemmatised under their initial consonant, since in these cases the *o-* prefix, though sometimes used in the singular form of the word, is only copulative in nature.

What should also have been considered on this part of the dictionary's front matter is the explanation on how the parts of speech markers in the central list of the *OE* part are presented. If they had not been presented in Oshikwanyama, then the user-friendliness of this dictionary would have been compromised, as the user expects the comment on the form of the *OE* part to be presented in Oshikwanyama, including the structural markers, such as those of the parts of speech.

3.3.1.4 Abbreviations used in the dictionary

In this section, numerous abbreviations are used in the dictionary, and the user is introduced to them. This simply means that the user needs to study these abbreviations before he/she uses the dictionary, otherwise, he/she will not be able to understand what they stand for as used in the central list of the dictionary. Abbreviations are listed and explained in alphabetical order.

The *OE* part has many front-matter texts which might not be useful. These texts should have been presented under one heading, such as the user's guide as what is presented is to guide the user in using the dictionary. So, this part of the dictionary should comprise only of the user's guide instead of having many headings such as pronunciation, notes, and abbreviations, among others.

3.3.2 *OE*'s back matter texts

Since this dictionary has two parts, the Oshikwanyama-English part and the English-Oshikwanyama part, it is evident that no back matter text on the Oshikwanyama-English part has been presented. Therefore, this part of the dictionary is regarded as a partially extended text as it only consists of the front matter and the central list as explained by Gouws (2004a).

3.3.3 *EO*'s front matter texts

The *EO* part, as far as the front matter text is concerned, is divided into three sections. These sections are Preface, Note on the orthography, and Abbreviations used in the dictionary. These sections are dealt with separately below.

3.3.3.1 Preface

Based on the literature, a dictionary preface is usually made up of information such as the history of the dictionary project, the purposes and function of the dictionary, the target users, acknowledgements and sponsorship, among other aspects (Newell, 1994). Firstly, in the preface of this part of the dictionary, a brief history of the development of Oshikwanyama lexicography has been explained. In addition, in this part of the dictionary, compilers have provided their acknowledgements to everyone and organisations that gave them their helpful hands in ensuring that their work has been completed.

Another significant point to note on this part of the dictionary is that compilers have not established the dictionary purposes as well as the target users. The purposes and the target users of a dictionary are the most important elements that should be considered by any lexicographer in terms of the compilation of their dictionaries. These aspects have been discussed by Tarp (2013), as presented in Chapter 2.

Another shortcoming is observed in the preface of this part of the dictionary. The second paragraph of the dictionary states that: "The orthography used is that of Tonjes' work and the various mission publications" (Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, 2019: 283). What is not clear about this statement is that the orthography used in this dictionary is no longer that of Herman Tonjes and the other early missionaries who came to Oukwanyama, but it is that of the Ministry of Education, published in 2004 (Oshikwanyama Orthography 3). Otherwise, the 2019 compilers of this dictionary cannot claim that the dictionary is new if all information presented, especially on this page (283), dates back to 1954. It seems like the compilers of this

dictionary (for 2019) did not conduct a thorough revision of the earlier version of the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* of Tobias and Turvey (1954). It concludes that this page was just duplicated from the original version of the *Kwanyama-English Dictionary* of 1954. Due to these texts that are appearing in the earlier Oshikwanyama dictionaries, one might have a question, “Was this dictionary really compiled by the Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, or has the committee just improved on the orthography?”

3.3.3.2 Note on the orthography

This text consists of explanations on how some Oshikwanyama sounds are pronounced. It also gives information on the presentation of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and other parts of speech. The information presented on “Note on the orthography” is completely similar to that which should be presented in the dictionary’s compulsory text, the user’s guidelines (cf. Gouws, 2004; Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). Therefore, this section should have been titled “User’s guidelines” instead of “note on the orthography”.

Orthography is defined by Namaseb (2013) as a standardised writing system for a language that includes the rules of spelling. Therefore, the orthography of a language concerns a practical way of spelling. It is concluded that the outer text, “Note on the orthography”, is incorrectly titled because this part does not deal with spelling. It deals with several aspects such as phonology, pronunciation, and parts of speech, which should not have been included in the section under “Note on the orthography”.

In addition, other aspects in this same section are observed. The user is given an explanation as to how Oshikwanyama vowels and consonants are presented in the central list. Compare the following quote taken from page 284 of the *OEEOD*.

THE KWANYAMA language was first reduced to writing by German missionaries and we have in this dictionary followed their use of letter signs to convey Kwanyama sounds, as these are most familiar to the people of the country. Thus we do not use the letters w or y at all. The English w sound is expressed before a vowel by u, which becomes a semi-vowel, and with the following vowel is pronounced as one syllable; e.g. ua is pronounced wa. Similarly i before a vowel becomes a semi-vowel, with the sound of a soft consonantal y. The letter j is a semi-vowel and is pronounced like English y, when this is a consonant. Thus Kwanyama is rendered Kwanjama.

Example 2: A part of EO’s Note on orthography.

The quote in Example 2 might be misleading the user for this “latest dictionary”. In the first place, the statement “Thus we do not use the letters *w* or *y* at all” is quite the opposite of what is presented in the central list. This statement was only relevant in 1954 when the Oshikwanyama orthography during that time did not accept the use of semivowels [w] and [y]. In this current official orthography, the use of semi-vowels, [w] and [y] is accepted. It has been observed that this dictionary was compiled a couple of years ago when the Oshikwanyama orthography ultimately never accepted the semi-vowel letters [w] and [y]. In the current orthography, these letters are fully accepted.

In their dictionary, Tobias and Turvey (1954) used the letters [j] and [ua]. The vowel letters *ua* are used instead of *wa*. Instead of using [y], they used [j] as in *yetu = jetu*, *Kwanyama = Kwanjama*. Quite the opposite, the semi-vowel letters *w* and *y* are used in Oshikwanyama currently, unlike during the time of the compilation of this part of the dictionary. Therefore, the independent grapheme [j] has become partially obsolete. The compilers of this dictionary (OEEOD) have not revised the front matter texts of the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary*. Instead, they just copied and removed some information. It is suggested for future dictionary compilers to have a team of proof-readers for ensuring that the information presented in the dictionary is not outdated or invalid.

There are numerous issues that need serious attention when it comes to this section of the dictionary. The last statement of Example 2, “Thus Kwanyama is rendered Kwanjama” is misguiding the users, especially those learning to spell words correctly, because, as far as the current official orthography of Oshikwanyama is concerned, the accepted name for the language spoken by Ovakwanyama is spelt as Oshikwanyama, but no longer Kwanjama as indicated on this section. It can be concluded that a serious improvement of this dictionary needs to be taken into consideration, as the information presented on the dictionary front matter texts are regarded as outdated and might misguide the target users of this “new dictionary”.

Moreover, a couple of word classes are introduced to the target user in this front-matter section of *EO*. Three grammatical forms that the user should observe have been explained in this dictionary. The other word classes have been overlooked, for example, pronouns and verb modifiers, which are additionally remarkable when one uses a language. This part just handles how lexical items change their structures, for instance from action words (verbs) to nouns or from nouns to action words; however, it disregards how lexical items can be utilised as different

grammatical features, for instance how they change their structures from descriptive words to verb modifiers.

Descriptive words or adjectives are demonstrated and the target user is well-informed on how they are shaped by prefixing a suitable particle that is a prefix dictated by, and in agreement with the noun qualified. Nouns are additionally demonstrated and how they ought to be utilised in a sentence, particularly when they are the subject of the sentence. The way they are framed, particularly when abstract nouns are formed is additionally disclosed to the target user. Different grammatical features, for example, verb modifiers, relational words, conjunctions, prepositions and pronouns are not presented to the user, yet they are huge and ought to have been remembered for this segment all together for the target user to procure an excellent comprehension about them rather than simply experiencing them in the central list of the dictionary.

3.3.3.3 Abbreviations used

Conventional abbreviations are also important to be explained to the target users of any dictionary as explained in Chapter Two of this study. Abbreviations such as *adj.* usually stand for 'adjective', *n.* stands for 'noun' and *adv.* stands for 'adverb'. Verbs are also marked *v.i.* if they are intransitive, and if they are transitive they are marked as *v.t.*

In this section, there are numerous abbreviations that are used in the dictionary, and the user is introduced to them. This simply means that the user needs to study these abbreviations before he or she starts utilising the dictionary, otherwise, he or she will not be able to understand or infer what they stand for as used in the central list of the dictionary. Abbreviations are presented and explained in alphabetical order. Some abbreviations used are presented as follows:

&c./etc.	et cetera	derog.	derogative/ly
abs.	absolute	dimin.	diminutive
acc.	according/accusative		
act.	active	emph.	emphatic
adj./adjj.	adjectives/adjectival	enclit.	enclitic
adv.	adverb/adverbial	Engl.	English
advv.	adverbs	e.o.	each other
Afrik.	Afrikaans	e.g.	for example
alphab.	alphabet/alphabetical	equiv.	equivalent
altern.	alternative/ly	esp.	especially
applic.	applicative	Eur.	European
appropri.	appropriate/ly	expr.	expressed/expressing
arch.	archaic		

Example 3: A part of EO's abbreviations section.

Example 3 presents some abbreviations as presented in *EO* with their full forms. With these abbreviations presented on the front matter text, the target users will be able to study and know them, before he or she encounters them in the central list, a case that will assist the target user in utilising the dictionary successfully. The target user can note all the shortened forms of the full words, such as *&/etc.*, *abc*, *acc*, ...*Eur.*, and *expr.*, as provided in Example 3.

3.3.4 *EO*'s back matter texts

Although there is no information presented on the back matter section of the *OE* part, it is quite the opposite on the *EO* part. In this part of the dictionary, a list of English lexical items with their translation equivalents in Oshikwanyama is provided. Here, the user is provided with this list to assist him or her in understanding their translations as well as their meanings in Oshikwanyama. This way, the user will have a clear understanding of which lexical item to use in their everyday situation, such as in translations, in debates, etc. Most importantly, some lexical items have been presented already in the central list. This will make the user understand the words (lexical items) and their meanings better, in case they did not get sufficient information of the words (lexical items) in the central list of the dictionary. Therefore, the compilers of this dictionary are acknowledged for their great effort in presenting this list.

A much-observed shortcoming that prevails in the front matter texts of both the *OE* and *OE* parts of this dictionary is that no sufficient grammatical information about English, apart from abbreviations, is explained to the users that are learning English. Everything explained in the

front matters is just targeted at the users who are learning Oshikwanyama. When compiling a bilingual dictionary of such kind, it is crucial that both languages are treated equally and explanations provided as to how they are used in the dictionary, for example, parts of speech, labels, examples, and many others. The following section presents the analysis of the *OEEOD*'s aspects of the central list.

3.4 Comment on the *OE*'s central list

A dictionary's central list has already been dealt with in Chapter Two of the literature review. Therefore, in this sub-section, a description and evaluation of the *OEEOD*'s central list elements are provided.

It has been established that there are various ways of analysing an article in a dictionary. One way to analyse a dictionary article is to divide it into two different comments, namely, the comment on form and the comment on semantics (cf. Chapter Two). The orthographic representation (consisting of spelling variants) conveys morphological and grammatical information and the information on pronunciation are some of the items that are contained in the comment on form. The entries that reflect the different aspects of the meaning of the lemma and the pragmatic values of the lemma are all part of the comments on semantics (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005; Gouws, 2001). Therefore, the discussion is divided into these two comments: The part of the Oshikwanyama-English and the part of English-Oshikwanyama. The analysis are done on both two comments of the dictionary article, as explained in the preceding paragraph. Each dictionary part is discussed separately.

3.4.1 The comment on form

Two languages are treated in the *OE*'s central list. The first language is Oshikwanyama and it is functioning as the source language, and the second language is English, functioning as the source language.

As explained in Chapter Two, *the OE*'s central list consists of 281 pages. Ten pages have been sampled. The first sampled page of the *OE*'s central list, which is page 3, has been selected randomly. All the 28thth pages were then sampled. So, the sampled pages that are a representation of the *OE*'s central list are 3, 31, 59, 87, 115, 143, 171, 199, 227, and 255. Not

all articles in the sampled pages have been analysed. Only selected articles on each page have been purposely studied in depth.

The comment on form, as one of the parts of the dictionary articles, is made up of both the macrostructural and micro-structural aspects of the Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary. They are explained briefly below.

3.4.1.1 Macrostructural aspects of OEEOD

Macrostructural aspects that will be dealt with in this review are lemma selection, ordering of lemmata, and lemmatisation strategies. These aspects are analysed below.

(i) Ordering of lemmata

Description

There are various ways of arranging lemma signs. They can be arranged thematically, alphabetically, etc. It is observable that in this part of the dictionary, the lemmata are arranged alphabetically. This case of arranging lemmata alphabetically (i.e. A-Z), has been adopted by many English dictionaries in the entire world (cf. Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). A good example has been taken from Page 3 of the *OE*.

amuka(a), invers. v.i. turn from, be estranged, alienated, repelled.
amafana(a), recip. v.i. turn to each other, get together, be in league, team up. Adjoin, *omamumbo okwa amafana popepi* the houses adjoin e.o. See also -*amena*.
amba(e), v.t. & i. backbite, slander, vilify, calumniate.
ambukifa(a), caus. v.t. stun, stupefy.
ame, 1st pers. sing. pron., I. *ame onde mu denga* I hit him; *ame omukongo* I am a hunter; *ame mwene* I myself; *ame andike* I alone. Me, as in *naame* with me, *kuame* to me. Copulative form, *aame*, it is I. Poss. stem -*nge* my, mine; *edina lange* my name; *okambwena okange* the pup is mine; *oshilonga shange mwene* my own work; *ment lange* within me. See also *nge*, me.
amena(e), v.t. applic. from -*ama*: protect, guard, defend, shield.
amuke, form of -*ke*, alone, only, with *nye*, you, pl.; *nye amuke* you only.
amushe, form of -*she*, all, with *nye*, you, pl.; *nye amushe* all of you.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 3)

Example 4: *OE*'s generally alphabetical ordering of lemmata

Analysis

In Example 4, it is observed that lemmata in *OE* are arranged alphabetically. Since this dictionary was compiled for general use, the compilers intentionally compiled it in a simple structure, so that every type of user will have easy access to the lemmata they are looking up in the dictionary. In many cases, many learners in schools have been taught letters of the English alphabet (A-Z). Therefore, it would be easier for them to find the lexical items that are functioning as lemmata. It is easier for the users to find the lemmata, because, as in Example 4, the articles have been ordered starting with the lemma signs that have started with the first letter of the alphabet and ending with the lemma sign that starts with the next letter of the alphabet. However, there is inconsistency in arranging the lemma signs (lemmata). In Example 4, it could be seen that the lemmata are arranged alphabetically in this dictionary, the lemma *amuka(a)* came before *amafana(a)*, *amba(e)*, *ambukifa(e)*, *ame*, *amena(e)*, *amuke* and *amushe*. This lemma should have come between *amena(e)* and *amuke*. If the user already has an idea that this dictionary's lemmata are arranged alphabetically, then it would be difficult for them to locate the lemma *amuka(e)*, simply because it is not positioned at its right position. Therefore, the user might end up making wrong conclusions that the lexical item *amuka(e)* that they are looking up in the dictionary is not presented, although it is simply because it is at the wrong place. That way the dictionary has not reached its primary purpose as it has been established in the dictionary's foreword.

(ii) *Division of main and sub-lemmata in OE*

Description

In identifying the main lemmata in any dictionary, apart from the fact that they introduce dictionary articles, special arrangements have been suggested by the literature. They are usually bolded for easy identification. In many dictionaries, compilers do not give a full treatment of sub-lemmata. Compare the following example taken from page 227 of the *OE* to see how both the main and sub-lemmata have been treated.

peta(a), v.t. curve, bend; *ongobe ei oi na*
eembinga da peta nawa this beast has
finely curved horns; *-peta omutwe* bow
or incline the head; *omunhu iha petwa*

this person in unbending, does not yield,
 is inflexible, intransigent; *petama(a)*,
 stative v.i. stoop, bow, bend down; *-enda*
a petama walk with a stoop; *omuti*
wa petama crooked tree; decline, see
komapeto. **petameka(e)**, caus. v.t & i. tip;
petamena(a), v.i. bow very low, stoop
 over, e.g., posture when touching one's
 toes. **petuka(a)**, invers. v.i. stand erect,
 straighten o.s., be upright. (*OE/EOD*, 2019: 227)

Example 5: The treatment of main and sub-lemmata in

Analysis

Based on Example 5, the main lemma **peta(a)** has been printed in bold. This is not only done in the sample, but also throughout the dictionary. It can also be seen that each lemma has been allocated together with its part of speech to where it belongs. The spelling of the main lemma, not only in the sample but also throughout the dictionary has been carried out successfully, although one might find some typing errors here and there. One of the main reasons why spelling should be considered is for the target users of the dictionary, not only the non-native speakers of Oshikwanyama but also the native speakers of Oshikwanyama to learn how to spell lexical items correctly. Lemma signs are consistently presented in bold print and they are spelt correctly. This is one of the functions of lexicographical communication theory (micro-contextual purposes) which deals with the spelling of the lemmata. Therefore, *OE* serves as an answer to the target users who are in need of assistance on how Oshikwanyama lexical items are spelt. In addition, every main lemmata's translation equivalents in English have been provided. Translation equivalents are dealt with in the comment on semantics' sub-section.

However, when it comes to the treatment of the sub-lemmata, inconsistency has been observed. It can be vividly observed in Example 8 that the sub-lemmata are treated differently. The sub-lemma *petama(a)* has been italicised, while the sub-lemmata such as *petameka(a)*, *petamena(e)*, and *petuka(a)* have been printed in bold and they are not italicised. These kinds of arrangements, as far as sub-lemmata are concerned, might confuse the target user of such a dictionary, especially the non-native speakers of Oshikwanyama that are learning Oshikwanyama. A user who believes that all lemmata and sub-lemmata of this dictionary are printed in bold will not only be confused, but they might also end up concluding that the sub-

lemma he or she is looking up in the dictionary, for example, the sub-lemma *petama*, is not presented in the dictionary, although it is present but treated differently.

(iii) *Lemma selection*

Description

In terms of lemma selection, it seems like the compilers of this first part of the dictionary have not considered any lemma selection strategy.

Analysis

Since this dictionary is a general bilingual dictionary, it seems like the lexical items or lemmata that have just been entered in the dictionary are part of the Oshikwanyama lexicon. The purpose for this might be that of documenting all the existing Oshikwanyama lexical items for future use as Maria Hanghuwo (Personal communication, 10 June 2020) explains.

(iv) *Lemmatisation strategies*

Lemmatisation strategies that have been dealt with in this study are those of the nouns, verbs, adjectives and other parts of speech. They have been analysed as follows.

(a) *Lemmatisation of nouns*

Description

There are different lemmatisation strategies that are adopted in African languages dictionaries, as explained in Chapter Two of this study. It seems like the compilers of this dictionary lemmatised all nouns, using both singular and plural forms. A good example is taken from page 31 of the *OEEOD*.

elienepeko, n. self-aggrandisement;
conceit, vanity, pride, arrogance.
elingwadjulo, n. impact, concussion.
eliningifo, n. pose, posturing, pretence.
elininipiko, n. self-abasement; humility.
elinyengo, n. motion, trend, movement.
elinyongameno, n. obeisance, veneration,
worship; pl. *omalinyongameno*, church
services.
elipananeko, n. self-importance.
elipando, n. complacency.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 31)

Example 6: Lemmatisation of nouns in OE

Analysis

In Example 5, it can be clearly observed that the lemmatisation of nouns is done on both singular and plural forms of nouns. This means that all nouns are entered, either as singular or as plural. The lemmata that have been presented in Example 5, *elineekelo*, *elingwadjaulo*, *eliningifo*, *elininipiko*, *elinyengo*, *elinyomngameno*, *elipananeko*, and *elipando* are all lemmatised on their singular forms. The sub-lemma *omalinyongameno* (church services) is in its plural form.

(b) Lemmatisation of verbs

Description

Verbs can either be lemmatised using either their stems or their full forms (cf. Chapter Two). In this part of the dictionary, verbs are lemmatised as presented in Example 7 of page 59 as follows:

handjumuka(a), v.i. revive;

handjumukifa(a), caus. v.t. revive s.o.

handuka(a), denom. v.i. be cross, angry; (of sickness) be grave, *oudu otau handuka unene* the sickness is very (lit. angry) grave.

handukifa(a), caus. v.t. or *handuka(a)*, denom. v.t. provoke to anger, annoy, irritate, vex; pass. *-handukifiwa* be angry, enraged, infuriated. (*ehandu*, anger).

handukila(e), applic. v.t. be angry with s.o. or about sthg

¹**hanga**, adv. almost, nearly; about, approximately (arch. & lit. well nigh). (OE/EOD, 2019: 59)

Example 7: Lemmatisation of verbs in OE

Analysis

It can be seen that the verbs in this dictionary are lemmatised using their stems. This means that verb stems have been lemmatised throughout the sample. The verbs, *handjumuka(a)*, *handjumukifa(a)*, *handukifa(a)*, and *handukila(a)* as presented in Example 6, have all been lemmatised on their stems.

(c) *Lemmatisation of adjectives*

Description

Adjectives have also been lemmatised in this part of the dictionary. The way they are lemmatised is presented in the following example, taken from page 81 of *OE*.

-kulu (-nghulu)...

Example 8: Lemmatisation of adjectives in OE

Analysis

Although adjectives are rarely presented as lemmata in this part of the dictionary, it can be clearly seen that they are presented based on their stems. This means that they are not lemmatised as other parts of speech such as nouns. If one pays a closer look at Example 7, he or she can see that the prefix of the stem **-kulu** is missing. This simply means that the prefix can change any time, depending on the noun class to which the adjective is modifying. For example, one can use the adjective stem *-kulu* to form adjectives as follows:

Oshinima shikulu = an old thing

Ongobe ikulu = an old cow

Eembulukweva dikulu = a pair of old trousers

The adjective stem does not change at all. It is only that prefixes can change at any time. Lemmatising this way saves space for other lemmata in the dictionary. It is only problematic if the user does not know how to attach a prefix to the adjective stems depending on the noun class. But, if the users know how to attach a prefix to that adjectival root, then this type of lemmatisation does not pose problems to the users.

The other parts of speech such as adverbs, etc., have been lemmatised in the same way nouns are lemmatised in this part of the dictionary. Therefore, it can be deduced that lemmatisation strategies that have been adopted in this part of the dictionary are the singular and plural forms of words (nouns, adverbs, pronouns, interjections, and conjunctions) as well as the adjective stems for adjectives and verb stems for verbs.

The information on the macrostructural aspects that have been presented in the preceding section, as far as the *OE* part is concerned, is sufficient for this study. The following analysis deals with the microstructural aspects of the *OE* part.

3.4.1.2 Microstructural aspects of OE

As already established in Chapter One, the microstructure is the arrangement structure to which entries within dictionary articles are ordered. Hereunder is a discussion of some entries that constitute the microstructure of any dictionary.

(i) *Presentation of parts of speech*

Description

Providing information about a particular lemma's grammatical features and properties, proving the users' knowledge of regularities in the grammar of the language concerned is one of the most fundamental reasons for the indication of parts of speech (cf. Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005; Svensén, 2009).

In terms of the presentation of the part of speech marking in this dictionary, it is evident that the compilers of this dictionary have done a remarkable job by making sure that each lemma has been assigned to the parts of speech it belongs. This is to say that the part of speech marker has followed the lemma sign in each dictionary article. These parts of speech markers are abbreviations such as *n* for nouns, *v.i.* for verb intransitive, *v.t.* for verb transitive, *adj.* for adjective, and many others. The following example is taken from page 115 of the sample.

naanana , adv. daily; <i>oilonga yonaanana</i> or <i>oilonga yanaanana</i> daily work.	long, long ago; once.
¹ naangida(a) , v.t. feel, finger, palpate; fig. question closely, interrogate.	nalufungu , see <i>dingoli</i> .
² naangida(a) , v.i. be contentious, censorious, carping.	¹ naluhoni , n. edible bulb, one of the group <i>Brachystelma</i> .
naela(e) , v.t. constrict, e.g., with a waistbelt.	² naluhoni , n. plain-backed pipit, <i>Martius Leucophrys</i> .
nai , adv. badly, wrong(ly), ill. <i>owa ninga nai</i> you have done wrong; <i>ove mu ningila nai</i> they ill-treated him, wronged him; (from adj. <i>-i-</i> , bad).	nalungwe , n. field-mouse.
naaini? interrog. adv. when? <i>fiyo onaini?</i> Until when? for how long?	nalunyike , n. large striped grasshopper capable of mitting evil smell (<i>-nyika</i>).
	nama(e) , v.i. (of persons), move slowly, through sickness, hunger, old age, reluctance.

(OE/EOD, 2019: 115)

Example 7: The treatment of part of speech markers in the OE

Analysis

Example 7 shows how the parts of speech markers are presented in the *OE*. All the parts of speech to which the concerned lemmata belong to are abbreviated with their first letters of the particular parts of speech. These abbreviations are, such as *n* for nouns, *v* for verbs, *adv.* for adverbs, and many others. It is indicated that the lemmas such as *naluhoni*, *nalungwe* and *nalunyike* are all nouns. It is shown that they belong to the category of nouns. So for article condensation purposes, these parts of speech markers are shortened. Therefore, these lexical items are all nouns. The other lemmata in Example 7 are also given their parts of speech to which they belong, such as *v.i* (verb intransitive), *v.t.* (verb transitive), and many others. Most importantly, the parts of speech markers that use English abbreviations, always follow the comma, before the English translation equivalents. As explained preliminarily in Section 3.3 of this Chapter, it is evident that the parts of speech markers are presented in English. Since the source language is Oshikwanyama, then its selected abbreviations in Oshikwanyama that would be used to represent different parts of speech a particular lemma belongs to should have been established. Instead of presenting the parts of speech abbreviations in English, it is suggested for the parts of speech abbreviations for Oshikwanyama lemmata to be presented as follows. The suggested abbreviations are bolded.

nouns	= oityadina	= din.
verbs	=oityalonga	= long.
adverbs	=oityahololi	= hol.
pronouns	= oityaponhele	= nhele.
demonstratives	= oityaponheleuliko	= uliko.

(ii) Pronunciation

Description

Pronunciation is one of the aspects that is frequently used in many dictionaries. Pronunciation is in many cases presented in brackets [] or slashes //. It is also important to emphasise that pronunciation always follows after the part of speech markers (Cf. Chapter Two).

Analysis

One of the functions of pronunciation is to show the user how a certain lexical item in a given dictionary is pronounced. For *OE*, it is evident that pronunciation markers are not presented at all. Therefore, without pronunciation, the target users, especially the non-speakers of Oshikwanyama that are learning Oshikwanyama, might find it very difficult to pronounce the

lexical items. These non-native speakers of Oshikwanyama (the English speakers) have a need to know how a lexical item is pronounced for the purpose of acquiring experience of pronunciation in a foreign language.

(iii) Lemma inflection

Description

Just like pronunciation as discussed in the preceding paragraphs, it is also important to stress that throughout the sample, the inflection of lemmata has never been established. If a certain lemma, for example, is a noun, and in its singular form, it should then have been indicated as to how it changes into its plural form. Furthermore, if a lemma is a verb, then it should have been indicated what its tense (present, past/future) forms would be. Furthermore, if it is an adjective, its degrees of comparison should have been indicated, especially if one of the target users of such a dictionary is a learner. Learners have to study the degrees of comparisons as far as adjectives are concerned, for them not only to know how to compare things but also to be good speakers who know how the rule of the language works. Since the comment on form is part of Oshikwanyama as the source language, this aspect of lemma inflection should have been presented in Oshikwanyama.

Analysis

By indicating lemma inflection, the target users who are the mother-tongue speakers of English will be assisted in learning Oshikwanyama and to acquire vocabulary, which would also assist them in text production.

(iv) Types of articles (single and complex) in the OE

Description

The following example is taken from *OE* to indicate whether both single and complex articles prevail in this part of the dictionary. Pages 171 and 199 of *OE* serve as a good example.

omutete, n. row, file; *-ninga omutete* form row abreast, side by side; *-paka momutete* arrange or set in a row; (of recruits, &c.) form ranks.

omutetekeli, n. forerunner, pioneer, precursor, leader, (*-tetekela*).

omuteyaula, n. 1. sound of snapping or crackling; crepitation, (*-teya*). 2. weariness, fatigue; lameness, (*-teyaukila*).

omuteyi, n. one who imposes a curse. See *-teyela*.

oshimbebe, n. frail or ailing person; weakling.

oshimbi n. razor.

oshimbobo, n. gruel, porridge, soft pap for infants.

oshimbodi, n. gen. term for herb, plant, weed; pl. *oimbodi* witch-doctor's herbs, also fallen leaves, twigs, rubbish.

oshimbodo, n. person of untidy habits.

oshimbu, see *omumbu*.

oshimbudu, n. blue-grey colouring-matter; n. used as attrib. to qualify names, e.g., of animals, as *onghambe oshimbudu* grey

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 171)

Example 8: Single and complex articles in the OE

Analysis

After having analysed all articles that are in the sample, including the ones on pages 171 and 199 respectively, as presented in Example 8, it is then deduced that only single articles in the whole part of the dictionary exist. This means that only the articles that are displaying the standard microstructural data categories do occur. Therefore, there are no extra notes or inserted inner texts at the end of each or any of the articles or at the bottom of the page that show aspects such as culture-bound items, and many others as discussed in Chapter Two.

Due to the reasons that complex articles in the *OE* dictionary do not exist, it is suggested to the compilers to consider including them in future dictionaries, particularly in the learners' dictionaries, for the purpose of displaying information such as cultural or more extensive or informative grammatical notes. By doing so, the target users, particularly the non-native speakers of Oshikwanyama would learn Oshikwanyama extensive or informative grammatical as well as cultural information with the aim of enriching their cultural knowledge of the foreign language. What is important to put into consideration here is that future dictionary compilers need to be equipped with knowledge on single and complex articles and how they should be presented in their lexicographical works.

3.4.1 The comment on semantics

The comment on semantics consists of translation equivalents, grammatical notes, usage notes, context indicators, examples, arrangement of senses, etymology, cross-references and labels.

3.4.1.1 Translation equivalents

Description

In this part of the dictionary, it has already been established that the lemmata are presented in the source language, which is Oshikwanyama, and the translation equivalents are presented in English, as the target language. The following examples, taken from pages 227 and 255 of the *OE*, show how translation equivalents have been treated in the *OE* part of this dictionary.

petula(a), v.t. straighten sthg, *ombwa oya*
petula omatwi the dog pricked up its ears.

Example 9A: Correct translation equivalents (*OE/EOD*, 2019: 227)

oshimbebe, n. frail or ailing person;
weakling.
oshimbi n. razor.

Example 9B: Correct translation equivalents (*OE/EOD*, 2019: 255)

Analysis

In example 9A, the English translation equivalents for the lemma **petula(a)** is *straighten sthg* (something). This lemma is also given a context example for assisting the target users in using the lexical item *petula* correctly. The Oshikwanyama example is *ombwa oya petula omatwi*, and its English translation equivalents are *the dog pricked up its ears*. These translation equivalents are presented very well by the compilers of this dictionary, and the target user who aims to use this dictionary for text production purposes will be able to use such a lemma correctly, as they are provided with the correct translations of the lexical item.

Example 9B has also been presented with the correct translation equivalents of the lemma **oshimbebe**. These translation equivalents are *frail or ailing person* and *weakling*. The other lemma in the same example, which is **oshimbi**, is also given its correct translation equivalent

which is *razor*. Therefore, the compilers are commended for this great job of providing correct equivalent translations in their dictionary.

The question then arises: *Have all the lemmata in the dictionary been provided with the correct translation equivalents?* This question is answered by the following example taken from page 199 of the sample.

oshimbobo, n. gruel, porridge, soft pap for infants. (OE/EOD, 2019: 199)

Example 10: The incorrect translation equivalents in OE

In this article, the lemma **oshimbobo** has been provided with three English translation equivalents namely, *gruel*, *porridge* and *soft pap for infants*. Although the first two translation equivalents, *gruel* and *porridge* are correct, the last translation equivalent in this article is questionable. As far as the writer of this study is an Oshikwanyama speaker, *oshimbobo* is not just a soft pap prepared for infants at all. This kind of pap is eaten by everyone, regardless of their age. Instead of translating as “*soft pap eaten by infants*”, the correct translation equivalent should be “*soft pap eaten by Ovakwanyama*.” If a non-speaker of Oshikwanyama, who is the target user of this dictionary encounters translations of this kind, he or she might be misguided and end up using the word wrongly, just because of the translations he or she read in the dictionary. Therefore, it can be concluded that some English translation equivalents in the dictionary are correct, while others need serious attention for the aim of avoiding misleading not only the target users of the dictionary but also anyone interested to learn and understand Oshikwanyama.

3.4.2.2 Grammatical notes

Description

Grammatical notes have also occurred in the sample. These grammatical notes are taken from pages 31 and 143 of the sample as follows:

elikwato, n. (*li* reflx.) manners, conduct, behaviour, demeanour; *elikwato lonawa* good manners, good behaviour; *elikwatonawa* sobriety, temperance. (OE/EOD, 2019: 31)

Example 11: Presentation of grammatical notes in OE

okavandje, n. (pl. *ookavandje* or *ouvandje*),
little jackal, (*ombadje*). See also
kavandje, *oshivandje*

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 143)

Example 12: Presentation of grammatical notes in OE

Analysis

In Example 11, it can be seen that there are grammatical notes that are presented in brackets. It shows that the lemma **elikwato** has been structured by adding the reflexive prefix *-li-* to indicate to the target user that the action is done by someone for or on themselves. Therefore, the grammatical notes in this dictionary are presented in brackets, immediately after the part of speech marker.

