

Metalexicographic Criteria for a Monolingual Descriptive Dictionary Presenting the Standard Variety of Yipunu

By

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DECLARATION

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

Signature

Stellenbosch, December 2007.

SUMMARY/OPSOMMING

SUMMARY

English

The dictionaries available in the Gabonese languages are all translation dictionaries biased towards French and compiled by missionaries and colonial administrators. No proper monolingual dictionaries exist in the Gabonese languages. There is therefore a need for *monolingual dictionaries* in the Gabonese languages, particularly in *Yipunu*, one of the Bantu languages (B 43) spoken in the South of Gabon. Yipunu is a *regional vehicular language* or a *major or majority language*. Yipunu is a *domestic language* i.e spoken inside Bapunu communities or a *mother tongue* or *first language* and Yipunu is also taught as subject in the national educational system.

As a response to this need, this dissertation proposes metalexigraphic criteria for the compilation of a standard descriptive monolingual dictionary with special reference to Yipunu. The proposed model focuses primarily on the inclusion and the treatment of the standard variety of Yipunu and to a lesser degree on the other varieties. Such a model is directed at a dictionary primarily dealing with the needs of the average, educated members of the Yipunu speech community, the mother-tongue speakers, and also designed for experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu and their teachers.

This study aims to point out how important standard descriptive monolingual dictionaries are in general and specifically in the case of African Bantu languages. This study also aims to highlight the importance for Gabonese lexicographers to adopt modern lexicographical principles in dictionary compilation such as the user-driven dictionary and the corpus-based dictionary. This model, although devised for Yipunu, will eventually serve as model for the design of standard descriptive dictionaries in all Gabonese languages. This study provides information about the content and the structures of such a dictionary and is structured as follows:

Chapter 1 focuses on introducing and contextualising the research. It presents the linguistic situation in Gabon with reference to the status of Yipunu. It also shows the importance and the relevance of the research and gives the theoretical basis, methodology, hypotheses and objectives underlying the study.

Chapter 2 criticises the lexicographic works in Yipunu in order to improve the quality of future Yipunu dictionaries and examines the major needs of Yipunu lexicography.

Chapter 3 envisages some aspects of the standardisation of Yipunu. It targets the discussion at the level of the language analysis namely the phonology, the grammar, the dictionary and the orthography of Yipunu.

Chapter 4 discusses the user perspective, which guides the dictionary compilation. It focuses on the user profile, user typologies and dictionary functions. The intended dictionary has a multifunctional character. Special attention is given to a pioneering survey of dictionary use among Gabonese students and to the discussion of the teaching of dictionary use in Gabon.

Chapter 5 deals with the dictionary plan. Different aspects such as the style guide, the genuine purpose, the dictionary basis, data collection, the data collection policy, data collection methods and the corpus of the proposed dictionary are discussed

Chapter 6 elaborates on the macrostructure of the proposed dictionary. The dictionary gives priority to a strict alphabetical macrostructure. Macrostructural elements, lemmatisation strategies, and types of lemmas and articles to be included in the proposed dictionary are discussed.

Chapter 7 focuses on the microstructure of the proposed dictionary. The model suggests an *obligatory microstructure* and an *extended obligatory microstructure* and discusses the variety of data to be included in the articles of the proposed dictionary.

Chapter 8 deals with the outer text section and the guide structures of the proposed dictionary, which includes front and back matter texts. Polyaccessibility, a system of cross-referencing, and lemmatic and non-lemmatic addressings are characteristics of the proposed dictionary.

Chapter 9 makes some concluding remarks by highlighting the focus point of each chapter of the dissertation. It gives also some recommendations for the research.

OPSOMMING

Afrikaans

Die woordeboeke beskikbaar in die Gaboenese tale is almal vertalende woordeboeke gerig op Frans en saamgestel deur sendelinge en koloniale administrateurs. Geen werklike eentalige woordeboeke bestaan in die Gaboenese tale nie. Daar is gevolglik 'n behoefte aan *eentalige woordeboeke* in die Gaboenese tale, veral in *Jipoenoe*, een van die Bantoetale (B 43) wat in die Suide van Gaboen gepraat word. *Jipoenoe* is 'n *streeksvoertaal* of 'n *hoof- of meerderheidstaal*. *Jipoenoe* is 'n *huistaal* d.w.s. wat binne Bapoenoegemeenskappe gepraat word of 'n *moedertaal* of *eerste taal* en *Jipoenoe* word ook as vak in die nasionale opvoedingstelsel onderrig.

In reaksie op hierdie behoefte stel hierdie proefskrif metaleksikografiese kriteria voor vir die samestelling van 'n standaard beskrywende eentalige woordeboek met spesiale verwysing na *Jipoenoe*. Die voorgestelde model fokus primêr op die insluiting en behandeling van die standaardvariëteit van *Jipoenoe* en in 'n mindere mate op die ander variëteite. Die model is gerig op 'n woordeboek wat primêr aandag gee aan die behoeftes van die deursnee- opgevoede lede van die *Jipoenoespraakgemeenskap*, die moedertaalsprekers, en wat ook ontwerp is vir kundige en gevorderde leerders van *Jipoenoe* en hul onderwysers.

Die doel van hierdie studie is om aan te toon hoe belangrik standaard beskrywende eentalige woordeboeke in die algemeen en spesifiek in die geval van die Bantoetale van Afrika is. Die doel van hierdie studie is ook om die belangrikheid vir Gaboenese leksikograwe te belig om moderne leksikografiese beginsels toe te pas in die samestelling van woordeboeke soos die gebruikersgedrewe woordeboek en die korpusgebaseerde woordeboek. Hierdie model, alhoewel ontwerp vir *Jipoenoe*, sal uiteindelik dien as model vir die opstel van standaard beskrywende woordeboeke vir al die Gaboenese tale. Die studie verskaf inligting oor die inhoud en strukture van so 'n woordeboek en is soos volg gestruktureer:

Hoofstuk 1 fokus op 'n inleiding tot en 'n kontekstualisering van die navorsing. Dit beskryf die taalkundige toestand in Gaboen met betrekking tot die status van *Jipoenoe*. Dit toon ook die

belangrikheid en relevansie van die navorsing en gee die teoretiese basis, metodologie, hipoteses en doelstellings onderliggend aan die studie.

Hoofstuk 2 kritiseer die leksikografiese werk in Jipoenoe met die doel om die gehalte van die Jipoenoeoordeboeke te verbeter en die behoeftes van die Jipoenoeleksikografie te ondersoek.

Hoofstuk 3 beskou 'n aantal aspekte van die standaardisering van Jipoenoe. Dit is gemik op 'n bespreking op die vlak van taalontleding, naamlik die fonologie, die grammatika, die woordeboek en die ortografie van Jipoenoe.

Hoofstuk 4 bespreek die gebruikersperspektief wat die woordeboeksamestelling rig. Dit fokus op die gebruikersprofiel, gebruikerstipologieë en woordeboekfunksies. Die beplande woordeboek het 'n multifunksionele karakter. Spesiale aandag word gegee aan 'n baanbrekende ondersoek na woordeboekgebruik onder Gaboenese studente en aan 'n bespreking van die onderrig van woordeboekgebruik in Gaboen.

Hoofstuk 5 handel oor die woordeboekplan. Verskillende aspekte soos die stylgids, die werklike doel, die woordeboekbasis, dataversameling, die dataversamelingsbeleid, dataversamelingsmetodes en die korpus van die voorgestelde woordeboek word bespreek.

Hoofstuk 6 wei uit oor die makrostruktuur van die voorgestelde woordeboek. Die woordeboek gee voorkeur aan 'n streng alfabetiese makrostruktuur. Makrostrukturele elemente, lemmatiseringstrategieë, en soorte lemmas en artikels vir insluiting in die beplande woordeboek word bespreek.

Hoofstuk 7 fokus op die mikrostruktuur van die voorgestelde woordeboek. Die model stel 'n *verpligte mikrostruktuur* en 'n *uitgebreide verpligte mikrostruktuur* voor en bespreek die verskeidenheid data wat in die artikels van die voorgestelde woordeboek ingesluit behoort te word.

Hoofstuk 8 handel oor die buiteteksgedeelte en die gidsstrukture van die voorgestelde woordeboek wat voor- en agtervoor- en agtertekste insluit. Politoeganklikheid, 'n stelsel van kruisverwysings, en lemmatiese en nielemmatiese adresserings is kenmerke van die voorgestelde woordeboek.

Hoofstuk 9 maak 'n aantal slotopmerkings deur die fokuspunt van elke hoofstuk van die proefskrif te belig. Dit verskaf ook 'n aantal aanbevelings vir navorsing.

DEDICATION

Ombu MUSAVU DITONG na MAJINU-MA-MUNDUNG

Diboti dineni tata na mama mu botsu dumapayila.

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ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE RESEARCH

- ALG:** Alphabet des Langues Gabonaises, Alphabet of Gabonese Languages
- ASG:** Alphabet Scientifique des Langues du Gabon (Scientific Alphabet of Languages of Gabon)
- BNC:** British National Corpus
- CALD:** Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary
- CCEDAL:** Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners
- CEEL:** Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language
- CIDE:** Cambridge International Dictionary of English
- CMA.** Alliance Chrétienne et Missionnaire. Christian Missionary Alliance.
- CNT :** Comission Nationale de la Terminologie
- DFY/YF:** The Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou/ Yipounou-Français
- DHLF:** Dictionnaire Hachette de la Langue Française
- DIPUNU, diPunu, diP:** Dibuku di Yipunu, Dictionnaire Punu, dictionary of Yipunu
- DL:** Dictionary of Lexicography
- FS:** Français standard (Standard French)
- FG:** Français du Gabon (French of Gabon)
- GLUs:** Gabonese Lexicographic Units
- GP:** Grammaire Pounou
- GPLPF:** Grammaire pounoue et Lexique pounou-français
- GRELACO:** Groupe de Recherche en Langues et Cultures Orales
- GW:** Groot Woordeboek / Major Dictionary
- HAT:** Verklarende Handwoordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal
- IPA:** International Phonetic Alphabet
- LASD:** Longman Active Study Dictionary
- LDOCE:** Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English
- LPF:** Lexique Pounou Français
- MDDPSVY:** Monolingual descriptive dictionary presenting the standard variety of Yipunu
- OALD:** Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

OALDCE: Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English

OHFD: Oxford-Hachette French Dictionary: French-English, English-French

PanSALB: Pan South African Language Board

PR: Le Petit Robert

SANLUs: South African National Lexicography Units

SOY: Standard Orthography of Yipunu

WAT: *Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal*

YB: Yipunu Bible (Bibala)

LEXICOGRAPHIC CONVENTIONS USED IN THE RESEARCH

Parts of Speech

adj adjective

adv adverb

adv de tps. adverb of time, adverbe de temps

cl 2: prefix class, and number of class (2)

conj conjunction

loc. locution

n. noun

pl. plural

prep. preposition

pron. pronoun

v. verb

v. tr. transitive verb

v. intr intransitive verb

List of labels

Stylistic labels

dimbu familiar/ informal

musiedu. Ironically

yisiengu. vulgar

nana. by analogy

nsoruru obscene

Labels for special field of activity

mbongu finance

dikundu sorcery

Bukreti Christianity

mwisika music

bughora military

politika politics

muyitsa Religion

bamata mathematics

musamu teknologi information technology

bigana sports

dujabu du dunyuru anatomy

Temporal label

ghulu outdated

Symbols and conventions

di.ba.'gha lemma

' stress

[] the pronunciation

duk. ji 'dukakulu ji' introduces a regional variant

WANDI 'also' introduces a spelling variant

GHENGILA cross-reference 'to see'

► collocation

◆ etymology

■ idiom

◇ Noongu proverb

= synonym

≠ antonym

[1] number of conjugation of monosyllabic verbs

[2] number of conjugation of polysyllabic verbs

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXTUALISATION OF THE RESEARCH

1.1. Research problem

In Africa, lexicographical activities were generally initiated during the colonial period. Busane (1990:20) pointed out that it was a pragmatic response to the communicative needs of the Europeans involved in evangelisation, trade and administration. Dictionaries were compiled in order to facilitate communication between local people and colonists or missionaries. These dictionaries were compiled with the function of giving foreigners access to African languages. Because of this, none of the lexicographical work concentrates on giving adequate information to the African native speaker.

This is also the case in Central Africa and particularly in Gabon, a country located on the western coast of Central Africa. The language diversity within Gabon is illustrated by Guthrie's (1953) genetic or genealogical listing, which divides Gabonese languages into two language families. The biggest family is that of Bantu languages and the smallest is that of pigmies. Grimes (1996) estimates the number of Gabonese languages at 40. Kwenzi Mikala's (1988:57; 1990a:122) geographical administrative listing identifies 62 heritage speech forms (including languages and dialects) that are grouped into 10 language-units (a group or a set of different speech forms that are mutually comprehensible), without any Bantu-Pigmy distinction. These language-units are *Mazuna*, *Myene*, *Mekana-Menaa*, *Mekona-Mangote*, *Membe*, *Merye*, *Metye*, *Membere*, *Mekana* and *Baka*.

Table: Gabonese Language-units according to Kwenzi Mikala's Inventory and Internal Classification ¹

- 1- **MAZUNA:** Fan-Atsi, Fan-Make, Fan-Mvai, Fan-Ntumu, Fan-Nzaman and Fan-Okak
- 2- **MYENE:** Enenga, Galwa, Mpongwe, Nkomi and Orungu and Ajumba.
- 3- **MEKANA-MENAA:** Akele, Ungom, Lisighu, Mbanwe, Metombolo, Seki, Tumbidi, Shake, Wumpfu and Lendambomo
- 4- **MEKONA-MANGOTE:** Ikota, Benga, Shamayi, Mahongwe, Ndasha and Bakola
- 5- **MEMBE** (or **OKANDE-TSOGO**): Ghetsogho, Ghepinzi, Kande, Ghevovhe, Ghehimbaka, Ghevhiya, Ebongwe and Kota Kota
- 6- **MERYE:** Ghisira, Ghivharama, Ghivhungu, Yilumbu, *Yipunu*, Yisangu, Ngubi, Civili, Yirimba and Yighama
- 7- **METYE:** Yinzebi, Yitsengi, Yimwele, Yivhili, Liduma, Liwanzi and Yibongo
- 8- **MEMBERE:** Lembaama, Lekanini, Lindumu, Lateghe and Latsitseghe
- 9- **MEKANA:** Bekwil, Shiwa (or Makina) and Mwesa
- 10- **BAKA:** Baka

Lexicographically speaking, the practice of dictionaries in Gabon goes back to 1800. Missionaries and colonial administrators wrote most of the dictionaries available in Gabonese languages. No proper monolingual dictionaries exist in Gabonese languages. The existing dictionaries are translation dictionaries biased towards French (Nyangone Assam & Mavoungou 2000: 269). In the light of this, I think there is a need to compile monolingual dictionaries in Gabonese languages that will help their users to be empowered with their own languages.

¹ The writing of Gabonese languages is based on the Alphabet of Gabonese Languages. This alphabet will be presented in the following chapters.

This research is directed at monolingual dictionaries and will help to develop monolingual Gabonese lexicography. This monolingual lexicography has not been taken into account during the era of the missionaries and colonial administrators. To avoid any ambiguity, the term “monolingual lexicography”, according to Burkhanov (1998:156),

...is used to denote a branch of *lexicography* that deals with the theory, design, compilation and production of a kind of *dictionary* which contains the linguistic material of one language and hence is usually referred to as a *monolingual dictionary*. A monolingual dictionary may be, and mostly is, designed as an *explanatory dictionary*, though there are *reference works* developed within the framework of monolingual lexicography, which are not explanatory.

The interest of this research is directed at the compilation of monolingual dictionaries, which are still lacking in Gabonese languages and specifically in Yipunu, one of the languages of the Merye language-unit mentioned above. This research aims to develop metalexigraphic criteria for a monolingual descriptive dictionary presenting the standard variety of Yipunu. The monolingual descriptive dictionary presenting the standard variety of Yipunu (henceforth abbreviated as MDDPSVY) focuses primarily on the inclusion and the treatment of the standard variety of Yipunu and to a lesser degree on some of the other varieties. In other words, the MDDPSVY is a standard-descriptive dictionary of the Yipunu language.

A standard-descriptive dictionary designates

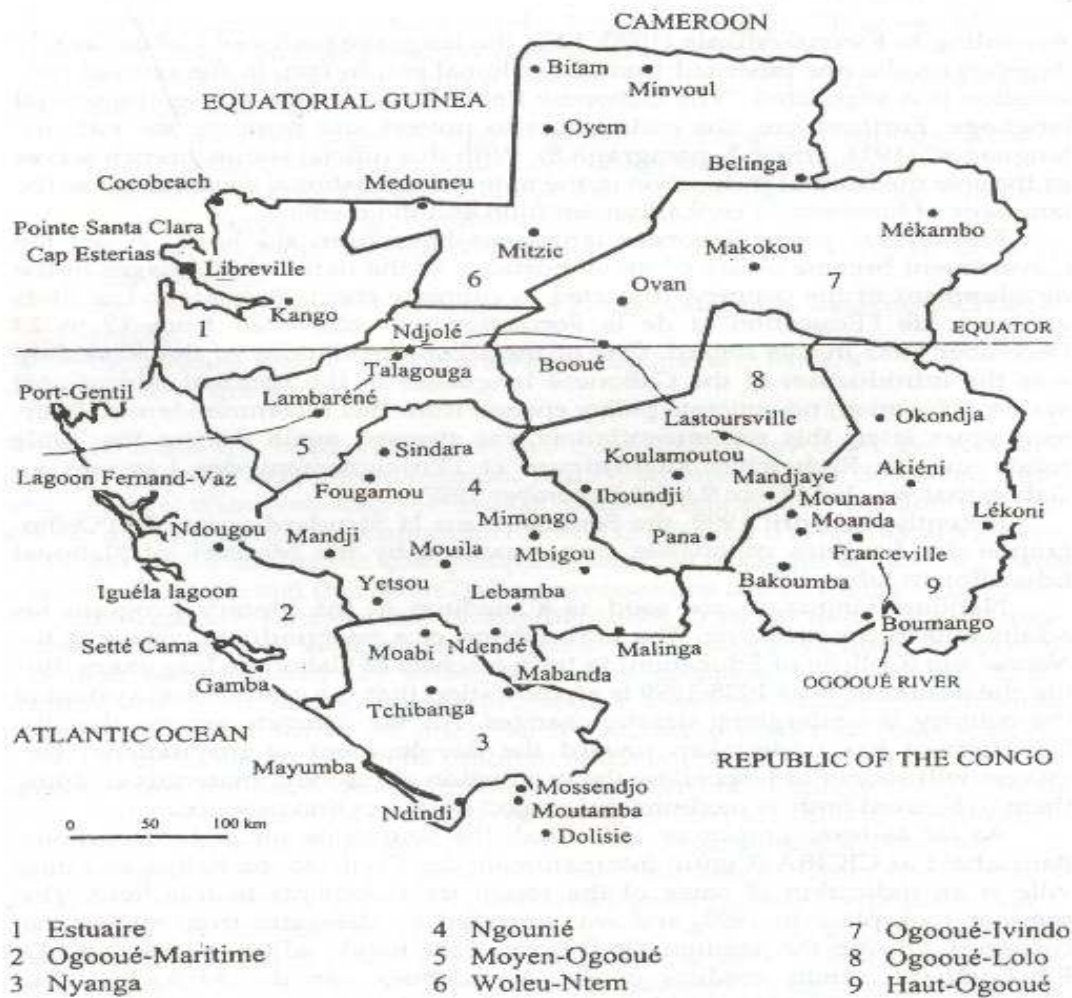
a *monolingual linguistic dictionary* that describes the contemporary standard national language. It should be noted that a standard descriptive dictionary of a particular language might be said to be the basic *lexicographic* product... A standard-descriptive *work of reference* obviously should be a normative publication both in the *selection* of lexical items for their subsequent inclusion into the word list and their *lexicographic description*. The bulk of its word list consists of the general vocabulary, i.e a part of the lexicon, which is characteristic for the standard literary language, whereas *specialized*

terminologies, as well as substandard lexical items, are beyond the scope of lexicographic description in such a reference work (Burkhanov 1998:224).

1.2. Some aspects of Yipunu

1.2.1. Linguistic aspects of Yipunu

Yipunu is a Bantu language spoken in Central Africa, particularly in Gabon, the Republic of Congo (Congo-Brazzaville), the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) (Congo Kinshasa), Angola, specifically in the Cabinda region, and in Sao Tome & Principe. In Gabon, Yipunu is spoken in the South, particularly in the Ngounié and the Nyanga province in the towns of Mouila, Ndendé, Tchibanga, Mabanda and Moabi. For some historical and sociological reasons, the intermingling of populations and rural migration, and the territory of Yipunu was enlarged to the South of Moyen-Ogooué to the Ogooué-Maritime (Port-Gentil) and Libreville. Gabon is administratively divided into nine provinces, which are further divided into districts and communes.



Map of Gabon from Nyangone & Mavoungou (2000:256)

Yipunu (also known as *Ipunu*, *Punu*, *Pounou*, *Puno*, *Yipounou*) is a Bantu language classified by Guthrie² (1948:59) and belongs to the B40 group. *Yipunu* is the standardised form of the language.

² Geographically, Bantu languages cover most of Sub-Saharan Africa. The classification of Guthrie lists hundreds of members divided into 15 geographical grouping zones (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, K, L, M, N, P and S) and then numbered within the group. This classification of Guthrie was later extended and modified by SIL in 1996 and another time by researchers from the Royal Museum of Tervuren in 1999. Zone J was added and some zones were reorganised.

It should be mentioned that the term *Bantu language* is a linguistic term used internationally to refer to a language family of which the members exhibit certain common characteristics, such as that they are mainly agglutinating in nature, that they all have a system according to which nouns are grouped into classes, and each class has a characteristic prefix which is prefixed also to every word referring to or connected grammatically or syntactically with the noun. (Gouws & Prinsloo 2005: 190, Pei & Gaynor 1954: 26).

Conventionally, Yipunu is indicated as “B43” in Guthrie’s classification. This group in Gabon is also known as the Shira punu group, which encompasses the following languages:

- Sira (Ghisira), Gabon B41
- Sangu (Isangu, Yisangu), Gabon B42
- Punu (Yipunu), Congo-Brazzaville, Gabon, B43
- Lumbu (Yilumbu), Congo- Brazzaville, Gabon B 44

Linguistically, Yipunu shares the following features with other Bantu languages:

1. The *cv* syllable type (other Bantu languages may have the *cvc* type)
2. The use of prefixes to mark class, person, number, etc.
3. A five-vowel system (other Bantu languages may have five or seven vowels)
4. A verbal system containing various agglutinated components, for example class, tense, person, number, verbal root and one or more suffixes

The phonemes in Yipunu are set out as follows (cf. Kwenzi Mikala 1990b:299–304):

Yipunu has the following five main vowels and their respective long vowels:

i	u	ii	uu
e	o	ee	oo
a		aa	

The vowels of Yipunu are realised as short and long.