Example 12 also shows how the grammatical notes are presented in the *OE* part of this dictionary. The grammatical notes of the lemma **okavandje** is indicated in brackets as follows: (pl. *ookavandje* or *ouvandje*). This means that the target user is made aware that the singular noun *kavandje* changes to *ookavandje* or *ouvandje* in its plural form.

Grammatical notes are crucial, particularly to the mother-tongue speakers of English based on one main reason. As presented in Examples 11 and 12, grammatical notes assist the target user in understanding how lexical items change from singular to plural forms. By learning this, the user will be able to use words, such as *ookavandje*, and many others, in a given sentence grammatically correct.

3.4.2.3 Usage notes

Description

It is also evident in the sample that usage notes prevail. One of the main reasons why usage notes in articles of the dictionary have been presented is because they provide guidance on how a certain lexical item, represented by a lemma in the dictionary, is used contextually in the language. Apart from the fact that usage notes are presented in the same way as grammatical notes in this dictionary, their functions are those of providing syntactic information. The following is a dictionary article taken from page 143 of the sample:

okatyovatyova, n. (used adverbially),
pieces, fragments, sherds, bits: *oshipundi*
osha teka okatyovatyova the chair was
smashed to pieces.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 143)

Example 13: Presentation of usage notes in OE

Analysis

Although the lexical item **okatyovatyova** (the chair was smashed to pieces) is a noun, it is then indicated that it is used adverbially as in the provided example in the article, *oshipundi osha teka okwatovatyova* = the chair was smashed to pieces. A user of this dictionary learning Oshikwanyama might also misunderstand how this lexical item is used in a given context after reading what is presented by the usage notes (*used adverbially*). They might think that whenever they come across this lexical item they should use it adverbially. However, there are instances where the lexical item *okatyovatyova* is not used to function as an adverb in a sentence. For example *Okatyovatyova oka longifwa momuteyaula oshipundi* = *Smashing into pieces was used in breaking the chair*.

It is therefore imperative for the compilers of future dictionaries to consider all possible usages of lexical items, before they present them to the users in their dictionaries. In Example 13, the usage notes (*used adverbially*) should have been presented as: (**also used adverbially**). This way, the target users are aware that there are some instances in which the word *okatyovatyova* is not used as an adverb in the sentence.

3.4.2.4 Context indicators

Description

It is important to emphasise that the comments that are presented between the brackets, apart from the grammatical and usage notes, help the target user in giving more information on the discourse context in which a given meaning or translation equivalent applies. Indicators of context are presented in the following example taken from Pages 3 and 59 of *OE*.

¹anda(e), v.t. strike (of lightning or frost),
e.g., *oluvadi ola anda omuti* lightning has
struck the tree; *outalala owa anda oixwa*
the cold has shrivelled up the bushes.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 3)

handuka(a), denom. v.i. be cross, angry; (of
sickness) be grave, *ouchi otaw handuka*
unene the sickness is very (lit. angry)
grave.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 59)

Example 14A: Indicators of context in the OE Example 14B: Indicators of context in the OE

Analysis

Context indicators in the dictionary have been presented well, as they help the target users in choosing the appropriate translation equivalents. The words or phrases that assist the users to select the appropriate translation equivalents are presented in brackets. In Example 14A, it is observable that the lemma **¹anda(e)** is provided with the context indicator in brackets (*of lightning or frost*) to explain to the user that the first sense is associated with lightning or frost. What is important here is that an example is also provided, to indicate to the user how the lexical item **anda** in the first sense is used in a given context. These examples are *oluvadi ola anda omuti* lightning = has struck the tree or *outalala owa anda oixwa* = the cold has shrivelled up the bushes. The same procedure in which context indicators are used in a given article is presented in Example 14B. The compilers of this dictionary have done a great job by indicating to the users how indicators of context should be presented to assist the target users in using the appropriate translation equivalents in the correct context.

3.4.2.5 Presentation of Examples in OE

Description

The discussion of presenting examples in any dictionary has been provided in the text theory in Chapter Two. In presenting the examples in *OE*, different instances have been noted. In some articles, examples are just italicised without the use of an example marker or example sign *e.g.*, and in some articles, the italicised examples are preceded by the example sign *e.g.* Compare the following examples:

¹la, I. subj. conc. of e- (cl.5) & ohi- (cl.6) n.
with past tenses of v. in particip. mood;
e.g., *eumbo la lungwina po* burnt-out
house, *olupati la teka* broken rib.

²la-, poss. conc., e.g., *edina laKalunga* name
of God; *olukaku lange* my shoe.

(OE/EOD, 2019: 87)

Example 15: Presentation of examples in the OE

Analysis

It can be seen in Example 15 that examples are preceded by the example sign or abbreviation marker *e.g.* In the first article represented by lemma ¹la the two example sentences, *eumbo la lungwina po* (burnt-out house) and *olupati la teka* (broken rib), have been preceded by the abbreviation *e.g.*

Presenting the example marker (e.g.) in any example in an article alerts the user that what follows is an example in which the provided lemma for that article is used contextually. This study supports this way of presenting examples. However, there are instances where the example sentences in the dictionary are not preceded by the example sign (e.g.) which makes the presentation of example markers to be inconsistently applied. Compare the following example from Page 115 of the sample.

nai, adv. badly, wrong(ly), ill. *owa ninga nai*
you have done wrong; *ove mu ningila nai*
they ill-treated him, wronged him; (from
adj. -i-, bad).

(OE/EOD, 2019: 115)

Example 16A: The different ways of presenting examples in OE part.

²naka(e), v.t. sift (meal, &c.), *oufila owa*
nakwa nawa the meal/flour is finely sifted.

(OE/EOD, 2019: 115)

Example 16B: The different ways of presenting examples in the OE part.

In Example 16A, the italicised sentence examples have not been indicated to the user that they are examples as done in Example 15. This means that the example sign has not been presented, which might be difficult for an inexperienced user to realise that they are examples. These examples, *owa ninga nai* and *ove mu ningila nai*, should have been preceded by the example sign (e.g.) for the user to notice that they are examples. This also applies to example 16B, *oufila owa nakwa nawa* = the meal or flour is finely sifted. What is very important to note here is that all the preceding examples should have been treated equally. They should have been at least preceded by the example sign (e.g.) or other special non-typographical markers, such as bullets among others. What is important about examples is that they provide a clear image of how a particular lexical item in a particular situation is used. Therefore, the user will be able to have a better understanding of how lexical items are used as they are used in examples provided in their dictionaries.

3.4.2.6 Arranging of senses of a polysemic lemma

Description

Svensén (2009) observes several ways of arranging senses of a polysemic lemma. Firstly, they can be ordered from the oldest to the most recent, an exercise that might make the target users to be exhausted of looking up the entire list of senses, just before arriving at the right one. Secondly, it has been observed that some dictionaries arrange their senses logically, and, thirdly, some arrange their senses according to the frequency of usage. What has been noted after having carefully studied the articles of the sample is that, there is no specific way that has been adopted by the *OE* part in arranging senses. In other words, they have been arranged inconsistently. The following examples demonstrate this.

¹**oshima**, n. turtle, water tortoise, *-kashima*.

²**oshima**, n. brick, (*-odopi*). (*OE/EOD*, 2019: 199)

Example 17A: arrangement of senses

¹**anda(e)**, v.t. strike (of lightning or frost),
e.g., *oluvadi ola anda omuti* lightning has
struck the tree; *outalala owa anda oixwa*
the cold has shrivelled up the bushes.

²**anda(e)**, v.i. be dried up; e.g., *omufima owa
anda* the water-hole has dried up, gives
no more water.

anda(e) *ko*, v.t. impose silence on s.o.,
restrain.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 3)

Example 17 B: arrangement of senses

omuteyaula, n. 1. sound of snapping or crackling; crepitation, (-*teya*). 2. weariness, fatigue; lameness, (-*teyaukila*). (OE/EOD, 2019: 171)

Example 17C: Arrangement of senses

Analysis

After having critically investigated how the arrangement of senses has been done in the three sampled pages in Examples 17A, B and C, the following shortcomings have been noted. Firstly, the senses are arranged inconsistently. The article in Example 17A has been provided with two senses. These two senses have been numbered, although no exact system was adopted in arranging the senses. Secondly, the way the senses in Example 17B are treated is questionable, because there are three senses of the lemma **anda(e)**, but the lemmata that have been numbered are just the first two except the third lemma. All these lemmata should have been numbered, to avoid inconsistency. Thirdly, another way of arranging senses is observed. Instead of numbering the senses, and treat each sense as independent articles as shown in Examples 17A and 17B, in Example 17C the two senses of the lemma **omuteyaula** are both included in one article although numbered.

3.4.2.7 Etymological issues in the OE

Description

As explained in Chapter Two of this study, etymology plays a significant role in lexicography. The users of dictionaries may have different needs. One of their needs could be to find out the origin or history of a particular lexical item. Therefore, it is important for lexical items (although not all) to be provided with their etymology where necessary. Compare the following dictionary article from Pages 87 and 143 of the sample.

lamba(e), v.t. (from Herero), discharge, dismiss from employment; follow, chase after. **lambuka(a)**, v.i. (from Herero), usu. with *ondjala* hunger: -*lambuka kondjala* be famished; cf. *elambu*.

(Both articles taken from OE/EOD, 2019: 87)

okiina, n. quinine (from Afrik. *kinien*, Ger. *Chinin*).

okino, n. bioscope, cinematograph, (from Ger. *Kino*).

okolonela, n. (pl. *eekolonela*) corner, (from Engl.). T-square.

(Both articles taken from *OE/EOD*, 2019: 143)

Example 18: Presentation of etymology in OE articles

Analysis

In Example 18, five articles have been presented with etymological entries in brackets. In the article headed by the lemma **lamba(e)** and **lambuka(a)**, it can be seen that these lexical items were borrowed from Otjiherero. In the article represented by the lemma **okiina**, it can be seen that the lexical item *okiina* was borrowed from Afrikaans word *kinien* and German word *chinin*. It is also observed that the lexical item *okino* as seen in the article represented by the lemma **okino** is taken from German word *Kino*, and finally, the lexical item *okolonela*, presented as the lemma **okolonela** in the last article was taken from the English lexical item *corner*. Users using this dictionary will have an idea of the origin of some lexical items that are adopted in Oshikwanyama.

3.4.2.8 Cross-references articles and their structural markers

Description

As explained in Chapter Two of this study, cross-reference is a restricted treatment that prevails when a lemma is a lesser-used member of a synonym group and the treatment is primarily directed at a cross-reference entry that guides the user to the lemma which represents the synonym with a higher usage frequency. It also occurs where the user is cross-referred to a lemma representing a spelling variant or a plural form of the lexical item represented by the guiding element of the article with the limited treatment (Cf. also Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). The following articles from different pages show how cross-reference articles as well as their structural markers have been presented in the *OE* part of this dictionary.

oshimbu, see omumbu.

oshimhote, see omhote.

pilauka, see –piluka.

Example 19: Cross-reference articles

Analysis

The articles in example 19 consist of only the lemmata and their cross-reference articles. This simply means that there is another synonym of the lemmata that have been presented in Example 19. It can be deduced that the three articles *oshimbu*, *oshimhote* and *pilauka* (in Example 19) have received a restricted treatment due to the fact that the lemmata are lesser used members of a synonym group and, therefore, the treatment is primarily guided at a cross-reference entry that directs the user to the lemma which represents the synonym with a higher usage frequency. Furthermore, it also occurs for example where the user is cross-referred to a lemma representing a spelling variant or a plural form of the lexical item represented by the guiding element of the article with the limited treatment.

In addition, cross-reference articles have been consistently presented with a marker (see) throughout the sample. This marker *see* simply means that the user should search for the synonym of the lemma that is less treated in the dictionary so that they can read more information on the specific word that has the same meaning.

3.4.2.9 Lexicographical labels

Description

Lexicographical labels are important and should be considered by any compiler of a particular dictionary. Indicating labels in the dictionary has many benefits. Firstly, they show that a particular lexical item is archaic, new, old-fashioned or is not permitted in the public due to various reasons, among others. After having critically investigated the presentation of labels in the dictionary, it has been found that labelling has not been taken seriously. Some articles that needed to be labelled have been left unlabelled, while others have been labelled. Therefore, the lemmata in the dictionary which needed to be labelled as archaic, obsolete, and insulting or not appropriate in public, and many others should have been labelled. Compare the following lemmata from the *OE* part of the dictionary:

²**oda**, n. penis.

oxundu, n. vulva; *eemhanda doxundu*,

labia, vagina.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 129 & 220)

Example 20: Lack of lexicographical labels in OE

Analysis

Based on Example 20 of the *OE*, one can come to the conclusion that lexicographical labels have not received serious attention in *OE* when it comes to some lemmata. The preceding articles in Example 20 needed at least additional information especially in brackets, to indicate that they are vulgar or sensitive or not appropriate to be used in public, because they are viewed as inappropriate. Regardless of their incorrect translation equivalents, especially, the second article, these lemmata should have been presented and labelled as follows:

oda, n. (sensitive term) penis
oxundu, n. (sensitive term) vagina (the passage
in the body of a woman or female animal
between the outer sex organs and the womb.

It seems like the compilers of this part of the dictionary have not considered the issue of labelling seriously, because some articles that needed labelling like the ones in Example 20 did not receive that treatment at all. Therefore, it can be concluded that labelling has been applied inconsistently. The following article has been labelled as sensitive, and it should have been done to all the rest of the articles that required labelling. Compare the following example taken from Page 188.

onufu, n. anus. (sensitive term) (*OE/EOD, 2019: 188*)

Furthermore, the compilers of this dictionary should have proposed the appropriate lexical items to use instead. One may argue that it is a dictionary aimed to record all existing Oshikwanyama words, but suggestions should have been made. For example, the lemma **oda** in Example 20 should have been labelled that it is a sensitive term, and it is avoided in public. Instead, the lexical item *oulumenhu* should have been used or presented in brackets.

Although the English lexical items might be stylistically neutral, it can be deduced that in Oshikwanyama these lexical items are, for example, insults or offensive. Therefore, these lexical items of this kind pose problems to the users, particularly the non-Oshikwanyama speakers who are learning Oshikwanyama, because, when learning them, the users might use them at wrong places with wrong people. That way the purpose of the dictionary has somehow been compromised.

3.4.2 *OE* access structures

In this sub-section, the analysis is conducted based on the two types of access structure as discussed in Chapter Two of this study, namely *outer access structures* and *inner access*

structures. The following is a description and analysis of the two types of access structures, namely outer access and inner access structures.

3.4.2.1 Outer access structure

Outer access concerns aspects such as table of contents, guide words as well as the arrangement of the lemmata. Since the table of contents and the arrangements of lemmata have already been analysed on outer texts and macrostructural aspects, under Sections **3.3** and **3.4** of this chapter, it is only the guide words that are given attention in this sub-section.

(i) *The guide words*

Description

What is significant about guide words is that they assist the target users in accessing the information that they are looking up in the dictionary. Instead of paging through the entire volume page by page searching for the appropriate lexical item functioning as a lemma, the target user only looks at the guide words that are presented on the top left and right corners of the same page.

Analysis

After having critically investigated the sample pages, one can come to the conclusion that guide words have never been presented. This poses a problem to the target users of this dictionary as they have to spend endless time searching for the lemma they want information about. Therefore, the compilers of this dictionary should have presented the guide words on the top left and top right corners of this dictionary for easy retrieval of information by the user.

3.4.3.2 Inner access structure

In this sub-section, the analysis is done on the presentation of both typographical and non-typographical structural markers that deal with search zones.

(i) *Typographical structural markers*

Description

Spelling and the bolding of the lemma signs have been discussed in Chapter Two as well as in this chapter (Section 3.4.1). It can be observed that the main and sub-lemmata have been printed in bold not only on the sample pages but also throughout the dictionary. These examples are taken from pages 227 and 255.

pilula(a), v.t. turn patient over in bed; stir food while cooking. **pilulila(e)**, applic. v.t.: *-pilulila mumwe* mix (food, &c.) by stirring. (OE/EOD, 2019: 227)

Example 21 (a): *Typographical structural markers*

tumhaana(a), v.i. have staring or protruding eyes; goggle; **tumhaanifa(a)** *mo*, caus. v.t. with *omesho* eyes: stare, *okwa tumhaanifa mo omesho* he was staring. cf. *‘-tamanana*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 255)

Example 21 (b): *Typographical structural markers*

Analysis

In example 21 (a), it can be seen that the main article is introduced by the lemma ***pilula(a)***. It is also observed that the same lemma has been printed in bold. Within this article, which is introduced by the lemma *pilula*, a sub-article with the sub-lemma ***pilulila*** is observed. This article is introduced by the sub-lemma *pilula* that follows the English translation equivalents of the main lemma. Equally, in example 21(b), the main lemma ***tumhaana(a)*** has been printed in bold. Within this article, sub-article *tumhaanifa(a)* has been presented. This concludes that this part of the dictionary has treated both main and sub-article equally, a case that has never been adopted in many African languages dictionaries. In many African languages dictionaries, the sub-lemmata have received little attention, compared to the main lemmata.

(ii) *Non-typographical structural markers*

Description

The presentation of commas and semicolons is important when it comes to bilingual dictionaries. Based on the literature, semicolons are used to separate senses of polysemous lemmata, while commas are used to separate target language synonyms. Presentations of these non-typographical structural indicators in *OE* have been presented inconsistently. Compare the following dictionary articles from page 59 of the *OE*.

hangukununa(a), v.t. *intervene, come between.*

hano, conj. *therefore, thus, hence, so, then.*

(*OE/EOD, 2019: 59*)

Example 22: The presentation of a comma in the OE

Analysis

In Example 22, it can be seen that the presentation of commas in the two articles has been applied correctly. This is because the translation equivalents for both lemmata are synonyms, and they are separated by the comma. For example, the translation equivalents for the lemma **hangukununa(a)** are *intervene* and *come between* which are just synonyms. The second lemma in example 22, **hano**, has been given its translation equivalents such as *therefore, thus, hence, so* and *then*. These lexical items are synonyms, and have been separated by the comma. The use of the semicolon is also of paramount importance. This is because semicolons are used to separate partial synonyms or polysemous lexical items that cannot replace each other in any given context. The following articles from Page 87 of the *OE* part present how semicolons have been presented in the *OE* part of this dictionary:

lamba(e), v.t. (from Herero), *discharge, dismiss from employment; follow, chase after.*

(*OE/EOD, 2019: 87*)

Example 23: Presentation of the semicolon in OE

Example 23 shows how a semicolon is presented in this part of the dictionary. It can be seen that the translation equivalents *discharge* and *dismiss from employment* are synonyms, and can replace one another in any given context. What comes after the translation equivalent *dismiss*

from employment, is the semicolon. After the semicolon, translation equivalents *follow* and *chase after* have been presented. This simply means that these two translation equivalents are also synonyms, and they can replace one another in a given context. It can then be deduced that the presentation of the semicolon in this article has been done well, as it is used to separate polysemous words. The first two translation equivalents, namely *discharge* and *dismiss from employment* cannot be replaced by the translation equivalents, *follow* and *chase after*. Therefore, inserting a semicolon between these translation equivalents is of paramount importance.

The question then arises: *Has the use of non-typographical structural markers been adopted correctly in the sample?* By answering this question, one has to investigate the following dictionary article taken from Page 87 of the sample:

¹**hanga**, adv. almost, nearly; about,
approximately (arch. & lit. well nigh). (OE/EOD, 2019: 87)

Example 23: The presentation of comma in OE.

It can be deduced that the lemma **hanga** has been given four translation equivalents. These equivalents are all synonyms or partial synonyms, and can replace one another in any given context. The presentations of semicolons in this article are then questionable. There is a semicolon between the translation equivalents *nearly* and *about*. This is the incorrect presentation of the semicolon because all the translation equivalents are synonyms. Therefore, all the translation equivalents (*almost, nearly, about, approximately*) in the article should have been separated by a comma.

What is very important to stress here is that lexicographers need to be equipped with a good understanding of dealing with structural markers, typographical markers and non-typographical markers. This will prevent the target users from being misguided, and also use the appropriate synonyms or polysemy correctly. Even though the use of the semicolon is vital in distinguishing between diverse polysemic values, the use of Arabic numbers rather than semicolons to distinguish between diverse polysemic values would be more user-friendly. Moreover, the inaccurate use of both typographical and non-typographical structural markers presents a serious issue in utilizing *OE* as both target users, the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama and the mother-tongue speakers of English will be confounded. This simply means that they will not be able to legitimately distinguish between semantic divergence and

lexical divergence. Subsequently, future compilers ought to take this matter exceptionally truly, to avoid the target users from getting confused, misguided, and not be fascinated by utilizing their dictionaries.

The preceding analysis is sufficient when it comes to the Oshikwanyama-English (*OE*) part of the *OEEOD*. Therefore, the following analysis is done on the central list of English-Oshikwanyama (*EO*) part of *OEEOD*.

3.5 Comment on *EO*'s central list

As in 3.4 of this Chapter, the analysis of this part of the dictionary is based on the two components that are used in describing and analysing a dictionary article, namely, the comment on form and the comment on semantics.

3.5.1 The comment on form

Two languages are treated in this part of the dictionary. The first language is English, functioning as the source language, and Oshikwanyama functioning as the target language. The central list of *EO* is made up of 290 pages running from page 287 to page 577. The analysis of this part consists of 11 pages that were sampled. The first page, which is Page 289 has been selected randomly. The pages that were analysed are then, 289, 317, 345, 373, 401, 429, 457, 485, 513, 541 and 569. What is important to stress here is that not all the dictionary articles have been selected for analysis, only the articles that needed attention have been investigated and purposefully analysed.

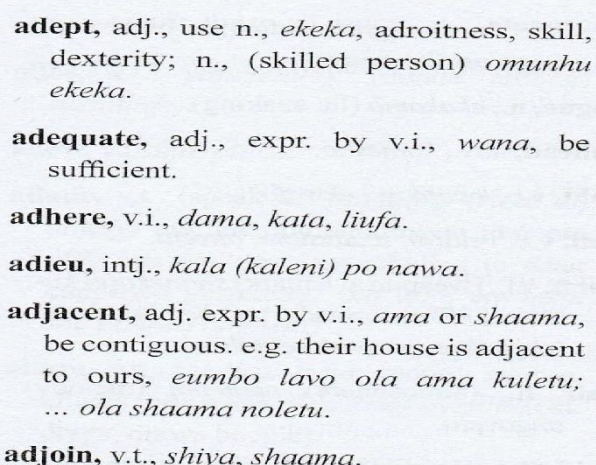
This analysis consists of the macrostructural aspects such as the ordering of lemma, lemma selection, and the division of main and sub-lemmata. It also covers microstructural aspects that are also in the comment on forms such as presentation of parts of speech, the treatment of a lemma representing more than one part of speech, pronunciation, lemma inflection and types of articles.

3.5.1.1 Macrostructural aspects of *EO*.

(i) Ordering of lemmata

Description

As in *OE*, it can also be seen that the lemmata are arranged alphabetically, from A-Z, a case that has been adopted by most of the English dictionaries. Compare the following articles taken from Page 289 of the *EO*.



adept, adj., use n., *ekeka*, adroitness, skill, dexterity; n., (skilled person) *omunhu ekeka*.

adequate, adj., expr. by v.i., *wana*, be sufficient.

adhere, v.i., *dama, kata, liufa*.

adieu, intj., *kala (kaleni) po nawa*.

adjacent, adj. expr. by v.i., *ama* or *shaama*, be contiguous. e.g. their house is adjacent to ours, *eumbo lavo ola ama kuletú; ... ola shaama noletu*.

adjoin, v.t., *shiya, shaama*.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 289)

Example 24: The arrangement of lemmata in *EO*

Analysis

Based on Example 24, it is observed that the lemmata are arranged in alphabetical order. This kind of arranging lemmata alphabetically is an easy way of finding the lemmata that the target user is looking up in the dictionary. So, the compilers of this dictionary have made a significant way of arranging lemmata in this way. Learners in primary education, not only in Namibia but also in other countries in the world, have been taught the basics in terms of letters of the English alphabet. Therefore, it would be easier for them to have access to the lemmata they are looking up in the dictionary. These lemmata have been arranged alphabetically, not only on the sample pages but also in the entire dictionary. It can be observed in Example 24 that the lemma *adept* has preceded lemma *adequate*, and the lemma *adequate* has preceded the lemma *adhere*, and the lemma *adhere* has preceded the lemma *adjacent* and the lemma *adjacent* precedes the lemma *adjoin*.

Furthermore, to identify the main lemmata in any dictionary, besides introducing dictionary articles, special arrangements have been adopted as suggested by the literature. The most preferable is the bold print. It can be seen that the main lemma in Example 24 such as *adept*, *adequate*, *adhere*, *adjacent* and *adjoin* have been printed in bold. The main lemmata have been bolded, for the target users to access them easily. User's time is always limited in consulting the dictionaries, due to other commitments they have, therefore, the compilers have done a meaningful job by bolding the lemmata of this dictionary.

In many cases, many compilers of dictionaries do not give a full treatment of the sub-lemmata, and it gives a challenge to the users of dictionaries to have access to them. It has been observed that dictionary compilers of *OE* have treated the sub-lemmata in the same way they treated the main lemmata, which is a good thing to do. They have also printed the sub-lemmata in bold, and they have also provided the sub-lemmata with parts of speech and their translation equivalents. Compare the following dictionary articles taken from pages 345 and 373 of the *EO* part of the dictionary under analysis, to see how they treated sub-lemmata in their dictionary.

deceive, v.t., *pukifa(a)*, *lyalyakanifa(a)*, *ninga(i) ekonda*, e.g. you deceived him, *owe mu ninga ekonda*; *fufya(a)*, *fya (fi) endjeleka*. Deceiver, n., *omunekonda* or *omukwakonda*. Deceit, n., *ekonda*. Deception, n., *epukifo*. Deceptive, adj., *oshinima shokupukifa omunhu*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 345)

Example 25A: Arrangement of sub-lemmata in the *EO*

equal, adj. transl. by *fika* (defec.) *pamwe*, be equal to each other. Equal to, transl. by *fika pu* (lit. reach or extend to). Equalize, v.t., v.t., *fikifa(a) pamwe*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 373)

Example 25B: Arrangement of sub-lemmata in the *EO*.

Although the *OE* part of this same dictionary has treated sub-lemmata equally as the main lemmata, in this part of the dictionary, it is quite the opposite. In example 25A, it can be seen

that the main lemma **deceive** has been printed in bold, while the sub-lemmata, such as *deceiver*, *deceit*, *deception* and *deceptive* have not been printed in bold, although they should have been printed in bold, as in the first part of this dictionary, for consistency to prevail. Similarly, in Example 25B, the article introduced by the lemma *equal* consists of two sub-articles, namely *equal to* and *equalize*. These sub-lemmata should have also been printed in bold for the target users to find them with ease. It can then be concluded that all the sub-lemmata in this part of the dictionary, the *EO*, have not been printed in bold, as in the *OE* part of this dictionary.

(ii) *Lemma selection*

Description

In terms of lemma selection, it seems like the compilers of this first part of the dictionary have not considered any lemma selection strategy that best fits the *EO* as a general bilingual dictionary.

Analysis

Since this dictionary is a general bilingual dictionary, it seems like the lemmata were just selected by including all the words that are part of the English lexicon. The purpose for this might be, to a larger extent, to document all the existing English words, so that Oshikwanyama translation equivalents might be provided for English lexical items that would benefit all users of both Oshikwanyama and English. This simply means that all the lexical items that cross the compilers' eyes have been entered in the dictionary's lemma list.

3.5.1.2 Microstructural aspects of *EO*

In this part of the analysis, based on the comment on form, pertinent aspects such as presentation of parts of speech, part of speech markers, lemmata representing different parts of speech, pronunciation, lemma inflection, and types of articles have been investigated.

(i) *Presentation of parts of speech*

Description

As Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) and Svensén (2009) stress, providing information about a particular lemma's grammatical features and properties, and proving the users' knowledge of

regularities in the grammar of the language concerned is one of the most fundamental reasons for the indication of part of speech.

In terms of the presentation of part of speech markers in this dictionary, it is evident that the compilers of this dictionary have made a remarkable effort by making sure that each English lemma has been assigned to which parts of speech it belongs. The part of speech marker has immediately followed both the main and the sub-lemma in each dictionary article. These parts of speech markers have been abbreviated such as *n* for nouns, *v.i.* for verb intransitive, *v.t.* for verb transitive, *adj.* for adjectives, and many others. The following example from page 401 of the *EO* part provides this evidence.

gift, n., *omulongelo, oshiyandjwa, oshali*.
Gifted, adj., by *v.i.*, *yambekwa(a)*, he is
gifted *a yambekwa*.
gigantic, adj., *-nenenene*.
giggle, *v.i.*, *yola(o) oingungumina*.
gild, *v.t.*, *vaeka(e) noshingolodo*.
gills, n. pl., (of fish) *omalakusha*; (of person,
flesh below jaws and ears) *omwoodi*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 401)

Example 26: The treatment of part of speech markers in EO

Analysis

Example 26 indicates how parts of speech markers are presented in *EO*. Evidently, all the parts of speech the concerned lemmata belong to are abbreviated on their first letters of the concerned parts of speech. These abbreviations are, such as *n* for nouns, (*v*) for verbs, (*adv.*) for adverbs, (*v.i.*) for verb intransitive, (*v.t.*) for verb transitive, and many others.

In Example 26, the lemma **gift** has been labelled as belonging to categories of nouns, thus it is indicated that it is a noun (*n*), while the sub-lemma **gifted** in the same article belonging to categories of adjectives, that is why it is indicated as *adj.* in English, but in Oshikwanyama it is marked as a verb intransitive. In addition, the second lemma, which is *gigantic*, has been labelled as an adjective, and condensed as *adj.*, *giggle* condensed as *v.i.* as a verb intransitive, *gild* as a verb transitive (*v.t.*), and *gills* as a plural noun in both English and Oshikwanyama, condensed as n.pl. By marking parts of speech, the target users will be able to know to which

part of speech a particular lemma belongs. This way their knowledge of grammar will be enhanced.

(ii) *Lemma representing several parts of speech*

Description

There are cases in which a certain lemma belongs to more than one part of speech. To prove this, a thorough search must be done on the *EO* part of this dictionary to find out how articles of lemmata representing various parts of speech have been treated.

If a lemma represents more than one part of speech, then at least a specific or special structural marker needs to be added to each part of speech segment. The bold-type Roman numerals or capital letters can show or indicate this. For the best clarification, beginning each section with a new paragraph is of utmost importance (cf. Shikesho, 2019). Compare the following dictionary articles from page 429 of the *EO*.

intrigue, n., *elivako*. v.i., *livaka(e)*.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 429)

Example 27: Lemma representing several parts of speech

Analysis

In Example 27, the lemma **intrigue** is labelled as a noun in English. In Oshikwanyama, this lemma has two translation equivalents that belong to two different parts of speech, namely nouns and verbs (verb intransitive). So, the translation equivalent *elivako* is a noun, and the translation equivalent *livaka(e)* is an intransitive verb. It can be seen that each of the translation equivalents should have started with a new paragraph. This will also be easier for the user to identify all the parts of speech the lemmata belong to. Compare other dictionary articles, taken from page 457 of *EO*, to compare how the lemmata representing more than one part of speech have been treated.

¹**plot**, n., *omhangela yomeholeko* (secret rebellion). v.t., *hangela meholeko*.
²**plot**, n., (piece of land) *onuno*.
plough, n., *oshipululo*. v.t., *pulula(a)* (from Afrikaans ploeg).
¹**pluck**, v.t., *tona(o)*; *duda(a)* (pluck a bird, pluck grass).
²**pluck**, n., *ouladi*, *eyombano*. Plucky, adj. expr. by v.i., *yombama(a)* be brave.

(OE/EOD, 2019: 457)

Example 28: Lemma representing several parts of speech

Regarding Example 28, some lemmata have been presented twice because they belong to more than one part of speech. This type of division has never been adopted in Example 27. It is clear that the first lemma in Example 28 which is **plot** has been labelled as a noun, and a verb transitive. In the second sense, it has been indicated that the same lemma (**plot**) has been labelled as a noun with a different meaning. This simply means that the senses have been separated, which also shows that the senses belong to different parts of speech. The same applies to the lemma **pluck**. The first sense which is introduced by the lemma **pluck** is a verb transitive, and the second **pluck** is a noun. Due to the different division styles that have been adopted by the compilers in separating lemmata with more than one part of speech, it can then be concluded that inconsistency has taken place.

What is important to stress here is that future dictionary compilers should adapt to one format of presenting lemmata representing more than one part of speech to avoid confusion of the target user, and to make it easier for the target user in identifying the correct lemma to use.

(iii) *Pronunciation*

Description

Pronunciation is important to any user of the dictionary, because it assists the users on how a certain lexical item is pronounced. It is provided by Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) that several methods of presenting pronunciation in dictionaries prevail. The most common way of presenting pronunciation markers is by using brackets [] or slashes //. Some dictionaries can give comprehensive phonetic transcription by using the International Phonetic Alphabets'

symbols, while others show a partial transcription of the lexical item or rather “only an orthographic transcription, trying to capture the word in the ordinary writing system” (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005: 119). The following are the dictionary articles taken from Page 429 of the *EO* part of the dictionary.

intrepid, adj., transl. by neg. v., *okuhatila(a)* (not to fear). Intrepidity, n., *ouladi*. Be intrepid, *kala(a) nouladi*.

intricate, adj., transl. by v.i., *kitakana(a)*, be involved, obscure.

intrigue, n., *elivako*. v.i., *livaka(e)*.

intrinsic, adj., transl. by n., *oshitwe*, intrinsic quality; or by pron., *-vene* precede by g.p. thus, the – value of the thing is not great,

inveigle, v.t., *fuula(a)*.

invent, v.t., *tota(o)* (originate); e.g. to – a new way or fashion, *okutota oifala ipe*; (fabricate excuses etc.) *kufa(a) momutwe*. Invention, n., *onghedi ipe, oifala ipe*; (act of discovery) *ehololo*.

invert, v.t., *filika(e)* or *pilika(e)* (turn over): *pwipwika(e)* (turn upside down). Inversion, n., *epiliko*.

(*OE/EOD, 2019: 429*)

Example 29: Lack of pronunciation markers in the EO.

Analysis

Example 29 shows that pronunciation and its markers have not been considered and are missing, not only on the sampled articles and pages but throughout the entire dictionary at large. For Oshikwanyama users, particularly the learners who have a need of learning to pronounce English lexical items, this dictionary does not have any answer to their needs. It is, therefore, of utmost importance for the future compilers of dictionaries to consider adding how lexical items are pronounced, for production purposes, such as speaking. Pronunciation markers are usually presented between the lemmata and the parts of speech markers. That means, in Example 29, the lemmata such as *intrepid*, *intricate*, *intrinsic*, *inveigle*, *invent*, and *invert*, should have been provided the pronunciations that would follow them before the parts of speech markers.

(iv) *Lemma inflection*

Description

When it comes to lemma inflection, it is best if a lemma is a noun to indicate how it changes from its singular form to its plural form and the other parts of speech. Furthermore, if a particular lexical item, functioning as a lemma in the dictionary, is for example a verb and changes according to its tenses (past, present and future), then it should be indicated to the

users on how it does that. If a lexical item that is functioning as a lemma is an adjective, then its degree of comparison (positive, comparative and superlative) should be indicated to the users, particularly in a dictionary specifically compiled for learners. Compare the following dictionary article from Page 457.

minute, adj., *-nini unene, -nini nini*. n.,
ominute. (OE/EOD, 2019: 457)

Example 30: Lack of lemma inflection in the EO.

Analysis

In Example 30, although the lemma **minute** has been labelled as belonging to two different parts of speech, namely, *adjective* and *noun*, its inflectional details, e.g. how it changes from singular into plural form, have not been indicated. One of the reasons why English as a Second Language learners fail in their exams is due to the lack of presenting inflection properly in dictionaries. Many African language dictionaries, especially the Oshiwambo dictionaries, including the one under this study have not considered this issue. It is of utmost importance for compilers of dictionaries to indicate to the non-native English speakers that a certain lexical item changes into the plural form, by adding affixes such as prefixes and suffixes, among others. To indicate lemma inflection is important to the target users who are the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama because it helps them to learn and acquire English vocabulary, which will assist them in text production.

(v) *Types of articles (Single and complex articles)*

After having carefully investigated all the articles in the sample, it has been concluded that, as in 3.4.1, only single articles exist in the *EO* part of the *OEEOD*. Due to the lack of complex articles *EO*, it is also suggested for the compilers of future dictionaries, particularly the learners' dictionaries, to include complex articles to display information such as cultural or more extensive or informative grammatical notes. By doing so, the target users, particularly the non-native speakers of Oshikwanyama would learn Oshikwanyama extensive or informative grammatical as well as cultural information to enrich their cultural knowledge of the foreign language, in this case, Oshikwanyama. What is important to put into consideration here is that future dictionary compilers need to be equipped with knowledge on single and complex articles and how they should be presented in their lexicographical works.

3.5.2 The comment on semantics

The analysis of the comment on semantics in this study deals with the translation equivalents, typographical errors, lexicographical labels, examples, usage notes, context indicators, grammatical notes, access structures and the types of equivalent relations.

3.5.2.1 Translation equivalents

The analysis is done based on the incorrect presentations of the translation equivalents.

Description

First of all, it can be clearly observed that all the Oshikwanyama translation equivalents have been italicised. This is done to differentiate between the languages that have been treated in the dictionary, namely English and Oshikwanyama.

Secondly, the compilers of this dictionary are also commended for the effort that they have made in ensuring that the majority of their translation equivalents are correct. This is what is always expected of the compilers by the target users of the dictionaries to ensure that the target users will not be misguided or learning wrong translation equivalents. Putting a lexicographical work in the market like this book is not only meant for making a considerable amount of profit, but also for teaching the nation about the world around them. Compare the following dictionary articles taken from page 569 of the *EO*.

¹**well**, adv., *nawa*. Are you well? *ou li nawa?*
or *owa kola tuu?* They speak well of him,
otave mu popile mouwa. They treated
him well, *ove mu ningila nawa*. Intj.
nani! Well-being, n., *oulinawa*.

²**well**, n., *ondungu yomeva*.

west, n., *ouninginino*. Westwards, adv.,
kouninginino.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 569)

Example 31: Correct translation equivalents in the *EO*

All the articles in Example 31 have been provided with the correct translation equivalents. This is always what is expected for a dictionary published for the market to be. Therefore, the compilers of this dictionary have done remarkable work in providing correct translation equivalents in many of the articles.

However, after having carefully analysed all the articles in the sample it has come to a conclusion that incorrect translation equivalents are hardly observed. Compare the following dictionary article taken from Page 485.

pledge, n., *oshikwatifo shokonhele yeonga*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 485)

Example 32A: Incorrect translation equivalents in the EO

Analysis

It can be seen in Example 32 that the lexical item **pledge** which is the lemma for the same article has an incorrect translation equivalent which is *oshikwatifo shokonhele yeonga*. According to Hornby (2010: 1122-1123), the term **pledge** has the following definitions:

1. “A serious promise (commitment)”
2. “A sum of money or sth valuable that you leave with sb to prove that you will do sth or pay back money that you owe.”

It can be seen that the lemma **pledge** as a noun has been provided with incorrect Oshikwanyama translation equivalents. The correct translation equivalents should be *eudaneko koshi yeano*. Therefore, the article should have been presented as follows:

pledge, n., *eudaneko koshi yeano*.

Another incorrect example is taken from Page 541 of the *EO*.

Sunday, n., *efiku lombelela; Osoondaxa* (pl. *Oyoondaxa*).

(OE/EOD, 2019: 541)

Example 32B: Incorrect translation equivalents in the EO

It can be seen in Example 32B that the first translation equivalents in the article introduced by the lemma **Sunday** is incorrect. The compilers of this dictionary have given a wrong translation by indicating that the name **Sunday** is referring to “a meat day” *efiku lombelela*, instead of indicating that it refers “to a worship day” which is translated as *efiku lehambelelo* in Oshikwanyama. It seems like the compilers of the dictionary did not double-check this translation, before giving the dictionary to the publishing house for printing, a case that should

not be repeated by future bilingual dictionaries' compilers. For clarity purposes, the researcher managed to have a short interview with some of the compilers of this dictionary. They also confirmed that it is a typographical error. The correct translation equivalent should be *efiku lehambelelo*, (worship day) but not *efiku lombelela*.

Another questionable translation equivalent is observed in the next two articles, taken from Page 541 of the *EO*.

¹**succeed**, v.t., (follow, replace) *kala ofika ponhele ya* (or, *konima ya*) v.i., (be successful) *twa (tu) oshive*.

²**success**, n., *etwo loshive*. Successful, adj. expr. by v.i., *twa (tu) oshive*, (succeed). Successor, n., *omulanduli*. Succession, n., *omhola*, see **series**. Be in succession, *kala(a) nomhola*

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 541)

Example 33: Unclear Oshikwanyama translation equivalents in the EO

In the first article introduced by lemma **succeed**, two Oshikwanyama translation equivalents are observed. The first one is *kala ofika ponhele ya / konima ya*, and the second translation equivalent is *twa (tu) oshive*.

The term **succeed** in Oshikwanyama does not necessarily mean *kala ofika ponhele ya* = to stand in place of someone or *konima ya* = behind someone, as provided in the first sense, but it actually means *shikula ngadi ile pingakanifa nangadi*, as correctly provided in the English definitions (follow or replace). The second translation equivalent for **be successful** is also questionable. It indicates that the terms **be successful** means *twa oshive*, a translation equivalent believed to be a figurative saying in Oshikwanyama. This translation equivalent should have been labelled as “figurative” to avoid confusing the target user in using the same translation equivalents in any situation the target user might find themselves in, as it may raise many questions. At the end of the day, the blame will target the compilers of the dictionary, for misleading the target users. This also applies to the second article introduced by the lemma **success**. Its translation equivalents “*etwo loshive*” are figurative, and they should have been labelled as figurative. The literal translation equivalent should be “*okufindana / ehango lefindano*.” The translation equivalent for the sub-lemma successor has been given correctly, as *omulanduli* or *omushikuliko*.

3.5.2.2 Typographical errors in translation equivalents

Description

Compiling a lexicographical work that covers 611 pages is not an easy task, and it took a longer period to get into finality. Therefore, it requires time, planning, hard work and numerous editions before it goes into finality. The *EO* part of the dictionary under review has been well edited, on the basis of typing. However, a few typographical errors are still observed. Compare the following typographical error in the translation equivalent of the article introduced by the lemma *pluck* on Page 485.

²*pluck*, n., *ouladi*, *eyombano*. Plucky, adj.
expr. by v.i., *yombama(a)* be brave. (OE/EOD, 2019: 541)

Example 34A: Typographical errors in the EO

Analysis

Example 34 presents two articles. The main article is introduced by the lemma ²*pluck*, and the second article, which is a sub-article is introduced by the lemma **Plucky**. The first translation equivalent of the main article *ouladi* has been spelt correctly, but the second synonymous lexical item *eyombano* does not exist in Oshikwanyama, which means it is incorrect. The correct term should be *eyombamo*, instead of *eyombano*. Apart from the issue of incorrect spelling, another spelling from the neighbouring dialects of Oshikwanyama (Oshindonga and Oshikwambi) is observed in the following article taken from Page 289 of *EO*.

advance, v.i., *ya komesho*, *huma komesho*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 289)

Example 34B: Spelling of translation equivalent from other dialects

Example 34B presents two synonymous translation equivalents. The first translation equivalent, which is *ya komesho*, has been spelt correctly. The second translation equivalent *huma komesho* has been spelt in the other dialects of Oshiwambo, such as Oshindonga, Oshikwambi and others. So, the first letter which is the letter *h* for *huma* should have been replaced by the letter *x* which is used in Oshikwanyama. In Oshikwanyama, there are cases in which the letter *x* is used instead of letter *h*. For example, the equivalent word of Oshindonga for the word **chicken** is spelt as *ohuhwa*, but in Oshikwanyama it is spelt as *oxuxwa*. So, the

second correct translation equivalent for lemma **advance** should be *xuma komesho*. Therefore, the article should have been presented as follows.

advance, v.i., *ya komesho, xuma komesho*.

The issue of typographical errors (spelling errors) in Oshikwanyama translation equivalents might seem to be a minor case, but it is actually a major issue. The mother-tongue users of English who are learning to spell and pronounce lexical items in Oshikwanyama might be misguided and end up using the translation equivalents wrongly, especially when they are speaking or writing (text production) in Oshikwanyama. Therefore, to a certain extent, the believed micro-contextual purpose of pronouncing and spelling the Oshikwanyama lexical items correctly has not been successful.

3.5.2.3 Lexicographical labels

Description

Lexicographical labels have been discussed in the previous section. It is also important to analyse how lexicographical labels have been presented. Indicating labels in any dictionary is based on a few important reasons. They show that a particular lexical item is archaic, new, old-fashioned, figurative, formal, humorous, informal, ironic, literary, offensive, slang, taboo, technical, dialect, old use, saying, not permitted in the public due to various reasons, among others.

After having critically investigated the presentation of labels in the dictionary, it has been found that it has not been taken seriously. Some articles that needed to be labelled have been left unlabelled, while others have been labelled. Compare the following lemmata from the *OE* part of the dictionary, Page 569:

wheel, n., *elola okuulu (ketemba)*, lit. hind-
leg (of wagon). (OE/EOD, 2019: 569)

Example 35: presentation of labels in the OE part of the dictionary

Analysis

Example 35 shows that the translation equivalent of *okuulu ketemba* is a literal translation taken from the lexical items *hind-leg of wagon*. Labels of this type are seldom presented in the

dictionary. Other terms that should have been labelled in the dictionary have already been explained in the *OE* section of the dictionary under this study.

3.5.2.4. Etymological issues in the *EO*

Description

Like in the *OE* part of the dictionary, etymological issues have been presented. This has not been done to all the translation equivalents, but only to those translation equivalents that are believed to be borrowed from European languages, including English. Compare the following examples from Page 541:

sugar, n., *oshuuka* (from Engl.).
(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 541)

Example 36A: Etymological markers in the EO

suit, v.t., and i., expr. by v.t., *wapalela(e)*.
n., (of clothing) *omushuku* (from Engl.).
Suitable, adj. expr. by v.i., *wapala(a)*. Be
suitable.
(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 541)

Example 36B: Etymological markers in the EO

Analysis

It is indicated that **sugar** is an English word, and has been given its translation equivalent *oshuuka*. It is then indicated that the Oshikwanyama translation equivalent of the lexical item sugar is *oshuuka*, and that the word has been borrowed from English. Another example is seen in Example 36B where the lexical item **suit** has been given its translation equivalent *omushuku*, which is also borrowed from English. The compilers of the dictionary have made a remarkable work, by indicating that these lexical items came into being in Oshikwanyama, borrowed from English. Overall, the issue of etymology, to a certain extent, has been presented well in this dictionary.

However, there are cases in which etymological markers have not been presented. Compare the following dictionary article taken from Page 373 of the *EO*.

Epiphany, n., *okuholoka*, *Epifani*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 373)

Example 37: Lack of etymology in EO

It can be seen in Example 37 that the lemma **Epiphany** has two synonymous translation equivalents. The first one is *okuholoka* and the second one in *Epifani*. It is quite clear that the second Oshikwanyama translation equivalent *Epifani* is a loan word. The questions on the translation equivalent *Epifani* might then arise: *Although it is a loan word, from which language has it come? Is it perhaps an English lexical item and adapted to Oshikwanyama as a name?* These are questions that the target user who would like to know the origin of the lexical item *Epiphany* might have in mind. Lexical items of this kind should have been given their etymology, to assist the users that might be interested in knowing their origin. Similarly, the lexical item *Osoondaxa* should have indicated its language of origin, before it came into being in Oshikwanyama.

Sunday, n., *efiku lombelela*; *Osoondaxa* (pl.

Ovoondaxa).

(OE/EOD, 2019: 541)

Example 38: Etymology not presented in the EO.

Although its translation equivalent is somehow questionable, the name *Osoondaxa* in Oshikwanyama should have been provided with its etymology. Some users are eager to know the origin of names such as *Osoondaxa* especially that it is Ovakwanyama's frequently spoken lexical item, as it also features in the Holy Bible. Its origin is important because the target user might use it in teaching the learners, children and any other person who is interested to learn words of such kind, either in ordinary schools, Sunday schools or in churches, or at any other place on the origin of the name *Osoondaxa*.

3.5.2.5 Presentation of examples in the EO

Description

Examples play a significant role in translation dictionaries. Like in other dictionaries, examples have been provided, for the users to know how to apply certain concepts or lexical items contextually. Compare the following dictionary articles to see how examples have been presented. Firstly, a look at how example markers have been presented, and then later a focus

will be targeted to see how well they make the user understand what the lemma or lexical item has been used contextually.

deduce, v.t., *konga(o) mo ounongo; kwata(a) mo; from these words I deduce many things, meendjovo edi onda kwata mo oinima ihapu.*

(OE/EOD, 2019: 345)

Example 39A: Presentations of Examples in EO

The lemma **deduce** has introduced the whole article in Example 39A. There are two synonymous translation equivalents for the lemma **deduce**, and then an example in English has been provided. Translation equivalent in Oshikwanyama, which is correct, has also been provided. What cannot be seen in this article are the example signs that introduce and alert the user that what comes is an example, the users are the ones to deduce that what is presented is an example. Compare the following dictionary article:

gist, n., transl. by *eshi shokoshi ya*, e.g. to give the gist of his remarks, *okutonga eshi shokoshi yeendjovo daye*; the gist of the matter, *eshi shokoshi yoshinima.*

(OE/EOD, 2019: 4011)

Example 39B: Presentations of examples in EO

In Example 39B, the lemma **gist** has been provided with its translation equivalent *eshi shokoshi ya*, which is quite unclear. In this article, the examples have been introduced by the example sign (e.g.), which is giving a sign to the target user that the lexical item **gist** is used contextually, as used in the examples. The examples in English, **to give the gist of his remarks** and **the gist of the matter**, have been translated into Oshikwanyama as *okutonga eshi shokoshi yeendjovo daye* and *eshi shokoshi yoshinima* respectively. The compilers of the dictionary have done tremendous work in ensuring that a contextual example has been provided, but one may ask; *Is the translated example correct?* The non-mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama might be struggling to use the lexical item **gist** in their text production, because they might feel that it means something else apart from “giving the main point” or “the main part of something”. So, the compilers should have provided understandable examples that aim at assisting the non-

mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama to apply the lexical item correctly as they read them in the dictionary. Instead of *eshi shokoshi*, lexical items such as *exuku* or *oshitwa shopokati* should have been used.

3.5.2.5 Usage notes

Description

As on the *OE* part, usage notes have also been presented on this part of the dictionary. One of the main reasons why usage notes should be presented is because they guide how certain lexical items represented by lemmata are used contextually in the language. Apart from the fact that usage notes are presented in the same way as grammatical notes, their functions are also that of providing syntactic information. The following are dictionary articles taken from Pages 345 and 373 of the sample:

deciduous, adj. expr. by v.i., *yaumuka(a)*: –
trees, *omiti hadi yaumuka.* (OE/EOD, 2019: 345)

Example 40A: Presentation of usage notes in the EO

epitome, n., paraphrase by using *mouxupi*, in
short. Epitomize, v.t., *tonga(o) mouxupi*;
oshinima sha fimana momunhu. (OE/EOD, 2019: 373)

Example 40B: Presentation of usage notes in the EO

Analysis

In example 40A, although the lexical item **deciduous** that is functioning as a lemma and is an adjective, it is indicated to the user that it is expressed by the verb intransitive *yaumuka(a)* in Oshikwanyama. Similarly, the lexical item **epitome** belongs to the category of nouns in English, but in Oshikwanyama it can be paraphrased using the term *mouxupi* as indicated by the grammatical note.

3.5.2.5 Context indicators

Description

The comments presented between brackets, besides grammatical and usage notes, assist the target user information on the discourse context in which a given translation equivalent applies. Indicators of context are presented in the following examples from pages 429 and 513 of the *EO*.

erval, n., (of time) *efimbo loposhaka*
(of space) *oshinano shopokati*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 429)

Example 41A: Indicators of context in the *EO*

run, v.i., (of persons) *endelela(a)* (move rapidly along); *tondoka(a)* (hasten); *totoka(a)*; (of liquids) *shisha(a)*, *dja (di)*, (OE/EOD, 2019: 513)

Example 41B: Indicators of context in *EO*

Analysis

Context indicators are presented in brackets, especially after the part of speech markers, and after the first sense of the articles, as seen in Examples 41 A and B. Overall, context indicators in the sample and the dictionary at large have been presented well, as they assist the target users in knowing the appropriate translation equivalents to use. In Example 41A, it is observable that the lemma **interval** is provided with the context indicator in brackets (*of time*) to explain to the user that the first sense is associated with time. What is very important here is that an example is also provided to indicate to the user how the lexical item **interval** in the first sense is used in an Oshikwanyama given context. The example is therefore, *efimbo loposhakati*. Another context indicator is observed in the second sense of the lemma **interval**, which is (of time) *oshinano shopokati*.

The same procedure in which context indicators are used in an article is also presented in Example 41B. Two context indicators have been used for the lemma **run**. This simply means that when one is referring to the lexical item **run** of persons he or she should use translation

equivalents such as *endelela*, *tondoka*, and *lotoka*. When he or she is referring to a **run** of liquids, then he or she should use translation equivalents such as *shisha* and *dja*. The compilers of this dictionary have done a great job by indicating to the users how indicators of context are presented (in brackets) to assist the target users in using the appropriate translation equivalents in the correct context.

3.5.2.6 Grammatical notes

Description

Grammatical notes have also been presented in the sample. Compare the following examples taken from Pages 317 and 143 of the sample.

cattle, n., pl. *eengobe* (one head of cattle *ongobe*). Cattle kraal, *oshuunda*; cattle post, *ohambo*; cattle show, *omaludi* (pl.); cattle sickness, *oshikwatembo*, *oshilokota*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 317)

Example 42A: Presentation of grammatical notes in EO

gills, n. pl., (of fish) *omalakusha*; (of person, flesh below jaws and ears) *omwoodi*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 143)

glands, n., pl., *ovana vofingo* (i.e. tonsils). (OE/EOD, 2019: 143)

Example 42B: Presentation of grammatical notes in the EO

Analysis

In Example 42A, the grammatical note is indicated by the marker (**pl.**) to indicate that the lexical item is in a plural form. It can be seen in the article that the lemma **cattle** is a noun and it is always in a plural form in English. Therefore, the user is made aware that this lexical item (cattle) is always in a plural form. Even in Oshikwanyama, it is referring to *eengobe*, and the lexical item *eengobe* is also in a plural form.

In Example 42B, it can be observed that there are grammatical notes that follow immediately after the part of speech marker. It shows that the lemma **gills** in Oshikwanyama is translated as

omalakusha and it is in a plural form. The lemma **glands** is also in a plural form, and in Oshikwanyama it is translated as *ovana vofingo*, in the plural form as well.

Overall, the grammatical notes on this dictionary part are presented following the part of speech markers. Grammatical notes are very important, because they assist the target users in using and understanding how lexical items are used grammatically in the language.

3.5.3 EO access structures

In this sub-section, the analysis is done on the basis of the two access structure types as discussed in Chapter Two and Section 3.4.3 of this chapter, namely *outer access structure* and *inner access structure*.

3.5.3.1 Outer access structure

Aspects such as table of contents, guidewords and the arrangement of lemmata are part of the outer access structure. Since the table of contents and the arrangements of lemmata have already been analysed on outer texts and macrostructural aspects, under Section 3.3 of this chapter, the focus of this section will only be on guide words.

(i) The guide words

Description

Guidewords assist the target users in accessing the information that they are looking up in the dictionary. Instead of paging through the entire volume page by page searching for the appropriate lexical items functioning as lemmata, the target users only look at the guide words presented on the top left and right corners of the same page.

Analysis

As in 3.4.3 of this Chapter, the researcher has come to a conclusion that guide words have never been presented in the entire dictionary. This is problematic to the target users of this dictionary, as they have to spend more time searching for the lemma they want. Therefore, the compilers of this dictionary should have presented the guide words on the top left and top right corners of this dictionary for the target users to easily retrieve the lexical items that would like to have information on.

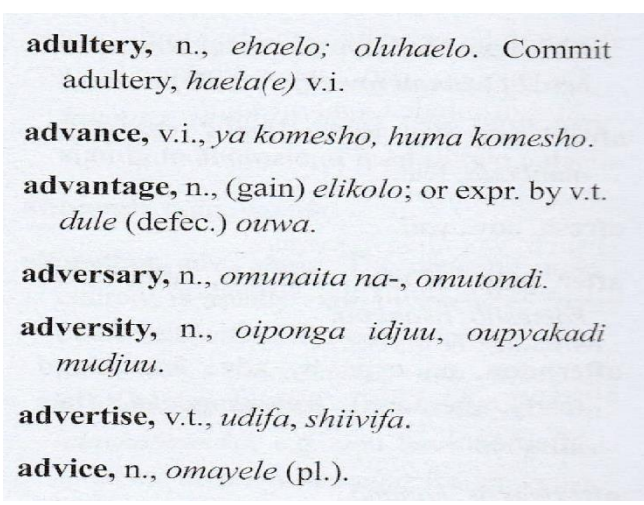
3.5.3.2 Inner access structure

As in 3.3, the analysis in this section deals with the typographical and non-typographical structural markers that concern search zones:

(i) *Typographical structural markers*

Description

The structure of lemmata has been thoroughly discussed in Chapter Two as well as in this Chapter (Section 3.4.1 and 3.5.1). It can be observed that the main lemmata have been printed in bold. Compare the following examples from page 289 of the *EO*:



adultery, n., *ehaelo; oluhaelo*. Commit adultery, *haela(e)* v.i.
advance, v.i., *ya komesho, huma komesho*.
advantage, n., (gain) *elikolo*; or expr. by v.t. *dule* (defec.) *ouwa*.
adversary, n., *omunaita na-, omutondi*.
adversity, n., *oiponga idjuu, oupyakadi mudjuu*.
advertise, v.t., *udifa, shiivifa*.
advice, n., *omaye* (pl.).

(*OE/EOD, 2019: 289*)

Example 43: Typographical structural markers in the EO

Analysis

In example 43, it is evident that the lemmata in all the main articles are printed in bold. This concludes that all the lemmata in the *EO* have been printed in bold, a case that has been adopted by most of the dictionaries worldwide.

(ii) *Non-typographical structural markers*

Description

The presentation of commas and semicolons is an important aspect when it comes to bilingual dictionaries. Based on the literature, semicolons are used to separate senses of polysemous lemmata, while commas are used to separate target language synonyms. These non-typographical structural markers in the *EO* have been presented from page 513 of the *EO* as follows:

rug, n., *onhanga*, *ekumbafa*.

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 513)

Example 44: The correct presentation of a comma in the OE

Analysis

In Example 44, the presentation of commas in the article introduced by the lemma **rug** has been applied correctly, as these two translation equivalents, *onhanga* and *ekumbafa* are synonyms. This means that they are referring to one and the same thing. The target users of this dictionary, particularly the non-mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama who have experience in dictionary use, will have a clue that the lexical items, *onhanga* and *ekumbafa* are synonyms, and they can replace each other in any given situation. There are some cases in which the comma is missing from the articles, which may lead to incorrect translation equivalents. Compare the following dictionary article.

wheel, n., *elola okuulu (ketemba)*, lit. hind-
leg (of wagon).

(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 569)

Example 45: The missing of a comma in the translation equivalents

In Example 45, it can be deduced that the presentation of a comma between the translation equivalent *elola* and *okuulu* is missing, which may lead to unclear meaning. The lexical item **wheel** has two synonyms in Oshikwanyama. The first meaning is *elola* and the second meaning is *okuulu*. The non-Oshikwanyama mother tongue users who may come across this article may learn a wrong translation of the lexical item **wheel**, which is *elola okuulu*, which is supposed to be *elola, okuulu*. This might have been caused by the lack of reading through before the final version of the dictionary was taken to the publishing house. The article in Example 45 should have been presented as follows:

wheel, n., *elola, okuulu (ketemba)*, lit. hind-
leg (of wagon).

In addition, there are cases in which a comma is incorrectly applied in the sample. Compare the following dictionary article taken from Page 513 of the *EO* part of the dictionary.

ruffian, n., *oshipwidi, ombudi*. (*OE/EOD*, 2019: 513)

Example 46: The incorrect presentation of a comma in the EO part.

It has been explained in Chapter Two that a comma separates synonymous words. In Example 46, lexical items *oshipwidi* and *ombudi* are not synonyms or partial synonyms at all, but they are polysemous. That is, they share different meanings. Therefore, a semicolon that separates polysemous words should have been presented. The target user who is a non-mother tongue speaker of Oshikwanyama, might be of the idea that the words used as translation equivalents are synonyms, and may end up using the two of them, in the same situation, which may lead to a loss of communication. Therefore, the article in Example 46 should have been presented as follows:

ruffian, n., *oshipwidi*; *ombudi*.

Most importantly, lexicographers should be equipped with a good understanding of dealing with structural markers (typographical and non-typographical markers). This will prevent the target users from being misguided, and also use the appropriate synonyms or polysemous lexical items correctly. Besides that semicolons distinguish between diverse polysemic values, the use of Arabic numbers rather than semicolons to distinguish between diverse polysemic values would also be more user-friendly, as suggested in Section 3.4.3. In addition, the inaccurate use of both typographical and non-typographical structural markers presents a serious issue in utilising the *EO* as both the target users, the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama and the mother-tongue speakers of English will be confounded. This simply means that they will not be able to legitimately distinguish between semantic divergence and lexical divergence (Semantic and lexical divergence are dealt with in the following Section). Subsequently, future compilers ought to take this matter seriously, to avoid the target users from getting confused, misguided and not be fascinated by utilising their dictionaries.

3.5.4 Equivalent relations in English-Oshikwanyama

Finding translation equivalents is indeed a difficult task to accomplish. According to Wang (2012), many dictionary users, especially beginners, may have the idea that they can replace any lexical unit they are familiar with in one language, for a given concept with a lexical unit for a similar concept in the foreign language, to find the right translation, and it is indeed understandable. On the opposite, the concept of equivalence is far more complex than that.

Equivalence plays a crucial role in the field of bilingual dictionaries' compilation. Equivalence between the source and target languages is a significant principle and should be taken into account by all compilers of dictionaries.

As already specified in the previous sub-sections, Svensén (2009: 253) stresses that “the purpose of the bilingual dictionary is to provide in one language lexical items with equivalents in another language (target language) that are as close to context and use as possible.”

Therefore, despite Svensén's (2009) definition, equivalents are subdivided into separate categories. Firstly, there is what is called equivalence of meaning, referred to as semantic equivalence. Besides semantic equivalence, there is also usage equivalence which is known as pragmatic equivalence.

The difference between the translation equivalence and the explanatory equivalence is also crucial. Gouws (2002: 195) describes a translation equivalent as a target language item that, based on different contextual and co-textual constraints, may be used to replace the source language item in a particular occurrence.

Svensén (2009) agrees with Gouws (2002) that in running the target language text, “translation equivalence” is one that can be inserted. Therefore, a translation equivalence has a higher degree of insertability, but a lower degree of explanatory power. Explanatory equivalents, on the opposite, have a higher degree of explanatory capacity with a lower degree of insertability.

Additionally, Gouws (2002) clarifies that equivalent relation implies the connection between items in the source and target language. Based on this explanation, different types of equivalent relations have been identified in translation dictionaries. Gouws (2002), Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), and Svensén (2009) clearly distinguish the three main equivalence types, namely, full equivalence, partial equivalence, and zero equivalence. Each type of equivalence is hereunder analysed separately.

3.5.4.1 Full equivalence (congruence)

Description

Congruence (full equivalence) is a one-to-one equivalent relation that prevails when the source language and the target language items are equivalent on a semantic level. This is to say that both source and target language forms have exactly the same meaning. In other words, the translation equivalent can substitute the lemma in all its uses. Svensén (2009: 258) further

asserts that “Full equivalence occurs primarily in certain types of terminology, especially in science and technology, where concepts are largely formed on an international basis and in many cases are even standardised”.

This equivalence type has been regarded as the easiest category for both the compiler of the dictionary and the user, since the lexical items that fall under this category are the easiest groups of lexical items.

Furthermore, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) explain that both the source language and the target language items have exactly the same meaning, function on the same stylistic level and represent the same register. It is therefore implied that the target language item can be used as a translation equivalent of the source language item without any restrictions. Compare the following dictionary articles from the *EO*, Pages 289 and 317.

advice, n., *omaye*le (pl.). (OE/EOD, 2019: 289)

castrate, v.t. *lutula*(a). (OE/EOD, 2019: 317)

Example 47: Full equivalence in the EO.

Analysis

In Example 47, two articles have been presented. In the first article, it can be seen that a translation equivalent *omaye*le has been given to the lemma **advice**. Similarly, the lemma **castrate** has also been made up of one translation equivalent which is *lutula*. It can be concluded, therefore, that both source and target language forms have exactly the same meaning, and the translation equivalents can substitute the lemmata in all their occurrences. It can then be concluded that full equivalence prevails in Oshikwanyama as appeared in the sample.

3.5.4.2 Partial equivalence (divergence)

Description

Partial equivalence (*divergence*) is regarded as the most typical equivalent relation when it comes to translational dictionaries. Gouws (2002) and Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) have defined partial equivalence or divergence as a type of equivalence that is characterised by one to more than one relation between source and target language forms. This simply means the equivalent paradigm should consist of more than one translation equivalent in a certain lemma.

According to Gouws (2002), partial equivalence can be distinguished into different subtypes, namely, lexical divergence, semantic divergence and poly divergence. When a monosemous lexical item that is functioning as a lemma is believed to have more than one translation equivalent, lexical divergence prevails. In the target language, these equivalents are believed to be synonyms or partial synonyms.

Compare the following dictionary articles taken from the sample.

equerry, n., *omumati wohamba, omukalele wohamba, omupiya wohamba.* (OE/EOD, 2019: 373)

Example 48A: Partial equivalence in the EO

mirror, n., *onhengelelo, okatengelelo, okashipili.*

mirth, n., *ehafo, enyakuko.*

(OE/EOD, 2019: 457)

Example 48B: partial equivalence in the EO

It can be observed in Example 48A that the lemma **equerry** has three translation equivalents, namely, *omumati wohamba, omukalele wohamba* and *omupiya wohamba*. These translation equivalents are synonymous and they can replace one another in any given context. This means that these translation equivalents, *omumati wohamba* can replace *omupiya wohamba* or *omukalele wohamba* in all occurrences. This also applies to Example 48B in which there are two articles. The first article is introduced by the lemma **mirror** and three translation equivalents, *onhengelelo, okatengelelo* and *okashipili* have been presented. In Oshikwanyama, these translation equivalents can replace one another in all occurrences. Similarly, in the second article introduced by the lemma **mirth**, two translation equivalents, namely, *ehafo* and *enyakuko* have been presented. These translation equivalents in Oshikwanyama are synonyms, and the user can choose any one of them to use in any given situation.

In addition, the user who has experience with dictionary use is also made aware of the comma which is used in the article. The function of a comma, based on the literature, is to separate synonymous lexical items. It shows that these equivalents are synonyms in the language. It is therefore concluded that synonymous lexical items in Oshikwanyama prevail. Therefore, partial equivalence exists in the *EO*.