The Consonantal Classification of Yipunu is presented as follows:

	Labials	Apicals	Postals
Affricates		ts	j
Orals	p b f β	t d s r	k ʔ
Mid-nasals	mb mv	nd nz	ng
Nasals	m	n	ny
Sonants	w	l	y

Yipunu is a tone language. Tones have a distinctive function in Yipunu. Here are the different tones encountered in Yipunu:

- The extra high tone indicated by the following sign (´´)
- The high tone indicated by the sign of the acute accent (´)
- The low tone indicated by the sign of the grave accent (`)
- The falling tone indicated by the sign of the circumflex accent (^)
- The rising tone indicated by the reversed circumflex accent (˘)

As mentioned previously, Yipunu belongs to the sixth language-unit, the *Merye* language-unit according to Kwenzi Mikala’s classification. Yipunu shares the *Merye* language-unit with the following languages: Ghisira, Ghivharama, Ghivhungu, Yilumbu, Yisangu, Ngubi, Civili, Yirimba and Yighama.

1.2.2. The language status of Yipunu

1.2.2.1 The language policy of Gabon

1.2.2.1.1 The privileged position of French

The language policy of Gabon largely depends on the one inherited from the colonial era (Kwenzi Mikala 1990a:123). French is the only language of which the status is clearly defined in the Gabonese Constitution.

In fact, in the revised Constitution it is stipulated that “The Gabonese Republic adopts French as the official language. Furthermore, she endeavours to protect and promote national languages” (République Gabonaise 1994, Art.2, paragraph 8).

French enjoys a particular or even privileged status among all the languages present in Gabon. It is the language of administration and institutions (juridical and economic), the media, knowledge and education (it is the sole medium of instruction in the national education system).

In Gabon, multilingualism and the frequency of inter-ethnic marriages imply that the use of French extends to the family unit. In addition, rural migration made of Libreville a melting pot of ethnic groups and gave French an essential role as *lingua franca* or vehicular language. In other respects, French is also the only language which ensures the communication between the members of different Gabonese communities, between the members of Gabonese and foreign communities and finally between the members of different foreign communities. With an area of 267,677km², Gabon has a population of 1 379 000 inhabitants, of which 15, 2% are foreigners and 84, 8% Gabonese (Crystal 1999:130). The foreigners use their own languages as a medium of communication inside of these linguistic communities. These languages are African, European, Asiatic and American languages introduced in Gabon by migrants. French allows the interethnic communication between these different linguistic communities in Gabon.

Two variants of French are found in Gabon: Standard French (Français standard, FS), which is the official language and Gabonese French (Français du Gabon, FG), which is the creolised form of French language as spoken in Gabon (Emejulu 2000:61, 62; Mavoungou 2002a:230–262). Standard French is normalised and its dictionaries derive from the international francophone databases. I agree with Emejulu (2000:62), who argues that the lexicographic needs of Standard French in Gabon seem to be limited to (and more pressing in) its multi-fold contacts with the other local languages for the elaboration/production of various bilingual French/Gabonese native languages or French /Foreign languages (English, Spanish). As far as Gabonese French is concerned, Mavoungou (2002a:230–262) has recently accounted for linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of Gabonese French and discussed various

metalexigraphic criteria for the planning and compilation of the *Dictionnaire du Français du Gabon* (DFG).

The elaboration and production of bilingual dictionaries dealing with French and Gabonese native languages should be compiled for the benefit of Gabonese speakers. As mentioned previously, most of the dictionaries available in Gabonese languages are translation dictionaries biased towards French. These dictionaries were not compiled with the mother-tongue speakers in mind, but rather for the benefit of the missionaries to understand the relevant language for their evangelisation and colonial missions. What is required now is a discontinuation of the old system of dictionary making, which served the needs of the missionaries and colonial administrators, to adopt a system where dictionaries are designed to assist the needs of Gabonese speakers. Gabonese lexicography should move from externally motivated to internally motivated lexicographic endeavours. According to Bergenholtz and Gouws (2006:32),

externally-motivated dictionaries typically are bilingual products, co-ordinating a local African language with a European language, typically the first language of the missionaries or the colonisation officials. The lexicographers of these products are not speakers of the local language but rather of the language of colonisation whereas *internally-motivated lexicographic endeavours* are the dictionaries compiled within the given speech community.

To take into account the needs of the Gabonese speakers, it is vital to look at the status of Gabonese languages. The following section will discuss the status of the Gabonese languages and particularly of Yipunu.

1.2.2.2 The status of Yipunu

In Gabon, as in some other African countries, one makes a distinction between the *official language* and the *national language*. This distinction does not exist in many countries and

these two concepts are therefore confusing, for example in France. The use of French for inter-ethnic communication in Gabon could support an argument for its use as a national language (Tomba Moussavou 2001:14, own translation). French is a national language, “in the sense that it is the language by which the nation expresses its values, its identity, its laws locally and internationally, then nothing is more official as such a language” (Lim 2002:134). All the Gabonese languages should profit from this label if “a national language is a language recognised by a nation which is part of its cultural inheritance, and an official language the only juridical language selected for the expression and the public activities of the state and the services” (Lim 2002:134). However, the Gabonese Constitution does not give an indication on

- a) The context in which these national languages have been defined;
- b) Whether all Gabonese languages or only certain languages are national languages; and
- c) How the Gabonese Republic endeavours to protect and promote the national languages.

Consequently, Yipunu and the other Gabonese languages have no juridical status other than the fact of belonging to a community. According to Idiata (2005:1), Yipunu is identified as a *regional vehicular language* and a *domestic language*, i.e. it is restricted to the communication inside ethnic communities.

1.2.2.2.1 Yipunu as a regional vehicular language

If no Gabonese language has the vehicular status at national level, some languages such as Yipunu have the status of vehicular language at regional level. For instance, in the Ngounié province, the Yipunu language ensures a certain degree of vehicularity in Mouila and Ndendé. It extends to the Nyanga province around the regions of Tchibanga and Moabi.

Judged by the number of Bapunu speakers (125112, 000) (Idiata 2005:4), Yipunu as regional vehicular language can also be regarded as a major or majority language. A major or majority language is a language which is not restricted to intra-group communication, but also used for regional or wider communication (Ekkehard Wolff 2000:321).

1.2.2.2.2 Yipunu as a domestic language

Yipunu, like the other Gabonese languages, has the status of domestic language, in the sense that the members of the ethnic group mainly speak these languages inside their ethnic communities. As a domestic language, Yipunu is regarded as a first language, i.e one acquired in the early years and normally becoming the speaker's natural instrument of thought and communication, often coinciding with mother-tongue language (Ekkehard Wolff 2000:321).

As first language, Yipunu is used at the radio and television stations in the town of Tchibanga of the Nyanga province.

Emejulu (2000:7) observes that all the Gabonese domestic languages spoken are close to extinction, since only a few isolated older people speak them and they are used only for cultural events and ceremonies. In contrast, Gabonese youth who are younger than 20 years and live in urban areas call themselves Gabonese but speak French. For instance, the Bapunu youth call themselves Bapunu, but they are not Bapunu mother-tongue speakers like their parents. In Gabon, to belong to an ethnic community does not mean that one automatically speaks the language of the ethnic group and that one uses it in daily communication.

Recently, Idiata (2005:2) has shown in a survey based on the linguistic dynamics of Gabonese children in an urban milieu that the depreciation in the vitality of the Gabonese languages can be explained by four main reasons.

1. The non return to villages

In my opinion, this point is linked to the economic factor. The majority of the Gabonese population live in urban areas, 41, 34%³ of which live in Libreville, the capital of Gabon.

³ According to the Recensement general de la population et de l'habitat of 1993 (Ministère de la planification et de l'aménagement du territoire).

Most economic activities are concentrated in urban areas and the population therefore moves from rural areas into urban areas, deserting villages for cities.

2. The father and the mother are from different ethnic groups, i.e. they have different languages

This point concerns the social factor. It has been observed that inter-ethnic marriages are more frequent in Gabon. Some sociolinguistic studies concerning the language dynamic of these marriages reveal that parents do not want to impose their languages on their children. They show preference for French, because they may regard French as a neutral language.

3. Education is only in French

Schools in Gabon, as in most former French colonies, are organised according to the French model in terms of containers (language of teaching, didactic material, etc.) and content (programmes, diplomas, etc.). Thus, education in Gabon, as it is in France, encompasses four main levels, namely pre-primary, primary, secondary and higher education. French serves as the sole medium of instruction in the national education system. It is perceived by Gabonese as the language of literacy and of social promotion. Consequently, the Gabonese elites have developed a negative attitude towards domestic languages. This is the result of the colonial heritage. Sassongo (2002:54) points out, “The policy in French colonies was led by *the direct rule principle* or *the complete assimilation policy*. This policy emphasizes explicitly the importance of colonial languages.”

In Gabonese public schools, pupils were not allowed to speak their vernacular languages. When they did speak it, they were identified as offenders and had to wear a symbol indicating their offence. The last to bear the symbol was punished at the end of the day. (cf. Kwenzi Mikala 1990a:123, quoted by Mavoungou, 2002b:51).

The development of Gabonese languages and of Yipunu in particular to be effective has to overcome the negative language attitude towards local languages. Changing the attitude towards Yipunu will be a long process involving many parameters, such as social,

economical, political, etc. I believe that the dictionary under discussion can help to bring a positive attitude towards Yipunu.

4. *The reduction of functions of Gabonese vernacular languages, i.e. their absence from almost all daily conversations between children and their different interlocutors.*

In my opinion, this point necessitates further investigation of the reasons behind this reduction of language functions. This investigation should be done for every Gabonese vernacular language and should take into account the age of the children. As a domestic language, Yipunu should be safeguarded and preserved. The proposed dictionary is one of the solutions to the preservation of Yipunu. Another solution is to introduce Yipunu into the national education system. This point will be discussed in the following sections.

1.2.2.2.3 Yipunu in the national educational system

Considering all these factors, namely the economy, the language and education policy, the language attitudes, and the social factor (inter-ethnic marriages), researchers and organisations are concerned about the future of Gabonese languages. Les Recommandations des États Généraux de l'Éducation et de la Formation (1983) proposed the introduction of Gabonese languages into the national educational system. One Gabonese linguist, Kwenzi Mikala (1990a: 123), advocated that linguistic descriptions are urgently needed and he proposed structures to ensure this integration. He emphasised the need for teams of experts from diverse disciplines to assist with the improvement of languages. He argued that these teams of experts must examine the issue of the integration of local languages and the choice of languages to introduce into the educational system. However, no concrete policy followed these proposals.

However, in 1995, some confessional high schools started to implement the introduction of Gabonese languages into the national educational system. Since 1995, seven Gabonese languages are taught at high schools as subjects: *Fang, Ikota, Ghetsogho, Lembaama, Omyene Yinzebi* and *Yipunu*. As mentioned earlier, schools in Gabon are organised according to the French model and French serves as the sole medium of instruction in the national education

system. However, other foreign languages are also taught, generally starting from sixth grade (first year of secondary school), depending on the specific language: English from sixth grade; Spanish from third form (seventh or eighth grade); German, Arabic and Italian from third form or fifth form. It should be specified that, apart from English and Spanish, which are taught in all secondary schools as first foreign language or second foreign language, other languages have the status of third or fourth language. Moreover, it is necessary to note that Arabic, German and Italian are only taught in a very restricted number of establishments (for example the *Lycée National Léon Mba* or the *Lycée d'Application Nelson Mandela* of Libreville).

As mentioned previously, since 1995, seven Gabonese languages are taught at high schools as subjects: Fang, Ikota, Ghetsogho, Lembaama, Omyene, Yinzebi and Yipunu. The insertion of these seven vernacular languages into the education system is a private initiative of the Raponda Walker Foundation, which, since 1995, worked out a method for teaching Gabonese languages. This method, called *Rapidolangue*, was initially implemented only in confessional establishments in Libreville, in *Institut Immaculée Conception*, *Collège Sainte-Marie* and the *Collège Quaben* where pupils from sixth grade to the fourth year of secondary school or eighth grade had the possibility of learning one of the six languages proposed in the handbook (*Rapidolangue*) for two hours per week. Nowadays, some public establishments in Libreville are implementing the *Rapidolangue* method for teaching Gabonese languages, namely the *Lycée National Léon Mba* and the *Lycée d'Application Nelson Mandela*. Gabonese languages are taught in five establishments. The choice of the Gabonese languages treated in the manuals was motivated by the availability of literature (grammar and lexicon, for example), the frequency of speech and the number of native speakers of those languages.

A survey by Bokoko (2004) of the teaching of these Gabonese languages in their respective establishments shows the following statements:

- The languages with the majority of speakers, the crossbordering languages such as Fang, Yinzebi, Yipunu and Tsogho, a language of Bwiti (a Gabonese traditional rite), should be taught.

- Gabonese languages should be taught from pre-primary education and primary education to avoid the breakdown in the family milieu.

- The Gabonese languages should be taught to
 - preserve the roots and cultures of Gabon;
 - facilitate the learning of other languages;
 - enrich and improve the expression;
 - reinforce the national unity and identity; and
 - remedy the absence of communication in local languages at home.

The development of the written form of Gabonese languages occurs through the publication of books and dictionaries in Gabonese languages. Looking at the methodology and the educational policy of the teaching of Gabonese languages, Mabika Mbokou (2006a:73) states: “[T]he pedagogy used in language teaching in Gabon follows the principles of foreign language teaching where the oral form prevails. More efforts are needed to bridge the gap between the oral form and the written form of the taught languages.”

Up to now, the language policy, for example the continued use of French as language of instruction, has impeded the Yipunu language and other Gabonese languages from developing vocabulary and terminology in spheres of activity. For instance, there are no Yipunu books for subjects such as history, geography, science, and mathematics. Gabonese languages and Yipunu specifically, lack published material in and about the language.

In order to make up for the lack of medical terminology in Yipunu, Mihindou (2006) has proposed a theoretical model for the compilation of a Yipunu-English-French explanatory dictionary of medical terms. Mabika Mbokou (2006a) has proposed a theoretical model for a Yipunu-French school dictionary that will be used by pupils and teachers with the *Rapidolangue* manuals for teaching Yipunu. The proposed dictionary will also be an aid in the teaching and learning of Yipunu, because it will address the lack of monolingual dictionaries in Yipunu.

1.3 Relevance and importance of the study

Because of its regional vehicular and domestic status and its introduction into the national educational system, Yipunu has aroused a keen interest in some researchers. However, most of the works done on Yipunu do not deal with monolingual dictionaries. The inventory of metalexigraphic works of Gabonese languages in general and linguistic studies with regard to Yipunu⁴ specifically listed only one work related to monolingual dictionaries. One notices that most of the works about the Yipunu language are written in French or English. Some are written in Yipunu and French or English. Very few works are written in Yipunu and only one work deals with monolingual dictionaries, namely the Bible in Yipunu published under the name *Bibala yivigu yikala na yivigu yigona*. The Alliance Biblique du Cameroun edited this Bible in Yipunu in 1992. It contains a glossary in Yipunu, which presents some lexicographic features and encompasses 141 lemmata. This glossary gives the meaning explanation of proper names and some expressions used in the Bible.

The relevance of this dissertation is to propose metalexigraphic criteria for a monolingual dictionary in Yipunu that addresses the misappropriations in the works of missionaries and colonial administrators. In addition, this study responds to the need for monolingual dictionaries in Yipunu in particular and in Gabonese languages in general. Lastly, it contributes to the standardisation of Yipunu as far as this model will deal with the standard variety of Yipunu and to a lesser degree with some of the other varieties.

This study looks at the standardisation of Yipunu from a monolingual angle. It is a continuation of a study on the standardisation of Fang, one of the Gabonese languages, from a translation (bilingual) dictionary perspective.⁵ A translation dictionary is defined as a dictionary designed to assist the user in solving problems related to the translation process.

⁴ The bibliography presents a listing of Yipunu works.

⁵ Afane Otsaga, T (2004). *The Standard Translation Dictionary as an Instrument in the Standardisation of Fang*. Unpublished D.Litt Dissertation. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.

1.4 Theoretical background and methodology of the research

1.4.1 Theoretical background

This project, a “Monolingual Descriptive Dictionary Presenting the Standard Variety of Yipunu” (henceforth abbreviated as MDDPSVY), needs an underlying theory. To build the envisaged project, some theoretical models will be borrowed from

- The theory of lexicographic functions of Tarp;
- The general theory of lexicography of Wiegand with regard to monolingual as well as translation dictionaries;
- The dictionary classification of Zgusta; and
- Aspects from *The principles and practice of South African lexicography* by Gouws and Prinsloo.

1.4.1.1 Tarp’s theory of lexicographic functions

The theory of lexicographic functions is based on the following premises:

1. Lexicography is an independent discipline.
2. The subject of lexicography is lexicographic reference works (or dictionaries).
3. Dictionaries are utility products made to satisfy certain human needs.
4. Dictionaries have a genuine purpose as utility products.
5. This genuine purpose is composed by one or various different lexicographic functions.
6. The complex of problems that arises in the user in a specific situation determines the dictionary functions.

Tarp is of the opinion that the genuine purpose of a dictionary is to assist users with specific characteristics in a particular situation in order to solve problems of a specific area. The function of a dictionary is to assist a specific group of users with specific characteristics to solve the complex of problems that arise in the user in a particular user situation.

The MDDPSVY is directed at mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu. It focuses primarily on the inclusion and the treatment of the standard variety of Yipunu and to a lesser degree on some

of the other varieties. Such a model is directed at a dictionary primarily dealing with the needs of the average, educated members of the Yipunu speech community, the mother-tongue speakers. The proposed model is also designed for experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu and teachers of Yipunu. According to Tarp (2004:226, 227), a learner is a person in the process of learning a language other than his/her native language. With regard to the proficiency level of the learner, a distinction is made between at least three different levels of language learning: beginners, experienced learners and advanced learners.

According to Tarp (2004:227),

Beginners are learners who are taking the first steps into the foreign language and are trying to assimilate the basic vocabulary and grammar.

Experienced learners are those who have mastered the basic vocabulary and the most important grammatical rules and are beginning to think and express themselves relatively freely in the foreign language, but sometimes have to pass through their mother tongue in order to produce more complex phrases.

Advanced learners refer to learners who have acquired a considerable active and passive vocabulary, have assimilated the general grammar of the foreign language and are thinking and expressing themselves freely in this language, although they are still not native.

The MDDPSVY is not only directed at experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu, but also at *teachers* of Yipunu. Teachers play a crucial role in helping learners to acquire language abilities and the dictionary is one of the aids available to the language teacher to help learners help themselves (cf. Béjoint 1989:209; Hartmann 1987:121). It is generally acknowledged that the dictionary is an indispensable tool in the language-teaching programme.

Tarp's theory will help to draw the user profile of the MDDPSVY in Chapter 4 by presenting the typologies of user characteristics, user situations, user needs and problems, and the dictionary functions.

1.4.1.2 Wiegand's theory

Wiegand is one of the lexicographers who have participated largely on the formulation of a general theory of lexicography with regard to monolingual dictionaries as well as translation dictionaries. According to Wiegand (1984a: 559 quoted by Smit 1996: 2), lexicography is a scientific practice aimed at compiling reference works that can be classified into several types, namely dictionaries, glossaries or vocabularies, concordances and indexes. They have been produced in order to facilitate a cultural practice, namely the use of dictionaries. The theory of lexicography resorts to metalexicography, which refers to the field of study aimed at improving our knowledge of lexicographic reference works. Wiegand identified the following four major components in his metalexicographic model: research of dictionary use; critical dictionary research; historical dictionary research; and systematic dictionary research. The MDDPSVY in this present research will be described according to Wiegand's model.

The research of dictionary use is, according to Wiegand (quoted in Smit 1996:8), an empirically based sociology of dictionary users. According to him, one has to have empirical knowledge about the users if one wants to produce better dictionaries. When compiling a dictionary, one has to take into account the language in use, the type of user situations and the type of dictionary needed by the target users. This dissertation will give an account of user typologies of the MDDPSVY and of a survey of research on dictionary use among Gabonese students in Chapter 4.

Critical dictionary research plays an important part in dictionary making because, when one reviews some existing dictionaries, their features, limitations and advantages are identified to ensure that better dictionaries are compiled in future. A critical evaluation of dictionaries must take into account such aspects as the history of the publishers, the dictionary basis, the macrostructure and the microstructure of the dictionary, the treatment of special field-terms and some general concluding remarks. I will pay attention to critical dictionary research in Chapter 2 where a critical discussion of existing lexicographic works in Yipunu appears.

Regarding historical dictionary research, it is important to study the history of some existing dictionaries to identify and evaluate the principles and methods governing these dictionaries

before adopting new methods. By studying the history of existing dictionaries, one has to focus on external and internal history. External history deals with external factors influencing the lexicographical process, while internal history deals with the changes that occurred regarding the principles and methods applied. It influences the selection of the lemmas, the contents of the dictionary article, the form of the dictionary and its style. In this dissertation, reference will be made to historical dictionary research when I discuss the principles and methods governing existing dictionaries in Yipunu in Chapter 2.

According to Wiegand (1983a:44 quoted by Smit 1996:61), systematic dictionary research is divided into four components: a general section (constituent theory A), an organisational section (constituent theory B), a theory of lexicographical language research (constituent theory C) and a theory of lexicographical language description (constituent theory D). Constituent theory A can be divided into three theoretical subcomponents: purpose of dictionaries, relationship to other theories and principles from the history of lexicography. The purpose of dictionaries can be seen according to human or community needs. Dictionaries are compiled for diverse reasons, based on scientific and social needs. Each dictionary has its own specific purpose. For example, the purpose of a monolingual dictionary is the explanation of word meaning. Other types of dictionaries, namely bilingual dictionaries or special-field dictionaries have other specific purposes. As far as the relationship to other theories is concerned, one draws up a list of the connections with other theories or constituent theories, such as semantics, lexicology, frame theory, etc.

Certain principles guide lexicographers in compiling dictionaries. These principles can be researched in metalexicography and are connected with the history of lexicography. One determines which principles have governed the process of dictionary making in the past, which in turn enables one to determine which principles should be applied in compiling future dictionaries.

Constituent theory B serves the purpose of determining the basis rules for organising and coordinating all three areas of lexicographical activity. The following three fields of activity in the organisational theory can be distinguished:

1. All the activities leading to the drawing up of a dictionary plan;
2. All the activities involved in establishing a dictionary basis and processing this basis into a lexicographical file; and
3. All the activities concerned directly with the writing of dictionary texts.