Semantic divergence also prevails “where the lemma sign represents a polysemous lexical item” (Gouws, 2002: 198). This is critical, because if complementing entries are not provided, then the dictionary user will find it difficult to choose the correct translational equivalent. Compare the following dictionary article, in which semantic divergence occurs.

ruffian, n., *oshipwidi*, *ombudi*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 513)

Example 49: Incorrect presentation of semantic divergence

As it can be seen in Example 49, two translation equivalents have been provided for the lemma **ruffian**. These translation equivalents are *oshipwidi* and *ombudi*, and are used as synonyms, but they cannot replace one another in any given context. Therefore, a semicolon should have been used to separate these two translation equivalents, instead of a comma. Another article is presented below.

cavil, v.i., *konakona(a)*; *sheka(e) oinima*. (OE/EOD, 2019: 317)

Example 50: Correct presentation of a semicolon

It can be seen that a semicolon has been applied correctly in the article in Example 50. This simply provides an idea how the translation equivalents cannot, at all, replace one another in any given context, that is why it is replaced by a semicolon. The selection of the correct equivalent to use, as far as polysemous lexical items are concerned, is a problem, especially to the non-mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama, as they find it difficult to select the correct translation equivalent to use. If they do not choose the correct equivalent to use, they will end up producing texts that have no meaning at all.

With regard to this point, Wang (2012) stresses that complementing information on the use of synonyms is important, otherwise the user will have a problem when it comes to the choosing of the correct lexical item to use. It cannot, therefore, be assumed by any lexicographer that the users of any dictionaries will have knowledge on which translation equivalent to use for a given situation. Therefore, dictionary compilers should be compelled to use additional strategies for the retrieval of information, for example, the strategies of contextualisation and co-textualisation.

3.5.4.3 Zero equivalence

Description

Lexical gaps in any language do exist and are common. When the target language does not have a lexical item as an equivalent for the source language item, then zero equivalence, (surrogate equivalence) prevails. Additionally, surrogate equivalence, based on Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), belongs to different categories and the nature of a particular lexical gap determines their choice.

Two types of lexical gaps have been identified by Wang (2012) namely linguistic gaps and referential gaps. When the meanings or the things that are represented by words exist in the target world, but the equivalent words do not exist is referred to as linguistic gaps. For example:

decoy, n., *omuhekelifi momeva mapyu* (one who entices into hot water); *omukokeli mehoka lipyu* (one who entices into hot broth).

(OE/EOD, 2019: 345)

Example 51: Linguistic gaps in the EO

Analysis

Based on Example 51, there is no equivalent lexical item in Oshikwanyama for **decoy**, but it can be translated into a phrase as *omuhekelifi momeva mapyu* = one who entices onto hot water; in the same way, another phrase has been provided for the same lemma decoy as *omukokeli mehoka lipyu* = one who entices into hot broth.

Another example is found in the following example:

misbelief, n., *eitavelo lihe na oshili, eitavelo li he fi loshili.*

(OE/EOD, 2019: 457)

Example 52: Linguistic gaps in the EO

There is no equivalent word for the lexical item *misbelief*. Therefore, this lexical item has been provided with a phrase to indicate what it means. The phrase is, therefore, *eitavelo lihe na oshili* or *eitavelo lihe fi loshili*. Compare the following example.

sugar, n., *oshuuka* (from Engl.).
(*OE/EOD*, 2019: 541)

Example 53: Linguistic gaps in the EO

In Oshikwanyama, there is no exact lexical item that refers to the English lexical item sugar. One of the reasons would be that sugar is not an Oshikwanyama item, it is a type of seasoning from Europe. Since there is no equivalent lexical item, Oshikwanyama has adopted it and translated it as *oshuuka*, a loan translation as provided in Example 53. This simply means that the word is only translated by its pronunciation. An accompanying explanation should have been provided for a clear explanation, especially to the target user of the dictionary, who is not a mother-tongue speaker of Oshikwanyama.

Furthermore, Wang (2012) asserts that referential gaps prevail when the equivalent meaning or thing in the target language does not exist at all. The target language users do not have an idea to which the source language is referring, because their language does not have a word to refer to the subject. Most of these words are believed to be culturally bound, therefore a brief explanation of meanings is given as a surrogate equivalent after the pronunciation equivalent. Such a translation may be used in translation or text production, but not in text reception or to satisfy a cognitive function, when there are no extra or additional explanations. It is also believed that zero equivalences are common in some idioms.

In addition, language changes have their treatment when this is in terms of lexical gaps. For instance, the use of loan words as provided in Example 53. The lexical gap is filled with a loan word that is functioning as a zero equivalent (surrogate equivalent) when language contact occurs (Wang, 2012).

This simply means that lexicographers do not necessarily initiate these loan words but when they do exist in a language, then the lexicographer has to treat them as part of the lexicon of the particular language. Furthermore, Gouws (2002: 202) clarifies that the existence of loan words does not cause any serious problems to dictionary compilers, but “when a loan word is not that well-established in the target language of a translation dictionary, then the lexicographer often complements this translation equivalent with a paraphrase of meaning.”

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter dealt with a critical review of the bilingual Oshikwanyama dictionary entitled *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary [OEEOD]*, compiled and edited by the Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee in 2019. The review was based on the criteria that are adopted in ensuring that a user-friendly dictionary is compiled. The review was divided into two parts as the dictionary is divided into two parts, namely, the part of *Oshikwanyama-English* and the part of *English-Oshikwanyama*. Furthermore, each part was divided into two sub-sections, namely, the evaluation of the outer texts (front and back matters), and the evaluation of the inner texts (macrostructure and microstructure). The criteria that were part of the evaluation have been discussed in Chapters One and Two of this salient study. The dictionary's target user(s) based on the function theory, dictionary purposes as established by the communication theory, were also part of this analysis. The following chapter (Chapter Four) presents a model that can be adapted in compiling an English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school.

CHAPTER FOUR

A MODEL FOR COMPILING AN ENGLISH-OSHIKWANYAMA DICTIONARY FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL LEARNERS

4.1 Introduction

Before the discussion of the model for the proposed dictionary is established, it is worth defining the term “model” as provided by various academics. The first definition is provided by Kühme (2005). In his view, a model is nothing other than information about something, either content or meaning, which has been created by an individual (the sender) for someone, who is the receiver, for a purpose (usage context). To relate this definition to the present study, Kühme’s (2005) definition of the term model is then expanded into the following:

- (a) Firstly, a model is information about something. This simply means that it is the information contained in the model for the proposed dictionary. For example; the criteria for the compilation of the proposed dictionary.
- (b) Secondly, a model is created by someone. For this study, a model has been created by the lexicographer to be followed by the compilers of the proposed dictionary. For example, the model for the proposed dictionary has been established in this Chapter, so that the future compilers will follow it in compiling the English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners.
- (c) Lastly, a model is created with the purpose, for example, in this case, to give guidance and best strategies in compiling the proposed dictionary and how the dictionary will be utilised.

The second definition of the term “model” is taken from the Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2008: 917) which is “a representation of something, either as a physical object which is usually smaller than the real object or as a simple description of the object which might be used in calculations...” To relate this definition to the present study, the term *model* is actually defined as a representation of plans, criteria and illustrations or merely descriptions of the dictionary to be compiled in future. In this case, it is a description, a plan or an illustration representing the compilation of, for instance, the *English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for secondary school learners*.

This chapter then proposes a model for compiling the English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for Secondary School Learners (*EODSSL*). This model is specifically targeted at secondary school learners because the researcher has seen the immediate need at secondary schools in Namibia. The dictionaries that have been produced so far are for general use and do not include many recent terminologies that can be of great necessity in secondary schools. In addition, some lexical items used in the existing Oshikwanyama dictionaries, including *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, which was reviewed in Chapter Three, are archaic. According to the review that was conducted in Chapter Three, the existing Oshikwanyama dictionary [*Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*] which was published in 2019 has observable shortcomings. Some of these shortcomings are the inclusion of obsolete letters, incorrect translation equivalents, incorrect spelling of translation equivalents, incorrect morphology, lack of lexicographical labels, and many others. Therefore, the need for the establishment of a learners' dictionary is observed. Since Oshikwanyama lexicography is still in its initial stage, this model, as a starting point, is only meant for the development of the Oshikwanyama language, with a particular focus on learners at secondary schools. Therefore, it is also suggested for future studies to come up with models that will focus on primary schools, upper primary schools, and perhaps tertiary institutions. It has been established on the basis of the relevant literature and the critical review that was conducted in Chapter Three of this study.

4.2 Aspects for the compilation of English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for Secondary School Learners

This section, which is also the heart of this chapter, focuses on major criteria or aspects to be followed, based on the relevant literature, as discussed in Chapter Two and Chapter Three of this study, for the compilation of a user-friendly learners' dictionary. These major aspects, among others, are the type of the dictionary, languages to be treated, size and coverage, target users, the proposed dictionary's functions and purposes, coverage and frame structures. These aspects are discussed below.

4.2.1 The type of the bilingual dictionary and the languages involved

There are three kinds of bilingual dictionaries according to how they are structured regarding the languages to be treated in the dictionary. This means that bilingual dictionaries can either

be mono-directional, bi-directional or poly-directional as explained by various scholars, such as Hausmann and Werner (1991), Mavoungou (2006), Mashamaite (2001) and Tomaszczyk (1983). According to Tomaszczyk (1983), a mono-directional bilingual dictionary serves the needs of the native speakers of one of the two languages. Mavoungou (2006) defines a mono-directional bilingual dictionary (monoscopal), as a dictionary that has the source language and the target language. It includes only one section, for instance, *A* to *B*. A bi-directional bilingual dictionary is compiled to serve the needs of the speakers of both languages. This simply means that the speakers may use the dictionary in terms of encoding, decoding or other purposes such as translation (Hausmann & Werner 1991; Mashamaite, 2001). Bi-directional bilingual dictionary (biscopal) includes two sections, one section runs from *A* to *B*, and the other section runs from *B* to *A*. The proposed dictionary is going to be bi-directional. Although much focus will be on the Oshikwanyama speaking learners, English mother tongue learners are also targeted, as they will be able to learn Oshikwanyama. Therefore, the proposed dictionary will aid them to learn to produce texts in their vernacular languages (both English and Oshikwanyama), and translate texts into their vernacular languages, (either English or Oshikwanyama). The two languages to be treated in the proposed dictionary will be English, as a source language (all main and sub-lemmata will be presented in English) and Oshikwanyama as the target language (all the translation equivalents will be presented in Oshikwanyama).

4.2.2 Size and coverage of the dictionary

The proposed dictionary is going to be utilised by just secondary school learners, from Grade 8 to Grade 12. Therefore, it does not need to be a big-sized lexicographical work that will include all the lexical items from both English and Oshikwanyama lexicon. It is going to be portable, and the lexical items to be treated will be carefully selected to accommodate the needs of the learners from all the different fields of study followed in secondary schools, ranging from science subjects, technical subjects, arts, humanities to social subjects among others.

4.2.3 The dictionary's target user

This aspect deals with ascertaining a specific target user group as well as the specific lexicographical needs of this particular target user group. It is stated that the position of the

user in any bilingual learners' dictionary is significant, and before the dictionary is designed, it is better for the compiler of any bilingual dictionary to analyse the needs of the user. This simply means that the compilation of a dictionary, on the basis of both its macro and microstructure should be co-determined by the needs and reference skills of the target user. Therefore, it is important for the lexicographer to put the target user into consideration.

It has been emphasised by various scholars in the field of both theoretical and practical lexicography that any dictionary is compiled based on the target users that have been identified (Cf. Tarp, 2008; Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005, among others). To identify the intended user type of the proposed dictionary, it is important to stress the characteristics of the target user below as provided by Tarp (2008; 2013) and Gouws and Prinsloo (2005). These characteristics will be formulated in a form of questions and answers as explained below.

C1 = What is the mother-tongue of the target users of the proposed EODSSL?

For *EODSSL*, two different potential target user groups can be distinguished, namely mother-tongue speakers of English and mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama (particularly learners of Oshikwanyama that are in secondary schools in Namibia).

C2 = To what extent do they master their mother-tongue?

Mother-tongue speakers of English

Given the fact that the medium of instruction for the mother-tongue speakers of English since from the pre-primary level, education is conducted in English and it is readily available everywhere, either internationally or locally, the target users of the proposed dictionary are expected to have the following competencies.

- Completely literate
- Advanced competence in English Grammar
- Advanced competence in English Lexicon
- Advanced competence in English orthography
- Advanced competence in English Morphology and Semantics

Mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama

Due to more limited instructions and the availability of literature in their mother tongue (Medium of instruction up to Grade 3, after that, Oshikwanyama as a subject is offered as an

optional language subject up to tertiary institutions (cf. Chapter One)), the target users that are mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama are expected to have the following competencies:

- Literate to an advanced degree
- Intermediate competence in Oshikwanyama grammar
- Intermediate competence in Oshikwanyama lexicon
- Intermediate to basic competence in Oshikwanyama orthography

C3 = To what extent do they master the relevant foreign language?

Mother-tongue speakers of English

For the mother-tongue speakers of English, Oshikwanyama is regarded as a foreign language, and for Oshikwanyama mother-tongue speakers, English is regarded as either a foreign or a second language in schools. The mother-tongue speakers of English (English learners) are expected to have the following competencies in Oshikwanyama.

- Literate to the limited extent that texts can be read without comprehension and with partially correct pronunciation, because the same alphabet is used in English.
- Zero competence in Oshikwanyama grammar
- Zero competence in Oshikwanyama lexicon
- Zero competence in Oshikwanyama orthography

Mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama

For the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama, English is generally not practised all the time at home, and many learners only encounter and use it at school. Therefore, mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama are expected to have the following competencies in English as their second or foreign language.

- Intermediate literacy in English
- Basic to intermediate competence in English grammar
- Basic to intermediate competence in English lexicon
- Basic to intermediate competence in English orthography.

C4 = How great is their general cultural knowledge?

The mother-tongue speakers of English (as one of the target users of the proposed dictionary) are expected to have advanced to expert knowledge of interacting with one another, and advanced to expert knowledge of writing and reading texts in their mother tongue. The mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama (who are also one of the target users of the proposed dictionary) are expected to have advanced to expert knowledge of interacting with one another, and intermediate knowledge of writing and reading texts in their mother tongue.

C5 = How great is their knowledge of the FL culture?

Mother-tongue speakers of English as the target users of the proposed dictionary have either zero knowledge of Oshikwanyama culture or zero to basic knowledge of Oshikwanyama culture. Mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama as the target users of the proposed dictionary have either basic or intermediate knowledge of the Western Culture.

C6 = What general experience of dictionary use do they have?

Mother-tongue speakers of English

The general experience of dictionary use for the mother-tongue speakers of English as one of the target users of the proposed dictionary is fair because of a comparatively better reading culture and access to English dictionaries and their use.

- Advanced experience of how to find a lemma they are looking up in the dictionary
- Advanced knowledge of how lemmata are arranged in the dictionary
- Advanced knowledge of finding translation equivalents

Mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama

The general experience of dictionary use for the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama as one of the target users of the proposed dictionary is very limited experience due to low reading culture and almost no access to Oshikwanyama dictionaries or dictionary use experience.

- Limited experience of how to find the lemma they are looking up in the dictionary
- Limited experience of how lemmata are arranged,
- Limited knowledge of finding translation equivalents.

Among the nine user questions (characteristics) that Tarp (2008; 2013) and Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) discuss, the above six have been selected for the proposed dictionary and are considered relevant. It can be concluded that the target users of the proposed dictionary are the mother-tongue speakers of English or Second Language speakers of English, and the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama. The dictionary will assist them in text reception, text production, as well as in translation.

4.2.4 The *EODSSL* purposes

The discussion on dictionary purposes has been provided already in Chapter One. The proposed dictionary is also made up of three very important purposes. These purposes are *Macro-contextual purposes*, *Meso-contextual purposes*, and *Micro-contextual purposes*. A discussion on these three important dictionary purposes is found in Beyer (2014) and Beyer and Augart (2017). These purposes are explained below.

4.2.4.1 Macro-contextual purposes

This class of purposes (Macro-contextual purposes), based on to Beyer and Augart (2017), deals with the socio-cultural contributions that any dictionary compiled would provide in the general public in which it functions. For example, the proposed dictionary will be used to document the lexical stock of a language for the purpose of assisting in the standardisation of a language as well as to give assistance in language and teaching. Furthermore, macro-contextual purposes could target, for example, the improvement of the status of a language.

Based on the preceding explanations, the first macro-contextual purpose of the proposed *EODSSL* is to improve the current status of Oshikwanyama as a Namibian national language, through documenting part of its vocabulary. By documenting its vocabulary, the target users will be able to retrieve it with ease. Documenting the Oshikwanyama vocabulary will assist in storing the information in such a dictionary for such a long time, and the lexical items stored in it will last, even for a couple of centuries. The second purpose is the functional use of the proposed dictionary which contributes to facilitating communication that prevails between the speakers of Oshikwanyama and the speakers of English. This simply means that the proposed

dictionary will serve as a means of communication between the speakers of English and the speakers of Oshikwanyama. For example, the speakers of Oshikwanyama or English may experience a problem [communication breakdown] due to a certain term used in a certain context, and they might feel the need of consulting the dictionary, so that they will get the meaning or the translation equivalent of such a term, for communication to prevail. Therefore, they have to consult the dictionary, so that it will assist them in understanding the meaning or the translation equivalent for the term that was used during communication. Another macro-contextual purpose of the proposed dictionary is that its functional use will contribute to the insight into Oshikwanyama as an element of Namibia's multicultural setup. This means that the target users of the proposed dictionary will use the dictionary to understand the values, beliefs and ways of life in both Western and African cultures, through English and Oshikwanyama as the languages presented in the proposed dictionary. The last macro-contextual purpose of the proposed *EODSSL* is that its functional use will contribute to the teaching and learning of Oshikwanyama and English. This means that the proposed dictionary will be utilised by teachers at schools as a teaching aid and by learners as a learning aid. There will be terms that will compel both teachers and learners to consult the proposed lexicographical work. Therefore, this work will serve as an answer in understanding those certain lexical items better. It will also be used by teachers and learners to translate text between the two languages. It will also be a good source for the target users when it comes to text production and text reception.

4.2.4.2 Meso-contextual purposes

Meso-contextual purposes are related to the user situation. This is the situation, for instance, in which the dictionary's target user experiences specific information needs that result in user questions and user consultation objectives. These purposes based on the function theory as discussed in Chapter One [1.10.1] (cf. Tarp & Bergenholtz, 2003) are also known as dictionary functions. Therefore, meso-contextual purposes are described as the user situation for which it is designed (Beyer & Augart, 2017). Meso-contextual purposes, which are also referred to as dictionary functions are formulated based on the two target user groups as established below.

Dictionary functions for mother-tongue speakers of English as one of the target users of the proposed *EODSSL*:

- To help in the translation of texts from English to Oshikwanyama

- To help in producing a text in Oshikwanyama
- To help in learning Oshikwanyama and acquire its vocabulary

These three functions will be realised when the need for translation of texts from English to Oshikwanyama arises. Learners will use the dictionary as a guide to a successful translation of texts, because it will provide them with the correct terms or with the correct translation equivalents. The dictionary will also assist the target users in producing different texts in Oshikwanyama. Since the Oshikwanyama vocabulary is stored in the dictionary, the non-Oshikwanyama speakers will be assisted in learning and acquire Oshikwanyama vocabulary for either text production.

Dictionary functions for mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama as the target users of the proposed *EODSSL*:

- To assist in learning English and acquire its vocabulary
- To assist in reading a general English text

These functions will be realised when the need for translation of texts from Oshikwanyama to English arises. Learners will use the dictionary as a guide to an accurate translation of texts, because it will provide them with the correct terms or with the correct translation equivalents. The dictionary will also assist the target users in producing a text in English. Since the English vocabulary is also stored in the dictionary, the Oshikwanyama speakers will be assisted in learning and acquire English vocabulary easily. The proposed dictionary will also be of great assistance in assisting the target users which are of Oshikwanyama, in reading a general English text.

4.2.4.3 Micro-contextual purposes

Micro-contextual purposes are the dictionary purposes that are related to the usage situation. This is “the immediate situation in which the target user is in the process of consulting a dictionary in order to achieve a user consultation objective, which is usually to find an answer to a set of user questions as they arise in a particular user situation” (Beyer & Augart, 2017:11).

Micro-contextual purposes for the mother-tongue speakers of English as the target users of the proposed *EODSSL* are highlighted below.

- To assist in providing the Oshikwanyama translation equivalent for a given lexical item X used in a pragmatic context Y.

This means that the proposed dictionary will help the target users with the correct Oshikwanyama translation equivalent for a given lexical item X which has been used in a pragmatic context Y.

- To demonstrate how Oshikwanyama translation equivalent X changes morphologically in expression Y.

This means that this dictionary will be of great significance, as it will give rules to the target users on how translation equivalent does change morphologically in a certain expression.

- How Oshikwanyama translation equivalent X functions in a sentence.
- Functions of translation equivalents in a given sentence or expression will be provided.
- How Oshikwanyama translation equivalent X is pronounced.
- Pronunciation is a major focus in the dictionary. This dictionary is of great importance as it will be used to assist the target users in understanding how translation equivalents are pronounced.

Micro-contextual purposes for the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama as the target users of the proposed *EODSSL* are highlighted below.

- To help in the spelling of a lexical item X in English
- How the English lexical item X changes morphologically in expression Y
- This means that this dictionary will be of great significance, as it will give rules to the target users on how translation equivalent does change morphologically in a certain expression.
- How the English lexical item X functions in a sentence.
- Functions of translation equivalents in a given sentence or expression will be provided.
- How the English lexical item X is pronounced

- Pronunciation is one of the major foci in the dictionary. This dictionary is of great importance as it will be used to assist the target users in understanding how translation equivalents are pronounced.

4.2.5 The dictionary's frame structure

Gouws (1993) emphasises that lexicographers do not need to put more information in learners' dictionaries. The information on learners' dictionaries is to be presented in such a way that it is problem-free and can be retrieved with ease. Therefore, attention needs to be given to different access structures used to enhance information retrieval. Gouws (1993: 29) further argues that "a restricted and a simplified microstructure leads to a decrease in density of information but to an increase in the explicitness and retrievability."

Gouws (1993) further suggests that when compiling a dictionary, especially a learners' dictionary, the lexicographer should only include much immediate information, which may be relevant and requires the learners' attention. Much and detailed information will confuse and distract learners, especially when they are preoccupied by plenty of activities, including assignments, tests, etc. Therefore, accessibility and retrieval of information in learners' dictionaries should be considered.

Based on the preceding paragraphs, the proposed dictionary's frame structure is proposed to be structured as discussed below.

4.2.5.1 Front and back covers of the dictionary

Generally, according to Gouws (2004a: 8), "a dictionary would typically also have front matter texts like the title page and the imprint." Although Gouws (2004a) does not establish how the title page should look like, it can be deduced that the title page should consist of the title, which needs to be brief and straight to the point. In addition, the title page of the dictionary according to Gouws (2004a), should also include the publisher's or a printer's name, address, the names of the author or the compilers of the dictionary and other details. The proposed dictionary will cover outer texts, namely unintegrated and integrated outer texts. Unintegrated outer texts, according to Steyn (2004), offer less contribution to the genuine purpose of the dictionary, although they are also important parts of the dictionary. These texts, among others, are title page, introduction and foreword. Integrated outer texts are significant, because they contribute

to achieving the genuine purpose of the dictionary. In other words, they add value and contribution to the successful dictionary consultation process (Gouws, 2004a). The back cover of the proposed dictionary needs to have a short paragraph (the blurb) for promotional purposes. In this paragraph, the user or target users are convinced to purchase this dictionary for their benefit.

4.2.5.2 The *EODSSL* outer texts

Some scholars like Svensén (2009) do not support the significance of the outer texts. They believe that compilers can do without them due to the reason that a dictionary does not lose its focus as a lexicographical work without outer texts. Therefore, users do not have time to look at the outer texts. On the contrary, other scholars, for instance, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) are of the idea that especially in foreign language learners' dictionaries, more specifically in the beginners' dictionaries, outer texts are significant, because they give assistance on the usage of dictionaries and provide additional information on the target language, like grammar, cultural information and many other aspects. Since this is just a secondary school learners' dictionary, then it does not need to be included with a lot of aspects, except that are of great importance will be included in the dictionary, such as users' guideline text which is always located on the front matter.

As it was established by Gouws (1993), Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) are also of the same idea that in positioning the text in a lexicographical work, one has to consider the three prime structures. These structures are then the front matter, the central list and the back matter. This simply means that the proposed bilingual dictionary for First Language Oshikwanyama learners at secondary school will be divided according to these three structures. The aspects such as preface, user's guide, table of contents, pronunciation guide and abbreviations used (front matter); cultural information and pictorial illustration index (back matter), constitute part of the discussion in this section.

(i) *The front matter texts*

Generally, as explained above, the front matter texts contain all the texts that go before the central list, consist of aspects such as preface, user's guide, table of contents, pronunciation

guide, and abbreviations, among others. As established above, a dictionary needs to have a compulsory text, which is the user's guide that will assist the user in understanding how this dictionary is structured and how to find certain aspects in the central list of the dictionary (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). The proposed *EODSSL* will consist of aspects such as preface, user's guide, table of contents, pronunciation guide, abbreviations used and notes on English and Oshikwanyama grammar. These aspects are briefly explained below.

(a) *Preface*

The preface is regarded as an unintegrated outer text which is located in the front matter of a dictionary in which the genuine purpose, the typology as well as the target users of that dictionary are usually indicated to the users (Ella, 2007). In the first place, the purpose, target users of the proposed dictionary will be provided. Secondly, information regarding the history and all the people and organisations involved in the compilation of the proposed *EODSSL* will also be established. Structural possibilities and motivations, the linguistic and lexicographic situations that lead to the compilation of the dictionary from the envisaged model will also be specified.

(b) *User's guide*

Based on Gouws (1993; 2004a), in learners' dictionaries, the user's guidelines text in the front matter is mandatory. This is due to the reason that it will guide the learners on how the information presented in the dictionary can be accessed. Therefore, *EODSSL* will provide guidance to the learners on how to use and access the information presented in the central list. This will include information such as: how to recognise and identify lemmata, translation equivalents, examples, senses and many other issues.

(c) *Table of contents*

A general table of contents that will be presenting a sketchy structure of the proposed dictionary will be provided. The table of contents is important as it will be used to indicate to the user where the specific pages the different sections of the dictionary will be located.

(d) *Pronunciation guide*

In this section, learners will be given guidance on how certain Oshikwanyama lexical items are pronounced. The Oshiwambo pronunciation chart or guide will be provided on the basis of the

recent Oshikwanyama orthography rules (Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, 2004). The English pronunciation guide will also be provided to assist the target users in pronouncing the English lexical items correctly when encountering them in the central list of the proposed *EODSSL*.

(e) *Abbreviations used*

A list of abbreviations that will be used in the dictionary will be of paramount importance for the target user. There will be certain abbreviations for English and Oshikwanyama. These abbreviations that will be used in the central list of the dictionary will then be explained to the user in this section so that the user will have knowledge of them when encountering them in the central list of the proposed dictionary or be able to refer back to the list.

(f) *Note on English and Oshikwanyama grammar*

This front matter text of the dictionary will cover information regarding English and Oshikwanyama grammar aspects, such as different parts of speech, inflections and morphology.

(ii) *The back matter text*

Generally, as explained in Chapter Two, the back matter text is the part of a dictionary that should be made up of elements such as bibliography, appendix, addendum, and explanation of abbreviations, pictures and references associated with the postures, relevant literature that can be consulted regarding extra-information on the dictionary. Mongwe (2006) further explains that this component also includes several texts that concern both communication-oriented and knowledge-oriented functions. The communication-oriented functions may assist the user in solving issues that relate to text production in the native language, text production in the foreign language, text reception in the native language and text reception in the foreign language. “The knowledge-oriented functions help the target user in providing aspects such as general cultural and encyclopaedic data, specific data about the subject field and data about the language” (Mongwe, 2006: 62). The back matter text of the proposed dictionary will cover two sections. The first section will deal with the information on Oshikwanyama culture, and the second section will deal with the pictorial illustration index. These sections are explained below.

(a) *Note on cultural information of Oshikwanyama*

This section will give a brief overview of a few significant Oshikwanyama cultural aspects such as greetings, and ways of interacting with one another, among others. In this section, a linguistic map of Oshikwanyama will also be provided.

(b) *Pictorial illustration index*

This section will provide, in alphabetical order, the titles of the different tables of pictures and the page numbers where these pictures are allocated throughout the dictionary. What is important in terms of this section is that it will give the users easy and direct access to pictures when they only want to consult these specific data categories with no need to go through the articles.

4.2.5.3 The central list

Gouws (1993; 2004a) indicates that the central list is the heart of the dictionary and it is a carrier of information because it entails aspects such as the arrangement of lemma, orthographic form, morphological data, parts of speech, pronunciation, translation equivalents, usage notes, etymology, cross-reference, markers of contexts, examples, ordering of senses and lexicographical labels. Concerning the central list, a distinction is made between the macrostructure and the microstructure of a dictionary. While macrostructure is the component that deals with the arrangement of lemma signs as the basic treatment units of the dictionary, microstructure is the component that deals with the structure of the lemmata. This simply means that it is the total set of data categories that follow the lemma sign.

Another important consideration when compiling a learner's dictionary is the treatment of the microstructure. Gouws (1993) suggests that a dictionary's microstructure should be offered in a very simplified manner. This access should be given explicitly to provide the easiest possible transfer of information. Therefore, the lemma selection of this proposed English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners will be restricted to a fairly simple level.

(i) *Macrostructural aspects*

Macrostructure deals with the collection of the arrangement of lemma signs as the basic treatment units of a dictionary. Therefore, it can be regarded as the collection of lemma signs being the basic treatment units of the dictionary. Wiegand (1996) is also in the same vein and defines a dictionary's macrostructure as the structure of a dictionary that leads to the other dictionary structures in which the dictionary articles are put, and attached. Steyn (2004) adds important and compulsory structures for a learner's dictionary. These structures are the alphabetical ordering of lemmata, the access alphabet, running heads, and many others. A few optional structures prevail in some dictionaries for the purpose to enhance access to the macrostructure, and they are thumb indexes, coloured pages, etc.

(a) *Arrangement of lemmata*

There are various methods of ordering lemmata in both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. They can be ordered thematically, systematically, and alphabetically, among others. Steyn (2004) suggests that alphabetical ordering of lemmata, on a macrostructural level, is crucial. This will enable the learners to access the lemmata or lemma signs with ease. Besides learners already have prior knowledge of letters of the alphabet. Therefore, they will be able to find the correct lemma they are looking up in the dictionary within a shorter period. Lemmata that are arranged in alphabetical order will not only help in accessing the information easily, but will also save time, so that learners can do some other activities.

For the proposed dictionary [*EODSSL*], the lemmata are also going to be arranged alphabetically, a case that has been adopted in the majority of dictionaries in the entire world. Furthermore, in bilingual lexicography, particularly the learners' dictionary, the central list is made up of article stretches, i.e. all the articles included under a specific letter of the alphabet, arranged based on the first letter of the lemmata which function as these articles' guiding elements.

(ii) *Microstructural aspects*

The microstructure is important as it is the component that deals with the structure of the lemmata. This simply means that it is the total set of data categories that follow the lemma sign.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) state that a dictionary article is made up of two prime components, and they are the comment on form and the comment on semantics. Christidou, Kungolos and Kamaroudis (2017) summarise below, in a form of a figure, the two very important article structures of a dictionary (cf. also, Hartmann & James, 2002).

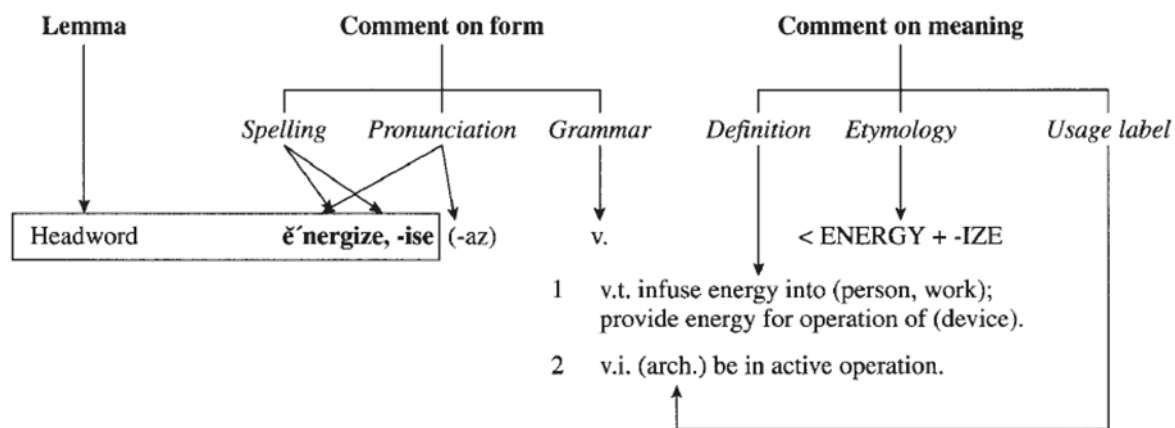


Figure 4.1 Two important components of a dictionary article

These components are explained below and this is how they will be presented in the proposed dictionary.

(a) *The comment on form*

The comment on form is the search field in which all the types of data that have to do with the form of the lemma sign are accommodated. These types of data include, among others, orthographic forms, pronunciation, morphological data, and parts of speech (Hausmann & Wiegand 1989; Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005, & Imbayarwo, 2008). What is very important to mention here is that the lemma sign is also regarded as part of the comment on form, because it gives information on the spelling of the relevant lexical item. Therefore, a quick synopsis of each entry that is going to be part of the proposed dictionary's comment on form is provided below.

- *Lemma sign*

In terms of the proposed *EODSSL*, the spelling of the lemmata/lemma signs is going to be correct. This will allow the target users to learn to spell and write the English lexical items correctly in their everyday activities, either at school or home. Besides spelling and writing

correctly, in terms of the typographical structural markers, both the main lemmata and the sub-lemmata are going to be printed in bold.