The expression *dictionary plan* refers to a written plan of the dictionary in all its aspects. The expression *dictionary basis*, in Wiegand's formulation, refers to all the linguistic material which forms the empirical basis for the production of a language dictionary (cf. Wiegand 1984b:14 quoted by Smit 1996:111)

The dictionary basis consists of at least:

- The lexicographical corpus as the set of all the primary sources – these are sources, which are not dictionaries themselves
- The secondary sources – these sources consist of the set of all language dictionaries used for the basis
- Any other linguistic material, which may be consulted as tertiary sources.

The expression *lexicographical file* refers to a collection of citations for potential lemma signs selected from the dictionary basis. Such a collection is usually arranged in some way or another, for example alphabetically. The citations come from the primary sources of the dictionary basis, which are not dictionaries. From this basis, one should select the first lemma candidates of the dictionary.

The constituent C is a theory of lexicographical research on language. The subject area of such a theory of lexicographical research on language consists of the set of all scientific methods that can be applied in lexicography. There are two components, namely the theory of data collection and the theory of data processing. In addition, one should consider the role of the computer in both components by adding a third component, namely a theory about computer assistance in lexicography.

The theory of data collection is a theory about how to compile a dictionary basis. A text corpus is a finite set of texts in natural language collected for the purpose of linguistic or literary research, according to Schaefer (1979:356). The text in such collections may be

systematically collected and ordered in one or more languages, selected according to diachronic or synchronic points of view, containing examples of standard language or examples in other varieties, written or spoken. In contrast to a citation file, a corpus is not limited to be used only with a specific predetermined purpose. For lexicographical practice, the size and the nature of a proposed dictionary determine the content of its lexicographical corpus (cf. Mentrup 1978:200 quoted by Smit 1996:124). Existing dictionaries, even though not very useful as citation sources, could be used to form a preliminary lemma list. In lexicographical research, one can collect data from informants. Béjoint (1979:25) characterises informants as “non-specialists” who are personally consulted about lexical items to be included in the dictionary. One can collect data from natural speech situations, from “artificial speech situations” and from written questionnaires. Questioning informants by means of written questionnaires is called the indirect method as opposed to spoken interviews, which are the direct method. The second component of theory C is about ways of processing collected linguistic data in such a way that one can create an adequate dictionary file for a particular dictionary type or a group of dictionaries. The third component of theory C is the component regarding computer assistance.

One has to formulate a theory on computer usage in lexicography in terms of both data collection and data processing. The computer functions as a support device in the making of dictionaries and it should assist lexicographers to perform time-consuming and routine tasks that are prone to mistakes, such as storing data, processing data, preparing and producing data. No dictionary should be attempted without the extensive use of a computer and sophisticated computer programs.

The computer can also be of use in the construction of a data bank. According to Smit (1996:134) one of the advantages of standardising the data of dictionaries in a lexical data base is that one could, in future, use the instructions in such a way that one could write different dictionaries by using general instructions on all dictionaries, and then only create special instructions for other presentations which have to appear in the single dictionaries. This dissertation will present the dictionary plan for the MDDPSVY and its different aspects in Chapter 5.

The fourth part of Wiegand's general theory of lexicography is called a theory of lexicographical description. In Wiegand's formulation, this constituent theory D is the subject area of a theory of lexicographical description of language. It is the class of all the presentations of the results of linguistic lexicography as texts about language. Wiegand (1983b:103 quoted by Smit 1996:141) defined language dictionaries as reference works made with the purpose of conveying information to users about the lemmas they look up under the appropriate lemma sign. The main aim of the theory of lexicographic language description is to systematically provide and establish information that lexicographers have to take into account when writing lexicographical texts. Lexicographical texts must possess the appropriate textual structure to fulfil their purposes.

The constituent theory of lexicographical language description has two main components: dictionary typology and a text theory for lexicographical texts. On the subject of dictionary typology, Wiegand (1988:743 quoted by Smit 1996:157) pleaded for a classification of reference works on the basis of their genuine purposes. The genuine purpose of an object or commodity can be identified by the use people make of it because of certain features it has to achieve the goals for which it was produced in the first place. The genuine purpose of reference works is identified by their use to obtain information on the object (for example, the language) from the lexicographical data in them.

The interpretation of the term *genuine purpose* as used by Wiegand differs from that by Tarp. Wiegand (1987:96 quoted by Smit 1996:168) points out that there are several possibilities for classifying dictionaries. One could for example proceed from a historical point of view. One could also proceed from the point of view of potential users. A typology that concentrates on aspects of the dictionary form, including features such as access structure, hyper-structure, degree of standardisation, etc., are then taken into account. In addition, Wiegand's use of type predicates and comparative predicates, as well as classifications according to the functions of dictionaries, enable lexicographers to plan typological hybrids. About the textual theory of lexicographic texts, Wiegand uses specific concepts in the description of this text theory. He regards dictionaries as carriers of text types; he also regards the different parts of the dictionary as functional text parts within the textual book structure. For example, one may find in a dictionary the so-called front matter that precedes the word list. All functional text parts which come after the word list form the so-called back matter. The main part of a

dictionary is the word list or central list, which is obligatory. In a dictionary, the title page, the table of contents, the preface and the user guide are typical texts to be included in the front matter. Similarly, back matter texts in dictionaries could include the following: index (list of words used in the dictionary), a list of irregular verb forms and spelling table, a number table, list of proverbs and other idiomatic expressions, list of geographical names, nationalities and languages. Apart from the front matter and the back matter, there may also be a middle matter, which may be placed inside the word list, but which is not part of the word list. The functional text parts of the front matter, back matter and middle matter together may also be called the outside matter. The outside matter and the central list, i.e. the dictionary proper, constitute the frame structure. The central list of a dictionary encompasses at least five structural components: the macrostructure; microstructure; access structure; addressing structure; and the mediostructure.

According to Gouws (2001b:83):

- The *macrostructure* is the selection of lexical items to be included in the dictionary as lemma signs.
- The *microstructure* is the selection of data categories given as part of the treatment of the lemma sign.
- The *access structure* is the search route followed by a user to reach a specific lemma sign or data category.
- The *addressing structure* is the relation between an entry and the treatment unit at which it is directed.
- The *mediostructure* is the system of cross-referencing which leads a user from a reference position to a reference address.

The proposed dictionary will be composed of the structural components mentioned above. Chapters 6, 7 and 8 will offer a comprehensive discussion of these structures.

1.4.1.3 Zgusta's dictionary classification

Theoretical and practical lexicographers have formulated a wide range of suggestions, classifications and models; one classification cannot be regarded as absolute. In order to

classify the typological models and to know to what type the proposed dictionary will belong, the MDDPSVY uses Zgusta's classification.

1.4.1.3.1 Linguistic and encyclopaedic dictionaries

In Zgusta's classification, the proposed dictionary is classified as a linguistic dictionary. The emphasis of linguistic dictionaries is on the presentation of the meaning and meaning distinctions (where such exist) of the treatment units. Zgusta makes a distinction between *encyclopaedias* and *linguistic dictionaries*. Encyclopaedic dictionaries are huge reference works, which aim to present data as comprehensively as possible. They usually concentrate on extra-linguistic features rather than on the meaning of lexical items. Encyclopaedias can be regarded as the most typical examples of encyclopedic dictionaries.

They are classified as dictionaries on account of the way in which they are structured and compiled as sources of reference. Examples of encyclopaedis and linguistic dictionaries are *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language (CEEL)* and *Le Petit Robert (PR)* respectively. One has to be careful not to confuse encyclopaedic dictionaries with encyclopaedic data. According to Gouws (2001a:11), encyclopaedic data is a typical category also to be found in general linguistic dictionaries. Besides linguistic data, linguistic dictionaries often contain data directed at the referent of a specific lexical item. This information is included in the dictionary to assist the user in an unambiguous identification of the meaning of a given word. Although the MDDPSVP dictionary is a linguistic one, it will include or contain some non-linguistic data, for example a brief encyclopaedic description in the treatment of some lexical items related to Yipunu culture. The treatment of these lexical items will be described in chapters of this dissertation related to the macro- and micro-structure of the MDDPSVY.

1.4.1.3.2 Diachronic and synchronic dictionaries

When discussing dictionaries, Zgusta divides the category of linguistic dictionaries into two subcategories, diachronic dictionaries and synchronic dictionaries. A diachronic dictionary is directed at the history and the development of words. Within this subcategory, one can

distinguish the historical dictionary and the etymological dictionary. Historical dictionaries focus on the changes in the form and meaning of a word over a given period. Etymological dictionaries focus on the origin of lexical items. The synchronic dictionary aims at the description of language at a given stage of its development without being concerned with the historical changes that occur.

The MDDPSVY will be classified as a synchronic dictionary. Although the MDDPSVY is a synchronic dictionary, it will include etymological data. Etymological data of the MDDPSVY will have a detailed discussion in the chapter of this dissertation in connection with the microstructure of the MDDPSVY.

1.4.1.3.3 General and restricted dictionaries

As far as the proposed dictionary deals with a broad selection of lexical items, not only items taken from one specific field, and offers a treatment aimed at different linguistic and pragmatic features of the lexical items in question (Gouws 2001a:31), it can be classified as a general dictionary. General dictionaries, also called general-purpose dictionaries (GPD), contrast with restricted dictionaries or dictionaries for special purposes, (also called language for special purpose dictionaries (LSPD)). In a general dictionary the entire vocabulary is the target area, while in a restricted dictionary only a specialised subsection of the vocabulary is included. Examples of restricted dictionaries are *Dictionary of lexicography (DL)* and *Dictionary of 1000 French proverbs with English equivalents (DFP)*.

1.4.1.3.4 Monolingual and translation dictionaries

General synchronic linguistic dictionaries can be divided into two main types, namely monolingual (often called explanatory or descriptive dictionaries) and translation dictionaries. A translation dictionary is a dictionary designed to assist the user in solving problems related to the translation process. Translation dictionaries could be bilingual or multilingual, but in general they are bilingual. Examples of monolingual and translation dictionaries are *Le Petit Robert* mentioned above, a monolingual dictionary for the French language, and *Oxford Hachette dictionary French-English-English-French (OHFD)*. The proposed dictionary falls into the category of monolingual dictionaries.

In Geeraerts's (1989:294) view,

The prototypical dictionary, in particular, is *monolingual* rather than multilingual (or bilingual), provides linguistic rather than encyclopaedic information, contains primarily semasiological rather than onomasiological or non-semantic data, gives a description of standard language rather than restricted or marked language varieties and serves a pedagogical purpose rather than a critical or scholarly one.

In Burkhanov's (1998:155) opinion, a

“monolingual dictionary” is usually defined as a *linguistic dictionary* in which *lexical items* of the *object language* are defined using the same language. Whereas a *bilingual dictionary* is based on the principle $L_1 \rightarrow L_2$, where L_1 stands for the language of the *definiendum*, i.e. the object language, and L_2 is the language of the *definiens*, a monolingual dictionary is described as follows: $L_1 \rightarrow L_1$, where L_1 stands for both *definiendum* and *definiens*. Many experts then maintain that, since *lemmata* are defined using the same language, this language is simultaneously the object language and the *metalanguage*.

In Landau's terms (2001:8), a *monolingual dictionary* written in one language may be intended for the native speakers of that language, for people learning it as a second language in a country where the language is widely spoken either as a native language or a lingua franca, or for people learning it as a foreign language. A short definition of a *monolingual dictionary* is that it is a dictionary with only one object language, i.e. one language described (Tarp 2002a:63). Monolingual dictionaries are usually compiled after bilingual or plurilingual dictionaries have been compiled.

The *bilingual dictionary*, according to Tarp (2002a:64), is a dictionary that has two object languages and provides equivalents in the target languages for each word and expression in the source language. In Svensén's terms (1993:20), the bilingual dictionary shows how words and expressions in one language (the source language) can be reproduced in another language

(the target language). This is done by showing the word or the expression in the source language, followed by one or more equivalents in the target language. Whereas bilingual dictionaries provide equivalents of their entry words in another language, monolingual dictionaries provide periphrastic definitions in the same language. Besides this difference, what is remarkable is the contrast between the wealth of the information contained in the monolingual dictionaries and the rudimentary character of the information provided by the majority of the bilingual dictionaries.

Monolingual and bilingual dictionaries differ also in the number of languages they contain. The bilingual dictionary involves two languages, whereas the monolingual dictionary is entirely written in one language. As far as bilingual dictionaries are concerned, Hausmann and Werner (1991:2740, quoted by Gouws and Prinsloo 2005:54) make a terminological distinction between monoscopal/biscopal; monodirectional/bidirectional and monofunctional/bifunctional. According to Hausmann and Werner (1991:2742), scope refers to the language direction (monoscopal = A > B; biscopal = A > B and B > A); function refers to the instruction purpose of the dictionary (dictionaries for text production or text reception) and direction refers to the mother-tongue of the target users (dictionaries for mother-tongue speakers of the source or the target language or both these languages) (cf. Gouws & Prinsloo 2005:54).

The monolingual dictionary describes a language by means of that language itself: it gives the meanings of words by means of definitions or explanatory paraphrases. Some of the large monolingual dictionaries are also abundantly provided with authentic examples, which extensively supplement the semantic description. The monolingual dictionary is normally intended for users who are native speakers of the language. However monolingual dictionaries intended for foreign learners exist and have been produced in the world languages (Svensén 1993: 20). The category of monolingual general synchronic dictionaries can be divided into four subcategories, comprehensive dictionaries, standard dictionaries, desk/college dictionaries and pedagogical dictionaries (Gouws 2001b:32).

1.4.1.3.5 Pedagogical dictionaries

Pedagogical dictionaries can be divided into two further subcategories, school dictionaries and learner's dictionaries. School dictionaries are compiled as an aid for scholars and are primarily concerned with users seeking information regarding their first language. The category of school dictionaries accommodates descriptive and translation dictionaries. The other member of the category of pedagogical dictionaries, the learner's dictionary is primarily compiled to assist foreign language learners in their acquisition of a new language. An example of a learner's dictionary is the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (CALD). Because the MDDPSVY is directed at experienced and advanced learners and their teachers, it will include some pedagogical features even though it is not a learner's dictionary.

1.4.1.3.6 Desk/college dictionaries

According to Gouws (2001b:76), desk/college dictionaries are "compiled for mother-tongue users and do not display a learner-oriented approach. In comparison with school dictionaries they display an extended macrostructure but a low data density prevails because of a limited microstructural treatment and a restricted article structure. These dictionaries contain short articles and do not rely too heavily on a corpus".

1.4.1.3.7 Comprehensive dictionaries

Comprehensive monolingual (so called overall-descriptive) dictionaries have an informative approach, including as wide a collection of lemmas as possible. An overall-descriptive dictionary attempts to include a comprehensive collection of lexical items commented on in terms of a variety of linguistic information types. The comprehensive approach implies also the inclusion of a substantial amount of encyclopaedic data. Such a dictionary is not primarily aimed at the future usage of the language and it therefore does not try to prescribe new norms. Its main aim is to reflect the language usage of the past and the present. One of the most important prerequisites for the compilation of a comprehensive monolingual dictionary is an established standard language with fixed norms. An example of a comprehensive dictionary for Afrikaans is the *Woordeboek van die Afrikaanse Taal* (WAT).

1.4.1.3.8 Standard dictionaries

Standard dictionaries are usually single volume dictionaries, although some dictionaries in this category do have two or even three volumes or more (the comprehensive dictionary). The typical standard dictionary is also known as a desk dictionary. Standard dictionaries are aimed at users who have a certain level of dictionary culture; it reflects the norms of the language. Standard dictionaries are the linguistic reference sources most commonly used by the average members of the speech community and users rely on the dictionary as an authoritative source of linguistic information.

Such dictionaries are usually focused on the present and the future and have a much stronger normative character than comprehensive dictionaries. Gallardo (1980:61) maintains that dictionary types and language dynamics are related. According to Gouws and Ponelis (1992:87), a standard monolingual dictionary can be seen as a result of language standardisation, whereas a bilingual dictionary is an instrument of an ongoing standardisation process. A standard language is defined as a codified form of a language, accepted by and serving as a model for a larger speech community (Gallardo 1980:61).

According to Zgusta (1989:70), there are four types of dictionaries that influence the standard language:

1. Dictionaries that aim at creating a written standard: Standard-creating dictionaries;
2. Dictionaries that try to render the standard more modern: Modernizing dictionaries;
3. Dictionaries that try not only to stop any change in the standard, but even try to reverse change, to reintroduce obsolete forms and meanings: Antiquating (or archaising) dictionaries; and
4. Dictionaries that try to describe the existing standard, thereby clarifying it: Standard descriptive dictionaries.

The MDDPSVY is included in this category of standard monolingual descriptive dictionaries. The standard monolingual descriptive dictionary has a normative nature, concentrating on fixed standard language (cf. Zgusta 1971:210).

The standard descriptive dictionary focuses on the explanation of meaning. An example of a standard monolingual descriptive dictionary for Afrikaans is the *Verklarende Handwoordeboek van die Afrikaans Taal (HAT)*. The standard monolingual dictionary reflects the applicable norms of a given language, but it also helps to establish those norms by focusing on standard language usage, hence functioning as an instrument of standardisation. The standard dictionary is aimed at the language as it is used at present, establishing norms for the immediate future. Standard monolingual dictionaries do not offer comprehensive treatment of lexical items, but have a far more restricted scope. This restriction applies both to the selection of lemmas and to the amount of information included in each article. The nature of the lexicographic treatment in standard dictionaries depends on the purpose and extent of the dictionary. In general, less information and fewer information categories will be included in comparison with comprehensive dictionaries. The compilation of monolingual dictionaries is not precluded if a language is still in the process of standardisation. Where a language does not have an established collection of dictionaries, the typical typological pattern will be a compilation of one or more standard dictionaries as priority. This type of dictionary plays an important role in the standardisation process because users rely on the dictionary as an authoritative source. Where a language is not yet fully standardised, it is customary to compile a standard translation dictionary before compiling a standard descriptive dictionary (Gallardo 1980:61, Gouws & Ponelis 1992: 88). In the Gabonese situation, the metalexigraphic work on a standard translation (bilingual) dictionary for Fang, one of the Gabonese languages, has been done, as mentioned above. The MDDPSVY focuses on the standard monolingual type.

1.4.1.3.9 Classification of the proposed dictionary

The proposed dictionary is classified as a linguistic, synchronic, general, monolingual, standard and descriptive dictionary in Zgusta's classification. The MDDPSVY will be a hybrid dictionary because it will include some features of a monolingual descriptive, some of a learner's and some of a standard dictionary. With regard to the physical appearance, the MDDPSVY will present the material in a traditional way, in the printed version. Printed dictionaries are unlike electronic dictionaries, which consist of a database which contents can be presented directly on CD ROM or on the Internet.

I agree with Golele (2006:254), who argues that an (African) monolingual dictionary “should be planned and compiled in such a way that the transition from printed (paper) dictionary to electronic dictionary, whenever the right time for this arrives, will be easily and naturally accomplished,” which is the case with the MDDPSVY.

1.4.1.4 Gouws and Prinsloo’s *Principles and practice of South African lexicography*

Regarding the African scene, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) have applied aspects of the general theory of lexicography to the lexicography of the South African languages. *Principles and practice of South African lexicography* covers significant phases and features of a lexicographic process, with a focus on the historical orientation of theoretical lexicography, the phases in the lexicographic process, including material collection and corpus building, and various aspects of the data distribution programme and different lexicographic structures. By combining theory and practice, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) provide suggestions regarding the challenges confronting South African languages. From an African language perspective, the MDDPSVY will benefit from the experience of the South African languages in general, particularly from languages of the Bantu family, such as the Nguni languages (Zulu, Xhosa, Swati and Ndebele) and the Sotho languages (Sotho, Northern Sotho, Tswana), spoken in South Africa.

1.4.2 Methodology

In devising the model for the compilation of the MDDPSVY, the study will use qualitative methods in order to apply the theories mentioned above. Investigations will be conducted with regard to the language material of the MDDPSVY. All the linguistic material which forms the empirical basis for the production of a specific dictionary is described as a dictionary basis in Wiegand’s formulation.

1.4.2.1 The dictionary basis of the MDDPSVY

The dictionary basis of the MDDPSVY consists of the following:

1. The MDDPSVY corpus as the set of all the primary sources. A detailed discussion of the MDDPSVY corpus will be given in Chapter 5 of this dissertation.
2. The secondary sources: These sources consist of the set of all the available dictionaries in Yipunu. These available dictionaries or work with a lexicographic orientation are as follows:
 - Grammaire pounoue et lexique pounou-français
 - Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou-Français
 - Bibala. Yivigu yikala na yivigu yigona
 - The Yipunu Corpus of Blanchon (undated)

According to Nyangone Assam and Mavoungou (2000:263), the *Grammaire pounoue et lexique pounou-français* (1956) of the missionary Bonneau is the first lexicographic work published in Yipunu. Bonneau's work contains two sections and covers 177 pages. The first section presents the Pounoue (Yipunu) grammar and the second one the lexicon itself. Bonneau's lexicon is a monoscopal dictionary, which is intended for foreigners who want to translate Yipunu into French. The *Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou/Yipounou-Français* of the Christian and Missionary Alliance is the second work on Yipunu and was published in 1966. This dictionary is an alphabetically arranged bilingual publication consisting of 8934 articles and covering 145 pages. In the front matter of the book, the compilers (American missionaries) state clearly that the dictionary is published for Yipunu mother-tongue speakers to help them in the study of the Bible (Mihindou 2001:26). With regard to some Yipunu work with a lexicographic dimension, *Bibala*, which is the Bible in Yipunu, edited by the Alliance Biblique du Cameroun in 1992 is noteworthy. This Bible contains texts that present some lexicographic features, such as a glossary in the back.

This glossary encompasses 141 lemmata and gives the meaning explanation of proper names and some expressions used in the Bible. These lexicographic works will be critically analysed in Chapter 2 of this dissertation so that MDDPSVY compilers will learn from the good and the bad of these dictionaries.

3. Any other linguistic material, which may be consulted as tertiary sources.

The grammar part of *Grammaire pounoue et lexique pounou-français* de Bonneau and *Éléments de description du punu* are valuable as tertiary sources. The *Grammaire Pounoue* de Bonneau deals with the Pounou phonetics (alphabet, syllabus, consonants, etc.), Pounou vocabulary, gender of nouns, relationship between nouns and other terms. A team of linguists worked on the *elements de description du Punu*. It deals with issues regarding phonology, tonology, a restricted lexicon of words fulfilling certain criteria, some aspects of morphology and syntax such as numeration, relativisation and conjugation, a comparative study of some Protobantu reflexes in Punu. This work was based on *Grammaire Pounoue* by R.P. Bonneau and *Comparative Bantu* by Malcolm Guthrie. Contrary to the *Grammaire Pounoue*, it indicates tones on Punu words. The works on Yipunu by Kwenzi Mikala (1976; 1980a; 1980b; 1980c; 1989b; 1990b,1990c; 1997), Raponda Walker (1961, 1993), Fondation Raponda Walker (1995) and the linguistic material of Yipunu collected by the honours and Master's degree students of the Department of Language Sciences at Omar Bongo University can also be regarded as tertiary sources. The dictionary basis of the MDDPSVY will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5 of this dissertation.