- *Orthographic forms*

Orthography deals with how lexical items are spelt. Orthography in any lexicographical work is of paramount importance. In the first place, it gives an understanding to the user on the correct spelling of lemmata, which will still assist the target user in spelling lexical items correctly as far as text production is concerned. It is also significant, because it helps the target user to choose the correct lexical item to use. Orthography is also crucial, because it indicates to the target user that a certain lexical item presentment in a dictionary article is archaic or a certain letter is obsolete. For example Letter *i* in words such as *iangé*, *iako*, or *lia* are obsolete. They are replaced by a semi-vowel [y]. Therefore, the lexical items are now spelt as *yange*, *yako*, or *lya*. In the same vein, the letter *u* in the following lexical items is obsolete. This letter is then replaced by the letter [w]. The following table indicates the same lexical items with obsolete letters and lexical items with currently used letters in Oshikwanyama.

Table 4.1: Words with obsolete letters vs words with currently used letters

Words with obsolete letters	Words with currently used letters
uange	wange [mine]
Uongonjo	wongonyo [for the fist]
Mueneni	mweneni [be quiet]
Nua	nwa [drink]

Although this entry will guide the target users on how English lemmata or lexical items functioning as lemmata are spelt or formulated, it will also indicate to the target users how Oshikwanyama lexical items are spelt using the current Oshikwanyama orthography. In other words, what is important to mention here is that aspects of orthography will not only be restricted to the source language which is English, but it will also cover the target language which is Oshikwanyama.

- *Morphological data or inflection*

The morphological aspect plays a vital role in lexicographical works. It is also important because it shows how lexical items change their form to form other different parts of speech, or to indicate plural or singular, and this is where the target user will have an understanding of the rules of inflection. Inflection also aids the target users in how lexical items change from negative to affirmative or how they change into different tenses. On this part of the comment on form, if a lemma is a noun, it needs to be indicated as to how it changes into its plural form. If the lemma is a verb, then it should be indicated as to how it changes into its present, past or future tenses. This will apply to both English and Oshikwanyama. To indicate inflection, the target users, especially the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama will acquire vocabulary which will assist them in both text production and text reception.

- *Parts of speech*

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) and Svensén (2009) explain the significance of presenting indications on parts of speech. They are both of the idea that presenting indicators of parts of speech is essential as it provides information that has to do with grammatical features and properties of the lemma and giving the target users' knowledge of irregularities in the grammar of the concerned language. For the proposed *EODSSL*, each lemma, either main or sub-lemma, will be assigned its parts of speech to which it belongs. This simply means that the part of speech marker will come immediately after the lemmata. The parts of speech markers will then be presented using the following abbreviations:

noun = n
 verb = v (transitive = vt, intransitive= vi)
 adverb = adv
 adjective = adj.
 preposition = prep
 demonstrative pronoun = dem.
 conjunction = conj.
 pronoun = pr.

The parts of speech for Oshikwanyama will be provided, provided that the translated equivalent is functioning as one word. It will be very hard to give all the lexical items in the translation

paradigm, because it will confuse the target users [the learners]. The Oshikwanyama parts of speech markers will be presented using the following abbreviations.

- Oshityadina [noun] = -dina
- Oshityalonga [verb] = -longa.
- Oshityahololi [adverb] = -hololi
- Oshityalupe [adjective] = -lupe
- Oshityaponheleuliko [demonstrative] = uliko.
- Oshikwatakanifitya [conjunction] = -kwatakanifitya
- Oshityaponhele [pronoun] = -ponhele

Indicating parts of speech will also assist the target users of the proposed dictionary from using lexical items wrongly in any given sentence or situation. In addition, if a particular lemma is going to belong to more than one part of speech, then each part of speech entry will be at least introduced by a unique or special structural marker (Cf. Shikesho, 2019). This special structural marker can be indicated by **bold-type** Roman numerals or CAPITAL LETTERS. It is advisable to present each article presented by different parts of speech separately.

- *Pronunciation*

The pronunciation marker will be provided, especially for the English lexical items functioning as lemmata / lemma signs. This marker will assist the target users that are Oshikwanyama mother-tongue speakers to learn how to pronounce the English lexical items correctly. The correct pronunciation will assist in text production (not only, for example: in activities such as presenting a speech in front of other learners, at the assembly point, making debates, but also in many other activities that are conducted either at the school environment or out of the school environment. The pronunciation markers will be presented between brackets [] or slashes //, and they will follow immediately after the parts of speech markers.

It is assumed that the mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama as one of the target users of the proposed dictionary will not be guided on the pronunciation of Oshikwanyama lexical items, and that pronunciation of Oshikwanyama lexical items will not be provided. This is because they have been dealing with pronunciation from pre-primary to Grade 7. Therefore, it is assumed that they, by this time, know how to read and write in Oshikwanyama. Therefore, if they know these two skills, then pronunciation will not be a major problem for them.

(b) *The comment on semantics*

The comment on semantics is the search field in which all the data types that deal with and reflect semantic and pragmatic features of the lexical item which is presented by the lemma are accommodated. The part of semantics [meaning] in a dictionary is important, because without the meaning section, the dictionary will not be called a dictionary, and its purpose, objectives, etc. will not be reached. In other words, it will be impossible to create a dictionary without the comment on semantics. In the first place, one can use a dictionary in looking up the meaning of a lexical item or translation equivalents that the user does not know. Secondly, it can assist one to understand his or her subject better. Lastly, it is also significant because it assists in improving communication, improving learners' grades by ensuring that they are using lexical items correctly. As explained earlier, the comment on semantics consists of features such as translation equivalents, etymological data, lexicographical labels, co-text and context entries and other data such as inserted inner texts (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). Therefore, for the proposed dictionary (*EODSSL*), the comment on semantics (meaning) will consist of translation equivalents, usage notes, etymology, cross-reference, markers of context, examples, grammatical notes, lexicographical labels and ordering of senses of polysemous lemmata.

- *Translation equivalents*

Translation equivalents will be one of the main foci of this proposed dictionary. All the translation equivalents, including all their examples, for quick identification by the target users, are going to be italicised. Furthermore, when the compilers are busy with the translation equivalents one thing that should be taken into consideration is the correct spelling of the translation equivalents. Firstly, the compilers have to ensure that the spelling of the translation equivalent is correct. The incorrect spelling of translation equivalents will misguide the target users of the proposed dictionary, the non-mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama, and learn incorrect spelling, which may also hinder them in pronouncing and spelling correctly in any given situation. Therefore, the micro-contextual purpose of spelling the translation equivalents in Oshikwanyama is going to prevail. Secondly, the case of incorrect morphology will be taken care of. In many African languages dictionaries, many translation equivalents have lexical items that are spelt incorrectly. It may be due to the reason that there have been no or only a few professional editors to go through all the translation equivalents as many of these languages are still in the process of development. Thirdly, the orthography to be used should be the current one, to avoid using the orthography which is obsolete. Fourthly, the compilers of the proposed

dictionary will have to ensure that all the translation equivalents are correct. In recent times, the existing Oshikwanyama dictionaries have incorrect translation equivalents, which make those dictionaries' functions to be compromised. Therefore, to avoid such a situation, a team of proof-readers for the proposed dictionary is suggested for best quality.

- *Usage notes*

Usage notes, as defined by Van Sterkenburg (2003), are a label or short marker that shows certain limitations on the use of a lexical item or certain contexts or registers in which the lexical item customarily appears. A good example is taken from Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, (2019: 93):

impregnable, adj. transl. by *ihasi pondoka okuluifua* (it cannot be attacked).

In the article introduced by the lemma 'impregnable', there is a usage note *transl. by* which is of paramount importance, as it indicates to the target users that the lexical item *impregnable* is translated by a verbal phrase *ihasi pondoka okuluifua* (*ihashi pondoka okulwifwa*). Therefore, the usage note is effective, because it teaches the target users, [the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama or the mother-tongue speakers of English], that there are lexical items that function as adjectives or nouns, but in Oshikwanyama their translation equivalents can be a different part of speech or phrases. Therefore, this entry will guide the users on how to use a certain lexical item in Oshikwanyama when translating from English as the source language. These notes are similar to grammatical notes in presentation, because they also give syntactic information

- *Etymology*

This part of the comment on semantics will indicate the etymology of the translation equivalents (their origin and the way the meaning of the translation equivalents have changed throughout history). Some translation equivalents in Oshikwanyama are borrowed from other languages or varieties. Therefore, they will be indicated to the target users from which the Oshikwanyama lexical items are derived. The entry will be presented in brackets as well, starting with the marker "from". For example (*from English*).

- *Cross-reference*

Gouws (2001c) explains that a cross-reference entry is made up of two elements, namely, a reference marker (Mediostructural marker) and a reference address. The reference marker is the entry that marks the reference relation and another entry gives the reference address. Cross-reference will be used in the dictionary as a marker to show to the user where to find the full treatment of the lemma with the cross-reference marker. In other words, in terms of cross-reference, the higher frequency synonym of the lemmata will have to receive full treatment while the lesser frequency lemmata will get a cross-reference to the treated lemma. Explicit Cross-references are usually accompanied by a cross-reference marker, such as *see*, *see also*, *compare*, *cf.*, which can either be presented in full or abbreviated. The cross reference marker that will be used in the proposed dictionary will be “**SEE**” to signify an important cross-reference which the user is strongly recommended to.

- *Markers of contexts*

In the proposed dictionary, the target users will be given information about the discourse context in which a certain translation equivalent applies. This entry will be presented between brackets. Shikesho (2019) explains that indicators (markers) of context assist the target users in selecting the appropriate translation equivalents, in the case where there is more than one translation equivalent.

- *Illustrative examples*

According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), illustrative examples are very important to any lexicographical work and should be provided for the purpose of illustrating the typical use of the lexical item functioning as a lemma or translation equivalents. Since this dictionary aims at the two types of target users, illustrative examples will be treated in two different ways. Firstly, they will be used to illustrate the typical use of the lexical item represented by the lemma sign. Secondly, they will focus on the items that present translation equivalents for the lexical item represented by the lemma sign. Examples signs/marker will also be presented in a certain article of the proposed dictionary. The entry “for example” or “example” will precede the illustrative example. This presentation will assist the target users in understanding the

translation equivalents better. In this case, the concept of example is similar to an illustrative example, because they denote the use of a particular lexical item or translation equivalent.

- *Grammatical notes*

The grammatical notes will assist the target users on how to use the translation equivalents in a certain context. It usually shows, for example, that a certain lexical item is used as plurals in Oshikwanyama, for example (pl. **omai**) or only in its singular form. The grammatical note marker will always be indicated in brackets as (pl.) or (sing.). In addition, the verbs will also be shown if they are transitive or intransitive. If they are transitive, then they will have to be indicated with an abbreviation *v.t.*, and if the verbs are intransitive, then they have to be indicated with abbreviation *v.i.* These abbreviations will follow the pronunciation marker of the lemma.

- *Lexicographical labels*

Lexicographical labels will also be used in the proposed dictionary. Labels usually indicate whether a certain lexical item is archaic, obsolete, technical, offensive, avoided in the public, belongs to a certain field, etc. The labels will assist the target users in knowing when, how, and where to use a certain Oshikwanyama lexical item. The markers will be presented in brackets. For example: (*archaic*), (*technical*), (*offensive*), (*colloquial*), (*old*), etc.

- *Ordering of senses of polysemous lemmata*

Polysemous lexical items exist in Oshikwanyama. Polysemy is a word [lexical item] that has more than one meaning. Therefore, each meaning will be ordered in its sense. Based on Gouws and Prinsloo's (2005) approach, each sense of the proposed dictionary will be treated in a separate sub-comment on semantics, and these sub-comments will be marked using numbers, 1-4, functioning as polysemy markers. Senses can be ordered based on different factors (cf. Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005; Svensén, 2009). According to these scholars, the type of dictionary plays a significant role in the article-internal ordering of the sub-comments on semantics. This means that each dictionary type, based on its target user will have its approach to ordering the senses of polysemous lemma. For example, a dictionary dealing with historical principles may

order the senses from the oldest to the youngest. In general synchronic dictionaries, one usually finds the ordering determined by the usage frequency of the senses. This means that the sense with the highest usage frequency will be given as the first sense. Therefore, the proposed dictionary will order senses based on the frequency of usage. The lexical item with a higher frequency will be presented first, and the lexical item with a low frequency of usage will have to be presented last.

The criteria discussed in the preceding sections are relevant to the present study, because they will be adopted in compiling the proposed dictionary for secondary school learners. This simply means that all elements, such as the frame structure of the dictionary (outer texts – front and back matters of the dictionary, and inner text – the central list which consists of the two elements macrostructure and microstructure have been provided). Within the microstructure, two dictionary article components (the comment on form and the comment on semantics) that are very relevant to the present study, have been discussed, because they are considered salient for the compilation of a bilingual English-Oshikwanyama dictionary that will be of assistance to the secondary school learners of Oshikwanyama.

The following summary is provided in the form of figures for the model that will be followed when compiling the *EODSSL*. The first figure (Figure 4.2) is the frame structure excluding the central list due to the insufficient space on the page, and the second figure (Figure 4.3) on the following page then provides information on how the central list of the proposed *EODSSL* will be structured.

Model for the English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for Secondary School Learners

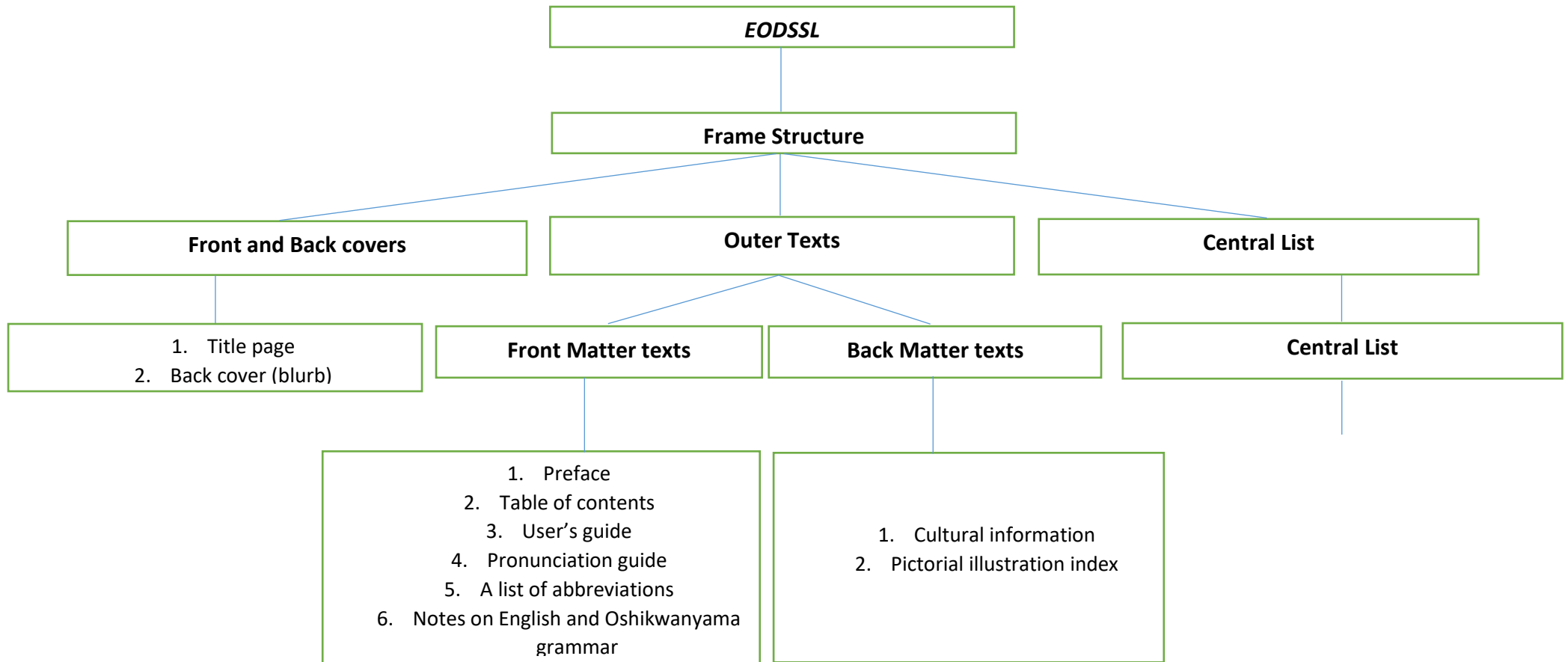


Figure 4.2 Model for compiling EODSSL: Frame structure

Model for compiling *EODSSL*: The Central list

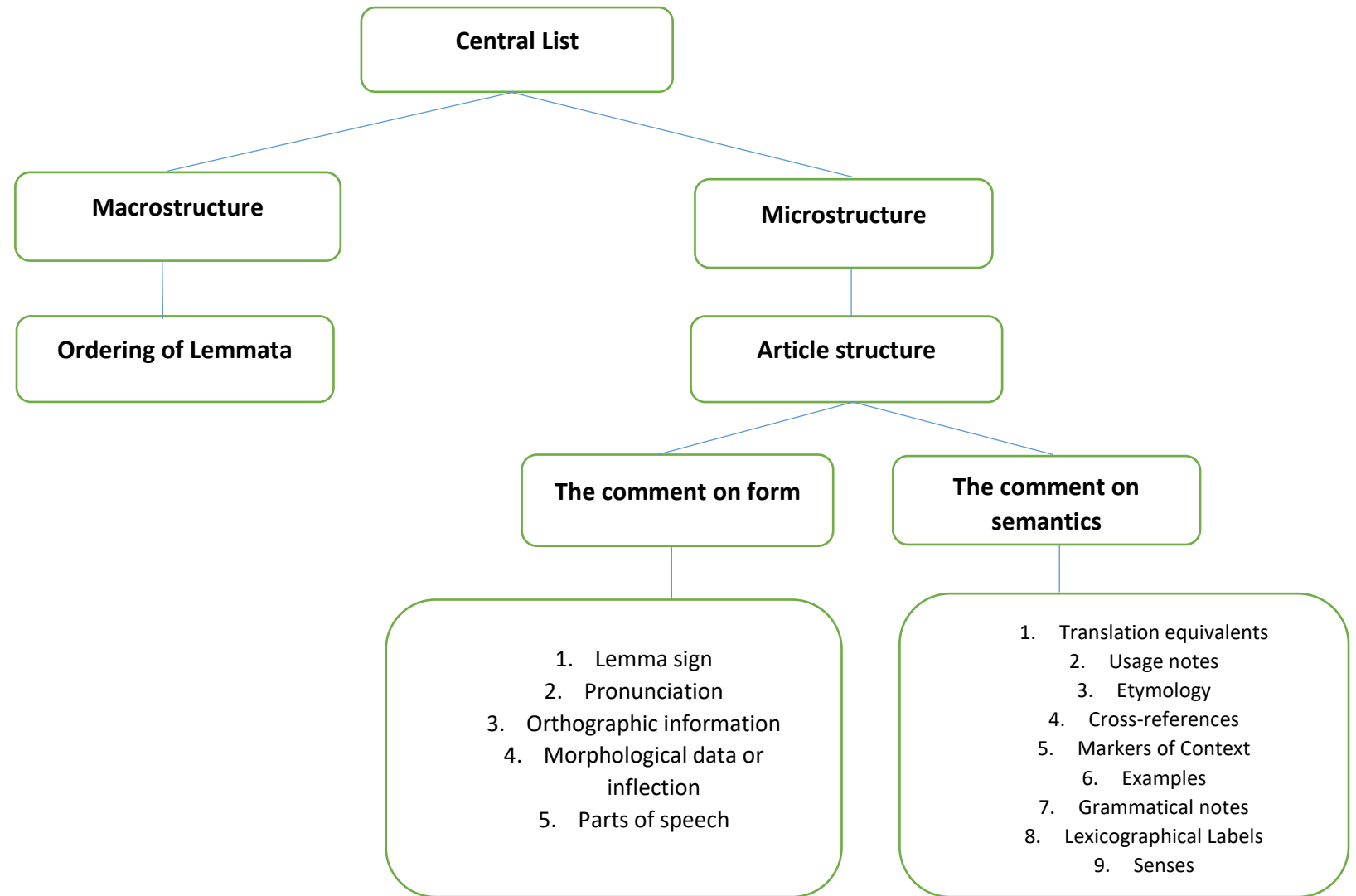


Figure 4.3 Model for compiling *EODSSL*: Central list

4.2.6 Access structure

The access structure, which Gouws (1996) regards also as the search path, is the structure or component that guides the user to the information they are looking for in the dictionary. Within the access structure, a distinction is made between the outer access structure and the inner access structure. The outer access structure, according to Gouws and Prinsloo, (2005: 165) “determines the part of the search route which leads the user from the entries on the cover of the dictionary to the lemma sign presented as guiding element of a given article.” Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:166) define the inner access structure as the structure that “determines the search route a user follows within the dictionary article to reach the specific item or data category (s)he is looking for.” For any dictionary to be user-friendly, especially the proposed *EODSSL*, according to Gouws (1996), lexicographers need to consider improving the quality of the access structure in such a way that it can lead to quick retrieval of information.

There are several ways that can be used in altering the access structure. On one hand, according to Gouws (1996), special entries may be added by the lexicographer or change the way macrostructural elements are presented. On the other hand, it is suggested for lexicographers to add additional access structures in creating a poly-accessible dictionary. Gouws (1996) suggests that special entries employing structural markers and a typographical innovation to change the face of the lemma signs could be used, as used in some South African dictionaries. These structural markers are such as asterisks, among others.

Gouws (1996) suggests to the compilers of future dictionaries to make it easier for the users to access the information presented in the article with ease. They will only do this when they construct the article in such a way that is clear and easy to understand in terms of information retrieval. The user should be familiar with the inner structure of the dictionary articles and again with the order of the different positions of the article.

Gouws (1996) suggests that for the inner access structure to be improved, structural markers that show the borders between information categories and the position as well as the scope of different search areas should be provided. Other structural markers that can be used are pictures, like that of diamond in an example taken from a dictionary entitled *Tweetalige Aanleerderswoordeboek / Bilingual Learner's Dictionary*. In this dictionary, a diamond has

been used to show the occurrence of collocations. These collocations are always preceded by a diamond. Furthermore, the search area which contains the positions of articles that accommodate the information on part of speech on how plurals and other derivatives are formed is marked with a small square. An upside-down triangle is also presented in this dictionary to indicate examples.

In addition, Gouws (1996) supports the ideas of Wiegand (1995) who makes provision on the inclusion of the inserted inner texts as part of the article. Wiegand (1995) believes that these types of texts are appropriate, especially to the learners' dictionaries. These types of texts, according to Gouws (1996) are unique, because they are different from the other texts or the rest of the article as they are presented differently, for instance, in tables or boxes. Concerning the preceding explanation on the access structure, the following outer access structure and inner access structure will be explained below as how they will be dealt with in the proposed *EODSSL*.

4.2.6.1 Outer access structure

The outer access structure consists of aspects such as table of contents, guidewords and the ordering of lemmata. The ordering of lemmata has already been dealt with in the previous section.

(i) *Guidewords*

Guidewords are crucial in any lexicographical work because they assist the target users in accessing the information presented in the dictionary with ease. These guidewords are always presented on the top left corner of the page and on the top right corner of the same page. Therefore, they will be presented in the same manner as far as the *EODSSL* is concerned.

(ii) *Table of contents*

According to Hausmann and Wiegand (1989), the table of contents is a major outer text that guides the target user to both the word lists in the central list, as well as various texts that are included in the front and back matter sections. As part of the rapid outer access structure of the dictionary, this is an integrated outer text, because it assists the user in realising the genuine purpose of the dictionary by presenting an early milestone on the external search route to assist

the user in the proper use of the dictionary and the needed access to the different functional textual constituents.

4.2.6.2 Inner access structure

Gouws (2001c: 83) explains that “the inner access structure or the internal access structure determines the article internal search route leading the user to the relevant data entry.” It is also explained by Hausmann and Wiegand (1989) that inner access structure enables the user that is familiar with it in finding the information he or she is looking for more systematically. Inner access structure consists of both typographical structural and non-typographical structural markers that usually indicate search zones. They are explained below on the basis of how they will be presented in the proposed *EODSSL*.

4.2.7 Typographical structural markers

Typographical structural markers include the different typefaces, for example bold, italic, roman, as well as the use of capitals and small caps. Therefore, the lemma signs (both main and sub-lemmata) of the proposed dictionary will be printed in bold as they are regarded as the guiding elements (cf. also, Svensén, 2009). In terms of spelling, all the lemma signs are going to be verified if they have been correctly spelt before the dictionary’s final version is printed out, as explained already in the previous section. The translation equivalents are not going to be italicised, but the illustrative examples are going to be italicised, for easy identification by the target user as their search zones are marked clearly. As explained already, etymology will be preceded by the marker “From”, to indicate the origin of the lemmata or the lexical item functioning as a translation equivalent.

4.2.8 Non-typographical structural markers

Non-typographical structural markers are symbols and signs that are used to mark the start of a certain search zone or data category (Gouws, 1996). These symbols are, for example, coloured blocks, triangles, brief headings, diamonds, squares, etc. Non-typographical structural markers also deal with the presentations of semicolons, colons, commas, etc. What plays a role in bilingual dictionaries compilation is the use of semi-colon and commas in separating senses. In the proposed dictionary, semicolons will be used to separate senses of polysemous lemmata,

and the commas are going to be used in separating the target language [Oshikwanyama] synonyms and partial synonyms. This should be done consistently to avoid the target user from selecting and using the wrong translation equivalents. As the proposed dictionary is going to be the first edition, non-typographical structural markers such as coloured blocks, triangles, diamonds, etc., will not be presented, but they will be considered in future reprints or when the compilers feel that they are of great importance.

4.3 Conclusion

This chapter dealt with the proposed model for compiling the English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners. This model has been established on the basis of the relevant literature and the critical review that was conducted in Chapter Three of this study. Major aspects discussed, among others, are the type of the dictionary, languages to be treated, size and coverage, target users, the proposed dictionary functions and purpose, frame structures, front and back pages, and coverage, the dictionary's macro and microstructure and access structure of the dictionary. What is so unique about this model is that it is the first model in Oshikwanyama to be established, and to be followed in compiling a learner's dictionary that will be of great assistance to secondary school learners of Oshikwanyama who are willing to learn and understand Oshikwanyama on an advanced level. With this model, future compilers will also be able to use it in the compilation of different learner's dictionaries not only in Oshikwanyama but also in Oshindonga, one of the dialects of Oshiwambo, which, in addition to Oshikwanyama, is accepted to be taught in schools as a first language subject. With this model, compilers of future dictionaries will therefore have an idea of the items to be considered or not be considered in compiling a learner's dictionary, especially for African languages. The next chapter presents the research findings based on the review and the proposal of a model that can be adapted, presented in chapters Three and Four of this study respectively.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings that were established from the review of the bilingual *Oshikwanyama - English/English – Oshikwanyama Dictionary* (2019) in Chapter Three as well as from the model that was proposed in Chapter Four of this study. The review was based on the criteria that are adopted in compiling a user-friendly dictionary. Since the reviewed dictionary is divided into two parts, the part of *Oshikwanyama-English* and the part of *English-Oshikwanyama*, each part has been reviewed separately, and the findings have also been provided according to each part of the reviewed dictionary. The findings of the criteria that have been proposed by the model in Chapter Four have also been summarised in this chapter.

5.2 The reviewed Oshikwanyama – English/English – Oshikwanyama Dictionary

5.2.1 Front and back covers

It has been found that the front and back covers of the dictionary are printed in blue, and its title (*Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*) attracts users as they are introduced to a bidirectional dictionary. These two parts are: (1) that of Oshikwanyama as the source language and English as the target language, and (2) that of English as the source language and Oshikwanyama as the target language.

It has also been found that the dictionary's front cover is made up of two more aspects, namely, that of indicating that the dictionary was compiled by the Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, and the second aspect is that of indicating where the dictionary was published, and it is Namibia Publishing House (NPH), the leading publishing company in the country. Including the publisher's name and a logo on the front cover page of any dictionary, serves plenty of reasons, including that of commercial gain. It might be that the publisher would like to be recognised and be consulted, in case there is someone interested in publishing reference

books of such a kind. It has also been found that the information presented on the front cover of this work is more than enough for the target user. This simply means that too much information on the dictionary's front cover page does not fulfil any purpose, as it does not assist the targets users with the information that compels them to use such a dictionary.

The dictionary's back cover reveals that the dictionary is made up of more than 10 000 Oshikwanyama lemmata with their translation equivalents in English, and vice versa. It is also indicated that the dictionary consists of approximately 1 000 loan words and newly coined terminology. The back cover also comments on the value of the dictionary by indicating that a long experience gap has been filled by having a comprehensive reference source for Oshikwanyama speakers and those who are interested in learning the language.

This part of the dictionary establishes that materials for compiling the *OEEOD* were collected primarily from two earlier versions of Oshikwanyama dictionaries, namely, the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* of 1954 and the *Oshikwanyama-English Dictionary* of 1977. These early Oshikwanyama bilingual dictionaries were compiled by missionaries who served at Anglican churches in Oukwanyama from the 1920s to the late 1940s (Shikesho, 2019). It is also indicated that some materials were taken from Macmillan Namibia Education Publishers. Regarding the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* compilation, it has been found that Wolfgang Zimmermann, Gabriel Taapopi and Paavo Hasheela were not part of this project (cf. Tobias & Turvey, 1954). This project was mainly done by G.W.R. Tobias and B.H.C. Turvey. In compiling this 1954 first edition, they were assisted by the local indigenous people who resided near Odibo and Onamunama, where the compilers of the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* were working during that time respectively (Shikesho, 2019; Robson, 2018). It was also discovered that the compilers did not mention any of the writers, including Wolfgang Zimmerman, Gabriel Taapopi, and Paavo Hasheela, in the front matter of the dictionary. Therefore, it can be deduced that these writers were only involved in editing the *Oshikwanyama-English Dictionary* of 1977.

What has also been established in this part of the dictionary is that the orthography used is that of the current officially approved of *Oshikwanyama Orthography 2004*, which is important to users who are not interested in reading the outdated orthography as observed in the earlier Oshikwanyama bilingual dictionaries, namely, *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* and *Oshikwanyama-English Dictionary*.

For the formulation of the proposed model, it is recommended for the following information to be included on the front page. The first information will be the title, "English-Oshikwanyama

Dictionary for Grades 8-12 / for secondary school learners”. Its translation, which will also appear on the cover page, will be “*Emboitya lOshikwanyama nOshiingilisha leendodo 8-12 / lovahongwa vokosekundofikola.*” This will alert the target users, and everyone reading it, that there are two languages presented in the dictionary, and they are English and Oshikwanyama.

The second data that will be included on the cover page of the proposed dictionary is the name(s) of the compiler(s). This is a competitive world in which buyers or customers weigh the work of different authors. A few compilers of dictionaries are regarded as not producing quality work while others are esteemed and respected as the most excellent. In this manner, it would be more pleasant if the compiler’s name(s) is(are) specified on the front page of the proposed dictionary. Thirdly, the title of the publisher will too be included on the front page. This will also compel the buyers [secondary schools, tertiary institutions and individuals] to purchase the dictionary, because of the trust they have put in that selected publisher. Buyers are very selective. They believe that some publishers do not produce quality work. That means the work they produce does not last for long, due to the materials of low quality they used, for example, papers, etcetera. Therefore, the dictionary will be printed at the best publisher in the country, and that publisher’s name will appear on the front page of the proposed dictionary.

Lastly, as presented in the reviewed *Oshikwanyama – English/English – Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, the back cover of the proposed dictionary will also have little information, for example, indicating the number of lemmata [either in English/in Oshikwanyama] the dictionary is made up of. More information regarding producers’ information, financial assistance, acknowledgement, among others, will be presented in the proposed dictionary’s front matter texts.

5.2.2 Outer texts

It has been found that the front matter text of the *OE* part is made up of various sections, and these sections are foreword, pronunciation, notes and abbreviations used in the dictionary. What is also noticeable is that there are no back matter texts in this part of the dictionary. The reason for the absence of the back matter text of this part of the dictionary could be that the dictionary continues with the second part, which is the *EO* part, which might have the back matter texts. The findings below are based on the *OE*’s outer texts.

5.2.2.1 *OE* front matter texts

The *OE* part is made up of the texts of the front matter, namely, foreword, pronunciation, notes and abbreviations used in the dictionary. On the second page of this dictionary, following the first page which is a repetition of the title page (front cover page), the information presented first on this page has repeated the statement found on the back cover of the dictionary, as seen in Example 1. This information deals with how the materials were collected and compiled for this dictionary.

Then, follows the phrase "Oshikwanyama Dictionary", which precedes the publisher's logo. The phrase "Oshikwanyama Dictionary" is quite a general term, because one could claim that the dictionary is not only meant for the Oshikwanyama speakers but also anyone learning the language. Therefore, the part of English is excluded from the phrase, although when one takes a cursory look at the central list of the dictionary, he or she will find both languages, Oshikwanyama and English. So, the correct phrase to use should have been presented as "*Oshikwanyama-English/English Oshikwanyama Dictionary*", as it appears on the cover and the first pages of the dictionary. However, one could also argue that the dictionary was only produced in favour of the development of Oshikwanyama, and that could be the reason why the English language was not mentioned in the phrase.

On this second page, it is also stated that the dictionary was compiled by the "Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee" in 2019, a name that this study discovered to be very broad. It would have been better for the names of the members who served on that committee to be mentioned or listed on this same page, instead of just the collective name "Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee". The members who served on that committee during the time of the project would have been very happy if their names were listed on this page. It is assumed that they would have been proud of themselves for the work they have done. The Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, as far as it is known, was not composed of more than 20 members whose names, if they were listed, could not finish the space on the front or the following page.