1.5 Research hypotheses

The need for monolingual dictionaries in Gabonese languages will lead dictionary compilers to assist in the publication of dictionaries in local languages. It is a well-known fact that no dictionary project can be undertaken without an analysis of the target users, their needs and their reference skills. Following this, the major hypothesis of this study is that the compilation of the MDDPSVY would be user-driven. The user profile guides and determines the selection and the presentation of data, the structures and the content of the proposed dictionary. Another hypothesis can be formulated with regard to the theory of monolingual dictionaries. The theory of monolingual dictionaries implies that the language described is highly standardised. The second hypothesis would be that language standardisation should be a prerequisite for the compilation of a standard monolingual descriptive dictionary in an African Bantu language such as Yipunu. I would prefer that wherever applicable the term Bantu language(s) be used instead of the term African language.

1.6 Research objectives

This model, although devised for Yipunu, will eventually serve as a model for the design of standard descriptive dictionaries in all Gabonese languages. It aims to establish criteria for the compilation of such a dictionary. The planning of this standard descriptive monolingual dictionary is one of the first initiatives in monolingual lexicography as far as Gabonese lexicography is concerned. This will consequently lead to the empowerment of Gabonese speakers and particularly Bapunu speakers with regard to their own language. This study aims to point out how important standard descriptive monolingual dictionaries are in general and specifically in the case of African Bantu languages. This study provides information about the content and the structures of such a dictionary. This study also aims to highlight the importance for Gabonese lexicographers to adopt modern lexicographical principles in dictionary compilation, such as the user-driven dictionary and the corpus-based dictionary.

1.7 Conclusion

Most of the dictionaries available in Gabonese languages are translation dictionaries biased towards French. No proper monolingual dictionary exists in Gabonese languages. There is a need for monolingual dictionaries, which contain the linguistic material of one language, in Gabonese languages in general and in Yipunu in particular. French is the official language of Gabon. Yipunu is one of the Bantu languages spoken in the South of Gabon. It is a regional vehicular language or a major or majority language. Yipunu is a domestic language spoken inside Bapunu communities or a mother tongue or first language. It is also taught as a subject in the national educational system.

This study “Metalexigraphic criteria for a monolingual descriptive dictionary presenting the standard variety of Yipunu (MDDPSVY)” focuses primarily on the inclusion and the treatment of the standard variety of Yipunu and, to a lesser degree, on some of the other varieties. Such a model is directed at a dictionary primarily dealing with the needs of the average educated members of the Yipunu speech community, the mother-tongue speakers. The proposed model is also designed for experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu and teachers of Yipunu.

From a theoretical point of view, the MDDPSVY needs a solid foundation for its design, based on the following:

- The theory of lexicographic functions by Tarp will contribute to determine the user profile and the functions of the planned dictionary.
- The general theory of lexicography by Wiegand with regard to monolingual as well as translation dictionaries, which encompasses the four major components, research of dictionary use, critical dictionary research, historical dictionary research and systematic dictionary research, will help to describe the proposed dictionary.
- The dictionary classification by Zgusta, which identifies the proposed dictionary as a linguistic, synchronic, general, monolingual, standard and descriptive dictionary. The planned dictionary will be a hybrid dictionary because it will include some features of a monolingual descriptive dictionary, some of a learner's dictionary and some of a standard one. The proposed dictionary is a printed dictionary, planned in such a way that the transition from its printed form to its electronic format should be easy.
- From an African perspective, *The Principles and the practice of South African lexicography* by Gouws and Prinsloo is beneficial to the MDDPSVY in terms of the lexicographic experience of South African languages in general and particularly of languages such as the Nguni languages (Zulu, Xhosa, Siswati and Ndebele) and the Sotho languages (Sesotho, Sesotho sa Leboa and Setswana), languages of the same Bantu family as Yipunu.

As far as methodology is concerned, the compilation of the MDDPSVY will be based on the dictionary basis. Its different sources have been presented and will be discussed in detail in the course of this dissertation.

The hypotheses underlying this study refer to the target user profile of the MDDPSVY, the selection and the presentation of data in the proposed dictionary and to the preliminaries for the compilation of a monolingual dictionary such as the MDDPSVY with regard to African and especially Bantu languages. The proposed model is one of the first initiatives in monolingual lexicography as far as Gabonese lexicography is concerned. This will consequently lead to the empowerment of Bapunu speakers with regard to their own

language. This model, although devised for Yipunu, has the objective to eventually serve as a model for the design of standard descriptive dictionaries in all Gabonese languages.

CHAPTER 2: LEXICOGRAPHIC WORKS AND NEEDS OF YIPUNU

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents, in the first place, a discussion of some existing lexicographic works in Yipunu. As mentioned in the previous chapter, these lexicographic works form the secondary sources of the dictionary basis of the MDDPSVY. In the discussion of the lexicographical works, reference is made to metalexigraphical research that Wiegand took into account, such as research into dictionary criticism and the history of lexicography. Learning from the past, one will be in a position to determine which principles apply in future dictionaries like the proposed model. Secondly, it examines the lexicographic needs of Yipunu, which derive from research into dictionary criticism.

2.1 Lexicographic works in Yipunu

The first people to investigate the Yipunu language in particular and Gabonese languages in general were missionaries. The aim of these missionaries was to evangelise through the indigenous languages. The available dictionaries in Yipunu or works with a lexicographic orientation are as follows:

- *Grammaire pounoue et lexique pounou-français* (Yipunu Grammar and lexicon Yipunu-French)
- *Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou-Yipounou-Français* (French-Yipunu/Yipunu-French Dictionary)
- *Bibala*. Yivigu yikala na yivigu yigona (Yipunu Bible, old and new testaments)

2.1.1 *Grammaire pounoue et lexique pounou-français by Bonneau*

According to Nyangone Assam and Mavoungou (2000:263), the first lexicographic work published in Yipunu is the *Grammaire pounoue et lexique pounou-français*

(henceforth GPLPF) by Father Bonneau in 1956, which contains two sections and covers 177 pages. The first section presents the grammar of Yipunu and the second one the lexicon itself. As previously mentioned, the *Grammaire pounoue* (henceforth GP) ‘Yipunu Grammar’ deals with the phonetics (alphabet, syllabus, consonants, etc.) of Yipunu, the vocabulary, gender of nouns and relationship between nouns, and other terms in Yipunu. Lexicographically speaking, Bonneau’s Yipunu alphabet provides the lexicographer with some useful tools for the writing of dictionaries. Bonneau’s Yipunu alphabet is the following:

Consonants: *b d f dj k l m n p r s t v ts ñ*

Semi-consonnants: *w y*

Vowels: *a e ë è i o u*

Bonneau’s phonetics gives an indication on how to pronounce these letters by illustrating the pounou sounds by some examples of words in French. The phonetics also remarks on certain Yipunu letters. However, Bonneau’s alphabet does not indicate the ordering of Yipunu letters (vowels and consonants). Bonneau’s lexicon, *Lexique pounou-français* (henceforth LPF) is a monoscopal dictionary intended for foreigners who want to translate Yipunu into French. The entries of LPF arranged alphabetically provide the reader with lemmata in Yipunu, as well as translation equivalents in French. The entries also provide the reader with some parts of speech in French and some examples in Yipunu with their translation equivalents in French.

As far as typographic markers are concerned, this dictionary presents lemmas in bold characters, the translation equivalents in normal characters and examples in italics.

The following example in the LPF illustrates the above-mentioned point:

fwigisa, v.tr. ;1° trouver à quelqu’un ou à une chose de la ressemblance avec une autre personne ou une autre chose *u fwigisa mutu na.... ufwigisa ima na....*2° imputer injustement ; *u fwigisa mutu u daga*, imputer injustement un vol à quelqu’un ; 3° s’applique à tout ce qui est provisoire ; par ex. : *u fwigisa u dwara ngemba*, essayer une culotte, ou emprunter une culotte, *u fwisiga u fuga ndau na magadji ma magungu*, couvrir une case provisoirement de feuilles de *mangungu*, *u fwigisa u rariga ikutu*,

bâtir, faufler une blouse ; (rac. 2^e pûana regarder comme, comparer à, ressembler à, essayer comme remplaçant ; sens 1^{er} de ressembler à)

Article **fwigisa** (from LPF)

2.1.2 The Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou/Yipounou-Français

The *Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou/Yipounou-Français* (henceforth DFY/YF) 'French-Yipunu /Yipunu French dictionary' of the Christian and Missionary Alliance is the second work on Yipunu published in 1966. The DFY/YF is an alphabetically arranged bi-directional bilingual publication consisting of 8929 articles and covering 145 pages. It is a translation dictionary strictly presenting translation equivalents with no further lexicographic treatment. In the front matter of the book, the compilers (American missionaries) make it clear that the dictionary was published for Yipunu mother-tongue speakers of the town of Mouila in the Ngounié province to help them in the study of the Bible (Mihindou 2001:26). It acknowledges that this dictionary has some shortcomings because American missionaries who worked in two foreign languages, Yipunu and French, compiled this dictionary. In the same vein, the compilers recommend that the dictionary should be revised.

2.1.3 Bibala: The Yipunu Bible

Bibala is the Bible in Yipunu (henceforth YB) edited by the Alliance Biblique du Cameroun in 1992. Like many Bibles, the Old Testament (*Yivigu yikala*) and the New Testament (*Yivigu yigona*) divide the YB. This YB is the largest written material (source) of Yipunu and an interesting practical orthographic tool of Yipunu, given the fact that the majority of Bapunu mother-tongue speakers are religious (Catholics and Protestants), and that non-religious people easily read this Bible.

This Bible contains some interesting lexicographic texts, which offer specific lexicographic features, such as a table of contents, a letter to the reader *Muganda ombu Murangitsi* in the front of the Bible, a glossary of names of biblical characters, Jewish customs and ceremonies, and some expressions used in the YB, and maps of

Palestine and of the Apostle Paul's journeys. This glossary encompasses 141 lemmata and gives the meaning explanation of proper names and some expressions used in the Bible. This glossary encompasses a macrostructure and a microstructure. At the macrostructural level, the glossary presents the lemmata in bold letters. One can distinguish two different types of lemmata: lexical lemmata and multilexical lemmata. Plural forms of nouns as well as singular forms are included as lemmata in the macrostructure. Regarding the macrostructure, this latter includes lemmata with a complete lexicographic treatment and those with a limited lexicographic treatment. As far as the microstructural treatment is concerned, some lemmata have the full treatment. This treatment includes the explanation of meaning and a citation or references from the Bible. The other lemmata with a limited lexicographic treatment mainly consist of a cross-reference (*gengila*) to a lemma where the full treatment is given. For example, while the glossary gives the full treatment of lemmata for plural forms of nouns, the limited treatment of lemmata such as the singular form of nouns get no explanation of meaning. The limited treatment allows cross-references to the plural forms.

The following examples *mudukitsi* and *badukitsi* 'disciple(s)' illustrate the above-mentioned point:

badukitsi batu abeduki mutu ususu uyenadilanga malongi mandi. Mu yivigu yigona, diina dieni dilasi abeduki Jesus, sinsa viri digumi na babeji. Amabadukanga Paul na Jean-Baptiste bamalugu badukitsi wandi.

mudukitsi gengila badukitsi

Articles **badukitsi** and **mudukitsi** (from the glossary of *Bibala*)

2.2 Dictionary criticism: The LPF and the DFY/YF as case studies

2.2.1 LPF

Bonneau's lexicon, *Lexique pounou-français* (henceforth LPF) is a monoscopal dictionary intended for foreigners who want to translate Yipunu into French. In the critical discussion of the LPF, I will follow Wiegand's approach by taking into account aspects such as the history of the publishers, the dictionary basis, the macrostructure and the microstructure of the dictionary, the treatment of special field-terms and some general concluding remarks. Attention will also be given to other dictionary structures like the access structure, mediostructure, addressing structure and frame structure of the LPF.

2.2.1.1 The history of the publishers

The French missionary Father J. Bonneau on the pressing demand of his superior Bishop Fauret published GPLFP. Bonneau made many journeys in the areas of the Bapunu, the town of Tchibanga (Nyanga province).

2.2.1.2 The dictionary basis

The LPF does not give a clear indication of its dictionary basis. The LPF bases its primary sources on a series of papers that the author wrote from 1940 to 1952 in the *Journal de la Société des Africanistes*.

2.2.1.3 The macrostructure

With reference to the macrostructure, I will deal with the lemmatisation strategies, the ordering of lemmata, the types of lemmata, and the treatment of homonyms, the types of articles and the alphabetical categories of the LPF.

2.2.1.3.1 The lemmatisation strategies

I will discuss the lemmatisation strategies of nouns, verbs and adjectives.

2.2.1.3.1.1 The lemmatisation of nouns

The LPF lemmatises both singular and plural noun forms, as the following illustrates:

bu-ta, pl. *ma ta*, fusil
ma-ta, n. pl. de **bu-ta**, fusil, voir ce mot

The LPF sometimes lemmatises only the singular noun forms. The examples below illustrate the point in question:

du-goru, n. pl **bakoru**
dusavu, n. pl. **tsavu**

The plural noun forms *bakoru*, *tsavu* of the respective lemmata *dugoru* and *dusavu* are not included as lemmata in the central list of the LPF. One notices that the LPF is inconsistent in terms of lemmatisation strategies. The LPF lemmatises both the singular and the plural noun forms, and the singular noun forms only.

2.2.1.3.1.2 The lemmatisation of verbs

With regard to the lemmatisation of verbs, the approach that prevails in the LPF is the lemmatisation of verbs on the stem.

vuma, v. intr, 1° respirer; 2° se calmer, diminuer d'intensité...

fwigisa, v.tr. ,1° trouver à quelqu'un ou à une chose de la ressemblance avec une autre personne ou une autre chose *u fwigisa mutu na....*

2.2.1.3.1.3 The lemmatisation of adjectives

The LPF lemmatises the adjectives on their stem. The adjectives found in the LPF are the following:

- bedji ‘two’
- bi ‘bad, ugly, worse’
- boti ‘good, nice, beautiful’
- djyongulu ‘good made’
- gufi ‘short’
- gulu ‘old’
- kula ‘excellent, productive, profitable’
- mfwimba ‘entire’
- mosi ‘one’
- neni ‘big, extensive’
- pavala ‘empty’
- pinza ‘alone’
- ryeru ‘three’
- susu ‘another’
- tsyana ‘orphan’
- vyogulu ‘open’

2.2.1.3.2 The ordering of lemmata

Concerning the ordering of lemmata, the LPF uses the straight alphabetical ordering; all the lemmata display a vertical macrostructural arrangement and have an alphabetical ordering.

The following lemmas under the alphabetical category B in LPF illustrate this point:

B

badi

badiga

bagunu

ba-kaka

bakuga

bala

According to Bo Svensén (1993:223), the alphabetical arrangement can follow one of two different principles: word-by-word alphabetisation or letter-by-letter alphabetisation. One sees the difference when there are lemmata comprising more than one graphical word. The letter-by-letter method treats these as if they were continuous, while the word-by-word method takes account of the spaces (which are always ranked before the letters).

The LPF uses the letter-by-letter alphabetisation:

B

banda

banda-kubu

bandama

bandana

M

mukubi

mukudu

mukudu dilolu

mukundi

mukwati

2.2.1.3.3 The type of lemmata

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:86) emphasise the following:

The macrostructure should contain words, entered as so-called lexical lemmata, stems and affixes, entered as so-called sublexical lemmata, and multiword units, entered as so-called multilexical lemmata. In this way the macrostructure will reflect the lexicon of the target language of the dictionary.

With regard to the types of lemmata, the LPF contains lexical lemmata such as *bara*, *kanda*; sublexical lemmata like *a-*, *ba-*; and multilexical lemmata such as *busugu bu dilulu*, *digara di bangola*, *dufu du magumi*, etc.

2.2.1.3.4 The treatment of homonyms

The treatment of homonyms is problematic in the LPF because there are no numeral indicators to make a distinction between homonyms. The treatment of the following lemmata *kala* illustrates the point in question:

kala, adv. de temps; depuis longtemps...

kala, adv.; dans l'expression *na-kala*.

kala, n.pl. **ba-**: crabe bleu rond.

kala, conj. concessive ; quoique: *ex: dilulu...*

Furthermore, the LPF does not distinguish between polysemy and homonymy. In my opinion, *kala* is a polysemous item and there is a homonym pair *kala*. The LPF should have presented it as follows:

kala¹, 1° adv. de temps

2° adv., dans l'expression *na-kala*

kala², n. pl

kala³, conj.

2.2.1.3.5 The types of articles

The LPF includes different types of articles .The following articles *banda* and *bigisa* have the configuration of single articles.

banda, n. sans plur; 1° aval d'une rivière, d'un pays; ex: *wenda o banda muyamba*, aller en bas de la rivière; 2° bas d'un objet, du corps (rac. bantoue *banda*, et aussi en bas. Le bas; pour les indigènes. l'aval est le commencement d'une rivière

bigisa, v.tr, faire une supposition de malheur (par ex.de dire à quelqu'un : si ta mère mourait) ; *u biga mfwanga*, pronostiquer un malheur.

The single articles of the LPF display the typical treatment allocated to the average lemma sign. This treatment includes an item giving the part of speech (v. tr; n. sans plural), the item giving the translation equivalent, an item giving the example and an item giving the translation equivalent of the example.

Those of *dikundu* and *kana* below are complex articles, which include additional data, especially of a cultural nature, for a better understanding of these lemma sign.

di-kundu, n.pl. *ma-* ; d'après des idées de sorcellerie, ce serait un petit organe adhérent aux vicères d'un envouteur (*mulosi*), organe qui permettrait à ce dernier de faire mourir les gens dont il veut se débarrasser. C'est une grave insinuation que de dire à quelqu'un ; *u na dikundu*, tu as un *dikundu*. quelqu'un peut être *mulosi* à son insu.

kana, n.pl **ba-**, 1° auvent profond des anciennes cases pounoues (on y faisait la cuisine ; l'homme y travaillait ou bricolait pendant la journée ; c'est au fond du *kana* que s'ouvrait la chambre à coucher : la *ndau*) ; 2° par extension de sens : le village entier ; ex : *ngo o kana*, je vais à (mon) village ; *nzamba a ko o kana*, Nzamba est à (son) village.

Some dictionary articles in the LFP contain a restricted treatment. The articles introduced by the lemma signs below *fini* and *fimba* offer a restricted treatment of the lemma signs.

fini, voir *fwini*

fimba, voir *fwimba*

The articles mentioned above display a restricted treatment with a cross-reference ‘voir, see’ to the main lemma sign. Unfortunately, Bonneau says nothing when this kind of treatment occurs in the LFP. These articles are cross-referenced articles.

2.2.1.3.6 The article stretches

The LFP lists 19 article stretches. These alphabetical categories are the following: A, B, D, E, F, G, I, K, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, T, V, W, and Y. One can notice that the access alphabet of the LFP, which includes the alphabetical arrangement principle used, is not identical with the alphabet (set of letters arranged in a particular order) used in Yipunu as proposed by Bonneau in his *Grammaire pounoue ‘Yipunu Grammar’*. The diagraph *dj* identified in Bonneau’s alphabet is included in the alphabetical category D in LFP.

Furthermore, it is important to look at the balance between alphabetical categories of Yipunu. Prinsloo and De Schryver (2002; 2003) stress the study of the balance between alphabetical categories. They have introduced the concept of *Ruler*, which is a practical instrument of measurement for the relative length of alphabetical stretches in alphabetically ordered dictionaries. They design them according to the generally accepted principle that alphabetical categories in any given language do not contain an equal number of words.

The balance will measure the number of lemmas treated for or the number of pages dedicated to each alphabetical category in the LFP.

	LPF: Lemmata %	LPF: pages %
A	0.27	0.71
B	7.85	9.2
D	16.62	17.14
E	0.03	0.35
F	2.92	3.57
G	4	5.71
I	10.45	10
K	6	6.42
L	2.95	3.57
M	15.76	17.14
N	7.42	6.42
O	0.12	0.71
P	4	4.28
R	2.77	3.21
S	5.3	5
T	7.2	7.14
V	4.09	5.71
W	1.46	2.85
Y	0.77	1.42

As in any given language, alphabetical categories in Yipunu do not contain an equal number of words. B, D, I, K, M, N, S and T are the long ones and the short ones are A, E, F, G, L, O, P, R, V, W and Y.

2.2.1.4 The microstructure

I will critically discuss the type of microstructure(s) and the article structures of the LPF.

2.2.1.4.1 Type of microstructure

One can identify the types of microstructures in the LPF through the articles *dikundu* and *fwigisa* below:

di-kundu, n.pl. *ma-* ; d'après des idées de sorcellerie, ce serait un petit organe adhérent aux vicères d'un envouteur (*mulosi*), organe qui permettrait à ce dernier de faire mourir les gens dont il veut se débarrasser. C'est une grave insinuation que de dire à quelqu'un ; *u na dikundu*, tu as un *dikundu*. quelqu'un peut être *mulosi* à son insu.

fwigisa, v. tr.; 1° trouver à quelqu'un ou à une chose de la ressemblance avec une autre personne ou une autre chose *u fwigisa mutu na....*
ufwigisa ima na.... 2° imputer injustement ; *u fwigisa mutu u daga*, imputer injustement un vol à quelqu'un ; 3° s'applique à tout ce qui est provisoire ; par ex. : *u fwigisa u dwara ngemba*, essayer une culotte, ou emprunter une culotte, *u fwisiga u fuga ndau na magadji ma magungu*, couvrir une case provisoirement de feuilles de *mangungu*, *u fwigisa u rariga ikutu*, bâtir, faufiler une blouse ; (rac. 2° pûana regarder comme, comparer à, ressembler à, essayer comme remplaçant ; sens 1^{er} de ressembler

The microstructure of the dictionary articles *dikundu* and *fwigisa* looks like an integrated microstructure. An integrated microstructure displays a close proximity between a cotext or context entry and the relevant paraphrase of meaning /translation equivalent (cf. Gouws & Prinsloo 2005:138).

One remarks that the illustration example comes just after the translation equivalent in the dictionary articles mentioned above. The dictionary article *dikundu* also displays an extended obligatory microstructure and the one of *fwigisa* an obligatory microstructure. According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:141), the *obligatory microstructure* refers to the microstructural items that are found in each and every article. In the LPF, the obligatory microstructure contains the lemma sign, the item giving the part of speech, the item giving the morphology (the plural form for the nouns), and the item giving the translation equivalent, the item giving the illustrative

example and the item giving the translation equivalent of the illustrative example. In principle, all the single articles in a dictionary should at least display an obligatory microstructure. However, in the LPF not all the single articles display an obligatory microstructure consistently. The LPF arbitrarily designs its obligatory microstructure. The extended obligatory microstructure is a microstructure that, according to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:141), “makes[s] provision for additional items and data categories that might be extremely important in the treatment of certain lexical items.” The extended obligatory microstructure of the dictionary article *dikundu* makes provision for additional cultural data.

2.2.1.4.2 Dictionary structure

The LPF divides its article structure into the comment on form and the comment on semantics.

2.2.1.4.2.1 The comment on form

The comment on form consists of the orthographic form and the morphological form.

2.2.1.4.2.1.1 The orthography

Bonneau’s alphabet consists of:

Consonants: *b d f dj k l m n p r s t v ts ñ*

Semi-consonnants: *w y*

Vowels: *a e ë è i o u*

Bonneau’s alphabet does not make provision for tone marking. It is easily accessible and readable. Bonneau harmonises some spelling aspects in order to ensure uniformity. For example, the vowels *u* and *i* which become *w* and *y* respectively after a consonant when followed by vowels such as *a, e, i* and *a, e, o, u*.

Muana → *mwana* ‘child’
uliomisa → *ulyomisa* ‘to make clean’
mueni → *mweni* ‘foreigner, stranger’

Yipunu has a disjunctive system in the LPF as shown in the example mentioned above, *fwigisa*. The *Grammaire pounoue* (Yipunu Grammar) gives orthographic guidance for the consultation of the dictionary. The LPF gives the lemma in bold. There is a distinction between the nominal prefix and the rest of the noun. The hyphen makes this distinction. For instance, the following lemmata illustrate the point in question:

mu-vungu

mu-vondu

mu-vumu

mu-vunda

Conjunctivism and *disjunctivism* refer to two different traditions with regard to word division in African languages. According to the conjunctive system, words are represented with a complex inner structure (e.g. verbal prefixes, formatives roots and they are written together), whereas in the disjunctive system a simple inner structure prevails. In the case of South African languages, the Nguni languages employ a conjunctive system, whereas the Sotho languages, Venda and Tsonga, are written disjunctively. According to Van Wyk (1995:83),

[T]he difference between conjunctivism and disjunctivism concerns the status of certain linguistic elements which are joined to the following elements in the Nguni languages, but written separately in the other languages. Thus the equivalent of the English sentence *the woman is speaking to the child* is written as *umfazi ukhuluma nomntwana* in Zulu, but as *mosadi o bolela le ngwana* in Northern Sotho.

2.2.1.4.2.1.2 The morphology

The morphology consists of data on parts of speech and of data giving the plural form of the Yipunu lemma. The LPF presents the data on parts of speech in a condensed version such as *pref. nom, pron, adv, adj, conj, n*, etc. The LPF indicates the plural, singular forms of nouns (n.pl, n. sing.), the type of verbs (v. tr, v. intr, v. recipr, v. auxil), etc. Once again, one observes an inconsistency in the treatment of morphological data. For instance, the article *bidunga* does not have morphological data.

bi-dunga, seulement dans l'expression; *u ba na bidunga*, être aveugle ; (rac. bantoue dôt sommeil, nuit, obscurité.)

The LPF presents the data of the plural form of nouns in condensed version, i.e. the nominal prefix only. Sometimes it presents it entirely.

du-kwetu n. pl. **kwetu**; herminette des noirs du Gabon, large de deux doigts et longue de 6 à 7 centimètres de fer; (rac. 1⁰ kwa et 2⁰.couper).

2.2.1.4.2.2 The comment on semantics

The comment on semantics of the LPF encompasses translation equivalents, examples and their translation equivalents, expressions, idioms, proverbs, synonyms, lexicographic labels, etymological data and cultural data.

- The LPF gives the translation equivalent of the lemma. It follows the data on morphology (the plural form of the Yipunu noun). Numbers indicate the distinction of senses of a lemma.
- The LPF gives examples in italics in Yipunu and their translation equivalents in French. For a polysemous lemma, an example illustrates each sense of this

lemma. The article *fwigisa* mentioned above illustrates the two points in question.

- The LPF sometimes includes (idiomatic) expressions for certain lemmata or examples such as:

buga, v. tr; soigner; *ex: u buga bwali*, soigner une maladie

- Some articles provide the user with *proverbial expressions* or with simple examples. These proverbial expressions accompany their equivalent in French. For example, the treatment of the article *dusombi* is as follows:

dusombi, n. pl. **tsombi**, pr.verb. pl. **tsi**; gros ver blanc du palmier (il est comestible). prov: *dusombi a ge siyi matsi*. le *dusombi* ne se vante pas d'être gras (ce qui inciterait à le manger). Sens français: Il ne faut pas faire étalage de sa richesse (ce qui excite les convoitises).

- Synonyms are also elements of article of the LPF. Synonyms are in brackets and in italics.

mw-endzili, n.adv; 1⁰ gratuitement; 2⁰ sans motif; 3⁰ inutilement (synonyme: *nzyendzili*).

netiga, v.tr (syn. *u batiga, u bamisa*)

- Lexicographical labels indicate the sense restrictions. One finds stylistic labels (*au figuré, familier*), labels indicating attitude or connotations (*terme de mépris, injure*), labels for special field of activity (*sorcellerie, anatomie*), labels for origin of borrowing (*vili*), geographical labels (*dans la région de Tchibanga*) in the LPF.
- The LPF shows the etymological data at the end of the article structure in brackets. The etymological data is the only data that Bonneau indicates to the

user in his LPF's introduction. The etymological data offers information on the origin of the stem of the lemma.

- LPF includes additional data or cultural data in the microstructural treatment of certain lemmata in order to help the user to understand the culture of the Bapunu people too. Articles such as *dîna*, *i-lima*, and *djiba* of the LPF contain additional cultural data.

dîna, n. pl. *mîna* (pron. verb. *di* et *ma*) ; nom ; expr : le pounou emploie ce nom pour désigner une autre personne portant le même nom que lui ; ils s'interpellent même amicalement par ce nom, qui établit une sorte de liaison amicale entre eux : *dina*, mon homonyme; (rac. *gwila*, nommer, *gwita*, nom).

i-lima, n. pl. **bi-** ; année (pour les pounous, une saison des pluies et la saison sèche qui la suit comptent pour deux années ; cependant ce nom tend à prendre le sens d'année solaire.)

djiba, n. sans plur; gourmandise ; *mungo djiba*, gourmand (adonné à la gourmandise) ; (rac .2^e *gwiba*, dérober ; la gourmandise est considérée comme un vol commis au détriment de la communauté.

- LPF also includes additional data of a grammatical nature in the microstructural treatment of certain lemmata in order to help the user to know the usage of these lemmata. Articles such as *ne*, and *o* of the LPF contain grammatical data in addition.

ne; 1^o conj.de temps; avant que; *ne* conjonction de temps est toujours suivi du temps narratif ; ex : *ne tu kë djyaba matsanda, tu ma le dwara bangombu*, avant que nous connaissions les pagnes d'étoffe, nous nous sommes habillés de pagnes en raphia. *Ne ndau au dji kë suka u rungu, ñi u ke fwila*, avant que ta maison soit terminée de construire, je mourrai.

2⁰ conj. alternative: ne... ne, ou...ou ; ex : *ne ndedjyu, ne Mombu, u mosi a tsi daga*, ou toi ou Mombou, l'un de vous a volé.

3⁰ ne suivi d'un adject. num. cardinal est adverbe et prend le sens de : à peu près, environ ; ex : *ne magu'ma bedji ma banzau ba tsi vyoga gunu na kedi*, à peu près vingt éléphants sont passés par ici, ce matin.

o ; o, prép. de lieu, se traduit par à ou de, selon le sens du verbe ; ex. *ñi ruyi o manungi*, je viens de la plantation ; mais : *ñi wendi o manungi*, je vais à la plantation ; quand la phrase n'exprime pas le mouvement, o se traduit par à, dans Ex. *ñi tsani o ndau djidji*, je demeure dans cette case-ci.

o ; o introduit plusieurs locutions prépositives dont voici les principales :

o gari, à l'intérieur de, au fond de, dans ;

ex : *o gari disu*, au fond de l'oeil ;

o mugula, à l'écart de, en dehors de ; ex. :

o mugula nzila, en dehors du sentier ;

o tsi, sous ; ex. : *o tsi itsiga*, sous le lit

o djyulu ndau, sur ; sur le dessus de ; ex. : *o djyulu ndau*, sur la case ;

o nzima, derrière, en arrière de, après ;

ex. : *o nzima mukongu*, derrière la montagne ;

o nzima ami, après moi (mon départ)

o usu, devant ; *Kasa a ka o usu etu*, Kasa est devant nous.

o mbuga, chez ; ex : *o mbu'andi*, chez lui.

o ; o est aussi pronom personnel de la 3^e personne du futur singulier ; ex : *Nzamba o sala mugesu*, Nzamba il travaillera demain (o est alors une crase de $a + u = o$, voir grammaire conjugaison).

o ; o est le pronom relatif personnel singulier ; *mugetu o tsi ruga na kedi, a na pura neni*, la femme qui est venue ce matin a une grosse plaie.

2.2.1.5 The treatment of special field-terms

Special field-terms are marked by means of lexicographical labels namely labels for special field activity (sorcellerie “*sorcery*”; anatomie “*anatomy*”).

2.2.1.6 Other dictionary structures

LPF contains a front matter and a central list. It does not have back matter texts or a frame structure.

2.2.1.6.1 The front matter

The front matter of the LPF contains only one text, an introduction to the lexicon Pounou-Français made by the author, Father Bonneau.

2.2.1.6.2 Guide structures

The metalexicographical term *guide structures* refer to the set of structures that provides a framework within which the accessibility and availability of information types in the dictionary can be evaluated. The guide structures include structures such as access structure, addressing structure and mediostructure. The LPF is mono-accessible; one can have access to the dictionary only through the macrostructure. From an accessibility point of view, the LPF includes a thumb index, an alphabetical letter indicating the beginning of a new article stretch, which is regarded as a road sign, according to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:167).

The example below from the LPF illustrates the point in question:

D

dabula, v. tr; retirer du feu, de l'intérieur d'un récipient, de l'eau :
(rac. *duba*, plonger dans l'eau : *dubula* est inversif).

With regard to the addressing structure and the lemmatic addressing, the articles of the LPF display a lemmatic addressing because data, such as the part of speech, translation equivalent and usage examples, are addressed at the lemma. The LPF does not include sublemmata. As a result, the LPF does not display any sublemmatic addressing. As far as the non-lemmatic addressing is concerned, the LPF includes cultural data, which is not directed at the lemma.

Concerning the mediostructure, LPF utilises a system of cross-referencing by synonyms. For example:

<p>fimba, voir <i>fwimba</i></p> <p>fimbana, voir <i>fwimbana</i></p> <p>fini, voir <i>fwini</i></p> <p>ndosi, n.pl. ma- ou ba- voir <i>dora</i></p>
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The addressing structure and mediostructure of the LPF are organised in arbitrary and inconsistent ways.

2. 2.1.7 Concluding remarks

The LPF is an interesting intuition-based bilingual work. It gives some practical lexicographic procedures for Yipunu, such as the lemmatisation of verbs and of adjectives on the stem, the lemmatisation of both singular and plural noun forms or of the singular noun form only. It also gives the types of lemmata (lexical lemmata, sublexical lemmata, multilexical lemmata) found in the LPF; the data categories provided in the microstructure. However, the LPF fails in terms of planning of the structures of the dictionary namely the macrostructure, microstructure, mediostructure and access structure.

2.2.2 The DFY/YF

Like the LPF, the DFY/YF is an intuition-based bilingual work. Missionaries particularly American missionaries, compiled the DFY/YF. Contrary to the LPF, the

DFY/YF is biscopal (French-Yipunu/ Yipunu-French). It is a translation dictionary strictly presenting translation equivalents with no further lexicographic treatment. Mihindou (2001:26–35) has critically discussed the DFY/YF. Mabika Mbokou (2006b:104–120) has proposed, in the light of metalexicographical principles, how it can be revised. Here, the critical discussion of the DFY/YF will focus on the strong and weak points of this bilingual work. This discussion will also compare some aspects of the LFP and the DFY/YF. In addition, I will make a comparison between some Yipunu words in the DFY/YF and those words used today.

2.2.2.1 Strong and weak points of the DFY/YF

One of the interesting points of the DFY/YF is that the two word lists use different procedures for the inclusion of verbs in the two word list sections. The verbs are included in their infinitive form with the verbal prefix *u* in the word list section French-Yipunu (F-Y). In contrast, the DFY/YF lemmatises all the Yipunu verbs according to their stem form in the Y-F section.

The following examples illustrate the point in question:

<u>F-Y section</u>	<u>Y-F section</u>
Entrer – ukota	diungila – petiller
Entretenir – uwarisa	diungisa – gaspiller, dissiper
Entrevoir – ulaba yika kuasa	doda – becqueter
Enumérer – utala	dodamina – regarder par un trou
Envahir – ugumba	dodisa – louer

However, this approach could cause confusion for users, because the compilers do not explain the treatment of verbs in the front matter.

Another interesting point is that the DFY/YF is a container of the vocabulary of the Yipunu language. For instance, some Yipunu words and their English equivalents for the measurement of time found in the French-Yipunu section of the DFY/ YF.

French	English	Yipunu
Jour	Day	<i>Yilumbu</i>
Journalier	Daily	<i>Kadi yilumbu, yilumbu na yilumbu</i>
Mois	month	<i>Tsungi, ngondi, muweli</i>
Mensuel	monthly	<i>Tsungi na tsungu</i>
Année	year	<i>Yilima, mupuma</i>
Annuel	A year	<i>Yilima na yilima</i>
annuel	Annual, yearly	<i>Yilima na yilima</i>

French	English	Yipunu
Hier	Yesterday	<i>masiga</i>
Aujourd'hui	Today	<i>Namunyi, na nyangu</i>
Demain	Tomorrow	<i>mugesu</i>
Après-demain	The day after tomorrow	<i>Muna mosi</i>
Matin	Morning	<i>keci</i>
Midi	Midday	<i>mwangulu</i>
Après-midi	Afternoon	<i>murekumunu</i>
Soir	Evening	<i>mukolu</i>
Minuit	Midnight	<i>Mangulu mukolu</i>

French	English	Yipunu
Heure	hour	<i>diweru</i>
Minute	minute	<i>Yiduku yi diweru</i>
Seconde	second	<i>Yibuku yi diweru</i> Literally “the pieces, fragments of hour”

However, one of the obvious shortcomings observed in the DFY/YF is the inconsistency with regard to the reversibility principle. One notes a lack of conformity

in the DFY/YF. What appears on the one side (X-Y), does not always appear on the other side (Y-X). This refers to the reversibility principle:

It means that lexical item A included as translation equivalent of lemma B in the (X-Y) section of a bi-directional translation dictionary, has to be included as a lemma in the (Y-X) section of the dictionary with at least the lexical item B, the relevant lemma from the X-Y section, as one of its translation equivalents. Each lexical item included as a translation equivalent in the Y-X section, has to be included as lemma in the X-Y section of the dictionary with at least the respective lemma from the X-Y section as translation equivalent” (cf. Brand 2000:13).

I support the following argument presented by Mabika Mbokou (2006b:111):

The French-Yipunu section contains 74% of the lemmas while the other 26% are found in the Yipunu-French section ... The fact is that of the 8829 lemmas treated in the dictionary only 2288 are found in the Yipunu-French section, while the French-Yipunu section has 6541 lemmas. This means that the French-Yipunu section contains more than twice the number of entries given in the Yipunu-French section.

Another weak point of this work at the microstructural level is that the translation equivalents are given without their usage examples. The treatment of synonyms is not done according to their senses. This does not help the user in choosing the right word for the right usage context.

2.2.2.2 Comparison between LPF and DFY/YF

A comparison between the LPF and the DFY/YF articles stretches reveals that there are differences and similarities.

- As LPF, DFY/YF lists 19 alphabetical categories, which are A, B, D, F, G, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, T, U, V, W and Y.

<i>LPF</i>	A	B	D	E	F	G	I	K	L	M	N	O	P	R	S	T	V	W	Y
<i>DFY/YF</i>	A	B	D	F	G	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	R	S	T	U	V	W	Y

- Both LPF and DFY/YF list the alphabetical categories A, B, D, F, G, K, L, M, N, O, P, R, S, T, V, W, Y in Yipunu.
- LPF lists the letters E and I, but DFY/YF does not.

The articles stretch of the letter E in LPF contains only one lemma. Some lemmata listed under the letter I in LPF are under the letter Y in the section Y-F of DFY/YF.

For instance, the lemmata *ibamba*, *ibedu* and *ibidu* in LPF are *yibamba*, *yibendu*, and *yibidu* in the DFY/YF. The lexicographer is dealing, in this present case, with a difference in spelling of Yipunu. The DFY/YF based its compilation on Yipunu spoken in Mouila (Ngounié province) and the LPF on Yipunu spoken in Tchibanga (Nyanga province). As a result, the lexicographer is dealing with regional variants too.

The letters J and U listed in DFY/YF are not in the LPF. In fact, the lemmata that start with J in the DFY/YF are under the letter D in the LPF. The lemmata *ji*, *jiba* and *julu* of the DFY/YF correspond to lemmata *dji*, *djiba*, and *djulu*. The letter J in DFY/YF corresponds to DJ in the LPF.

Let us note that these dictionaries propose two different alphabets and orthographies: A Catholic alphabet based on French sounds and letters proposed by Bonneau and a Protestant alphabet of Yipunu proposed by American missionaries of the Christian Missionary Alliance. There is therefore a need for the standardisation of Yipunu orthography. It is also interesting to compare the number of lemmata (in percentage) of each alphabetical category in the LPF and the DFY/YF (Yipunu-French section).

	LPF	DFY/YF
A	0.25	0.54
B	7.85	9.55
D	16.62	15.84
E	0.03	

F	2.92	1.71
G	4	3.48
I	10.45	
J		0.5
K	6	5.36
L	2.95	2.85
M	15.76	17.27
N	7.42	6.54
O	0.12	0.16
P	4	3.89
R	2.77	1.63
S	5.3	7.50
T	7.2	5.99
U		0.29
V	4.09	3.35
W	1.46	1.63
Y	0.77	11.82

As mentioned above, B, D, I, K, M, N, S and T are the alphabetical categories that have a large number of lemmata and A, E, F, G, L, O, P, R, V, W and Y have small numbers in LPF. The number of lemmata in LPF and DFY/YF are quite similar. The alphabetical categories B, D, K, M, N, S, T in both the LPF and DFY/YF contain a large number of lemmata. In contrast, the alphabetical categories A, F, G, L, O, P, R, V and W contain a small number of lemmata in the LPF and the DFY/YF. The letters J and U have a small number of lemmata, but the letter Y is a long alphabetical category in DFY/YF.

2.2.2.3 Yipunu words of DFY and those used today

Here the idea is to compare some Yipunu words in the DFY/YF used in 1966 with Yipunu words used today, using words for the measurement of time (days of the week and months of the year) as illustrations.

The days of the week according to the DFY/YF (1966)

French	English	Yipunu	Meaning
Lundi	Monday	<i>Yilumbu yi mubeji ji yitsona</i>	“The second day of the week”
Mardi	Tuesday	<i>Yilumbu yi murieru yitsona</i>	“The third day of the week”
Mercredi	Wednesday	<i>Yilumbi yimuina yitsona</i>	“The fourth day of the week”
Jeudi	Thursday	<i>Yilumbu yimuranu yitsona</i>	“The fifth day of the week”
Vendredi	Friday	<i>Yilumbu yi musiamunu yitsona</i>	“The sixth day of the week”
Samedi	Saturday	<i>Yilumbu yi musambuali mu tsona</i>	“The seventh day of the week”
Dimanche	Sunday	<i>Yilumbu yi tsona</i>	The day of “Tsona” (borrowed from English ‘Sunday’)

The months of the year according to the DFY/YF (1966)

French	English	Yipunu	Meaning
janvier	January	<i>Tsungi jiteja jiyilima</i>	“The first month of the year”
février	February	<i>Tsungi aji mubeji mu yilima</i>	“The second month of the year”
mars	March	<i>Tsungi jimurieru mu yilima</i>	“The third month of the year”
avril	April	<i>Tsungi jimuina mu yilima</i>	“The fourth month of the year”
mai	May	<i>Tsungi jimuranu mu yilima</i>	“The fifth month of the year”
juin	June	<i>Tsungi yimusamunu mu yilima</i>	“The sixth month of the year”
juillet	July	<i>Tsungi jimusambuali mu</i>	“The seventh month of the year”

		<i>yilima</i>	
août	August	<i>Tsungi jimunana mu yilima</i>	“The eighth month of the year”
septembre	September	<i>Tsungi ji musambuali</i>	“The ninth month of the year”
octobre	October	<i>Tsungi jimuyigumi mu yilima</i>	“The tenth month of the year”
novembre	November	<i>Tsungi jiyigumi na mosi mu yilima</i>	“The eleventh month of the year”
décembre	December	<i>Tsungi jiusita jiyilima</i>	“The last month of the year”

From an historical point of view, this data is interesting in the study of language change in order to investigate if the Bapunu people still use these terms or use others through the time. Fondation Raponda Walker (1995: 79) lists the days of the week and the months of the year in Yipunu as follows:

Les jours de la semaine / the days of the week (Fondation Raponda Walker 1995: 79)

lundi/Monday	<i>lendi</i>
mardi/Tuesday	<i>mardi</i>
mercredi/Wednesday	<i>gari tsonë</i>
jeudi/Thursday	<i>sedi</i>
vendredi/Friday	<i>venderedi</i>
samedi/Saturday	<i>samidi</i>
dimanche/Sunday	<i>tsonë</i>

For the days of the week, one can therefore remark that the Bapunu people are still using the term *tsonë* (*tsona*) found in the DFY/YF (1966) for Sunday. For Wednesday, the Bapunu use the term *gari tsonë*, meaning “the middle of the week”.

I have observed that old and adult Bapunu people mostly use the term *gari tsonë* and the young use the term *Mercredi*.

Les mois de l'année / the months of the year (Fondation Raponda Walker, 1995)

<i>French/English</i>	<i>Yipunu</i>
Janvier/January	<i>savie</i>
Février/February	<i>feveri</i>
Mars/March	<i>mars</i>
Avril/April	<i>aviril</i>
Mai/May	<i>mé</i>
Juin/June	<i>Suin /mukakunu fule na mangele</i>
Juillet/July	<i>siye</i>
Août/August	<i>wut</i>
Septembre/September	<i>sempetembere</i>
Octobre/October	<i>okutobere</i>
Novembre/November	<i>novuambere</i>
Décembre/December	<i>desembere</i>

Nowadays, the Bapunu use the Yipunu adapted forms borrowed from French for the months of the year. For the month of *June*, the Bapunu use the Yipunu adapted borrowed form *suin* of the French *juin* or the expression *mukakunu fule na mangele*, which means “the separation between the raining season and the dry season (one)”. Once again, the young Bapunu people mostly use *suin* and the old Bapunu people prefer the use of *mukakunu fule na mangele*.