(i) *Foreword*

The foreword is situated on the third page (the page that does not have any page reference number) of the *OE* part of the dictionary reviewed. This section is very short, and it is presented by the editor, who edited the dictionary in 2005, fourteen years before the dictionary was

published in 2019. It has been found quite unclear for the dictionary to be already edited in 2005 (14 years ago), but the compilation process was completed in 2019. It has been deduced that this project might have started a long time ago, and the project was going into finality already in 2005, when the people involved in the project felt that it was good to have additional materials for the project to produce quality reference material. That could be the reason why the project was completed in 2019.

It has also been found that the orthography used in the dictionary reviewed is that of the officially approved Oshikwanyama Orthography 3 of the Ministry of Education (2004), whose functions are remarkable. One of this orthography's functions, as far as the reviewed dictionary is concerned, is that of the present-day accepted linguistic terminology which has been used, which contributes to a better understanding of the language rules by both teachers and other users of the Oshikwanyama language.

The users of the reviewed dictionary are teachers who need an understanding of how the language behaves. The term "teachers" in this study is found to be too general. Teachers are found in every domain. There are pre-primary teachers, adult education teachers, driving teachers, religious teachers, higher school teachers, primary school teachers, etc. It is also mentioned that "users of the language" are also the target users. The target user should have been identified specifically. The users "teachers and users of the language" is a broad statement, so it is possible that this dictionary was published for general use due to its failure to identify the intended or target user. The purposes of the reviewed dictionary have also been established. Firstly, to contribute to a better understanding of the language rules by teachers and users of the language, and, secondly, to fill the gap of the long-felt need to have a dictionary of Oshikwanyama in Bantu (African languages) Lexicography.

For the formulation of the proposed model, these purposes will help the compilers of the proposed dictionary to compile a dictionary that will successfully assist secondary school learners to understand the language rules [text reception] for both English and Oshikwanyama. These language rules will then be applied by the same learners when they practise language, either in speaking or writing [text production]. Similarly, for the second purpose, the proposed dictionary will also be produced to develop the Oshikwanyama language further, and perhaps, be on the world's map. Oshikwanyama will be one of the highly developed African languages, as it contains a vast number of lexicographical materials.

(ii) *Pronunciation*

This section explains to the users the different kinds of vowels that prevail in Oshikwanyama. In the introductory sentence, the compilers of the dictionary have indicated that two kinds of vowels can be distinguished in Oshikwanyama. However, in their discussion, three types of vowels are discussed, namely, short vowels represented by one symbol, long vowels represented by double symbols and semivowels.

Furthermore, consonants are also explained how they are pronounced in Oshikwanyama. Not all the letters of the Oshikwanyama alphabet are presented in this section. Only the consonants that might be pronounced wrongly by the user are presented. These consonants are such as [p], [t], [k] [v], [w], [x], [y]. In addition, the user is introduced to Oshikwanyama digraphs and trigraphs on how they are pronounced. Aspirated nasals are also provided in this part of the section. The pronunciation section also includes phonetic changes, enclitics, and orthography.

On a similar note, the proposed dictionary will also explain, in the user's guide, the issues regarding the pronunciation of some letters in Oshikwanyama. Not all the letters will be explained in this section, but only those that pose some kind of difficulty, especially to the second target users of the proposed dictionary [English speakers] who are learning Oshikwanyama. Very importantly, both the consonant and the vowel charts will be presented on this part of the proposed dictionary, to assist the target users on how to pronounce consonants and vowels, both in English and Oshikwanyama. Therefore, the presentation of pronunciation in the reviewed dictionary provided insights to the compilers when dealing with the presentation of pronunciation information of the proposed dictionary.

(iii) *Notes*

Regarding this sub-section, the user is also shown how the Oshikwanyama lexical items are lemmatised in the dictionary's central list. The user is given an explanation of how some verbs are lemmatised in their singular imperative form ending in –a. It is also explained that to form the infinitive, the prefix (*oku-*) should be added to this form. Therefore, the imperative, for example, *denga* (strike) becomes *okudenga* (to strike). It is also indicated to the user how the final vowel is used to form the present indicative tense. It is presented in brackets after the entry of the verb. That is why the imperative, for example, "*tala* (*e*)" denotes infinitive *okutala*

(to see); present indicative (*ohai tale*). In addition, the user is given explanations on how adjectives and nouns are lemmatised. The shortcoming observed in this part of the reviewed dictionary is that there is no explanation of how the parts of speech markers in the central list of the *OE* part are presented. Due to its lack of explanation, the user-friendliness of the reviewed dictionary is compromised, because the user expects *the comment on form* of the *OE* part to be presented in Oshikwanyama, including the typographical structural markers.

(iv) *Abbreviations used in the dictionary*

Different abbreviations used in the reviewed dictionary have been introduced to the user in this section. These abbreviations have been listed and provided with their full forms in alphabetical order.

For the proposed model, the inclusion of the abbreviations in the reviewed dictionary serves a major function and a good example. It assists the compilers of the proposed dictionary to also have a list of all the abbreviations that will be part of the proposed dictionary's central list to be introduced and explained to the target user on the front matter. The target users have to study them. Once there is a need for consultation, they will always revert to them in the front matter of the proposed dictionary.

5.2.2.2 *EO's front matter texts*

The *EO* part of the reviewed dictionary is divided into three sections. These sections are Preface, Note on the orthography, and Abbreviations used in the dictionary.

(i) *Preface*

First and foremost, a brief history of the development of Oshikwanyama lexicography has been explained in the preface of this part of the dictionary. It is also in this part of the dictionary where the compilers have provided their acknowledgements.

However, compilers have failed to provide the dictionary purposes as well as the identification of the target users. The purposes and the target users of a dictionary are the most important elements that should be considered by any lexicographer in terms of compiling their dictionaries. Another shortcoming is observed in the second paragraph of the preface of this part of the dictionary which states that "The orthography used is that of Tönjes' work and the various mission publications" (Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, 2019: 283). What is

not explicit about this statement is that the orthography used in the central list of this dictionary is no longer that of Herman Tönjes and the other early missionaries who came to Oukwanyama, but it is that of the Ministry of Education, published in 2004 (Oshikwanyama Orthography 3). Therefore, it is incorrect for the 2019 compilers of this dictionary to claim that the dictionary is new if all information presented, especially on page 283, dates back to 1954. It has been then deduced that the compilers of this dictionary (for 2019) did not conduct a thorough revision of the earlier version of the *English-Kwanyama Dictionary* of Tobias and Turvey (1954). It concludes that this page was just duplicated from the original version of the *Kwanyama-English Dictionary* of 1954.

The information presented in the preface of the reviewed dictionary has really assisted the compilers of the proposed dictionary to be on alert and to be very careful of not providing wrong information to the target users. On the user's guide, the compilers will have to make sure that they provide correct information regarding the orthography adopted in the central list. Therefore, in the user's guide of the proposed dictionary, the purpose of the dictionary and the orthography used will be explained clearly to the reader. The information presented on the user's guide will reflect what is presented in the central list, unlike the case which occurred in the reviewed dictionary.

(ii) *Note on the orthography*

This text provides explanations of how some Oshikwanyama sounds are pronounced. It also provides information on the presentation of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and other parts of speech. The information presented in "Note on the orthography" is completely similar to that which should be presented in the dictionary's compulsory text, which is the user's guidelines (cf. Gouws, 2004; Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). Therefore, this section should have been titled "User's guidelines" instead of "note on the orthography".

In addition, other aspects in this same section are observed. The user is given an explanation of how Oshikwanyama vowels and consonants are presented in the central list. There is a statement, on page 284 of the *OEEOD*, which may misguide the user of this latest bilingual dictionary. "Thus we do not use the letters *w* or *y* at all." This statement is found to misguide the target users as it contradicts what is presented in the central list. Therefore, this statement was only relevant in 1954 when the Oshikwanyama orthography of that time did not accept the

use of semivowels [w] and [y]. The use of semi-vowels, [w] and [y] in the current official Oshikwanyama orthography is completely accepted. In their dictionary, Tobias and Turvey (1954) used the letters [j] and [ua]. The vowel letters *ua* are used instead of *wa*. Instead of using [y], they used [j] as in *yetu = jetu*, *Kwanyama = Kwanjama*. Quite the opposite, the semi-vowel letters *w* and *y* are used in Oshikwanyama currently, unlike during the time of the compilation of this part of the dictionary. Therefore, independent grapheme [j] has become partially obsolete. The front matter texts of the English-Kwanyama Dictionary have not been revised by the compilers of this dictionary (*OEEOD*).

Other shortcomings have also been found in this section and need serious attention. The statement "Thus Kwanyama is rendered Kwanjama" (Oshikwanyama Curriculum Committee, 2019: 284) is misleading users, particularly those learning to spell words correctly, because, according to the current official orthography of Oshikwanyama, the accepted name of the language spoken by Ovakwanyama is spelt as "Oshikwanyama" not "Kwanjama", as indicated on this section. It can be concluded that this dictionary requires significant improvement, because the information presented in the dictionary's front matter texts is outdated, and may mislead the target users of this 'latest' Oshikwanyama dictionary.

(iii) Abbreviations used

In this section, the user is also introduced to numerous abbreviations that are used in the central list of the reviewed dictionary. The user, therefore, needs to study these abbreviations before he or she starts utilising the dictionary, or else, he or she will not be able to understand or infer what they stand for when encountering them in the central list of the dictionary.

As it was recommended in the previous section, for the proposed dictionary, the compilers will ensure that all the abbreviations found in the central list are clearly provided with their full forms in the user's guide. This will assist the target users to understand and know how the abbreviations are presented, a case that will make it easier for the users to have fewer problems with them when they encounter them in the central list.

5.2.2.3 EO's back matter texts

In this part of the dictionary, there is a list of English lexical items with their translation equivalents in Oshikwanyama. The user has been provided with this list to assist him or her in

understanding their translations as well as their meanings in Oshikwanyama. This way, the user will have a clear understanding of which lexical items to use in their everyday situation, such as in translations, in debates and in many other activities. Therefore, the compilers of this dictionary are acknowledged for their great effort in presenting this list.

A grave shortcoming that has been found after reviewing the dictionary is found in the front matter texts of both the *OE* and *OE* parts of this dictionary. No sufficient grammatical information about English, apart from abbreviations, has been explained to the users that are learning English. Everything explained in the front matters is just targeted at the users who are learning Oshikwanyama. When compiling a bilingual dictionary of such a kind, it is crucial that both languages are treated equally and explained how they are used in the dictionary, for example, parts of speech, labels, examples, and many others. The following section presents the findings derived from the review of the *OEEOD*'s central list.

5.2.3 *OE*'s central list

The findings of the central list of the *OEEOD* are divided into two parts. The findings of the part of the Oshikwanyama-English and the findings of the part of English-Oshikwanyama. The review was conducted on the two comments of the dictionary article, namely, the comment on form and the comment on semantics.

5.2.3.1 The comment on form

There are two languages treated in *OE*'s central list. Oshikwanyama functioning as the source language, and English functioning as the target language. The review comprised the *OE*'s macrostructural aspects, namely ordering of lemmata, division of main and sub-lemmata, lemma selection, and lemmatisation strategies, and microstructural aspects, namely presentation of parts of speech, pronunciation, lemma inflection and types of articles.

(i) Macrostructural aspects

(a) *Ordering of lemmata*

Lemmata in *OE* are arranged alphabetically. Since this dictionary was compiled for general use, the compilers designed it with a simple structure that allows any type of user to easily access the lemmata they are looking up in the dictionary. In many cases, many learners in schools have been taught letters of the English alphabet (A-Z). Therefore, it is easier for them

to find the lexical items that function as lemmata. Due to the fact that the articles have been ordered to begin with the lemma signs that begin with the first letter of the alphabet and end with the lemma signs that begin with the next letter of the alphabet, it is easier for users to find the lemmata. However, inconsistency in arranging the lemma signs has been found. For example, on Page 3, lemma *amuka* (*a*) came before *amafana* (*a*), *amba* (*e*), *ambukifa* (*e*), *ame*, *amena* (*e*), *amuke* and *amushe*. This lemma should have come between *amena* (*e*) and *amuke*. If the user already has an idea that this dictionary's lemmata are arranged alphabetically, then it would be difficult for them to locate the lemma *amuka* (*e*), simply because it is not positioned in its right position. Therefore, the user might end up making wrong conclusions that the lexical item *amuka* (*e*) is not presented in the dictionary, although it is positioned in the wrong place. Therefore, it can be concluded that the dictionary has not reached its prime purpose, which has been established in the dictionary's foreword.

(b) Division of main and sub-lemmata in OE

Literature has suggested special arrangements for identifying the main lemmata in any dictionary, aside from the fact that they introduce dictionary articles. They are usually printed in bold for easy access. In many dictionaries, compilers do not give a full treatment of sub-lemmata.

The review of the dictionary reveals that the lemmata are printed in bold. A good example has been provided for lemma *peta* (2019: 227). This is not only done in the sample, but also throughout the entire dictionary. It can also be seen that each lemma has been allocated to the part of speech it belongs to. The spelling of the main lemma, not only in the sample but also throughout the dictionary, has been carried out successfully, although one might find some typing errors here and there. One of the main reasons why spelling is important is for the target users of the dictionary, not only the non-native speakers of Oshikwanyama but also for the native speakers of Oshikwanyama to learn how to spell lexical items correctly. Lemma signs are consistently presented in bold print, and most of them are spelt correctly. This is one of the functions of lexicographical communication theory, (micro-contextual purposes) which deals with the spelling of the lemmata (Beyer, 2014). Therefore, *OE* serves as an answer to the target users who are in need of assistance on how Oshikwanyama lexical items are spelt.

However, inconsistency has been found to prevail in treating the sub-lemmata. It has been found that the sub-lemmata are treated differently. The sub-lemma *petama* (*a*) has been

italicised, while the sub-lemmata such as *petameka (a)*, *petamena (e)*, and *petuka (a)* (2019:227) have been printed in bold and are not italicised. These kinds of arrangements, as far as sub-lemmata are concerned, might lead to the target user, especially the non-native speakers of Oshikwanyama that are learning Oshikwanyama, being confused.

For the proposed model, it is recommended that the compilers of the proposed dictionary adopt only one style of dividing and arranging both the main and sub-lemmata, so that the target users, in the end, will be able to recognise that division clearly. It is viewed that it would be confusing if both main and sub-lemmata are not presented differently and consistently. Therefore, for the proposed model, all the main lemmas will be printed in **bold**, and the sub-lemma will either be *italicised* or **bold printed with italics**. This arrangement will assist the target users to differentiate between the main and the sub-lemmata in the central list.

(c) Lemma selection

In terms of lemma selection, it has been found that the compilers of this first part of the dictionary have not considered any lemma selection strategy. The reviewed dictionary is a general bilingual dictionary. Therefore, it shows that the lexical items or lemmata that have just been entered into the dictionary are part of the Oshikwanyama lexicon. The macro-contextual purpose is that of documenting all the existing Oshikwanyama lexical items for future use.

For the proposed dictionary, the best strategy will be to include all the lexical items that cross the compilers' eyes as suggested by Gouws and Prinsloo (2005). The first reason is that this proposed dictionary is targeting secondary school learners who are at the centre of learning. If the proposed dictionary is meant for learning purposes, as key purpose number one, then all the lexical items that are part of the Oshikwanyama lexicon will be at liberty to be treated as either main or sub-lemmata. The lemmata are not only going to be included in the central list as part of learning, but also as part of the business of storing all the existing lexical items in Oshikwanyama for future use.

(d) Lemmatisation strategies

Lemmatisation strategies that have been dealt with in this study are those of the nouns, verbs, adjectives and other parts of speech.

- *Lemmatisation of nouns*

It has been found that the compilers of this dictionary have lemmatised all nouns, using both singular and plural forms as provided on Page 31 of the *OEEOD*.

The lemmatisation of nouns is done on both singular and plural forms. That means all nouns are entered, either as singular or as plural. The lemmata that have been presented on Page 31, such as *elineekelo*, *elingwadjaulo*, *eliningifo*, *elininipiko*, *elinyengo*, *elinyomngameno*, *elipananeko*, and *elipando* are all lemmatised in their singular forms while the sub-lemma *omalinyongameno* (church services) is lemmatised using its plural form. Therefore, the same strategy will be adopted in the proposed dictionary as it does not pose any problems to the target users.

- *Lemmatisation of verbs*

In this part of the dictionary, verbs are lemmatised using their stems as provided. That means verb stems have been lemmatised throughout the sample. For example, the verbs, *handjumuka* (*a*), *handjumukifa* (*a*), *handukifa* (*a*), and *handukila* (*a*) (2019:59) have all been lemmatised on their stems.

Similarly, in the proposed model, the verbs will also be lemmatised on their stems. It will also be indicated by the part of speech markers that the lemmatised lexical item, which is functioning as a lemma, belongs to the category of verbs. This will assist the target users to differentiate verbs from the other parts of speech that have also received treatment in the dictionary.

- *Lemmatisation of adjectives*

Adjectives are often presented as lemmata in this part of the dictionary, but it can be clearly seen that they are presented based on their stems. This means that, they are not lemmatised as other parts of speech such as nouns, but as verbs, as provided in the preceding sub-section. For example, the prefix of the stem **-kulu** (2019:81) has not been provided because it can be changed at any time, depending on the noun class to which the adjective is modified.

Similar to the lemmatisation of verbs, in the proposed model, the adjectives will also be lemmatised using their stems only [for example: *-kulu*, *-laula*, *-twima*, *-kula*]. This means that the prefixes of these lexical items [adjectives] will not be provided, as it will make the dictionary to have many different lemmata functioning as adjectives, but the difference is only

at the prefixes that change, but the base remains the same. It will also be indicated by the part of speech markers that the lemmatised lexical item, which is functioning as a lemma, belongs to the category of adjectives. This will assist the target users to differentiate adjectives from the other parts of speech that have also received treatment in the dictionary.

The other parts of speech, such as adverbs, etc., have been lemmatised in the same way nouns are lemmatised in this part of the dictionary. Therefore, it can be deduced that lemmatisation strategies that have been adopted in this part of the dictionary are the singular and plural forms of words (nouns, adverbs, pronouns, interjections, and conjunctions) as well as the adjective stems for adjectives and verb stems for verbs.

(iii) Microstructural aspects of OE

The following paragraphs present the findings based on some entries that constitute the microstructure of the reviewed dictionary.

(b) Presentation of parts of speech

In terms of the presentation of part of speech marking in this dictionary, it has been found that the compilers of this dictionary have done a remarkable job by making sure that each lemma has been assigned to which part of speech it belongs. This is to say the part of speech marker has followed the lemma sign in each dictionary article. These parts of speech markers are abbreviations such as **n** for nouns, **v.i.** for verb intransitive, **v.t.** for verb transitive, **adj.** for adjective, and many others.

As explained in Sub-heading 3.3 of Chapter Three of this salient study, it has been found that the parts of speech markers are presented in English. Since the source language is Oshikwanyama, then the selected abbreviations in Oshikwanyama that would be used to represent different parts of speech a particular lemma belongs to should have been established.

As for the proposed model, the part of speech markers will also be presented in the same way they have been presented in the reviewed dictionary. Each lemma will be assigned to which part of speech it belongs. This means that the part of speech marker of that particular lemma sign will have to follow that lemma sign in each dictionary article. The abbreviations that will be adopted for parts of speech markers are, for instance, **n** for nouns, **v.i.** for verb intransitive, **v.t.** for verb transitive, **adj.** for adjectives, **adv.** for adverbs, and many others parts of speech. This will assist the target learners to identify the parts of speech a particular lemma belongs to.

(b) Pronunciation

For *OE*, pronunciation markers are not presented at all. Therefore, without pronunciation, the target users, especially the non-speakers of Oshikwanyama that are learning Oshikwanyama might find it very difficult to pronounce the lexical items. These non-native speakers of Oshikwanyama (the English speakers) have a need to know how a lexical item is pronounced for the purpose of acquiring experience of pronunciation in a foreign language.

(c) Lemma inflection

Based on the review conducted, it is also important to stress that throughout the sample, the inflection of lemmata has never been presented. By indicating lemma inflection, the target users who are English mother-tongue speakers will be aided in learning Oshikwanyama and acquiring its vocabulary, which will also aid them in text production.

(d) Types of articles (single and complex) in OE

After having carefully reviewed all articles that are in the sample, including the ones on Pages 171 and 199 respectively, it has been found that only single articles exist. This means that only the articles that display the standard microstructural data categories occur. Therefore, there are no extra notes or inserted inner texts at the end of each or any of the articles or at the bottom of the page that show aspects such as culture-bound items, and many others as discussed in Chapter 2.

For the proposed dictionary, both types of articles [single and complex articles] will be presented. If there is a need for more explanation of items in any dictionary article, then inserted inner texts giving clarity of the lexical item presented at the end of the article or at the bottom of each dictionary page will be provided. This will help the secondary school learners to understand the lexical items functioning as lemmata better. If the lexical items that are functioning as lemmata are clearer, then there will be no need for the inserted inner texts. Thus single articles that display the standard microstructural data categories will prevail. All in all, the proposed dictionary will present both single and complex articles, unlike in the reviewed dictionary in which only single articles are presented.

5.2.3.2 The comment on semantics

The research findings in this section are based on the review conducted on the dictionary article structure type, namely, the comment on semantics, which consists of translation equivalents,

grammatical notes, usage notes, context indicators, examples, arrangement of senses, etymology, cross-references and lexicographical labels.

(i) Translation equivalents

It has been found that the lemma signs in this part of the dictionary are presented in the source language, which is Oshikwanyama, and the translation equivalents are presented in English, as the target language.

It is clear that these translation equivalents are presented very well by the compilers of this dictionary, and the target user, whose main purpose is to use this dictionary for text production, will be able to use such a lemma correctly, as they are provided with the correct translation equivalents of the lexical item.

The answer to the review question, "Have all the lemmata in the dictionary been provided with correct translation equivalents?" clearly indicates that some translation equivalents are incorrect, despite the fact that the majority of lemmata are provided with correct translation equivalents. An example was provided for the lemma *oshimbobo* on Page 199, which has three English translation equivalents, namely, *gruel*, *porridge* and *soft pap for infants*. Although the first two translation equivalents, *gruel* and *porridge*, are correct, the last translation equivalent in this article is incorrect. As far as the writer of this study is an Oshikwanyama speaker, *oshimbobo* is not just soft pap prepared for infants only, but it can be prepared and eaten by everyone, regardless of their age. Instead of translating as "*soft pap eaten by infants*", the correct translation equivalent should be "*soft pap eaten by Ovakwanyama*." If a non-speaker of Oshikwanyama, who is the target user of this dictionary, encounters translations of this kind, he or she might be misguided and end up using the word wrongly, just because of the translations he or she read in the dictionary. As a result, the findings of this study show that some English translation equivalents in the dictionary are correct, but others require careful consideration in order to avoid misleading not only the dictionary's intended users but also anyone interested in learning and understanding Oshikwanyama.

(ii) Grammatical notes

Grammatical notes in this dictionary have been presented in brackets, and come immediately after the part of speech marker. Grammatical notes are crucial, particularly to the mother-

tongue speakers of English, as they assist the target user in understanding how lexical items change from singular to plural forms.

(iii) Usage notes

It has also been established that usage notes in the reviewed part of this dictionary prevail. One of the main reasons why usage notes in articles of the dictionary have been presented is because they provide guidance on how a certain lexical item, represented by a lemma in the dictionary, is used contextually in the language. Apart from the fact that usage notes are presented in the same way as grammatical notes in this dictionary, their functions are that of providing syntactic information.

For the proposed model, usage notes will also be presented in the same way they are presented in the reviewed dictionary. This will assist the target users, who are secondary school learners, in this case, to use the selected lexical items correctly in any given context. The usage notes will be presented in brackets.

(iv) Context indicators

Based on the analysis done in the sample, it has been found that context indicators in the dictionary have been presented fairly well, as they assist the target users in choosing the appropriate translation equivalents. The indicators are presented in brackets. It is therefore concluded that compilers of this dictionary have done a great job by indicating to the compilers of the dictionaries how indicators of context should be presented to assist the target users in correctly using the appropriate translation equivalents in a given context.

(v) Presentation of examples

Two ways of presenting examples in the dictionary have been adopted. In some articles, examples are just italicised without the use of an example marker or example sign *e.g.*, and in some other articles, the italicised examples are preceded by the example sign.

A good example is taken from page 115 of the sample where the examples are preceded by the example sign or abbreviation marker *e.g.* In the first article represented by lemma *Ila*, the two example sentences, *eumbo la lungwina po* (burnt-out house) and *olupati la teka* (broken rib), have been preceded by the abbreviation *e.g.*

By presenting the example marker (*e.g.*) in any example in an article, it alerts the user that what follows is an example in which the provided lemma for that article is used contextually. This

study supports this way of presenting examples. However, there are instances where the example sentences in the dictionary are not preceded by the example sign (e.g.) which makes the presentation of example markers inconsistently applied. This means that there are some instances in which the example signs have not been presented; it might be difficult for an inexperienced user to identify them that they are examples. For example, examples, *owa ninga nai* and *ove mu ningila nai* (Page 115) should have been preceded by the example sign (e.g.) for the user to notice that they are examples. This also applies to the example, *oufila owa nakwa nawa* = the meal or flour is finely sifted (Page 115).

(vi) Arranging of senses of a polysemic lemma

It has been found that the senses are arranged inconsistently. Some senses have been numbered, although no exact system of numbering senses was adopted in arranging the senses. Secondly, the way some of the senses are treated is questionable, because, for example, on Page 3, there are three senses of the lemma *anda (e)*, but the lemmata that have been numbered are just the first two except the third lemma. To avoid inconsistency, all of these lemmata should have been numbered. Thirdly, another way of arranging senses is observed. Instead of numbering the senses, and treating each sense as independent articles, two senses of the lemma *omuteyaula* (Page 171) are both included in one article although numbered.

(vii) Etymological issues

Etymological issues play a significant role in lexicography. The users of dictionaries may have different needs. One of their needs could be to find out the origin or history of a particular lexical item. Therefore, lexical items (although not all) need to be provided with their etymology where necessary. It has been found that etymology has been taken care of in the sample. On Pages 87 and 143 of the sample, it has been found that five articles have been presented with etymological entries in brackets. In the article headed by the lemma *lamba (e)* and *lambuka (a)*, it can be seen that these lexical items were borrowed from Otjiherero. In the article represented by the lemma *okiina*, it can be seen that the lexical item *okiina* was borrowed from the Afrikaans word *kinien* and the German word *chinin*. It is also observed that the lexical item *okino* as seen in the article represented by the lemma *okino* is taken from the German word *Kino*, and finally, the lexical item *okolonela*, presented as the lemma *okolonela* in the last article, was derived from the English lexical item *corner*.

It is recommended for the proposed model to present the etymology of some lexical items in the same way it has been handled in the reviewed dictionary. It will be interesting if the

language from which the lexical item, which is functioning as a lemma, is indicated in brackets. This will also help the target users to know the history of that particular lexical unit or realise that a certain lexical item, that is functioning as a lemma is a loan word from a particular language.

(viii) Cross-references articles and their structural markers

It has been found that cross-reference has been well presented in the sample. For example, the articles represented by the lemmata *oshimbu* (Page 199), *oshimhote* (Page 199), and *piluka* (Page 227) have received restricted treatment because the lemmata are less frequently used members of a synonym group; thus, the treatment is primarily directed at a cross-reference entry that directs the user to the lemma that represents the synonym with a higher usage frequency. Furthermore, it also occurs, for example, where the user is cross-referred to a lemma representing a spelling variant or a plural form of the lexical item represented by the guiding element of the article with the limited treatment. It has also been found that cross-reference articles are consistently presented with a marker (*see*) throughout the sample. This marker (*see*) simply means that the user should search for the synonym of the lemma that is less treated in the dictionary so that they can read more information on the specific lexical item that is equivalent in meaning.

For the proposed model, the lemma with less frequency of usage will be cross-referred to the lemma with a high frequency of usage. It will also occur, for example, where the target user [the secondary school learners] is cross-referred to lemmata representing spelling variants or plural forms of the lexical items represented by the guiding element of the article with the limited treatment, as presented in the reviewed dictionary. The structural marker that will be adopted in the proposed dictionary will be *see*, and this will be italicised. This will help the target users to know easily that they are being cross-referred to another article, where the lemma has received the full treatment.

(vix) Lexicographical labels

Lexicographical labels have not received serious attention in *OE* when it comes to some lemmata. Some articles should have been accompanied by additional information especially in brackets, to indicate that they are vulgar or sensitive or not appropriate to be used in public, because they are viewed as inappropriate.

5.2.4 OE's access structures

The findings were made on the basis of the analysis conducted based on the two types of access structure, namely *outer access structure* and *inner access structure*.

5.2.4.1 Outer access structure

The table of contents and the arrangements of lemmata have already been handled on outer texts and macrostructural aspects. This sub-section will deal with the guide words only.

(ii) *The guide words*

After having critically investigated the sample pages, it has been found that guide words have never been presented. This poses a problem for the target users of this dictionary, because they have to spend more time searching for the lemma they want information about. As a result, it was preferable for the compilers of the reviewed dictionary part (OE) to place the guide words in the top left and top right corners of this dictionary to make it very easy for users to retrieve information presented in the dictionary's central list.

5.2.4.2 Inner access structure

The findings have been established based on the analysis of both typographical and non-typographical structural markers that deal with search zones.

(i) *Typographical structural markers*

It has been found that the main and sub-lemmata have been printed in bold not only in the sample but also throughout the dictionary. For example, it can be observed that the main article is introduced by the lemma ***pilula*** (*a*) and is printed in bold (2019:227). Within this article, which is introduced by the lemma ***pilula***, a sub-article with the sub-lemma ***pilulila*** is observed. This article is introduced by the sub-lemma ***pilulila*** that follows the English translation equivalents of the main lemma. Equally, the main lemma ***tumhaana*** (*a*) (2019:255) has been printed in bold. Within this article, sub-article ***tumhaanifa*** (*a*) has been presented.

It could be seen that both the main and sub-lemmata of the reviewed dictionary have been printed in bold, as far as typographical structural markers are concerned. For clarity and for clear differentiating between sub-lemmata and main lemmata, as provided in the preceding

paragraphs, for the proposed dictionary, their presentation is going to be dealt with differently. The target users [secondary school learners] have to know the difference between main and sub-lemma. Therefore, the main lemmata are going to be printed in bold, as in the reviewed dictionary, while the sub-lemmata will be *italicised* or ***printed in bold and italicised***.

(ii) *Non-typographical structural markers*

It has been found that the presentation of commas in the two articles introduced by lemmas ***hangukununa*** and ***hano*** (2019:59) has been applied correctly. This is because the translation equivalents for both lemmata are synonyms. That is why they are separated by the comma. The translation equivalents for the lemma ***hangununa*** (a), for example, are *intervene* and *come between*, which are simply synonyms. The second lemma, ***hano***, has been given its translation equivalents such as *therefore*, *thus*, *hence*, *so* and *then*. These lexical items are synonyms, and have been separated by the comma.

Apart from the use of the comma, the use of the semicolon is also important. This is because semicolons are used to separate partial synonyms or polysemous lexical items that cannot replace each other in any given context.

It has been revealed that the translation equivalents of the lemma ***lamba*** (2019: 87) *discharge* and *dismiss from employment* are synonyms, and can replace one another in any given context. What comes after the translation equivalent *dismiss from employment*, is the semicolon. After the semicolon, translation equivalents *follow* and *chase after* have been presented. These two translation equivalents are also synonyms, and they can replace one another in a given context. It can then be deduced that the presentation of the semicolon in this article has been done well. The first two translation equivalents, namely *discharge* and *dismiss from employment* cannot be replaced by the translation equivalents, *follow* and *chase after*.

Another analysis was done on the lemma ***hanga*** (2019: 87), to answer the question of whether the presentations of the non-typographical structural markers have been done consistently and found out that it was done inconsistently. The lemma ***hanga*** has four translation equivalents, and these translation equivalents are all synonyms or partial synonyms, and can replace one another in any given context. A semicolon between the translation equivalents *nearly* and *about* is observed. This is the incorrect presentation of semicolon because all the translation

equivalents are synonyms. Therefore, all the translation equivalents (*almost, nearly, about, approximately*) in the article should have been separated by a comma.

5.2.5 EO's central list

It has been found that two languages are treated in this part of the dictionary. The first language is English, functioning as the source language, and Oshikwanyama functions as the target language.

In this section, the findings are based on the analysis made on the two components that are used in describing and analysing a dictionary article, namely, the comment on form and the comment on semantics. These findings are provided below.

5.2.5.1 The comment on form

Macrostructural aspects such as the ordering of lemma and lemma selection are dealt with in this section. Microstructural aspects belonging to the comment on form, such as presentation of parts of speech, the treatment of a lemma representing more than one part of speech, pronunciation, lemma inflection and types of articles have also been dealt with in this sub-section.

(i) Macrostructural aspects

(a) Ordering of lemmata

It has been found that the lemmata in the sample and the entire dictionary have been arranged alphabetically, which makes it easier for the user to find the lemmata that the target user is looking up in the dictionary. As a result, the compilers of this dictionary have been recognised for developing a significant method of ordering lemmata in this manner.

It is suggested for the compilers of the proposed dictionary to consider arranging the lemmata most convincingly, and that is by alphabetical order. The nouns that will be functioning as lemma will be arranged alphabetically as they will be presented in their full form, as already explained in the preceding sub-article dealing with the selection of lemmata. For adjectives and verbs, the presentation will consider arranging those using stems. Therefore, their stems will

also be arranged alphabetically. These parts of speech presentation will be mixed. That means, adjectives will follow nouns and nouns will follow adjectives, and so forth. The reason behind this presentation is, it is easier to present lemmata alphabetically, because a large number of learners at school have already an idea of what is meant by letters of the alphabet. Therefore, even when they search for a particular item in the dictionary, they would be able to infer as to where to find the lemma that starts with letter *b or k*, etc. Therefore, ordering lemmata alphabetically is significant to the learners, in terms of quick retrieval of information in the dictionary.