2.2.2.4 Concluding remarks

The DFY/YF provides remarkable data for historical and comparative lexicographic studies at macrostructural level. Despite some inconsistencies and shortcomings, this bilingual publication remains an interesting source of the Yipunu vocabulary during the period of 1966. Although this publication is described as a dictionary, it is in fact only a glossary.

2.3 Lexicographic needs of Yipunu

The preceding section has critically discussed the lexicographic works of Yipunu, and concluded that all these works compiled by missionaries are intuition-based. The Yipunu lexicography needs corpus-based or corpus-assisted/aided dictionaries compiled by mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu. The lexicographic needs of Yipunu are various and cannot all be discussed here. The focus will therefore be on some of the major needs.

2.3.1 Need for lexicographic training

The Gabonese lexicography gives the highest priority to training (Emejulu 2003:205). Ten Gabonese students have registered for a doctoral programme in metalexigraphy at the University of Stellenbosch, South Africa, under the guidance of Professor R.H. Gouws. At this stage, six students have completed their doctorates and four are in process. The Yipunu speech community currently has two doctoral graduates who have acquired theoretical skills on how to compile bilingual dictionaries and specialised dictionaries respectively. These lexicographers must put into practice these lexicographical theories in order to produce dictionaries. However, more lexicographers are needed for the Yipunu language because the compilation of the proposed dictionary requires people trained both in theoretical and practical lexicography.

The current Gabonese lexicographers had training in linguistics. According to Gates (1983:83), “grounding in linguistics and computer science is useful for the kind of preparation lexicographers do need ... Those who plan and build the database for a dictionary need training in linguistic fieldwork – preferably in lexicographic data collection.” I strongly support the proposal of Botha and Botha (1998:276–281) that a training course in computer lexicography should form part of the training of members of the Yipunu dictionary project (the proposed dictionary).

Computer lexicography training represents one field of mutual interest for all projects. Computer training gives particular attention to language material collection and

editorial processing. Some basic principles of database and corpus design and their use are discussed. It also deals with the making of structured manuscript in a database and tagged text environment.

Because past Yipunu dictionaries failed in terms of planning, a course in the planning and management of a lexicographic project is necessary in the training of members of the future Yipunu dictionary project. Van Schalkwyk (1999:198) points out that lexicographers should not neglect planning and management, which are important activities in lexicography. Planning helps one to adapt to change and to reduce uncertainty; it focuses the enterprise's attention on its objectives, improves performance and makes financial control possible; it guides the manager's effort, is a prerequisite for control and ensures coordinated actions (cf Kroon et al. 1994:127).

Concerning the training programme, Gouws (2001b:61) points out that it can consist of at least three main phases: general lexicographic and metalexicographic training; training within language families (Bantu family and Merye language-unit); and language-specific training (Yipunu). In the Gabonese context, language-specific training should precede training within language families. With regard to training within language families in the Gabonese context, studies are primarily required in order to highlight what these languages have in common, and in the lexicographic treatment of similar problems lexicographers can face and solutions for these problems. The general lexicographic and metalexicographic training includes topics like the following (cf. Gouws 2001b:62):

- Different types of dictionaries
- The structure of dictionaries
- The compilation of an instruction book for a given dictionary
- Different types of lemmata
- Selecting the lemmata for a specific dictionary
- Different ways to order the lemmata
- Different types of data categories in a dictionary
- How to write a dictionary definition

- How to indicate the correct pronunciation

2.3.2. Need for a dictionary unit

A lexicographic unit is advisable to cater for the needs of Yipunu. A lexicographic unit is a structure that aims at the practical production of dictionaries. I strongly support the idea of creating lexicographic units in Gabon. Emejulu (2000:61) stresses that,

to satisfy the needs as far as dictionaries and derived products are concerned, essential supports for the development and standardization of the languages, it is of an absolute necessity to create lexicographical units through the whole territory of Gabon, and this, according to the specific needs of the languages and the speech communities.⁶

As far as the South African environment is concerned, the government of South Africa in 1995 established PanSALB (Pan South African Language Board) for the South African languages in order to support multilingualism and develop formerly marginalised languages. Thanks to this project, a lexicographic unit for each of the 11 official languages of South Africa, namely IsiZulu, IsiXhosa, Afrikaans, Sepedi, English, Setswana, Sesotho, Xitsonga, Siswati, Tshivenda and IsiNdebele, were established.

Ekwa Ebanéga and Tomba Moussavou (2006a:247) point out that a project like PanSALB will result in the preservation of Gabonese linguistic diversity and the establishment of 11 lexicographic units based on Kwenzi Mikala's 10 language-units.

These lexicographic units are as follows:

- Mazuna Lexicographic Unit
- Myene Lexicographic Unit
- Mekana Mena Lexicographic Unit

⁶ own translation from French to English

- Mekona-Mangote Lexicographic Unit
- Membe Lexicographic Unit
- Merye Lexicographic Unit
- Metye Lexicographic Unit
- Membere Lexicographic Unit
- Makena Lexicographic Unit
- Baka Lexicographic Unit
- French Lexicographic Unit

The lexicographic unit of French will also take into account the variety of French of Gabon. The lexicographic unit of French will be located in Libreville, the capital of Gabon. Concerning the location of the other lexicographic units, I share Emejulu's (2001:50) opinion that it is more practical and economical to establish the lexicographic units in the localities where the language groups are identified. The lexicographic units will be located near the Provincial Academies in other provinces than the province of Haut-Ogooué. The lexicographic unit will be installed within the Université des Sciences et Techniques de Masuku in Franceville in the province of Haut-Ogooué. Each province will have a major lexicographic unit or units and will include some sub-structures of other lexicographic units, given the fact that some speech forms of language-groups are cross -provincial.

I suggest the 11 lexicographic units and their location in 9 provinces of Gabon in the following table:

Provinces of Gabon	Principal lexicographic units	Sub-structures of other lexicographic units
1. <i>Estuaire</i>	French (includes the Standard French and the French of Gabon)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mazuna - Myene - Mekona-Mangote - Mekana-Menaa

2. <i>Haut-ogooué</i>	Membere	- Mekana-Menna - Mekona-Mangote - Metye
3. <i>Moyen-ogooué</i>	Mekana-Menna	- Mazuna - Myene
4. <i>Ngounié</i>	Membe	- Mekana-Menna - Mekona-Mangote - Merye
5. <i>Nyanga</i>	Merye	- Membe (Getsogho) - Metye (Yibongo)
6. <i>Ogooué-Ivindo</i>	Mekana Mekona-Mangote	- Mazuna - Mekana-Menna - Membe
7. <i>Ogooué-lolo</i>	Metye	- Mekana-Menna - Mekona-Mangote - Membe - Merye
8. <i>Ogooué-Maritime</i>	Myene	- Merye
9. <i>Woleu Ntem</i>	Mazuna Baka	

The lexicographic unit *Merye*, which is located in the Nyanga province (5), will produce dictionaries in Yipunu.

One of the tasks is to assume responsibility for the development of corpora of the Gabonese languages, of Merye languages and of Yipunu in particular. One of the challenges that the lexicographers working on Yipunu will face with corpus development is the building of representative corpora. A corpus should be representative in terms of spoken and of written texts. In the terms of De Schryver and Prinsloo (2000), *representative*

... is covering what they judge to be the typical and central aspects of the language and providing enough occurrences of words and phrases for the lexicographers ... to believe that they have sufficient evidence from the corpus to make accurate statements about lexical behaviour.

The corpus is useful in dictionary making in the sense that it assists the lexicographer in the selection of lemmata and in the finding and ordering of hundreds of senses and sub-senses of a word. I will discuss the usefulness of corpora with special reference to Yipunu in more detail in Chapter 5 of this research.

With reference to South African National Lexicography Units (SANLUs), Mongwe (2006:38) points out that the selection of lemmata is one of the challenges that lexicographers are facing. The other challenges of the SANLUs in terms of Mongwe (2006:38-43) are as follows:

- To change the mindset of the respective speech communities
- The lack of a dictionary culture
- Funds
- User-friendliness in dictionaries
- Dictionary programmes and computerisation
- The future of the staff members of the SANLUs as far as their status of employment is concerned

In addition to corpus building, the Gabonese Lexicographic Units might also face challenges similar to those faced by the SANLUs. The GLUs and SANLUs should cooperate in future in order to share experiences, to solve similar problems and to produce user-friendly dictionaries.

2.3.3 Need for different types of dictionaries

The Yipunu lexicography needs various types of dictionaries aimed at specific target users.

- Yipunu lexicography needs corpus-based or corpus-assisted/aided dictionaries compiled by mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu.
- Yipunu lexicography needs dictionaries presented in a traditional printed form or in a sophisticated electronic form, particularly an electronic dictionary that enables the user to hear the pronunciation of words through speakers attached

to his/her computer by simply (double) clicking on the phonetic transcription on a specially designed icon. An example is the electronic Portuguese dictionary *Diciopédia, Grande dicionário enciclopédico multimédia* (1997). Yipunu electronic dictionaries should not be a replication of printed dictionaries because too often electronic dictionaries are variants of printed dictionaries.

- Monolingual and bilingual dictionaries are required. Yipunu bilingual dictionaries should precede monolingual ones. I support Afane-Otsaga's (2004) argument that biscopal dictionaries or monoscopal dictionaries with French as source language could be compiled for Yipunu.
- Standard dictionaries are necessary given the fact that Yipunu needs a standard variety, which, according to Gallardo (1980:59), is a codified form of a language, accepted by and serving as a model to a large speech community. Standard dictionaries play a crucial role in the standardisation of a language like Yipunu.
- Synchronic and diachronic dictionaries are required too. Diachronic dictionaries of Yipunu deal with the development of the Yipunu lexicon, whereas Yipunu synchronic dictionaries, such as the MDDPSVY, focus on the lexical stock of a language at one stage in its development.
- Yipunu school and learner's dictionaries are indispensable because Yipunu is taught at school as a subject. In this regard, Mabika Mbokou (2006a) has designed a theoretical model for the macro- and microstructures of a Yipunu-French School Dictionary.
- In the international context, bilingual and multilingual dictionaries with Yipunu, French and English are vital. With regard to multilingual dictionaries, Mavoungou (2001a) has presented the challenges of globalisation with special reference to dictionary making in Gabon. Thus, Mavoungou (2002b) has formulated some metalexigraphic criteria for the compilation of a trilingual Yilumbu-English-French dictionary. This model for Yilumbu can be useful for

multilingual dictionaries for Yipunu. In fact, Yilumbu is a sister-language of Yipunu and belongs to the Merye language group. For Yipunu, I recommend that the compilation of a trilingual Yipunu-French-English due to the fact that a model for the compilation of a Yipunu-French school dictionary has already been designed. In the multilingual context of Gabon, multilingual dictionaries with Yipunu, French and other Gabonese languages are required. In addition, language-unit dictionaries such as the one of the Merye group are important. Merye dictionaries that emphasise the closeness of the Merye languages are necessary.

- General and technical dictionaries are crucial. As far as technical dictionaries are concerned, Mihindou (2006) has drawn up a theoretical model of a Language for Special Purposes Yipunu dictionary with special reference to the field of Medicine. The proposed dictionary under discussion in this dissertation is a general dictionary. This listing is not exhaustive; other types of dictionaries for Yipunu may be required.

2.3.4 Need for user education

I agree with Nyangone Assam and Mavoungou (2000:226) “there is a lack of a dictionary culture as far as lexicographic needs of Gabonese languages are concerned.” This is particularly true for Yipunu. Therefore, there is a need for user education in Gabon. Hartmann and James (1998:152) define *user education* as “the training of users in the *reference skills* in response to *reference needs*.” The *reference skills* are “the abilities required on the part of the dictionary user to find the *information* being sought”. The *reference needs* are “the circumstances that drive individuals to seek *information* in *reference works* such as *dictionaries*” (Hartmann & James 1998:116-117). The users of dictionaries in Yipunu must be educated about the need for the acquisition of dictionaries and dictionary use. Users must learn to cultivate a habit of using a dictionary in their own language. User education must first target the teachers. I agree with Hadebe (2004:90), who argues that, “by training teachers to be good users themselves, it is envisaged that they could pass these skills on to students and eventually to society in general.” I will discuss user education in

more detail in Chapter 4.

2.3.5 Need for a standard language

It has been established that there is a need for a standard orthography for Yipunu, which is a vital aspect of dictionary compilation. Hartmann and James (1998:131) define standardisation as a collective term for those processes, which bring about uniformity in language by reducing diversity of usage. According to Brann (1975), there are some indicators available to evaluate the level of standardisation of a language. They are the following:

A. Language analysis

1. Phonology
2. Grammar
3. Dictionary
4. Orthography

B. Publications

5. Primary education handbook
6. Reading textbook
7. Oral literature/written literature
8. Creative literature

C. Mass media

9. Radio
10. Daily newspaper
11. Weekly magazine
12. Periodical

D. Education (schooling)

13. Average primary education
14. Primary school subject
15. Secondary school subject
16. University subject

I will give a detailed discussion of these aspects of the standardisation of Yipunu, particularly the Language Analysis (A), in the following chapter.

2.4 Conclusion

The critical analysis of lexicographic works in Yipunu demonstrates the following premise: Practical lexicography precedes theoretical lexicography. The lexicographic works of Yipunu are externally motivated lexicographic endeavours. The mother-tongue speakers did not compile these works, but the missionaries. These works belong to the era before corpus-based dictionaries and they are intuition-based. They provide interesting information about the culture and the Yipunu language, and lay down some foundations for a practical Yipunu lexicography. These lexicographic foundations concern the stem lemmatisation of verbs, the different types of lemmata and the microstructural data categories. The missionaries have left the community of the Bapunu of Gabon an important linguistic heritage. The idiomatic and proverbial expressions of Yipunu can be passed from generation to generation. These works are interesting historical lexicographic sources of Yipunu. However, the lexicographic works of Yipunu are characterised by arbitrariness and inconsistency. Future Yipunu dictionaries need a uniform character; they should rely on consistently applied metalexigraphical principles and based on corpora. There is a need to incorporate the data on pronunciation, which is completely unknown in Yipunu dictionaries of the past. There is also a need for a standard orthography of Yipunu. As far as special field terms are concerned, future dictionaries of Yipunu should not restrict themselves to the field of anatomy, sorcery and Christian religion. They should embrace other special field terms.

From a theoretical point of view, the critical dictionary research of Wiegand must be developed further and taken into account when criticising dictionaries as regards not only the microstructure and the macrostructure, but also other dictionary structures, namely access structure, mediostucture, addressing structure and frame structure. In addition, critical dictionary research should be done according to the type of dictionary. A bilingual dictionary could criticise procedures of translation and a monolingual dictionary could criticise procedures of defining.

This chapter has shown the major lexicographic needs of Yipunu, which are lexicographic training, the creation of a dictionary unit, the compilation of different types of dictionaries, user education and a standard variety of Yipunu. Financial and human resources are indispensable in the lexicography of Yipunu. Infrastructure and facilities have to be provide to develop this language. An adequate supply of computers and software suitable to the structure of Yipunu is also required. Yipunu lexicography needs financial support to supply all these needs.

CHAPTER 3: ASPECTS OF THE STANDARDISATION OF YIPUNU

3.0 Introduction

The proposed dictionary deals with the presentation of the standard variety of Yipunu and will consequently make a contribution to the standardisation of Yipunu. This chapter will discuss aspects of standardisation by focusing on certain levels of the standardisation of Yipunu. In this chapter, I will consider one of Brann's (1975) indicators, namely language analysis, to evaluate the level of standardisation of Yipunu. The language analysis encompasses the following four constituents: phonology, grammar, dictionary and orthography. Each constituent will be discussed with special reference to Yipunu.

3.1 The Phonology (and the Phonetics) of Yipunu

Yipunu encompasses several phonological descriptions (Bonneau 1956; Kwenzi Mikala 1980a; 1980b; 1990b). These phonological descriptions include aspects such as vowels, consonants and tones.

Yipunu has the following five main vowels and their respective long vowels:

i	u	ii	uu
e	o	ee	oo
a			aa

The vowels of Yipunu are realised as short and long.

The following are the short vowels:

- /i/ [i] unrounded closed, short, front vowel
- /e/ unrounded short, sometimes is realised as closed [e], sometimes as opened [ɛ]

- /a/ short vowel is realised as [a], sometimes as [ə]
- /o/ is realised unrounded, short, back vowel sometimes closed [o], sometimes opened [ɔ]
- /u/ is realised as a short, unrounded, back vowel

The Yipunu long vowels are realised as follows:

- /ii/ is realised as a long, closed, unrounded front vowel
- /ee/ is realised as a long, unrounded front vowel sometimes [ee], sometimes [εε]
- /aa/ is realised as a long vowel opened [aa]; this phoneme is never realised [ə]
- /oo/ is realised as a long, rounded back vowel, sometimes [oo], sometimes [ɔɔ]
- /uu/ is realised as a long rounded back vowel [uu]

The consonantal classification of Yipunu is presented as follows:

	Labials	Apicals	Postals
Africates		ts	j
Orals	p b f β	t d s r	k ɣ
Mid-nasals	mb mv	nd nz	ng
Nasals	m	n	ny
Sonants	w	l	y

- The phoneme /mv/ is realised as a fricative labio-dental prenasal; it is realised sometimes as voiced [mf], sometimes [mv]; [mf] and [mv] are variant.
- The phoneme /nz/ is realised as a fricative apico-alveolar prenasal, sometimes voiced [ns], sometimes voicing [nz]; [ns] and [nz] are variants.
- The phoneme [j] is realised as a voicing affricative postalatal [dʒ]
- The phoneme [ɣ] is realised as oral voicing occlusive postalveolar [ɣ] before /a/, /e/, /o/ and /u/ and y before /i/.

Yipunu is a tone language, which means that tones have a distinctive function. The different tones encountered in Yipunu are as follows:

- The extra high tone indicated by the following sign (´´)
- The high tone indicated by the sign of the acute accent (´)
- The low tone indicated by the sign of the grave accent (`)
- The falling tone indicated by the sign of the circumflex accent (^)
- The rising tone indicated by the reversed circumflex accent (˘)

According to Bonneau (1956), Yipunu is an open syllable language. The syllable in Yipunu is composed of:

- a vowel, e.g. ‘a’
- a consonant followed by a vowel ‘ba’
- a double consonant (*ts*, *nz*) followed by a vowel
- any vowel at the beginning of a word that forms an independent syllable, like *i.du.ka* ‘idiot’, *i.tsa.nu.nu* ‘seat’

The existing phonological and phonetic descriptions of Yipunu briefly discuss aspects of stress and word division in Yipunu. The proposed dictionary will contribute to the phonology of Yipunu by indicating the stress and word division of Yipunu words included in it. This point will be discussed more comprehensively in Chapter 7. The following section will offer a discussion on grammar, the second constituent of the language analysis.

3.2 The Grammar of Yipunu

The existing grammar of Yipunu is the *Grammaire Pounoue* of Bonneau mentioned in Chapter 1. This grammar deals with the Pounou phonetics (alphabet, syllabus, consonants, etc.), vocabulary, gender of nouns, relationship between nouns and other terms. Another noteworthy work that contains some grammatical features of Yipunu is *Elements de description du Punu*. This work treats issues regarding phonology, tonology, a restricted lexicon of words fulfilling certain criteria, some aspects of morphology and syntax, such as numeration, relativisation and conjugation, and

provides a comparative study of some Proto-Bantu reflexes in Punu. *Elements de description du Punu* adds the tonal dimension of Yipunu, which the *Grammaire Pounoue* did not take into account. These works are bilingual publications (French-Yipunu) and use French terminology to describe Yipunu. Yipunu lacks a proper grammar terminology.

3.2.1 The grammatical categories and sub-categories found in Yipunu

According to Bonneau (1956), the grammatical categories found in Yipunu are the noun, verb, adjective, pronoun, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection. The following section will offer a detailed discussion of these grammatical categories and their sub-categories.

3.2.1.1 The noun

According to Bonneau (1956:12), the noun in Yipunu consists of a stem and affixes.

3.2.1.1.1 The nominal stem

The syllabic structures of the nominal stem are as follows:

- CV (consonant and a vowel)
- CVC (consonant-vowel-consonant)
- CVNC (a consonant, a vowel, a nasal and a consonant)
- CYVC or CWVC (a consonant-a semi-vowel Y or W after the first consonant, a vowel and a consonant)
- VC (vowel and a consonant)

For example, *pa* has the meaning of ‘separation’

yibagha ‘wall’

mupanda ‘plait’

murambu ‘trap’

upyeta ‘to press something on’

utswigha ‘to bury’

dwala ‘nail’

3.2.1.1.2 The affixes

The affixes differentiate between the nouns and the verbs and adjectives of the same stem. The affixes are prefixed or suffixed to the stem. The affixes consist of a vowel, a consonant, a syllable composed of vowel and consonant.

3 2.1.1.2.1 The nominal suffixes

I will focus on the vocalic suffixes, which are *-a*, *-i* and *-u*. For example,

dibak-a ‘cut’

dulim-i ‘tongue’

mufuts-i ‘liar’ comes from the verb *ufura* ‘to lie’

mulinz-i ‘traveller’ from the verb *ulingha* ‘to travel’

dipalul-u ‘exit, way out’ from the verb *upala* ‘to leave, to come out’

yibed-u ‘sick person’ from the verb *ubela* ‘to be sick’

3.2.1.1.2.2 The nominal prefixes

All nouns in Yipunu have a prefix. The nominal prefix (henceforth NP) gives a precision on the meaning of the stem. For example, with the stem *ghatsi*, the different prefixes give the following senses:

Yighatsi, (*ighatsi*) ‘bunch of palm nuts’

nghatsi ‘palm nut’

matsi maghatsi ‘palm oil’

Similar to many Bantu languages, the system of classes ranges the nominal prefixes in Yipunu. These classes are subdivided into singular and plural. The nominal prefixes of Yipunu are as follows:

Classes	Nominal prefixes	Singular(sg)/Plural(pl)
1	<i>mu-</i>	sg
2	<i>ba-</i>	pl
3	<i>mu-</i>	sg
4	<i>mi-</i>	pl
5	<i>di-</i>	sg
6	<i>ma-</i>	pl
7	<i>yi-</i>	sg
8	<i>bi</i>	pl
9	<i>n-</i>	sg
10	<i>n-</i>	pl
11	<i>du-</i>	sg
14	<i>bu-</i>	pl
15	<i>u-</i>	Infinitive verbal
16	<i>va-</i>	locative
17	<i>o-</i>	locative
18	<i>mu-</i>	locative

The nominal prefix (*u-*) of class 15 is the initial of the infinitive of the verb. Classes 15, 16, 17 and 18 are known as locative classes. Blanchon (1987) remarks that the following nominal prefixes of classes 9, 10 and 11 of Yipunu have their plural forms in Cl 2 and Cl 6 before *n*.

Cl 9 NP: *N-* or \emptyset

Cl 10 NP: *N-*, \emptyset , *tsi*

Cl 11 NP: *du-*

Cl 2n *ba+* *N-*

Cl 6n: *ma* + *N-*

For example:

nyamə tsi mambə /banyamə ba mambə ‘fish(es)’

ndaghu/mandaghu ‘houses’

nzilə/manzilə ‘way(s)’

nyoghə/banyoghə ‘snake(s)’
ndoosi/mandoosi ‘dream(s)’
moondi/bamoondi ‘dog(s)’
tsyesi/batsyesi ‘gazelle(s)’
(du)tsalaangu/batsalangu ‘ants’
mbatə/mambatə ‘slap’
dusyeendi/matsyendi ‘thorn’
ngubə/mangubə ‘fight(s)’

However, there are some inexplicable exceptions in

mbinə/bambinə ‘cemetery’
ngwaangu/bangwaangu ‘stick(s)’
noongu/banoongu ‘proverb(s)’

3.2.1.2 The verb

This section presents only the infinitive form of verbs. The conjugation of verbs will be presented later in this research. The infinitive form of the verb in Yipunu is composed of the prefix *u-*, of a stem and a vocalic final (*-a*, *-i*, *-u*). The verbs of Yipunu are monosyllabic or polysyllabic. For example, *uba* ‘to be’; *unu* ‘to drink’; *uji* ‘to eat’; *ufu* ‘to die’ are composed of one syllable. *Uwiimbila* ‘to sing’; *uwivula* ‘to question’; *uwimina* ‘to refuse’ are polysyllabic verbs. Some verbs frequently used have a monosyllabic structure close to a bisyllabic structure. However, these verbs do not employ these monosyllabic structures in final position. These verbs are abbreviated verbs.

The following are some of the abbreviated verbs:

uwenda, uwe ‘to go’
ulaba, ula ‘to see’
ube:ga, ube ‘to bring, to transport’
ubonga, ubo ‘to take’
utega, ute ‘to draw water’
uvega, uve ‘to give’

3.2.1.2.1 The verbal stem

The verbal stem consists of a radical and an extension. The radical has the following syllabic structures: CVC, CVNC, CYVC or CWVC, CYVC or CWVC.

3.2.1.2.2. The extensions

Fontaney (1980:55-56) distinguishes between simple extensions and complex extensions. According to the form and type of extension, the verbs in Yipunu are transitive or intransitive.

3.2.1.2.2.1 The simple extensions

The classification of the simple extensions is given according to

- The vowel *i*, *u*, or *a*
- The consonant *gh*, *l* and *s* after *i* and *u*, *m* and *n* after *a*

vowel -i-

-igh-

-il-

-is-

vowel -u-

-ugh-

-ul-

-us-

vowel -a-

-am-

-an-

Verbs that include the extensions *-igh-* and *-is-* are usually transitive. For example, *udibigha* ‘to close (the door)’, *ugheyisa* ‘to reduce’, *usumbisa* ‘to sell’.

Verbs with the extension *-am-* are intransitive. For example, *ukutuma* ‘to knee’, *utsibama* ‘to be closed’, *usweema* ‘to be hidden, to hide oneself’.

3.2.1.2.2.2 The complex extensions

The transitive verbs in Yipunu have the following complex extensions: *-ighil-*, *-isil-*, *-ughil-*, *-ulil-*, *-amis-*, *-imis-*, *-atan-*, *-umus-*, *-ubul-*, *-ubus-*, *umun-*, *-u*.

The intransitive verbs in Yipunu have the following complex extensions: *-amin-*, *-imin-*, *-ibil-*, *-usil-*, *-alan-*, *-aran-*, *-adan-*, *asan-*, *-umug-*, *-ubug-*, *-u*.

3.2.1.2.2.3 The extensions with consonant alternation

One finds pairs of intransitive/transitive verbs (intr /tr) where the intransitive is the simple verb and the transitive a factitive, but where the extension does not have the structure *-VC-*, the relationship is manifested by a consonantic alternation.

l / ts	<i>ubwila</i> ‘to bath, to shower oneself’	<i>ubwitsa</i> (tr) ‘to bath’
	<i>ulula</i> ‘to burn’	<i>ulutsa</i> (intr) ‘to make burning’
	<i>ubola</i> ‘to get wet’	<i>ubotsa</i> ‘to wet’
	<i>uvhola</i> (intr.) ‘to get cold’	<i>uvotsa</i> ‘to cool’
	<i>urelēma</i> ‘to stand’	<i>retsama</i> ‘to stand up’
gh/s	<i>urogha</i> ‘to boil’	<i>urosa</i> ‘to make boiling’
b/s	<i>ulaba</i> ‘to see’	<i>ulasa</i> ‘to show’
nd/ nz	<i>uwenda</i> ‘to go’	<i>uwenza</i> ‘to let go’
ng/ nz	<i>ulenga</i> ‘to be light, to have no value’	<i>ulenza</i> ‘to despise’

3.2.1.3 The adjectives

Different types of adjectives exist in Yipunu: qualificative adjectives, numeral adjectives, ordinal adjectives, possessive adjectives, etc.

3.2.1.3.1 The qualificative adjectives

According to Bonneau (1956:23), the qualificative adjectives are not frequent in Yipunu.

The following occur:

- neni* ‘big, extensive’
- boti* ‘good, nice, beautiful’
- bi* ‘bad, ugly, worse’
- ghulu*, ‘old’

ghona ‘new’

Yipunu uses the following procedures to fulfil this lack of adjectives:

1. The past participle of some verbs are used as adjectives (verbal adjectives)

ghasa ‘thin’ from the verb *ughasa* ‘to be thin’

pinda ‘black’ from the verb *upinda* ‘being black’

benga ‘red’ from the verb *ubenga* ‘being red’

vema ‘white’ from the verb ‘*uvema*’

2. A noun placed in affixing of the noun to qualify:

musatsi mughetu ‘hard-working woman’

yiduka yi ngebi ‘idiot boy’

3. By the *indéterminés* (*mungo* and *mwisi*)

mungo kaku ‘an angry person’

bango kaku ‘angry persons’

mungo malagi ‘a drinker’

mwisi ‘the place of origin of an individual or his country, city place’

mwisi Mwabi ‘inhabitant of Mwabi’

bisi Mwabi ‘inhabitants of Mwabi’

Other types of adjectives that exist in Yipunu are numeral adjectives, ordinal adjectives, possessive adjectives, etc.

3.2.3.1.2 The numeral and ordinal adjectives

The numeral system of Yipunu is decimal in accord with counting with the ten fingers of the two hands.

The numeral adjectives are:

mosi 1

beji 2

ryeru 3

bina 4

<i>ranu</i>	5
<i>syamunu</i>	6
<i>yisambwali</i>	7
<i>yinana</i>	8
<i>yifu</i>	9
<i>ghumi</i>	10
<i>kama</i>	100
<i>tosini</i>	1000

The ordinal adjectives are the following:

<i>tega</i>	‘first’
<i>mubeji</i>	‘second’
<i>muryeru</i>	‘third’
<i>muina</i>	‘fourth’
<i>muranu</i>	‘fifth’
<i>musyamunu</i>	‘sixth’
<i>musambwali</i>	‘seventh’
<i>munana</i>	‘eighth’
<i>mufu</i>	‘ninth’
<i>mugumi</i>	‘tenth’
<i>musitu</i>	‘last’

3.2.3.1.3 Other adjectives

Other adjectives that exist in Yipunu are

- the possessive adjectives: *wami*, *bwami*, *dyami*
- the demonstrative adjectives: *amimi*, *ami*, *amyeni*, to name a few.

3.2.1.4 The pronouns

Like adjectives, different types of pronouns exist in Yipunu, as shown in the following examples:

- The verbal personal pronouns: *ni*, *u*, *a*, *tu*, *du*, *ba*

- The enclitic pronouns: *n'ami, n'etu, n'au, n'enu, n'andi, n'ou*
- The redoubled pronouns: *mewami* 'me too', *nde wau* 'you too', *ja wandi, jetu wetu, jenu wenu, jou wou*

3.2.1.5 The adverbs

The adverb is invariable in Yipunu. The following types of adverbs are found:

- the adverbs of quantity: (*adverbe de quantité*), e.g. *pwela* 'a lot'; *gheyi* 'few'
- locative adverbs (*adverbe de lieu*), e.g. *va ghari* 'in the middle'; *o julu* 'on top of'
- the adverbs of manner (*adverbe de manière*), e.g. *na biswasa* 'quickly'; *na bukidi* 'courageously'
- the temporal adverbs (*adverbe de temps*), e.g. *bilumbu biotsu* 'always'; *mbana* 'finally'
- the adverbs of affirmation and negation (*adverbe d'affirmation et de negation*) e.g. *nesi* 'no'; *nina* 'yes'; *ngenza* 'certainly'
- the interrogative adverbs (*adverbe d'interrogation et de doute*)
- ordinal adverbs (*adverbs ordinaux*), e.g. *dutega* 'firstly'; *dumubeji* 'secondly'; *dumunana* 'eighthly'

3.2.1.6 The demonstratives

The demonstratives, pronouns and adjectives, are divided into close demonstratives and far ones. Some of the close demonstratives are *au, auu, aweu, aji, ajiji, adu, adidi, abu*, etc. Some of the far demonstratives are *aghuna, ajina, ayina, abana, amina, atsina*, etc.

3.2.1.7 The prepositions

A distinction is made between simple prepositions and preposition locutions in Yipunu. Some of the simple prepositions are *na, o, va, mu*. Some of the preposition locutions are *o mbugha*, 'to' in the expression 'to go to', *o ghari*, 'in', 'in the middle of'; *o tsi* 'under'.

3.2.1. 8 The conjunctions

Like the adverbs, the conjunctions are invariable. Two types of conjunctions exist in Yipunu: the conjunction of relation (conj. rel.) and the conjunction of subordination (conj. sub.).

The following are some conjunctions of relation:

- na* that traduces the coordination (and, with)
- tumba* that indicates the contrary ‘however, but’
- adi* means ‘it is why’

The conjunctions of subordination encompass:

- the temporal conjunctions: *ava, vo, vana, pa, yilema yotsu*
- the conjunctions of condition: *yeri, ne, mbe*
- the negative conjunction: *ne*
- the conjunction of cause: *mumbari (mumba)* ‘because’

3.2.1.9 The interjection

In Yipunu, as in most of the languages of the world, the interjections are simply vowels: *a, e, i, o* and *u*. Generally, it is the tone used which gives them their specific value or meaning of joy, sorrow, fear or admiration.

In Yipunu, joy is rendered by ‘*aa*’ or ‘*yelele*’; astonishment by ‘*o*’; pain by ‘*ii*’; approbation by ‘*yo*’; and refusal by ‘*aaa*’. To this listing one can add *mama* or *mamo* ‘my mother’ to express astonishment; *ngeba menu* ‘pity of me’ when one suffers or when one is in pain; *me wa pinza* ‘I am lonely’, expressing the feeling of pain of losing people close to one’s heart (friends, relatives); *kaya*, an exclamation of astonishment; *mbuku* ‘never mind’; and *mbuku mama*, another exclamation that expresses pain or intensive suffering.

3. 2.1.10 The reduplication

As far as the reduplication phenomenon is concerned, Mickala Manfoumbi (2001:95-108) has examined cases of reduplication associated with intensive meaning in Yipunu. He shows that various types of reduplication come into play, partial reduplication, total reduplication and coordination, and that most of the parts of speech are concerned, namely verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, demonstratives and idiophones. The reduplication or partial doubling has the objective to create new words in which the meaning belongs to the same semantic field of the word reduplicated. The repetition or the doubling of words concerns the fact that a word can be totally doubled in certain of its uses. At the semantic level, the meaning must be adapted to the context. Coordination is a procedure in which a word can be linked to another one by an associative or coordinate. Sometimes this other word is the same as the first. The following examples illustrate the point in question (cf. Mickala Manfoumbi 2001):

ulaamba ‘to cook’

ulalaamba ‘to cook quickly’, ‘cook clumsily’, ‘to cook abundantly’

uboka ‘to kill’

uboboka ‘to kill abundantly, to exterminate’

ufura ‘to lie’

ufufura ‘to lie a lot’

unu ‘to drink’

unwanwaanga ‘to drink abundantly’

uji ‘to eat’

ujyajyaanga ‘to eat abundantly’

ufunisa ‘to multiply’

funi ‘numerous, abundant’

funi funi ‘very abundant’

mbangu ‘speed’

mbangu mbangu ‘high speed’

mutu ‘person’

mutu mutu ‘each person’

mutu, batu ‘person(s)’

batu na batu ‘many persons’

dilongu, malongu ‘country, countries’

malongu na malongu ‘many countries’

monyu ‘life’

mumomonyu/mimomonyu ‘very vigorous person(s) (immortal person)’

3.2.1.11. Concluding remarks on grammar of Yipunu

Yipunu lacks a proper grammar terminology and comprehensive grammar books. The *Grammaire Pounoue* of Bonneau is not accessible to the majority of Bapunu. Copies of the *Grammaire Pounoue* are not found in local libraries and bookshops. Yipunu needs comprehensive grammar books that are accessible to the majority of people. In addition, the grammar of Yipunu needs more investigations; especially studies on the grammatical behaviour of words in a phrase or in a syntagma are required. A Yipunu mini-grammar in a Yipunu-French school dictionary proposed by Mabika Mbokou (2006a) could help to vulgarise the grammar of Yipunu. In addition, the proposed dictionary will give some grammatical data for the Yipunu language, particularly the data on the part of speech for each lemma and the conjugation of Yipunu verbs in the back matter of the dictionary. These grammatical data will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 7. The following section will discuss the third constituent of the language analysis, namely the ‘dictionary’.

3.3 The dictionary

Dictionaries are instruments in the standardisation of a language because users rely on the standard dictionary as an authoritative source. Where a language is not yet fully standardised, it is customary to compile a standard translation dictionary before compiling a standard descriptive dictionary (cf. Gallardo 1980; Gouws & Ponelis 1992).

In the case of Fang, one of the Gabonese languages, Afane Otsaga (2004) has stated that the compilation of a standard translation dictionary should play an important role in its standardisation. He argues that Fang-Ntumu, one of the dialects of Fang, should be chosen as the standard form of the Fang language. The choice of this standard dialect is based on the following six criteria identified by Lodge (1993:130): function, prestige, literacy heritage, acquisition, standardisation and stability. In my opinion, Lodge's approach to the selection of a standard form poses questions about language attitudes and dialect preferences. I share Emejulu and Nzang Bié's (1999a) point of view that the acceptability of the language community is the most important and more workable criterion. However, the model formulated for Fang can serve as a model for Yipunu. Investigations and surveys among speakers of different Yipunu speaking regions are required to choose the standard form of the Yipunu language.

The lexicography of Yipunu needs standard translation dictionaries aimed at creating the written standard; such a dictionary must precede the compilation of the MDDPSVY. A dictionary with the objective to describe the standard dialect has to record the standard orthography of a lexical item where there are competing forms. A lexicographer should therefore decide which form is considered standard and which is not. In this regard, a standard dictionary has only one mission: to propagate the standard orthography. A dictionary is regarded as the authority on spelling, grammar, meaning and usage of a language. It records the standard orthography of the norm, and if it includes items of another norm or other dialects of the same language, the social and geographical areas where each is spoken are marked accordingly. A dictionary will command authority over its users if it convinces them that it is adhering to the standard. Otherwise, it will lose credibility as an authoritative reference of the standard language (cf. Mdee 1999:129). The proposed dictionary

aims to be a recognised dictionary, which embodies the standard spelling and vocabulary of Yipunu. The following section deals with the standard orthography of Yipunu.

3.4 The orthography

I share Lodge's (1993:24) opinion that "standardization is more easily achieved in writing than in the speech." There is a link between the notions of language standardisation and orthography. The main objective for standardising or harmonising the orthography of a language is to enable its users to communicate meaningfully and productively in writing on any subject with a sufficiently high level of inter-intelligibility.

Hartmann and James (1998:130) describe the alphabet as "a set of letters or symbols being used for the writing of a given language" and the orthography or spelling as "the conventionalised system of representing speech by writing in a particular language." It is necessary to bear in mind that the notion of "alphabet" can encompass two distinct aspects of language transcription: the phonetic aspect (i.e. phonetic alphabet) and the orthographical aspect (i.e. orthographical alphabet). One speaks of the orthographical alphabet when he/she uses the letters or symbols for the writing of words in a language. With regard to Yipunu, attempts were made for its writing. The different alphabets proposed for the writing of Yipunu will be discussed in the following section.

3.4.1 Alphabets of Yipunu

3.4.1.1 Bonneau's alphabet

Bonneau's alphabet, which is not in use today, consists of

Consonants: *b d f dj k l m n p r s t v ts ñ*

Semi-consonnants: *w y*

Vowels: *a e ë è i o u*

Bonneau's alphabet does not make provision for tone marking. It is an orthographic alphabet, which is easily accessible and readable. However, the language purists and the linguists criticised this alphabet because of the use of symbols borrowed from French (*dj, ts, è, ë*). Despite some weaknesses noticed in Bonneau's alphabet, one of the interesting points of Bonneau's orthography is the harmonisation of some of the spelling aspects in order to ensure uniformity. For example, the vowels *u* and *i* which become *w* and *y* respectively after a consonant when preceded by vowels such as *a, e, i* and *a, e, o, u*.

Muana → *mwana* 'child'

Uliomisa → *ulyomisa* 'make clean'

Mueni → *mweni* 'foreigner, stranger'

3.4.1.2 Bibala's alphabet (Yipunu Bible's alphabet)

The previous chapter has shown that Yipunu has translations of important texts such as the Bible (the Old and New Testaments), the *Bibala*, considered to be authoritative by believers. The alphabet used in the *Bibala*, the YB alphabet, is one of the practical alphabets of Yipunu, used by Bapunu Christians.

The following consonants and vowels constitute the YB alphabet:

Consonants: *b, d, f, g [ɣ], j [dʒ], k, l, m, mb, mf, n, nd, ng, ns, ny, p, r, s, t, ts, v [β], w, y*.

Vowels: *a, aa, e, ee, i, ii, o, oo, u, uu*

The YB alphabet is an orthographic alphabet. The YB alphabet is not a tonal orthography like Bonneau's alphabet and, unlike Bonneau's alphabet, the YB alphabet does not consider the vocalic harmonisations of *u* and *i*. The YB alphabet is a non-tonal alphabet. Contrary to the tone marking, the YB alphabet takes into account the doubling of the vowel (e.g. *diina* 'name'; *dibaala* 'man'; *baana* 'children').

Language purists have criticised the YB alphabet because of its non-tonal aspect, the fact that this orthography is not based on the orthography principle of one letter for each phoneme (principle of bi-univocity) and it does not take into account the vocalic harmonisation.

For instance, the vowel *e* represents the two following sounds:

[ɛ] *diwela*

[e] *ubueji*

The vowel *o* represents the two sounds:

[o] *botsu*

[ɔ] *jogu*

The YB does not harmonise the vowels, YB writes *muana* ‘child’ instead of ‘mwana’ (of Bonneau).

Despite all these shortcomings, the YB orthographic alphabet is based on the principle of simplicity. This orthographic alphabet has an international character given the fact that non-mother-tongue speakers of Bapunu, Gabonese speakers and foreigners (English-speaking or French-speaking people, speakers of other African languages, etc.) can easily read the Yipunu Bible. I have observed that the only problem that they face is the pronunciation of words; they can read the orthographic symbols, but they do not have the right pronunciation of Yipunu words.

3. 4.1.3 The Scientific Alphabet of Languages of Gabon

The Scientific Alphabet of Languages of Gabon (*Alphabet Scientifique des langues du Gabon*, ASG) was published by the Laboratoire Universitaire de la Tradition Orale in 1990. The scientific alphabet is the one used by linguists. This alphabet is a phonetic alphabet. With regard to ASG, Kwenzi Mickala (1990b) presents an alphabet of Yipunu composed of thirty-three (33) letters: *a; aa; b; d; e; ee; f; ɣ; i; ii; j; k; l; m; mb; mv; n; nd; ng; ny; nz; o; oo; p; r; s; t; ts; u; uu; β; w; y*. This ASG agrees with the tone marking.

One of the weak points of the ASG is that it is too technical and not accessible to all the Bapunu people; it is an alphabet restricted to experts, particularly linguists. The second fact is that ASG is a tonal orthography, which is a barrier to fluent reading of Yipunu. In contrast, the ASG has the advantage to propose symbols and sounds close to the reality of African languages and in particular of Yipunu. Another strong point of the ASG is that it takes into account the phonetics of Yipunu. For example, the word that means ‘child’ in Yipunu is written ‘*mwanə*’ in ASG as it is pronounced in Yipunu, but YB and Bonneau write it ‘mwana’.

There is a debate concerning writing the final mute vowel /a/ of nouns and verbs in Yipunu which is pronounced as [ə]. The language purists (linguists) prefer to use the symbol (ə), called the schwa instead of the vowel “a” used in Bonneau’s work and the *Bibala*. As far as I am concerned, this debate helps to make a distinction between spoken and written Yipunu. This distinction between spoken language and written language should be taken into consideration when standardising Yipunu. The Yipunu standard should make clear boundaries between its spoken form and its written one. Writing ‘ə’ poses problems from a practical point of view because the schwa is a phonetic symbol and not an orthographic symbol.

To accommodate the language experts and the non-experts, Mabika Mbokou (2006a) and Mihindou (2006) propose that the final mute vowel in Yipunu should not be written. In my opinion, this proposition could be acceptable only for Yipunu personal names, but debatable for common words because it is not in accordance with the syllabic rules of Yipunu. Yipunu is an open syllable language, and any proposition or solution provided in this regard should respect the syllabic structure of Yipunu.

The authors of *Rapidolangue* have given the proposition of writing ‘ë’ instead of ‘a’. In my opinion, the orthography of Yipunu could for instance maintain the use of the orthographic letter ‘a’ in the end of words like in the existing works of Yipunu and only used the letter ‘ë’ in others position of the word. For example when [ə] is pronounced in the middle of a word, it could be written as ‘ë’ like in the words *usilëma* [usiləmə] ‘to sleep’ *ubengusëna* [ubengusənə] ‘to meet’.