(b) Lemma selection

The compilers of this second part of the dictionary have not considered any lemma selection strategy that best fits the *EO* general bilingual dictionary. In other words, all the lexical items that cross the compilers' eyes have been entered in the dictionary's lemma list. The best strategy for the proposed dictionary will be to use all the lexical items that cross the compilers' eyes as suggested by Gouws and Prinsloo (2005). The first reason is that this proposed dictionary is targeting secondary school learners who are at the centre of learning. If the proposed dictionary is meant for learning purposes, as key purpose number one, then all the lexical items that are part of the Oshikwanyama lexicon will be treated as either main or sub-lemmata.

(ii) Microstructural aspects

(a) Presentation of parts of speech

It has been found that the compilers of this dictionary have made a remarkable effort by making sure that each English lemma has been assigned to which part of speech it belongs. The part of speech marker immediately followed both the main and the sub-lemma in each dictionary article. In terms of marking different parts of speech in the dictionary, the target users will be able to know to which part of speech a particular lemma belongs, which will enhance their knowledge of grammar.

(b) Pronunciation

It has been found that throughout the sample, pronunciation and its markers have never been presented. Therefore, this dictionary does not satisfy the needs, especially for the Oshikwanyama users, particularly the learners who need to learn to pronounce English lexical

items. It is, therefore, of utmost importance for the future compilers of dictionaries to consider adding how lexical items are pronounced, for production purposes, such as speaking.

(c) Lemma inflection

There are cases in the sample in which lemma inflection has not been presented. A good example was taken from the lemma *minute* (2019: 457). This lemma has been labelled as belonging to two different parts of speech, namely, *adjective* and *noun*, but its inflectional details, e.g. how it changes from singular into plural form, have not been indicated. It is of utmost importance for compilers of dictionaries to indicate to the non-native English speakers that a certain lexical item changes into the plural form, by adding affixes such as prefixes and suffixes, among others, as for the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama will be assisted in learning and acquiring English vocabulary, which will assist them in text production.

(d) Types of articles (Single and complex articles)

After having carefully investigated all the articles in the sample, it has been found that only single articles exist in the *EO* part of the *OEEOD*. Due to the lack of complex articles *EO*, it is suggested for the compilers of future dictionaries, particularly the learners' dictionaries, to include complex articles to display information such as cultural or more extensive or informative grammatical notes. By doing so, the target users, particularly the non-native speakers of Oshikwanyama would learn Oshikwanyama extensive or informative grammatical as well as cultural information with the aim of enriching their cultural knowledge of the foreign language, in this case, Oshikwanyama.

5.2.5.2. The comment on semantics

The findings in this section have been provided based on the analysis made on the aspects of semantics, such as translation equivalents, typographical errors, lexicographical labels, examples, usage notes, context indicators, grammatical notes, access structures and equivalent relations types.

(i) Translation equivalents

First of all, it has been found that all the Oshikwanyama translation equivalents have been italicised to draw a line between the languages that have been treated in the dictionary, namely English and Oshikwanyama.

Secondly, the compilers of this dictionary are also acknowledged for the effort that they have made in ensuring that the majority of their translation equivalents are correct. This is what is always expected of the compilers by the target users of the dictionaries to ensure that the target users will not be misguided or learning wrong translation equivalents.

Apart from correct translation, it has also been found that a few cases of incorrect translation equivalents prevail. For example, the lexical item **pledge** (2019: 485) which is the lemma for the same article has an incorrect translation equivalent which is *oshikwatifo shokonhele yeonga*. The correct translation equivalents should be *eudaneko koshi yeano*.

Another example is the wrong translation equivalent of the lemma **Sunday** (2019:541). The compilers of this dictionary have given a wrong translation by indicating that the name **Sunday** refers to "a meat day" *efiku lombelela*, instead of indicating that it refers "to a worship day" which is translated as *efiku lehambelelo* in Oshikwanyama. It seems like the compilers of the dictionary did not double-check this translation before submitting it to the publishing house for printing; a case that should not be repeated by future bilingual dictionaries' compilers.

(ii) *Typographical errors in translation equivalents*

It has been found that, in terms of typing, the *EO* part of the reviewed dictionary has been well edited. However, a few typos have been discovered. An example was taken from (2019: 485), where the second translation equivalent of the lemma **pluck**, *eyombano*, is misspelt.

The first synonymous translation equivalent *eyombano* does not exist in Oshikwanyama, but the second synonymous translation equivalent *ouladi* has been spelt correctly. The correct translation equivalent should be *eyombamo*, instead of *eyombano*. Another typological error of the translation equivalents has been found on (2019:289), in which the second translation equivalent for the lemma **advance** is *huma komesho*, and spelt wrongly in Oshikwanyama. It has been noticed that the translation equivalent *huma komesho* is taken from the other dialects of Oshiwambo (Oshindonga and Oshikwambi). This term in the other varieties of Oshiwambo is correct, but in Oshikwanyama it is wrong, because of the first letter [h] of *huma*. The correct spelling of the translation equivalent in Oshikwanyama should be *xuma komesho*, starting with the [x] sound instead of the [h] sound. There are cases in Oshikwanyama in which the letter *x* is used instead of the letter *h*.

The issue of typographical errors (spelling errors) in Oshikwanyama translation equivalents might seem to pose a major problem to the target users of the dictionary. The mother-tongue users of English who are learning to spell and pronounce lexical items in Oshikwanyama might be misguided and end up using the translation equivalents wrongly, especially in terms of text production. Therefore, to a certain extent, the micro-contextual purpose of pronouncing and spelling the Oshikwanyama lexical items correctly has been compromised.

For the proposed model, this study suggests that the compilers should always double-check all the typographical errors in the translation equivalents before the dictionary is taken for the final print. It will help the target users to choose and adopt the correct translation equivalents and use them correctly, as far as text production is concerned.

(iii) Lexicographical labels

It has also come to the researcher's attention that, to a certain extent, lexicographical labels have not been taken very seriously by the compilers of the reviewed dictionary. Some dictionary articles that needed to be presented with lexicographical labels have been left unlabelled, while others have been. The *EO* part shows that the translation equivalent lemma **wheel** (2019:569), which is *okuulu (ketemba)*, is a literal translation taken from the lexical items *hind-leg (of wagon)*. Labels of this type are seldom presented in the dictionary. Other terms that should have been labelled in the dictionary have already been explained in the *OE* section of the dictionary reviewed.

(iv) Etymological issues

Etymological issues have been presented, although this has not been done to all the translation equivalents that needed this action, but only to those translation equivalents that are borrowed from European languages, including English. The analysis took the lexical items **sugar** and **suit** (2019:541) as the lemmata, with their translation equivalents *oshuuka* and *omushuku* respectively. The comments in the brackets show that the translation equivalents are borrowed from English, as Oshikwanyama does not have the exact term for these two lexical items, sugar and suit. This is the case of surrogate equivalence which will be dealt with later on in this chapter.

However, cases in which etymological markers have not been presented are largely observed. It has been found, for example, that the lemma **Epiphany** (2019:373) has two synonymous translation equivalents, of which the first one is *okuholoka* and the second one in *Epifani*. It is quite clear that the second Oshikwanyama translation equivalent, *Epifani*, is a loan term, although it has never been indicated to the user from which language is the translation equivalent. Lexical items of this kind should have been presented with their etymology, to assist the target users that might be interested in knowing their etymology. Similarly, the translation equivalent of the lemma **Sunday** on the same page *Osoondaxa* should have been indicated with its language of origin, but this was never done. The target users are curious about the origin of names such as *Osoondaxa*, especially that it is Ovakwanyama's frequently spoken lexical item used in the Holy Bible, and it is also one of the seven days of the week which is also used in schools by teachers and learners. There are some claims that the word or name **Sunday** is derived from Afrikaans word (Sondag). This also applies to **Monday** which is *Omaandaxa* in Oshikwanyama and *Maandag* in Afrikaans. Etimological entry for these terms should have been presented in the the target users.

(v) *Presentation of examples*

Examples in the reviewed dictionary have been provided, for the target users to know how to apply certain concepts or lexical items contextually. The lemma **deduce** (2019: 345), has been provided with its translation equivalents, *konga mo ounongo* and *kwata mo*. After the translation equivalents examples from both languages, English and Oshikwanyama have followed, and they are: **From these words, I deduce many things = meendjovo edi onda kwata mo oinima ihapu.**

What has not been provided in the same article is the example sign that introduces and alerts the user that what comes next is an example. This makes it very difficult for the target users, as they are the ones to deduce that what is presented is an example. There are also some cases in which example signs have been provided in the sample. A good example is provided in the article introduced by the lemma **gist** (2019: 401). In this article, the examples have been introduced by the example sign (e.g.), which gives a sign to the target user that the lexical item **gist** is used contextually, as used in the examples. The examples in English, **to give the gist of his remarks** and **the gist of the matter**, have been translated into Oshikwanyama as *okutonga eshi shokoshi yeendjovo daye* and *eshi shokoshi yoshinima* respectively. The compilers of the dictionary have done tremendous work in ensuring that a contextual example has been

provided. There is a major shortcoming in terms of providing the correct translation equivalent. The non-mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama might be struggling to use the lexical item **gist** in their text production, as they might feel that it means something else apart from "giving the main point" or "the main part of something". So, the compilers should have provided unambiguous examples that aim at assisting the non-mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama to apply and use the lexical items correctly as they read them in the dictionary. Instead of *eshi shokoshi*, clear translated equivalents such as *exuku* or *oshitwa shopokati* should have been used.

(vi) Usage notes

As on the *EO* part, usage notes have also been presented on this part of the dictionary. One of the main reasons why usage notes should be presented is because they guide how certain lexical items represented by lemmata are used contextually in the language. Apart from the fact that usage notes are presented in the same way as grammatical notes, their functions are also that of providing syntactic information. Dictionary articles introduced by the lemmata **deciduous** (2019:345) and **epitome** (2019:373) of the sample have been analysed.

Although the lexical item **deciduous**, functioning as a lemma and it is an adjective, is then indicated that it is expressed by the verb intransitive *yaumuka(a)* in Oshikwanyama. Similarly, the lexical item **epitome** belongs to the category of nouns in English, but in Oshikwanyama it can be paraphrased using the term *mouxupi* as indicated by the grammatical note.

As explained in the previous section regarding usage notes for the proposed model, the presentation will be done in the same way as they are presented in the reviewed dictionary. This will assist the target users, to use the selected lexical items correctly in any given context. The non-typographical structural markers that will be adopted to present usage notes will be brackets.

(vii) Context indicators

Context indicators in the *EO* part have also been presented fairly well. These indicators are presented in brackets, especially after the part of speech markers, and after the first sense of the articles as seen in the articles introduced by lemmata, **interval** (2019:429) and **run** (2019:513), of the reviewed dictionary. The lemma **interval** is provided with the context indicator in brackets (*of time*) to explain to the user that the first sense is associated with time.

What is very important here is that an example is also provided to indicate to the user how the lexical item **interval** in the first sense is used in a particular context. The example is therefore, *efimbo loposhakati*. Another context indicator is observed in the second sense of the lemma **interval**, which is (of time) *oshinano shopokati*.

In addition, two context indicators have been used for the lemma **run**. This simply means that when one is referring to the lexical item **run** of persons he or she should use translation equivalents such as *endelela*, *tondoka*, and *lotoka*. When he or she is referring to **run** of liquids, then he or she should use translation equivalents such as *shisha* and *dja*.

The proposed model will also adopt the same style of presenting context indicators as seen in the reviewed dictionary. It will assist the learners of the proposed dictionary, as the proposed target users, to select the correct sense of the lemmata when they are seeking answers for their questions in the dictionary. As to usage notes explained in the preceding sections, context indicators will also be presented in brackets.

(viii) Grammatical notes

Grammatical notes have also been presented well in the sample. Three articles introduced by the lemmata, **cattle** (2019:317), **gills** and **glands** (2019:401), have been provided as examples. It has been found, in the article introduced by the lemma **cattle**, that the grammatical note is indicated by the marker (**pl.**) to indicate that the lexical item is in a plural form. It can be seen in the article that the lemma **cattle** is a noun and it is always in a plural form in English. Therefore, the user is made aware that this lexical item (cattle) is always in a plural form. The lemma **gills** in Oshikwanyama is translated as *omalakusha* and it is in a plural form. Further on the same page, the lemma **glands** is also in a plural form, and in Oshikwanyama it is translated as *ovana vofingo*, in the plural form as well.

To conclude, grammatical notes on this dictionary part are presented following the part of speech markers. One of the important functions of grammatical notes is that of assisting the target users in using and understanding how lexical items are and should be used grammatically in the language.

For the proposed model, the same presentation of grammatical notes [as in the reviewed dictionary], of indicating if the lexical item, functioning as a lemma is, for example, in its plural form, in its present or past if it is a verb or in a singular form, etc., will be adopted. The

typographical structural marker that will be adopted will be brackets, in the same way the usage notes and indicators of context will be presented.

5.2.5.3 *EO* access structures

In this sub-section, the findings are done on the basis of the review conducted on the two types of access structure, namely *outer access structure* and *inner access structure*.

(i) *Outer access structure*

Aspects such as table of contents, guide words and the arrangement of lemmata are part of the outer access structure. The table of contents and the arrangements of lemmata have already been emphasised in 5.2 of this Chapter (on outer texts and macrostructural aspects respectively). Therefore, the focus of this section is only on guide words.

(a) *The guide words*

As established in the review done on the *OE* part of the reviewed dictionary, it has been found that guide words have never been presented in the entire dictionary. This poses a serious problem to the target users of this dictionary, because they have to spend more time searching for the lemma they want in the dictionary. Therefore, the compilers of this dictionary should have presented the guide words on the top left and top right corners of this dictionary for the target users to easily retrieve the lexical items that they would like to have information on.

(ii) *Inner access structure*

The findings were made on the review conducted on both the typographical and non-typographical structural markers that concern search zones in the dictionary.

(a) *Typographical structural markers*

With regards to the typographical structural markers, it has been revealed that all the main lemmata in this part of the dictionary have been printed in bold, a case that has been adopted by most dictionaries worldwide.

For the proposed model, this same strategy will be adopted, as in the reviewed dictionary. The main lemma will be printed in bold, the sub-lemma will either be italicised or printed in bold with italicisation, as it was explained in the preceding sub-sections. This will enable the target

users to differentiate between the sub-lemmata and the main lemmata presented in the central list.

(b) Non-typographical structural markers

Regarding the non-typographical structural markers, the presentation of commas and semicolons is an important aspect when it comes to bilingual dictionaries. These non-typographical structural markers in *EO* have been presented differently.

The presentation of commas in the article introduced by the lemma **rug** (2019:513) has been applied correctly, as these two translation equivalents, *onhanga* and *ekumbafa* are synonyms. This means that they are referring to one and the same thing. The target users of this dictionary, particularly the non-mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama who have experience of dictionary use, will have a clue that the lexical items, *onhanga* and *ekumbafa* are synonyms, and they can replace each other in any given situation.

However, there are some cases in which the comma is missing from the articles, which may lead to incorrect translation equivalents, as has been observed in the article introduced by the lemma **wheel** (2019:569). It can be deduced that the presentation of a comma between the translation equivalent *elola* and *okuulu* is missing, which may lead to unclear meaning. The lemma **wheel** has two translation equivalents that are synonymous in Oshikwanyama. The first translation is *elola* and the second one is *okuulu*. The non-Oshikwanyama mother-tongue users who may come across this article may learn a wrong translation of the lexical item **wheel**, which is *elola okuulu*, which is supposed to be *elola, okuulu*. This might have been caused by the lack of reading through before the final version of the dictionary was taken to the publishing house.

It has also been found that cases in which a comma is incorrectly applied in the sample prevail. To prove this claim, the article introduced by the lemma **ruffian** (2019:513), of the sample, has been used.

It has been explained in the literature that a comma separates synonymous lexical items. Lexical items *oshipwidi* and *ombudi* are not synonyms or partial synonyms at all, but they are polysemous. That is, they share different meanings. Therefore, a semicolon, which separates polysemous words, should have been presented. The target user, who is a non-mother tongue speaker of Oshikwanyama, might be of the idea that the words used as translation equivalents are synonyms, and may end up using the two of them, in the same situation, which may lead to poor communication.

5.2.5.4 Equivalent relations

The discussion of the findings will be based on the three types of equivalent relations, namely, full equivalence, partial equivalence, and zero equivalence. The description of these three types of equivalence has already been dealt with in Chapter One and Two of this study.

(i) Full equivalence (congruence)

Two articles introduced by the lemmata **advice** (2019:289) and **castrate** (2019:317) have been selected to indicate that full equivalence prevails in the *EO* part. The first article is introduced by the lemma **advice** of which its translation equivalent is *omaye*. Similarly, the lemma **castrate** has also been made up of one translation equivalent, which is *lutula*. Therefore, it can then be deduced that both source and target language forms have exactly the same meaning, and the translation equivalents can substitute the lemmata in all their occurrences. Therefore, full equivalence prevails in Oshikwanyama as appeared in the sample.

Many lexical items in English have their full translating equivalents in Oshikwanyama and vice-versa. Therefore, for the proposed model, full equivalence will dominate the central list, because there will be many articles where the source language lexical items functioning as lemmata have exactly the same meaning of target language translation. Therefore, the translation equivalents can substitute the lemmata in all their occurrences.

(ii) Partial equivalence (divergence)

Partial equivalence in *EO* also prevails. In the target language, these equivalents are believed to be synonyms or partial synonyms, as explained in Chapter One of this salient study.

For example, the lemma **equerry** (2019:373), has three translation equivalents, namely, *omumati wohamba*, *omukalele wohamba* and *omupiya wohamba*. These translation equivalents are synonymous and can replace one another in any given context. Another example that shows that partial equivalence in English-Oshikwanyama prevails is taken from the article introduced by the lemma **mirror** (2019:457). This lemma has three translation equivalents, namely, *onhengelelo*, *okatengelelo* and *okashipili*. In Oshikwanyama, these translation equivalents can replace one another in all occurrences. That is why they are separated by the comma, as a non-typographical marker. Similarly, in the article introduced by the lemma **mirth** (2019:457), two translation equivalents, namely, *ehafo* and *enyakuko* have been presented.

These translation equivalents in Oshikwanyama are synonyms, and a user can choose any one of them to use in any given situation. It is therefore concluded that synonymous lexical items in Oshikwanyama prevail.

Semantic divergence also prevails "where the lemma sign represents a polysemous lexical item" (Gouws, 2002: 198). This is critical, because if complementing entries are not provided, then the dictionary user will find it hard to choose the correct translational equivalent. A good example is taken from an article introduced by the lemma **ruffian** (2019:513). Two translation equivalents, *oshipwidi* and *ombudi*, have been provided for the lemma **ruffian**. These translation equivalents are used as synonyms, but they cannot replace one another in any given context. Therefore, a semicolon should have been used to separate these two translation equivalents, instead of a comma. The correct example of semantic divergence is seen on Page 317 of the reviewed dictionary. It has been found that a semicolon has been applied correctly in the article introduced by the lemma **casualty** (casualty, n., (misfortune) *oshiponga*; (wounded man) *ondjashe*. This simply means that the two translation equivalents namely, *oshiponga* and *ondjashe* can, in no way, replace one another in any given context. That is why a semicolon has been put between them. The context indicators (misfortune and wounded man) also assist the target users to know which translation equivalent to use, thanks to the compilers. This simply provides an idea as to how the translation equivalents cannot, at all, replace one another in any given context. That is why it is replaced by a semicolon. The selection of the correct equivalent, as far as polysemous lexical items are concerned, is a problem, especially for the non-mother tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama, as they find it difficult to select the correct translation equivalent if the presentation of non-typographical markers has not been taken very seriously. If they do not choose the correct equivalent to use, as a result of the unclear presentation of semi-colon, then they will end up producing texts in Oshikwanyama that have no meaning at all.

(iii) Zero equivalence

Lexical gaps in any language exist and they are common. When the target language does not have a lexical item as an equivalent to the source language item, then zero equivalence, (surrogate equivalence) prevails. Additionally, surrogate equivalence, based on Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), belong to different categories, and the nature of a particular lexical gap determines their choice. Two types of lexical gaps have been identified by Wang (2012), namely linguistic gaps and referential gaps. When the meanings or the things that are

represented by words exist in the target world, but the equivalent words do not exist, it is referred to as linguistic gaps. There is a good example taken from the lemma **decoy** (2019:345).

There is no equivalent lexical item in Oshikwanyama for the word **decoy**, but it can be translated into a phrase as *omuhekelifi momeva mapyu* = **one who entices onto hot water**; similarly, another phrase for the same lemma **decoy** has been provided as *omukokeli mehoka lipyu* = **one who entices into hot broth**.

Another example is found in the lemma **misbelief** (2019:457) of the sample. There is no equivalent word for the lexical item **misbelief**. Therefore, this lexical item, functioning as a lemma, has been provided with a phrase to indicate the word's meaning. The phrase is therefore, *eitavelo lihe na oshili* or *eitavelo lihe fi loshili*.

Another example of Surrogate equivalence is taken from the lemma **sugar** (2019: 541). In Oshikwanyama, there is no exact lexical item that refers to the English lexical item **sugar**. One of the reasons would be that, semantically, **sugar** is not an Oshikwanyama item, it is just a type of seasoning from Europe. Since there is no equivalent lexical item for the word **sugar**, and it is frequently used in and around Owambo, then Oshikwanyama has adopted it and entered it in its lexicon, and translated it as *oshuuka*, a loan equivalent translation. This simply means that the word is only translated by its pronunciation. An accompanying explanation should have been provided for a clear explanation, especially to the target user of the dictionary, who is not a mother-tongue speaker of Oshikwanyama.

All in all, the findings that have been established based on the review of the two parts of the dictionary, the OE and the EO, serve a significant function in terms of the proposed dictionary. The front matter texts of both the *EO* and *OE* have provided information which is contradicting what is presented in the central list, a case that is going to be looked at carefully in terms of the proposed dictionary for the secondary school learners.

For the *OE* part, several aspects in the central list have been found to be not well presented, such as the way typographical markers have been presented, which may confuse the readers as to choose between the main lemma and sub-lemmata. This also applies to the *EO* part where the typographical structural markers in the central list have not been taken into consideration by the compilers of the dictionary.

When it comes to the non-typographical structural markers, particularly when it comes to the presentation of the semi-colon that is used to separate senses with polysemous value, they have not also been well taken seriously. Semi-colon separates translation equivalents that are not synonymous with one another. The lack of proper presentation of semicolons may result in the user getting confused and misguided. This might have been caused by the compilers' lack of understanding and knowledge of theories of compiling dictionaries. What is also important to establish here, based on the review, is that the compilers of the reviewed Oshikwanyama-English/ English-Oshikwanyama dictionary are acknowledged for their great effort in contributing to the development of Oshikwanyama. One way or the other, the dictionary serves a greater purpose not only in the schools and higher institutions but also in the society at large. There is no way for a dictionary of bigger volume like that not to have issues here and there. This study believes that in the next edition of the dictionary, compilers will be able to read this review and make considerable changes to their work. Therefore, their work is really being recognised by this study.

Although the reviewed dictionary has some observable shortcomings, the proposed model will ensure that the proposed dictionary does not repeat the same issue of presenting information that will compromise the use of the dictionary by the target users [secondary school learners] in schools.

5.3 The model for compiling English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners

This section presents findings based on the proposed model for compiling the English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners, *EODSSL*.

The different aspects of the dictionary in the proposed model as discussed in Chapter Four of this study are of great importance, as they will aid the compilers of the proposed dictionary in terms of compilation of the proposed bilingual dictionary for secondary school learners.

The compiler's prime reason for compiling any dictionary is that of fulfilling the target user's needs by means of the dictionary text (Hadebe, 2005). The target user does consult the dictionary text with the point of fulfilling the reference needs. The compiler must ensure that the dictionary is produced in such a way that it meets the needs of the intended user, which is especially important here. The compiler should guarantee that all major aspects of the learners' dictionary, such as front matter, central list and the back matter texts have been treated in such

a way that secondary school learners will be able to recover effortlessly the data contained in these texts.

Regarding the front matter text, there is a mandatory text, as explained in the previous chapters. This mandatory text is the introductory text, which is also known as the user's guide. This model is of great importance, as it equips the compilers of the proposed dictionary with the skills and knowledge of what to cover in the proposed dictionary's user guide. It is critical for the compiler of the proposed dictionary [Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners] to provide all of the information needed by the target users [the secondary school learners] in this section of the dictionary, because this section provides guidance on how the dictionary is used by the users, such as the use of symbols, abbreviation, the treatment of the lemmata, translated equivalents, and many others.

Issues regarding aspects such as access structure, micro-structure and macro-structure, and many others that have been discussed in Chapter Three and Chapter Four are also of great importance to the dictionary compiler of the proposed dictionary, because they will get salient strategies on how to include and treat aspects of the dictionary such as arranging of lexical items in the dictionary [ordering of lemmata, on a macrostructural level], treatment of the two dictionary article components, such as the comment on form and the comment on semantics [on a microstructural level], typographical and non-typographical structural markers. Major dictionary purposes as discussed in the proposed model in Chapter Four, for instance, macro-contextual, micro-contextual and meso-contextual purposes should also be taken into consideration in terms of compiling learners' dictionaries, in this case, secondary school learners of Oshikwanyama. Therefore, this model is of great importance to the compilers of the proposed dictionary.

5.3.1 The type of the bilingual dictionary and the languages to be treated

Firstly, according to the model, the proposed dictionary is going to be mono-directional, and two languages will be treated, namely, English and Oshikwanyama. The source language will be English and the target language will be Oshikwanyama.

For the proposed dictionary, since it will be the first learners' dictionary in Oshikwanyama, it would be great if it goes in one direction for now [From English to Oshikwanyama]. The reason why English is one of the treated languages of the proposed dictionary is because, it is the official language of Namibia, and it is regarded as a second language and taught at every school

in Namibia. Another significant reason why English is going to be paired with Oshikwanyama is for the reason that many people were taught [and are being taught] English in schools, and literature on English is largely available everywhere. Therefore, on the basis of this fact, it is assumed that the compilers know English better than some other languages in Namibia.

Another significant fact why English has been chosen to be one of the languages in the proposed dictionary is that it is a world language. In other words, English is learnt and spoken internationally. Therefore, it would be interesting if the target users are taught their mother tongue and the worldwide language, so that even if they go to other countries, they would be able to communicate successfully. The other languages will be considered if chances to compile a multilingual or a trilingual dictionary arise. As a matter of urgency, the proposed dictionary is going to treat only English and Oshikwanyama, and it is going to be compiled at a very simplified level to accommodate all learners from different classes. This is to say that even the Grade 8 learners will be able to utilise it successfully.

For the proposed model, the inclusion of the type and languages to be treated in the dictionary, as discussed in the preceding paragraphs, will assist the compilers of the proposed dictionary to increase knowledge and understanding of what to include and what not to include in their dictionary, as it is bilingual.

5.3.2 Size and coverage of the proposed dictionary

The proposed dictionary is going to be utilised by secondary school learners from Grade 8 to Grade 12. Therefore, it does not need to be a big-sized lexicographical work that includes all the lexical items from both the English and Oshikwanyama lexicon. It will be portable and the lexical items to be treated are going to be selected cautiously. The lexical items to be treated will cover all the academic disciplines followed in secondary schools, ranging from science subjects, technical subjects, arts, humanities to social subjects.

5.3.3 The proposed dictionary's target user

It has been emphasised by various scholars in the field of both theoretical and practical lexicography (Cf. Tarp, 2008; Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005) that any dictionary is compiled based on the target users that have been identified. To identify the characteristics of the intended user type of the proposed dictionary, it is important to stress the characteristic of the target user, and

these similar characteristics have been formulated in a form of questions and answers (cf. Chapter Four, Section 4.4). For the proposed *EODSSL* two different potential target user groups have been identified, and they are speakers of other languages, but understand English and mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama (particularly learners of Oshikwanyama that are in secondary schools in Namibia from Grade 8 to Grade 12.)

Most schools in Namibia offer English as a Second Language, English as a First Language and more than 7 African languages [in which Oshikwanyama is included] depending on the regions and areas where those languages are frequently spoken. The reason why the other languages are not catered for in the proposed dictionary is that there are already dictionaries that have been compiled for those languages. In other words, some languages have already record of dictionaries. For example, languages like Otjiherero and Khoekhoegowab have produced more dictionaries than Oshikwanyama. Therefore, there is a crucial need for Oshikwanyama to produce dictionaries, such as the proposed one, for it to be developed further and assist the learners in schools, just like what other languages in Namibia do. If there is anyone [from the other languages] interested to learn and know Oshikwanyama, then they will have to learn it through English, because English will be one of the treated languages in the proposed dictionary, as established already in the preceding sections.

5.3.4 The proposed dictionary [*EODSSL*] purposes

The findings reveal three very important dictionary purposes that the proposed dictionary will serve. These purposes are *Macro-contextual purposes*, *Meso-contextual purposes*, and *Micro-contextual purposes*.

5.3.4.1 Macro-contextual purposes

Four macro-contextual purposes of the proposed dictionary have been found. Firstly, to improve the status of Oshikwanyama as a Namibian national language, by means of documenting part of its vocabulary. Secondly, based on its functional use, it will contribute to facilitating communication between the speakers of Oshikwanyama and the speakers of English. Thirdly, based on the proposed dictionary's functional use, it will contribute to the insight into Oshikwanyama as an element of Namibia's multicultural setup. The last macro-contextual purpose of the proposed *EODSSL* is that its functional use will also contribute to the teaching and learning of Oshikwanyama and English.

The purposes mentioned will assist the compilers to produce a focused dictionary, as when they compile it they will always have them in mind. They will know that the dictionary will improve the status of Oshikwanyama as one of the national languages of Namibia, facilitating communication between speakers of both Oshikwanyama and English, providing insights into Oshikwanyama as part of Namibia's multicultural setting and they will also compile it with the aim that it will help in teaching and learning of Oshikwanyama and English in schools. They will know that the dictionary that they are producing is not for general use, but for special use.

5.3.4.2 Meso-contextual purposes

The following are meso-contextual purposes which are also referred to as dictionary functions (Cf. Beyer & Augart, 2017). They have been established based on the two target user groups. Dictionary functions for mother-tongue speakers of English as the target users of the proposed *EODSSL* are, first, to assist in the translation of texts from English to Oshikwanyama, second, to help in producing a text in Oshikwanyama and third, to assist in learning Oshikwanyama and acquiring its vocabulary. Dictionary functions for mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama as the target users of the proposed *EODSSL* are, to assist in learning English and acquiring its vocabulary, and to assist in reading a general English text.

Compilers of the proposed dictionary should also know the dictionary functions for mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama as the target users of the proposed *EODSSL*. For the compilers, the first thing they have to consider is that the proposed dictionary they will compile will have to be useful in terms of translation. Furthermore, it will be able to be utilised by the learners for text production. That means, it will be used to help learners in writing their work correctly and to assist in reading a general English text [Text production], as they will be presented with the correct information, and that particular information will be presented correctly. They have also to make sure that they produce a dictionary that will be used by the learners in terms of text reception, for example, helping to learn English as well as acquiring its vocabulary. Therefore, the proposed dictionary will be used by the target users as a learning tool.

5.3.4.3 Micro-contextual purposes of the proposes

The compilers have to make sure that they bear in mind the micro-contextual purposes when compiling the proposed dictionary. The micro-contextual purposes of this dictionary will be

for the mother-tongue speakers of English as well as the other English Second Language speakers as the target users.

Firstly, the compilers have to ensure that the proposed dictionary will assist in providing the Oshikwanyama translation equivalent for a given lexical item X used in a pragmatic context Y. Secondly, the compilers have also to ensure that the proposed dictionary will be able to show how Oshikwanyama translation equivalent X changes morphologically in expression Y, how Oshikwanyama translation equivalent X functions in a sentence and also how Oshikwanyama translation equivalence X is pronounced. This way the quality of the dictionary will not be compromised.

For the proposed dictionary's micro-contextual purposes for the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama as the target users, the compilers have to ensure that it will unreservedly assist in the spelling of lexical items in English, show how the English lexical items change morphologically in any expression, how the English lexical items function in a sentence, and lastly how the English lexical items are pronounced. In other words, proposed dictionary compilers have to ensure that their proposed lexicographical work will be able to assist or give information on spelling, rules of inflection, lexical items functions, as well as pronunciation of any lexical item found in the dictionary. This way the dictionary will be regarded as successful, because it meets all the needs of the target users.

5.3.5 The frame structure

The proposed dictionary's frame structure will be structured in the following format: front and back covers, *EODSSL* outer cover, and *EODSSL*'s central matter.

5.3.5.1 Front and back covers of the proposed dictionary

Unintegrated and integrated outer texts of the proposed dictionary as types of outer texts will be covered. Unintegrated outer texts, according to Steyn (2004), offer less contribution to the genuine purpose of the dictionary, although they are also important parts of the dictionary. These texts, among others, are the title page, introduction and foreword. Integrated outer texts are significant, because they contribute to achieving the genuine purpose of the dictionary. In other words, they add value and contribution to the successful dictionary consultation process (Gouws, 2004a). Therefore, the front (title) page will have little information, including the title of the dictionary, the name of the compiler (s) and the publisher's name. The back cover of the proposed *EODSSL* will have a short paragraph (the blurb) for promotional purposes, in which

the user or target users are convinced to purchase the proposed dictionary for their own language benefits.

Therefore, for the proposed dictionary, it is imperative for the compilers to put the above-mentioned criteria into consideration, as far as integrated and non-integrated outer texts are concerned for them to have a better and up to standard dictionary.

5.3.5.2 The proposed *EODSSL* outer texts

As established already in Chapter Four of this study, three prime structures will be considered by the compilers of the proposed dictionary, namely the front matter, the central list and the back matter. This simply means that the proposed bilingual dictionary will be divided according to these three structures. The following are the aspects that will be included in the proposed dictionary's front matter texts and back matter texts.

(i) The proposed Dictionary's front matter text

The compilers of the proposed dictionary need to consider the following information. This information includes a preface, user's guide, table of contents, pronunciation guide, abbreviations used and notes on English and Oshikwanyama grammar.

(a) Preface

In this section, the compilers will have to clarify the purpose and the target users of the proposed dictionary as discussed in Chapters Two and Three of this study. Furthermore, information regarding the history and all the people and organisations involved in the compilation of the proposed *EODSSL* will also be established in this section. Structural possibilities and motivations, the linguistic and lexicographic situations that lead to the compilation of the dictionary from the envisaged model will also be considered by the compilers.

(b) User's guide

The information regarding the user's guide assists the compilers of the dictionary to know what information to include in the user's guide of the proposed dictionary. This text will provide guidance to the secondary school learners of English and Oshikwanyama learners as the target users, on how to use and access the information presented in the dictionary. It includes

information such as: how to recognise and identify lemmata, translation equivalents, examples, senses and many other issues. Therefore, the producers of the proposed dictionary need to consider this information.

(c) Table of contents

As already discussed in previous studies, a general table of contents that will be presenting a sketchy structure of the proposed *EODSSL* will be considered by the compilers. The table of contents is significant not only to the compilers but also to the target users of the dictionary, as it will be used to indicate to the user where the specific pages in the different sections of the dictionary will be located.

(d) Pronunciation guide

This section, as already explained in Chapter Four, will give guidance on how certain Oshikwanyama lexical items are pronounced. For the compilers, the compilers will have some insights of both the Oshiwambo pronunciation chart and guide as well as the English pronunciation guide, to present the correct information, regarding the pronunciation guide. Compilers will also present the English pronunciation guide to assist the target users in pronouncing the English lexical items correctly when encountering them in the central list of the proposed *EODSSL*.

(e) Abbreviations used

It is imperative for the compilers to include a list of abbreviations in the front matter section. Compilers should bear in mind that that particular list of abbreviations should only include the abbreviations that are significant, such as those of parts of speech, and other short forms of lexical items that the target users will encounter in the central list of the proposed *EODSSL*.

(f) Note on English and Oshikwanyama grammar

It is important for the compilers to include this section in the front matter. This model proposes for this aspect to be included in the user's guide or in a separate section. It will give information on grammar for English and Oshikwanyama. Compilers should know what information to include in this section of the front matter, such as the different parts of speech, Oshikwanyama noun classes, inflections, morphology, among others. It will help the target users to know how grammar is presented in the heart of the proposed dictionary.

(ii) *The proposed Dictionary's back matter text*

The proposed model will assist compilers to include two sections on the back matter text of the proposed dictionary, namely the information on Oshikwanyama culture and pictorial illustration index.

(a) *Note on cultural information of Oshikwanyama*

A brief overview of a few significant Oshikwanyama cultural aspects such as greetings, ways of interacting with one another, among others will be provided. It is also in this section in which a linguistic map of Oshikwanyama will be provided. It is important for the compilers to include cultural information on Oshiwambo so that the non-speakers of Oshikwanyama will be able to have some insights into Oshikwanyama regarding items presented in the dictionary. In the same way, cultural information regarding English will also be included by the compilers for the users that are learning English through the dictionary to know some items in the dictionary regarding English culture.

(b) *Pictorial illustration index*

Pictorial illustration index will be considered by the compilers of the proposed dictionary. This section is important not to be ignored by the compilers as it will provide, alphabetically, the titles of the different tables of pictures and the page numbers where these pictures are allocated in the central list of the proposed dictionary. What is very important in terms of presenting this section is that it will give users easy and direct access to pictures when they only want to consult these specific data categories with no need to go through the articles.

5.3.5.3 The proposed *EODSSL's* central list

The proposed model covers two important structures of the central list, namely macrostructure and microstructure that are briefly dealt with in the sub-sections that follow.

(i) Macrostructural aspects of the proposed EODSSL

Compulsory structures for a learner's dictionary, based on literature, made up this text. These structures are the alphabetical ordering of lemmata, the access alphabet, running heads, and many others. A few optional structures prevail in some dictionaries for the purpose of enhancing access to the macrostructure, and they are thumb indexes, coloured pages, etc.

(a) Arrangement of lemmata

Ordering of lemmata in the proposed dictionary is important to the compilers. They have to consider the easiest way of arranging lemmata. For the proposed *EODSSL*, the easiest way of ordering lemmata is when they are arranged alphabetically. It will be easier for the Grade 8 learners to access the lemmata, as these learners are already exposed to the letters of the alphabet, as they have been taught about them since their primary grades.

(iii) Microstructural aspects of the proposed EODSSL

The microstructure of the proposed dictionary will only cover the two important components of the dictionary article structure, namely, the comment on form and the comment on semantics. Based on Text theory [Wiegand, 1989, Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005, among others,] dictionary article is made up of only **two parts**. *The comment on form* and *the comment on semantics*. These two comments have different aspects under them. Other authors have discussed many elements, but, since this study is following the Text theory's ideas on dictionary articles, the researcher then decided to include only these two comments as part of the dictionary article, as far as the central list is concerned. These components are explained below and this is how they will be presented in the proposed dictionary

(a) The comment on form

The comment on form of the proposed model includes the types of data such as, among others, orthographic forms, pronunciation, morphological data, and parts of speech. Importantly, the lemma sign is also regarded as part of the comment on form, because it gives information on the spelling of the relevant lexical item. Therefore, it was recommended as part of the comment

on form for the compilers of the proposed dictionary. The following is a brief synopsis of each entry which will be part of the proposed dictionary's comment on form.

- **Lemma signs and orthographic forms**

The lemma signs were included in the model, and compilers have to make sure that they present them correctly in the proposed dictionary. Compilers have to ensure that they spell the lemmata correctly to allow the target users to learn to spell and write the English lexical items correctly in their everyday activities, either at school or at home. Besides spelling and writing correctly, in terms of the typographical structural markers, the model stipulates that both the main lemmata and the sub-lemmata should be printed in bold for easy access and retrieval of information.

- **Inflection**

The model indicates how various parts of speech change into their plural or singular forms. If a lemma is a noun, it will be indicated as to how it changes into its plural form. If the lemma is a verb, then it should be indicated how it changes into its present, past or future tenses. Through the compilers' inclusion of inflection, the target users, especially the mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama, will acquire vocabulary which will assist them in text production.

- *Parts of speech*

For the proposed dictionary, each lemma, either main or sub-lemma, will be assigned its parts of speech to which it belongs. This simply means that the part of speech marker will come immediately after the lemmata. Abbreviations that stand for each part of speech will be presented as follows.

noun = n, verb = v (transitive = vt, intransitive= vi), adverb = adv, adjective = adj., preposition = prep, demonstrative pronoun = dem., conjunction = conj. and pronoun = pr.

Including parts of speech will also assist the target users of the proposed *EODSSL* from using lexical items wrongly in any given sentence or situation. In addition, if a particular lemma is going to belong to more than one part of speech, then each part of speech entry will be at least

introduced by a unique or special structural marker. This distinct structural marker will be designated by **bold-type** Roman numerals.

- *Pronunciation*

The model proposed reveals that the compilers should provide the pronunciation marker for the main lemmata, which will assist the target users that are Oshikwanyama mother-tongue speakers to learn how to pronounce the English lexical items correctly. It also indicates how these pronunciation markers should be presented, i.e. between brackets [], and they will follow immediately after the parts of speech markers.

(b) The comment on semantics

The findings on the comment on semantics in the proposed model include entries such as translation equivalents, etymological data, lexicographical labels, usage notes, co-text and context entries and other data such as inserted inner texts.

- *Translation equivalents*

Based on Chapter Four which deals with the model proposal of compiling the school dictionary for secondary school learners, translation equivalents is one of the main foci of this proposed dictionary. The model recommends that all the translation equivalents, including all their examples, for quick identification by the target users, be italicised. Furthermore, when the compilers are busy with the translation equivalents, one thing that should be taken into consideration is the correct spelling of the translation equivalents. Firstly, the compilers will ensure that the spelling of the translation equivalent is correct. Secondly, the orthography to be used should be the latest one, to avoid using orthography which is outdated or obsolete. Thirdly, the compilers of the proposed dictionary will have to ensure that all the translation equivalents are correct. For correct translation equivalents, a team of proof-readers for the proposed dictionary will be put in place.

- *Usage notes*

Compilers of the dictionary will present this entry in brackets, and explain how the words or lexical items are used, either in English or in Oshikwanyama, as revealed by the findings of this study. This entry will guide the target users of the proposed *EODSSL* on how to use a certain lexical item in Oshikwanyama.

- *Etymology*

For the compilers, the purpose of knowing the etymological aspect well is for them to be able to present them correctly in the dictionaries, with the correct information. They will be able to address the entry, for example, indicating the origin of the particular lexical item, or how that particular item came in use, etc. This entry will indicate the etymology of the translation equivalents (their origin and the way the meaning of the translation equivalents have changed throughout history) as well as for the lemma signs that will be presented in English. The compilers of the proposed dictionary will consistently present this entry in brackets as well, starting with the structural marker “**from**”. For example, (*from English*).

- *Cross-reference*

For the proposed *EODSSL*, cross-reference entry will be used as a marker to show the user where to find the full treatment of the lemma with the cross-reference marker. In other words, the higher frequency synonym of the lemmata will have to receive full treatment by compilers while the lesser frequency lemmata will get a cross-reference to the treated lemma. The model recommends that the cross-reference marker “SEE” be used in the proposed dictionary.

- *Markers of contexts*

The model encourages compilers of the proposed dictionary to provide information about the discourse context in which a certain translation equivalent applies. This entry will be presented between brackets. The inclusion of indicators (markers) of context will therefore, for the proposed *EODSSL*, assist the target users in selecting the appropriate translation equivalents, in the case where there is more than one translation equivalent.

- *Examples*

Based on the proposed model in Chapter Four, it was suggested that compilers provide examples in the proposed dictionary to assist the target users to understand the translation equivalents better. The structural marker “*for example*” will be presented in the dictionary article, and it will precede the example entry.

- *Grammatical notes*

The model suggests that grammatical notes entry be included in the proposed dictionary, where necessary. This means that this entry will not be presented in every article of the proposed dictionary, but only at occasions where the need arises. Grammatical notes entry will assist the target users with how to use the translation equivalents in a certain context. A grammatical marker will indicate, for example, that a certain lexical item is used as a plural in Oshikwanyama, for example (pl. *omai*) or used only in its singular form. This entry will always be designated in brackets as (pl.) or (sing.). In addition, the verbs will also be shown if they are transitive or intransitive.

- **Lexicographical labels**

The model emphasised the use of lexicographical labels in the proposed dictionary. Compilers will use labels to indicate whether a certain lexical item is archaic, obsolete, technical, and offensive, avoided in the public, belongs to a certain field, etc. The labels will assist the target users in knowing when, how, and where to use a certain Oshikwanyama lexical item. The markers will be presented in brackets. For example: (*archaic*), (*technical*), (*offensive*), (*colloquial*), (*old*), etc.

5.3.6 Access structure

Based on the proposed model in Chapter Four, two types of access structures have been identified, and they are the outer access structure and inner access structure. The findings in this sub-heading will focus on these structures.

5.3.6.1 Outer access structure

The outer access structure consists of aspects such as table of contents, guidewords and the ordering of lemmata. This section will focus on the findings pertaining to the presentation of the guide words as the table of contents and ordering of lemmata have already been explained in the preceding discussions.

The compilers of the proposed model have been guided to present guidewords on the top left corner of the page and on the top right corner of the same page, the structure that has been adopted in many of the dictionaries in the world. By following this arrangement the compilers will be assisting the target users with easy access to the information presented in the proposed dictionary.

5.3.6.2 Inner access structure

The model recommends an inner access structure that consists of both typographical structural and non-typographical structural markers that usually indicate search zones.

(a) Typographical structural markers

By including typographical structural markers, as established in the literature review chapter and Chapter Four of this study, the compilers will be able to address the different typefaces, for example bold, italic, roman, as well as the use of capitals and small caps. Therefore, both the main and sub-lemmata of the proposed dictionary will be printed in bold as they are regarded as the guiding elements. In terms of spelling, all the lemma signs are going to be verified if they have been correctly spelt before the dictionary's final version is printed out. The translation equivalents, together with their examples, will be italicised, for easy identification by the target user as their search zones are marked clearly.

(b) Non-typographical structural markers

It was also found that it is important to include non-typographical structural markers in the proposed dictionary. Non-typographical structural markers that are frequently used in a dictionary's central list, especially in the comment on semantics, are semicolons and commas. Compilers have been advised to use semicolons to separate senses of polysemous lemmata, and the commas to be used in separating the target language [Oshikwanyama] synonyms and

partial synonyms. This presentation, as per the model proposed in Chapter Four, will be exercised consistently in circumventing the target users from selecting and using erroneous translation equivalents.

Conclusively, the proposed model will only be successful if the compilers have taken serious action and assess carefully the findings revealed in this sub-section. The proposed dictionary will be successfully compiled, and its usefulness will never be compromised if criteria such as the type of the dictionary, size and coverage, the target users, the purposes, frame structure and access structure have been put at the centre of its compilation by the compilers, as discussed in the preceding sub-sections.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented research findings based on the review of the bilingual *OE/EOD* in Chapter Three and on the model that has been proposed in Chapter Four of this study respectively. The review was based on the criteria that are adopted in ensuring that a user-friendly learners' dictionary is compiled. Since the reviewed dictionary was divided into two parts, the part of *Oshikwanyama-English* and the part of *English-Oshikwanyama*, each part was reviewed and analysed separately, and the findings have also been provided according to each part of the dictionary reviewed. The findings on the criteria that have been proposed for the model in Chapter Four have also been provided briefly in this Chapter. The findings of this study will be valuable to both the compilers and the target users of the proposed dictionary. Firstly, the compilers will assess them thoroughly, and be equipped with the best strategies and criteria for compiling a user-friendly secondary school learners' dictionary. Secondly, through these findings, the users will also be given insights on how the information, that will serve a great assistance, will be presented in the dictionary. That way the proposed dictionary will achieve its purposes unreservedly. The next chapter, which is a concluding chapter, reflects on the summary and recommendations.

CHAPTER SIX

GENERAL CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter echoes the summary and recommendations based on the review that was conducted in Chapter Three regarding the *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*, the model proposed in Chapter Four for compiling *English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for Secondary School Learners* (hereafter, *EODSSL*), and the research findings that were presented in Chapter Five of this study. The first section of this chapter provides a summary of the study. The second section is divided into two sub-sections, namely guidelines to compilers in terms of compiling *EODSSL*, and general recommendations on improving the status of Oshikwanyama lexicography.

6.2 Summary of the study

The key objective of this study was an investigation of a theoretical model for compiling an **English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for secondary school learners**. The discussion in each chapter of the study was broken down into different themes, as provided briefly below.

Chapter One was an introductory chapter, and provided background information regarding, for instance, Oshiwambo language in general and Oshikwanyama dialect in particular, the status of Oshikwanyama lexicography, and problem statement, aim and objectives of the research, justification of research, the rationale of the study, definition of terms, research design, theoretical framework and ethical considerations.

Chapter Two focused on the review of the pieces of literature related to the topic of this research project. The sources that deal with the development of a model that can be applied in compiling a user-friendly bilingual dictionary in general and that of secondary school learners, in particular, were studied in detail and synthesised with careful consideration. The focus was not only on the African languages' lexicography but also on international lexicographical sources.

Chapter Three dealt with a critical overview of the existing bilingual dictionary in Oshikwanyama (*Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary*), reflecting on the good elements and gaps that exist. Among others, the discussion included aspects such as structure and lexicographic functions of this dictionary.

The review came into two parts as the reviewed dictionary is divided into two parts [bi-directional] namely, the part of *Oshikwanyama-English* and the part of *English-Oshikwanyama*. Each part of the review was divided into two sub-sections, namely, the review of the outer texts (front and back matters), and the review of the inner texts (macrostructure and microstructure).

The dictionary's target user(s) based on the function theory, user needs, lexicographic assistance, user situations and dictionary purposes as established by the communication theory, were also part of the review. The target users of the reviewed dictionary are the speakers of Oshikwanyama, teachers and anyone interested in learning the language. The dictionary purposes of the reviewed dictionary seem to be macro-contextual, micro-contextual, and meso-contextual.

The dictionary consists of both primary and secondary user needs. In terms of user situation, it has both communication-oriented and knowledge-oriented situations.

Chapter Four then proposed a model that can be adapted and followed by compilers in compiling a user-friendly **English-Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners**. Gouws (1999) once stated that, in the latest developments of lexicography, one can no longer find a compiled dictionary without a sound theoretical basis. This means that any compiler of any dictionary, when compiling a dictionary, needs to base his or her compilation on a certain theory or theories that will guide him or her to a successful dictionary compilation. This is precisely one of the main reasons why this model has been proposed, so that it could be followed by future compilers not only of the proposed dictionary but of the other types of dictionaries as well.

This model has been established based on the relevant works of literature as well as the critical review that was conducted in Chapter Three of this study. Major aspects discussed, among others, are the type of the dictionary, languages to be treated in the dictionary, size and coverage, target users, the proposed dictionary functions and purposes, frame structures, coverage, the dictionary's macro and microstructure and access structure.

Furthermore, the proposed model carries important lexicographic functions which are classified into two prime types, and these types are cognitive and communication-oriented functions. Importantly, before a lexicographer classifies functions for a particular dictionary project, for instance for the proposed dictionary, he/she should consider the user as a key aspect of the project by providing answers to this key question: What is it that our [my] target users aim to achieve with this dictionary? Responding to this question will lead to a situation in which lexicographic functions that are pertinent for that project are recognised, as well as the venues where these functions will be employed.

Communication-oriented functions, as explained by Tarp (1998) and Tarp (2000: 195), which deals with the situation in which the target user consults a dictionary to facilitate an existing or future communication, is made up of seven types, and they are reception of texts in mother-tongue, production of text in mother-tongue, reception of text in foreign language, production of text in foreign language, translation of text from mother-tongue into foreign language, and translation of text from foreign into mother-tongue.

Regarding Cognitive functions [knowledge-oriented functions] which deal with the situation in which the target user consults a lexicographic work to increase knowledge based on a certain subject, consists of three types, and these types are general cultural and encyclopaedic information, special information about the subject field or discipline, and information about the language. Therefore, in a nutshell, the compilers of the proposed model will ensure that these types of lexicographic situations in which the target user will utilise the dictionary and for what specific purpose, are covered.

Various scholars in the field of both theoretical and practical lexicography (Cf. Tarp, 2008; Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005) explain explicitly that any dictionary is compiled based on the target users that have been identified. To identify the characteristics of the intended user type of the proposed dictionary, it is important to stress the characteristics of the target user, and these similar characteristics have been formulated in a form of questions and answers as provided in Chapter Four, Section 4.4. It has been also established that the target user of the proposed dictionary is at the centre or the reason why a dictionary should be compiled; that is the reason why the target users of the proposed model have been identified. The target users are the learners who are mother-tongue speakers of Oshikwanyama, learners who are mother-tongue

speakers of English and learners from other languages who take English as a second language or foreign language in the schools.

The model has clarified explicitly that the proposed dictionary is going to be mono-directional, and two languages will be treated, namely, English and Oshikwanyama. The source language will be English and the target language will be Oshikwanyama. The inclusion of the type and languages to be treated in the dictionary, as discussed in the preceding paragraphs, will assist the compilers of the proposed dictionary to raise knowledge and understanding of what to include and what not to include in their dictionary.

The “genuine” purpose of the proposed dictionary has been established. Speaking of the genuine purpose of dictionaries, it has been established that every dictionary needs to have a genuine purpose that needs to be determined as part of the dictionary’s conceptualisation plan. A dictionary’s genuine purpose is the amount of all lexicographic functions that have been identified for a specific dictionary project. Furthermore, it was established that the genuine purpose is satisfied when the potential user of the dictionary can effectively retrieve information from the data given. This [target] potential user faces complex needs that arise in a particular situation, and when they are met, the dictionary’s genuine purpose is satisfied. Furthermore, three very important dictionary purposes that the proposed dictionary will serve have been established in the model. These purposes are *Macro-contextual purposes*, *Meso-contextual purposes*, and *Micro-contextual purposes*, and they have thoroughly been discussed in Chapters Three and Four of this salient study.

The proposed dictionary is going to be utilised by secondary school learners from Grade 8 to Grade 12. Therefore, it will not be a big-sized dictionary in which all the lexical items from both English and Oshikwanyama lexicon will be accommodated. It will be portable and the lexical items to be treated are going to be selected carefully, and these lexical items to be treated in the proposed dictionary will cover all the fields of study followed in secondary schools, ranging from science subjects, technical subjects, arts, humanities to social subjects.

It was established that lexicographers, as they compile the proposed dictionary, should begin with the overall structure of the dictionary, also known as the frame structure, as mentioned in Chapter Four of the model. The motivation behind this is that this type of dictionary will have texts accommodating information in all the three prime structures, namely; front matter, central list and back matter texts. After the frame structure, what comes in the next stage would be the

identification of lexicographic functions that will be dispersed in all three structures, mentioned earlier, namely front matter, central matter and back matter texts.

In addition, there is one important text in any dictionary's front matter text which is the user guide. It has been explained and recommended how a user guide in the proposed model could be compiled, to assist the target user in many different aspects of the dictionary. The user guide would, for instance, deal with information on the selection and the ordering of lemmata. It was recommended that it should be brought to the attention of the target user that the selection of lemmata is corpus-based. This denotes that lemmata are designated based on the high frequency of usage. It was highlighted in the model that the compilers of the proposed dictionary [**Oshikwanyama dictionary for secondary school learners**] should provide all of the information needed by the target users [the secondary school learners] in this section of the dictionary, because this section provides guidance on how the dictionary is used by the users, such as the use of symbols, abbreviations, the treatment of the lemmata, translated equivalents, and many others.

Regarding the central list, two important structures, Macrostructure and micro-structure should be considered. Both the arrangement of lemmata as well as the structure of dictionary articles should be designed at a very simplified level, to accommodate all types of learners, even the grade 8 learners. Dictionary article structures, the comment on form and the comment on semantics should also be considered by the compilers of the proposed dictionary, as discussed in the model.

Based on the proposed model in Chapter Four, two types of access structures have been identified, and they are the outer access structure and inner access structure. With regard to the outer access structure, important aspects have been discussed, and they are the table of contents, guidewords and the ordering of lemmata. The model suggests for the table of contents to be included in the proposed dictionary's front matter text, for the target user to get access to the information they are searching up in the dictionary. This also applies to the guide words.

Regarding the inner access structure, typographical structural markers and non-typographical structural markers that usually indicate search zones have been explained. In terms of typographical structural markers, the compilers will be able to address the different typefaces, for example bold, italic, roman, as well as the use of capitals and small caps. Therefore, both the main and sub-lemmata of the proposed dictionary will be printed in bold as they are

regarded as the guiding elements. In terms of spelling, all the lemma signs are going to be verified if they have been correctly spelt before the dictionary's final version has been printed out. The translation equivalents, together with their examples, will be italicised, for easy identification by the target user as their search zones are marked clearly.

Regarding non-typographical structural markers compilers have been advised to use semicolons to separate senses of polysemous lemmata, and the commas to be used in separating the target language [Oshikwanyama] synonyms and partial synonyms. This presentation, as per the model proposed in Chapter Four, will be implemented consistently in avoiding the target users from selecting and using wrong translation equivalents.

Chapter Five presented the research findings based on the review and the proposal of a model presented in chapters Three and Four respectively. The current chapter then reflects on the summary and recommendations.

6.3 Guidelines and recommendations

This aspect is discussed under two sub-headings, i.e. guidelines for compiling the proposed dictionary and general recommendations.

6.3.1 Guidelines for compiling *EODSSL*

The following are specific recommendations regarding the compilation of the proposed *EODSSL*:

- It is of extreme importance for the compilers of the proposed *EODSSL* to make use of the outer texts, for instance, the user's guide, to indicate explicitly the user groups targeted for the indented dictionary. In this case, the target users are the Oshikwanyama mother-tongue speakers (or anyone studying Oshikwanyama as a First Language) and English speakers (either mother tongue or second language speakers), as learners at secondary school level from Grade 8 to Grade 12.

- A very simplified microstructure for the proposed dictionary is advised (cf. Gouws, 2002). This will assist the target users (the secondary school learners) to retrieve the information presented in the dictionary without difficulty.
- It is recommended for the compilers of the proposed *EODSSL* to adopt the current spelling system (Oshikwanyama Orthography 3), and as new words are always encountered in the language, it is recommended for the compilers to also include new lexical items that will be used by its proposed target users.
- It is also imperative for the compilers of *EODSSL* to take into consideration the use of both typographical and non-typographical structural markers. This will assist the target users in accessing the correct translation equivalents, synonyms, etc., and use them appropriately. When it comes to the presentation of *EODSSL*, it is also important for the compilers to seriously consider the correct and consistent presentation of lexical and semantic divergence. The presentation of lexicographical labels in the proposed *EODSSL* should be considered seriously by the compilers. This is significant for the target users not to use the lexical items, functioning as lemmata, wrongly in any usage situation.

It has also been noticed (based on the findings) that the reviewed dictionary *OE/EOD* has various typing errors observed in some dictionary articles. Therefore, it is recommended for the proposed *EODSSL* to have gone through a team of critical reviewers or professional language editors before it is published and marked as final, to remove all the typing errors. In this way, the quality and the purpose of the proposed dictionary will not be compromised.

6.3.2 General recommendations on improving the status of Oshikwanyama lexicography

The following are general recommendations regarding the improvement of the status of Oshikwanyama lexicography.

- It was established that metalexigraphers should get input from various theories in the field of theoretical lexicography, such as function theory, text theory and communication theory [among other theories], as discussed in this study. It has also been commended by Ella (2007) that a theory, such as lexicographic theory, will make lexicographers as well as dictionary compilers be mindful of all comprehensive criteria

that would be followed for fruitful planning and making of lexicographic works such as dictionaries.

- It has also been suggested by Mbokou (2006) that to be able to have a trustworthy product in any discipline, it is essential to refer to theoretical principles that will lead the way. For lexicography, metalexigraphic principles are the only way to advance lexicographic works such as dictionaries. Therefore, the theories that have been adopted in the model serve as a centre of the intended end product, which is, in this case, the proposed dictionary.
- Since Oshikwanyama lexicography is still in its premature stage, general get-togethers in schools, and institutions of higher learning should be conducted by a few existing lexicographers in the country, or perhaps from other countries, to enlighten learners and students on the best courses that deal with metalexigraphic, so that the current status of Oshikwanyama lexicography can be elevated. This simply means that learners and students will be able to comprehend the significance of dictionaries. They will also be able to understand concepts, theories and other important aspects that will enable them to produce their own Oshikwanyama dictionaries of high quality in future, once they have a broad knowledge.
- A poor dictionary culture in Namibia, specifically amongst Oshikwanyama speaking people is largely observed. Therefore, it is of prime importance to have outreach campaigns or programmes that will be used to encourage and promote dictionary culture. Most importantly, a few lexicographers that are in the country, with assistance from internationally trained lexicographers, should conduct campaigns, such as dictionary awareness campaigns, to all educational institutions in Namibia, ranging from primary schools up to tertiary institutions.
- It is also suggested for dictionary culture among learners and ordinary members of the society to be strengthened. This solely means that learners in schools should be taught to use dictionaries, so that the love of dictionaries will develop within themselves. Learners will be able not only to improve their dictionary using skills but they will also be able to understand the language better, than the learners that do not consult dictionaries at all. Therefore, learners of all grades need to be introduced to the business of dictionary using skills.

- When teachers are also taught how to use dictionaries properly, especially by the experts in the field of metalexigraphy, they will also be able to teach and contribute their knowledge and skills not only to their learners but also to the public at large. Hadebe (2005) is also of the same idea that if both teachers and pupils have been acquainted with skills on dictionary use, it would spread to the entire community at large.
- Compilations of bilingual learners' dictionaries in Oshiwambo, specifically in Oshikwanyama, need a very considerable improvement. What cannot be overlooked at this juncture is the effort that was put up by the compilers of the existing Oshikwanyama general dictionaries so far, and these dictionaries do serve the users with their immediate needs. Without them, Oshikwanyama wouldn't have any dictionaries at all. Therefore, they are being acknowledged here.
- It is imperative for anyone interested in compiling future Oshikwanyama dictionaries to assess the findings of this study critically, so that they will be able to know where the existing dictionaries, particularly the *OE/EOD* went wrong in presenting the items in both outer and inner texts, so that they will be able to make adjustments and correct the faults that have been committed in the existing dictionaries. In this way, future and current Oshikwanyama lexicographers will be assisted in compiling user-friendly dictionaries.
- Scholarships that are predestined for students that aim at producing dictionaries in Namibia in general and in Oshikwanyama, in particular, should be established. By so doing, individuals will be able to get training in language and research as starting points, so that Namibia can have well-trained lexicographers that will aid in compiling dictionaries of high quality.
- Moreover, governmental, non-governmental organisations and governmental parastatals, such as research institutions and universities should take a very serious business in the capacity building schemes to form awareness that will be of great importance in exchanging ideas that have to do with training and sharing of experience pertinent to dictionary-making and compilation.

- Furthermore, theoretical activities that have to do with evaluation, criticisms and reviewing of dictionaries need to be encouraged and supported by individuals and perhaps the Namibian government. This would be the only best way that will lead to the development of the field of metalexigraphy. Further studies need to review other recent African languages and international languages dictionaries so that they will be able to get new strategies and developments for the improvement and compilation of modern African languages dictionaries.
- Most importantly, degree courses in lexicography need to be introduced and offered at educational institutions, so that the field of lexicography will be developed unreservedly, as many lexicographers will be trained and then after, they will be able to compile new different types of dictionaries. Observably, in Namibia, degree courses that are currently offered at many institutions of high learning do not offer research and training in lexicography.
- Furthermore, with this important study compilers of dictionaries will be able to learn new strategies in compiling their secondary school learners' dictionaries in Namibia.
- This study is **not only** intended for compiling the *EODSSL*, but anyone can acquaint him/herself with the theories that have been adopted (i.e. *Function theory*, for determining the functions of their dictionaries and the needs of their target users, *Text theory* for the textual structures of their dictionaries, and *Communication theory* for the communication their intended dictionaries will foster to the users, as well as their intended dictionaries' purposes) to compile his or her modern dictionary.
- Methodological approaches adopted in this study should serve as a starting point for the compilers of future Oshikwanyama dictionaries, as they will capture and follow them when compiling their intended lexicographical works.
- It should also be noted that lexicographical works (dictionaries) are not only meant for academic purposes by academics and highly qualified users, but anyone, including users with less educational qualifications, can utilise them to satisfy their needs.

6.4 Conclusion

This concluding chapter reflected on the summary and recommendations based on the review that was conducted in Chapter Three regarding *Oshikwanyama-English/English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary* (hereafter *OE/EOD*), the model proposed in Chapter Four for compiling the *English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for Secondary School Learners* (hereafter, *EODSSL*) and the research findings that were presented in Chapter Five of this study. The first section of this chapter provided a summary of the study. The second section provided was divided into two sub-sections, namely guidelines to compilers in terms of compiling the *EODSSL*, and general recommendations on improving the status of Oshikwanyama lexicography.

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APPENDIX A: OE/EOD'S TITLE PAGE

**OSHIKWANYAMA – ENGLISH
ENGLISH – OSHIKWANYAMA
DICTIONARY**

**Compiled by Oshikwanyama
Curriculum Committee**



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APPENDIX B: OE/EOD'S BACK COVER PAGE

This dictionary has over 10 000 Oshikwanyama headwords with English equivalents and bilingual explanations where a single concept cannot be reflected. It also contains more than 10 000 English entries with Oshikwanyama equivalents.

Additionally this dictionary includes approximately 1 000 words originating from foreign languages and newly coined terminology.

The dictionary fills a long-experienced gap in having a comprehensive reference source for Oshikwanyama speakers as well as those who want to learn and study the language.

For the compilation of this dictionary materials were collected from mainly two early dictionaries, titled: Kwanyama-English Dictionary by B.H.C. Turvey et al., of 1977, and English-Kwanyama Dictionary of G.W.R. Tobias et al of 1954, as well as materials from publications of Macmillan Namibia Education Publishers. These works were revised and edited by Wolfgang Zimmermann, Gabriel Taapopi and Paavo Hasheela.

Furthermore the dictionary follows the current officially approved orthography of Oshikwanyama.



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APPENDIX C: RESEARCH CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE [UNISA]



COLLEGE OF HUMAN SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

21 July 2021

Dear Edward Shikesho

Decision:
Ethics Approval from 21 July 2021
to 21 July 2026

NHREC Registration # :
Rec-240816-052
CREC Reference # :
67142737_CREC_CHS_2021

Researcher(s): Name: Edward Shikesho
Contact details: 67142737@mylife.unisa.ac.za
Supervisor(s): Name: Prof MJ Mafela
Contact details: munzh.mafela@gmail.com

Title: An investigation into the Formulation of a Model for Compiling an English-Oshikwanyama Dictionary for Secondary School Learners.

Degree Purpose: PhD

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa College of Human Science Ethics Committee. Ethics approval is granted for five years.

The **low risk application** was reviewed by College of Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee, in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the College Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the



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confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.

5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data require additional ethics clearance.
7. No fieldwork activities may continue after the expiry date (**21 July 2026**). Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

*The reference number **67142737_CREC_CHS_2021** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,

Signature :



Prof. KB Khan
CHS Research Ethics Committee Chairperson
Email: khankb@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429 8210

Signature : PP



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