3.4.1.4 The Rapidolangué's alphabet

This is the alphabet used by the Raponda Walker Foundation in the *Rapidolangué* series, which is the Catholic schools' alphabet. The *Rapidolangué's* alphabet consists of the following letters and letter combinations: the vowels *a*, *è* [ɛ], *ë* [ə], *i*, *o* [o], *ö* [ɔ], *u* [u] and the consonants *b*, *d*, *dj*, *dy*, *f*, *h*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *mb*, *mp*, *n*, *nd*, *ng*, *ny*, *nz*, *s*, *t*, *w*, *y*. This alphabet is an orthographic alphabet, which does not account for the tones of Yipunu. Learners of Yipunu in Catholic schools currently use this *Rapidolangué* alphabet. Despite the fact that most of the sounds are borrowed from the French orthographic system, this orthography is simple and easily accessible to these learners.

3.4.1.5 The Alphabet des Langues Gabonaises (ALG)

The Alphabet of Gabonese Languages (ALG, *Alphabet des Langues Gabonaises*) was adopted in 1999. Linguists and experts set up this alphabet, which contains the following letters and letter combinations:

For the vowels: *a*, *e*, *é* [ɛ], *ə* [ə], *i*, *o*, *o* [ɔ], *u*, *u* [y]

For the consonants: *b*, *c*, *d*, *d*, *f*, *gh* [ɣ], *h*, *j* [dʒ], *jh* [ʒ], *k*, *m*, *ml*, *n*, *ny*, *n*, *p*, *r*, *s*, *sh*, *t*, *v*, *vh* [β], *w*, *y*, *z*

The alphabet makes provision for the length of vowels by doubling any of them if this is necessary in a particular language and for tone marking. This alphabet has the advantage of having a unified character; the other Gabonese languages use most of the alphabetical signs. One of the problems in this orthography is the notation of the phonetic symbol [ə]. I have already discussed the problematic nature of that phonetic symbol in 3.4.1.3

The 39 alphabetical signs of the ALG and their phonetic realisations for the Yipunu language are presented as follows:⁷

⁷ I am not taking into account the tone marking in the words mentioned above for reasons of simplicity.

a [a]	<i>ami</i>
aa [aa]	<i>dibaalə</i>
b [b]	<i>bikutu</i>
d [d]	<i>dibabə</i>
e [e]	<i>nzwengi</i>
ee [ee]	<i>mweendu</i>
<u>e</u> [ɛ]	<i>uw<u>e</u>lə</i>
<u>ee</u> [ɛɛ]	<i>uw<u>ee</u>lə</i>
ə [ə]	<i>usiləmə</i>
f [f]	<i>fundu</i>
gh [ɣ]	<i>ghari</i>
i [i]	<i>bidungə</i>
j [dʒ]	<i>julu</i>
k [k]	<i>ukongu</i>
l [l]	<i>ulangə</i>
m [m]	<i>musamu</i>
mb [mb]	<i>mbembu</i>
mf [mf]	<i>mfwangə</i>
n [n]	<i>nana</i>
nd [nd]	<i>ndami</i>
ng [ng]	<i>ngulu</i>
ny [ny]	<i>nyalə</i>
nz [nz]	<i>nzalə</i>
o [o]	<i>mosi</i>
oo [oo]	<i>moosi</i>
<u>o</u> [ɔ]	<i>gh<u>o</u>nə</i>
<u>oo</u> [ɔɔ]	<i>digh<u>oo</u>bə</i>
p [p]	<i>bipungə</i>
r [r]	<i>yari</i>
s [s]	<i>disumu</i>

t [t]	<i>utalə</i>
ts [ts]	<i>mbatsi</i>
u [u]	<i>uvhosə</i>
uu [uu]	<i>ubuunghə</i>
vh [β]	<i>uvheghə</i>
w [w]	<i>uwəndə</i>
y [j]	<i>yasi</i>

The ALG will be used as an orthographic model for MDDPSVY. In the following sections, I will discuss some general principles in fixing a standard orthography of Yipunu (henceforth SOY) and also formulate some rules with regard to the sounds and spelling of words, spelling variants, tone marking, word division, capitalisation, punctuation and borrowings in Yipunu.

3.4.2 General principles in fixing a standard orthography of Yipunu

Some general principles have been formulated for fixing the orthography of any particular language. Yipunu can apply these principles for its orthography.

- (1) The orthography of a given language should be based on the principle of one letter for each phoneme of that language. This means that whenever two words are distinguished in sound they must also be distinguished in orthography.
- (2) The existence of diaphones must be recognised and allowed for.
- (3) It may sometimes be convenient to depart from a strictly phonetic system in order to avoid writing a word in more than one way. Thus, it is better to write in Yipunu *mughatsi andi* “his wife” literally “the wife of him” although the pronunciation is *mughatsandi*.

3.4.3 Aspects of a Standard Orthography of Yipunu

3.4.3.1 Sounds and spelling

Some rules regarding the sounds and spelling of Yipunu are as follows:

- (a) The final mute vowel /a/ or [ə] is phonologically and orthographically noted as *a*. In other positions, the sound [ə] is noted as 'ě'.
- (b) The SOY will harmonise some spelling aspects like those that Bonneau did in order to ensure uniformity. Such as the vowels *u* and *i* which become *w* and *y* respectively after a consonant when preceded by vowels such as *a, e, i* and *a, e, o, u*.

3.4.3.2 Spelling variants

Yipunu has a number of dialects marked by differences in spelling and pronunciation in semantics, grammar and vocabulary. With regard to spelling variants, the remarkable feature of these spellings is the interchange between *i* and *y*, *ns* and *nz*. Therefore, words such as *ibedu* 'the patient' and *Nsambi* 'God' are written *yibedu* and *Nzambi*. Decisions have to be made in order to choose the standard form. My view is that the forms *yi* and *ns* can be chosen as standard spelling forms. I choose the forms *yi* and *ns* because they are the ones used in the *Bibala* (the Yipunu Bible), which is the biggest written source of the Yipunu language. The forms *i* and *nz* can be regarded as spelling variants of *yi* and *ns*. However, investigations among Bapunu speakers have to be done in order to determine which forms they prefer.

3.4.3.3 Tone marking

Yipunu is a tone language. Tones help to differentiate words with different meanings and pronunciation that are spelled the same way (heterophonic homographs). The following example, *bukùlu* (kind of vegetable) versus *bùkulu* (genealogy) illustrate the point in question. Native speakers of Yipunu rely on the context in order to respond appropriately to any word and they do not need tone marking. However, for a non-native speaker, the lack of marking of tones may lead to communication breakdown. Is tone marking the best option? How does the SOY accommodate the needs of non-speakers of Yipunu? In my opinion, the SOY must accommodate the needs of non-speakers, but tone marking is not the best option here because a tonal orthography is a barrier to fluent reading of Yipunu.

The *Bibala*'s approach, i.e. doubling the vowel for tone marking, is the best solution because this approach allows a fluent reading of Yipunu, as illustrated by *bukuulu* 'kind of vegetable' and *bukulu* 'genealogy', which is friendly and easily accessible to the readers of Yipunu, instead of *bukùlu* (kind of vegetable) versus *bùkulu* (genealogy).

For tone marking, the reader has first to master the rules of reading tones in order to read words in Yipunu. From a user/reader point of view, *Bibala*'s approach, i.e. doubling the vowel, adheres to principles of simplicity and accessibility. The SOY requires such principles.

3.4.3.4 Borrowing

Languages are not static systems. They develop and change, and add new items while others become outdated. These changes can be clearly observed especially in the lexicon. No language can afford to ignore foreign influence. In the Gabonese situation, Yipunu is in contact with other Gabonese languages and with French. Most of the borrowings have integrated the structure of Yipunu. Others do not. These borrowings can be problematic to the SOY. Kwenzi Mikala (1989b:157-170) has observed that the consonant combination *pl* of the Yipunu word *diploma* borrowed from French (*diplome*) is also not attested in Yipunu. The stem vowel is not realised [o] when the vowel final is [i] like in the Yipunu word *pompi* borrowed from French (*pompe*). The SOY has to make provision for the integration of some foreign sounds and letters.

3.4.3.5 Place names, language names

Decisions have to be made about how to write place names and language names in Yipunu. As far as the proposed dictionary is concerned, it will make a contribution to the standardisation of place names by including a list of the countries of the world in its back matter. Below are the names in Yipunu of some of these countries:

<i>Kamaruna</i>	Cameroon
<i>Kongu</i>	Congo
<i>Marika</i>	United States, America
<i>Ngabu</i>	Gabon
<i>Sapu</i>	Japan

Capital letters will be used for the names of places and languages. The language names will be preceded with the prefix *Yi-*. For instance, some language names in Yipunu are as follows:

Yibamba (Lembaama), *Yifwala* (French) *Yikota* (Ikota), *Yimyena* (Omyene), *Yingesi* (English), *Yinzabi* (Yinzebi) *Yipamu* (Fang), *YiPanola* (Spanish), *Yisira* (Gisira), *Yitsogho* (Ghetsogho), *Yiteke* (Teke), *yivili* (Civili)

However, there are some exceptions in Yipunu. Others language names keep their original form, like *Afrikaans*, *Lingala*, *Munukutuba*, etc.

3.4.3.6 Word division

The disjunctive system prevails in Yipunu. For instance, the following sentence, “Give me another knife”, is written in Yipunu as “*Peyi dibagha disusu*”. However, Yipunu also uses the conjunctive system of writing. For example, in Acts 10:7 there is one word *abamamusalilanga* ‘who had been working for him’. It contains at least three prefixes and two suffixes. The constituent prefixes – *ba-* plural subject, *ma-* past tense and *mu-* third singular object – do not occur in isolation as complete words. (Nida 1950). Yipunu could be classified as a semi-disjunctive, semi-conjunctive language. The study of conjunctiveness versus disjunctiveness in the *Bibala* could be helpful in decision-making about when to write conjunctively or disjunctively in Yipunu.

3.4.3.7 Capitalisation and punctuation

Orthographies set rules about where to use capital letters, which should be indicated in the SOY. Choices must be made about which words deserve initial capitalisation.

Decisions about the use of punctuation should also be made: Where and how to use full stops, commas (at phrase level, at word level), semicolons, colons, brackets, dashes, question marks, exclamation marks, quotation marks, apostrophes, hyphens, etc. in order to clarify and not to obscure given information. Once again, the *Bibala* could be useful in the setting of capitalisation and punctuation rules for Yipunu.

3.4.4 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the phonology, grammar, dictionary and orthography of Yipunu. These constituents form the language analysis, one of the levels of standardisation of Yipunu, according to Brann's (1975) indicators. The existing phonological descriptions of Yipunu examine its vocalic and consonantal phonemes. Yipunu urgently needs the phonological and phonetic investigation on stress, word division, etc. The MDDPSVY could describe the phonology of Yipunu by giving the stress and the word division of each word. With regard to the grammar of Yipunu, more comprehensive grammar books accessible to the majority of Bapunu mother-tongue speakers are required. There is a need for more investigations of the behaviour of grammatical categories in a phrase or a syntagma in Yipunu. Yipunu has not yet developed its own grammar terminology. A Yipunu mini-grammar in a Yipunu-French school dictionary proposed by Mabika Mbokou (2006a) could help to vulgarise the grammar of Yipunu. The proposed dictionary will contribute to the grammar by giving the data on the part of speech for each lemma and the conjugation of Yipunu verbs in the back matter of the dictionary. A dictionary of grammatical terms in Yipunu could be a solution to the lack of grammar terminology in Yipunu.

As far as dictionaries are concerned, Yipunu needs a range of standard dictionaries to fix the norm of the language in term of its spelling, pronunciation, grammar, usage and meaning. The proposed dictionary aims to be a recognised dictionary which embodies the standard spelling and vocabulary of Yipunu. This chapter has discussed some general principles for fixing a standard orthography of Yipunu. Attention has also been given to the discussion of aspects such as sounds and spelling, borrowings, word division, tone marking, capitalisation and punctuation of the orthography of Yipunu. *Bibala* (YB) could be a useful tool for the setting of these orthographic rules.

It argues that a standard orthography of Yipunu could be based on *Alphabet des Langues Gabonaises* (ALG) The doubling of the vowel indicates tone marking, the final mute vowel /a/ or [ə] is phonologically and orthographically noted as ‘a’. In other positions, the vowel [ə] is noted as ‘ë’. A standard orthography has to take into account the vocalic harmonisation in order to ensure uniformity.

The sounds and letters of the proposed standard orthography of Yipunu are as follows:

a [a] , b [b], d [d], e [e], ɛ [ɛ], ë [ə] , f [f], gh [ɣ], i [i], j [dʒ], k [k], l [l] , m [m], mb [mb], mf [mf], n [n], nd [nd] , ng [ng] ny [ny], ns [ns] , o [o] , ɔ [ɔ] , p [p], pl [pl] r [r], s [s], t [t], ts [ts] u [u] , uu [uu] , vh [β], w [w], y [j].

The proposed dictionary could be an ideal point of departure for the implementation of this orthography.

CHAPTER 4: USER PERSPECTIVE

4.0 Introduction

Lexicographers like Hartmann (1989), Gouws (1989) and Wiegand (1998) have emphasised an approach according to which the compilation of dictionaries is guided by the user perspective. Hartmann (1989:103) aptly indicated that the compilation of any new dictionary has to be preceded by an in-depth needs analysis. This analysis can only be done once the intended target user has been identified unambiguously. It should not only reflect the needs but also the reference skills of the target user. According to Householder and Saporta (1962:79), “dictionaries should be designed with a special set of users in mind and their specific needs.”

According to De Schryver and Prinsloo (2000:1-31), feedback from the users should be obtained while the compilation of the dictionary is still in progress, a process referred to as “simultaneous feedback”. The problem however is that such research is in general carried out at a stage when dictionaries are already completed and published. Feedback from the target users can therefore only be implemented in forthcoming editions of these dictionaries. Tarp (2002a:67) remarks:

[T]he methodology for planning, making or reviewing a dictionary should be, first of all, to make a typology of potential users, user situations and problems that might arise for each type of user in each type of user situation. On this basis, the lexicographer can then determine which of the problems can be solved by a dictionary, what are the corresponding items to be included in the dictionary, and how should they be presented in order to satisfy the users’ needs.

As far as the Gabonese environment is concerned, research into the user profile has only been done in recent years. This chapter will present, in the first place, the pioneering survey on dictionary use with regard to Gabonese users. Secondly, it will

offer a discussion on the teaching of dictionary use. Lastly, this chapter will focus on the user profile of the MDDPSVY. The proposed dictionary is directed at mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu (Bapunu mother-tongue speakers), teachers and experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu. The user characteristics, user situations and user needs will have a detailed discussion.

4.1 Research into dictionary use with reference to Gabonese users

Until 2005, no attempt was made to empirically establish the profile of Gabonese people as dictionary users. Ekwa Ebanéga and Tomba Moussavou (2006b) have recently done a preliminary survey on dictionary use among Gabonese students at the University of Stellenbosch and the Cape Peninsula University of Technology in South Africa. The aim of this survey was to investigate Gabonese users' knowledge, opinions, attitudes and habit of use of dictionaries and their dictionary culture. The following sections will discuss the objectives, subjects, methods, research coverage, research findings and description, and analysis of the data of this research.

4.1.1 Survey on dictionary use: Case studies of Gabonese students at the University of Stellenbosch and Cape Peninsula University of Technology

4.1.1.1 Research objectives

The main objective of this survey, which was carried out during the academic year 2005-2006, was to draw a profile of Gabonese students as dictionary users to establish their knowledge, opinions and habits of use. The general goals were the following:

- To gather information about the dictionary user (frequency of use, difficulties of the looking-up process and causes of these difficulties, type of instruction about dictionary skills)
- To know the users' attitude towards different reference books (general dictionary, bilingual dictionary, encyclopaedic dictionary)

- To know with which dictionary to start if one wants to compile a dictionary in the Gabonese languages

4.1.1.2 Research subjects

The survey was carried out among 100 undergraduate and postgraduate Gabonese students studying at the University of Stellenbosch and Cape Peninsula University of Technology. These Gabonese students came to study in the Western Cape under the convention between Gabonese universities and South African universities. The Gabonese government sponsors these students.

The survey under discussion was undertaken in the town of Stellenbosch, particularly at the University of Stellenbosch, and in the city of Cape Town. Because of the constraints of money, the investigation was done among Gabonese students in South Africa and it could not examine the behaviour of the Gabonese dictionary users studying in Gabon. For the purpose of this survey, the students were asked some personal information, such as their gender, age, course of study and subjects, and academic qualification. Thirty-six females and 64 males between 19 and 35 years took part in this survey. Participants were also asked to give information about their language background: their mother-tongue, the language they mainly speak at home, foreign languages studied, if they are able to write in their mother tongue.

- Most of the Gabonese students have different mother-tongue backgrounds.

The distribution of the mother-tongue speakers is as follows:

Fang:	29
French:	26
Yipunu:	6
Mahongwe:	1
Ndumu:	2
Lembaama:	11
Inzebi:	5
Awandji:	1
Benga:	1
Myene:	4
Lekanigni:	2
Gisir:	1
Civili:	1

Tsogho:	1
Teke:	2
Lumbu:	1
Kota:	3
Aduma:	3

- Gabonese students have studied the following foreign languages:

French:	80
English:	74
Italian:	5
Portuguese:	3
Spanish:	39
German:	6
Latin:	2

- The Gabonese students mainly speak the following languages at home:

Fang:	11
French:	82
Tsogo:	1
Lekanigni:	2
Inzebi:	3
Awandji:	1
Yipunu:	2
Lumbu:	1
Kota:	1
Lembaama:	1

It is noted that the majority of the Gabonese students have studied French and mainly speak French at home.

- Subjects studied at their respective universities are as follows:

Architecture:	1
Biochemistry:	1
Botany:	2
Biotechnology:	5
Business management:	22
Conservation Ecology:	5
Economics:	1
English:	26
Environmental Health:	1
Food Beverage:	1
Food Science:	1
Forestry:	3
Geology:	5
History:	2
Lexicography:	6

Marketing:	3
Mathematics:	2
Mechanical engineering:	4
Medical Science:	1
Phonetics:	1
Physiology:	1
Zoology:	1

- To the question, can you write in your mother tongue?

Fifty-two students said they could not write in their mother tongue. Forty-eight said that they could. More than 50% of the Gabonese students cannot write in their mother-tongue, which indicates the need for mother-tongue education in Gabon. Dictionaries could be a solution to problems regarding the writing of Gabonese languages. A dictionary could be an orthographic model to the language. Gabonese students need dictionaries that will help them with the writing of their mother-tongues.

4.1.1.3 Research methods

A questionnaire, which included 23 questions, was given to all subjects. This questionnaire is based on the one developed by Hartmann (1999) in “Case study: The Exeter University survey of dictionary use”.

This questionnaire has been adapted to the Gabonese users. Here, the method is comparable, though different in objective, to that employed by Hilary Nesi and Richard Hail (2002) who investigated the dictionary-using habits of international students studying in the medium of English at a British University.

4.1.1.4 Research coverage

The questionnaire covered the following 23 items:

- 1) When did they start to use and when did they acquire a dictionary?
- 2) Types of dictionaries they own
- 3) Number of dictionaries they own
- 4) Knowledge and use of electronic dictionaries
- 5) Types of dictionaries which exist in Gabonese languages
- 6) Type of dictionary most used in Gabon
- 7) Type of dictionary for Gabonese languages to begin with
- 8) Priority when buying a new dictionary
- 9) When you last bought a dictionary, was it
- 10) Using a dictionary when
- 11) Do you use a dictionary while you...?
- 12) Frequency of use
- 13) When you notice a new or difficult word while reading, do you...?
- 14) Use of information contained in the appendices
- 15) Awareness of the user guidance notes at the front of the dictionary
- 16) Inability to find the information needed in a dictionary
- 17) Type of information most difficult to find
- 18) Causes for difficulties
- 19) Satisfaction with the ability to use a dictionary
- 20) Using dictionaries is informative, exciting...
- 21) Using dictionaries can improve my reading, writing, speaking; help me perform better in my studies
- 22) Instructions in dictionary use
- 23) Importance of being taught how to use a dictionary

4.1.1.5 Research findings, description and analysis of the data

1. When did you start using and when did you acquire a dictionary?

<i>When started using and acquired a dictionary</i>	<i>Using a dictionary</i>	<i>Acquiring a dictionary</i>
At primary school	61%	58%
At secondary school	26%	37%
At university		2%

We had to point out that this question is important because it allows us to know if we want to teach students how to use a dictionary where we have to start. Dictionaries are introduced at primary school in Gabon, which is the appropriate time to introduce them.

2. What types of dictionaries do you own in Gabon?

<i>Types of dictionary owned</i>	
General dictionary (e.g. Dictionary of English)	85%
Special subject dictionary (e.g. Dictionary of Music)	18%
Bilingual dictionary (e.g. English-French)	81%
Thesaurus (e.g. Dictionary of Synonyms)	36%
Encyclopaedia	46%

One can note that Gabonese students are more or less familiar with the bilingual and monolingual dictionary types, but unfamiliar with special subject dictionaries. I think that dictionary typology (main dictionary types) should be taught at primary school.

3. How many dictionaries do you own?

<i>Number of dictionaries</i>	<i>Number of subjects</i>
4	19
3	26
2	27
1	6

Seventy-two subjects have more than one dictionary. Nineteen Gabonese students have four dictionaries, 27 own two dictionaries, 26 students say they have three dictionaries and six say they own one dictionary. These results indicate that Gabonese students are not strangers to dictionaries. They are dictionary knowledgeable.

4. Do you own any electronic dictionaries?

<i>Use and own electronic dictionaries</i>	
Yes	22%
No	78%

Seventy-eight Gabonese students do not own any electronic dictionaries, only 22 students do. Electronic dictionaries and their use should be taught at school.

5. Which types of dictionary exist in Gabonese languages?

<i>Types of dictionary which exist in Gabonese languages</i>	
General dictionary (e.g. Dictionary of Yipunu, of Fang)	36%
Special subject dictionary (e.g. Dictionary of Music)	10%
Bilingual dictionary (e.g Yipunu-French)	46%
Thesaurus (e.g. Dictionary of Synonyms)	38%
Encyclopaedia	46%

We have to point out that, as already stated above; the only dictionaries existing in Gabonese languages are bilingual dictionaries. Different results given by students show that some of them do not know which specific dictionary exists in Gabonese languages. These results prove that Gabonese students have been introduced to dictionaries with French. Existing dictionaries in Gabonese languages are unknown to the public. It is suggested that a course on the *History of Gabonese Lexicography*, aiming to make known the existing dictionaries in Gabonese languages, should be taught at school.

6. Which types of dictionary do you use most frequently in Gabon?

<i>Type of dictionary most used in Gabon</i>	
General dictionary (e.g. Dictionary of French)	79%
Special subject dictionary (e.g. Dictionary of Music)	9%
Bilingual dictionary (e.g. English-French)	63%
Thesaurus (e.g. Dictionary of Synonyms)	36%
Encyclopaedia	67%

It shows that 79% of students use a general dictionary, followed by 67% of students using an encyclopaedia; 63% of students showed a preference for a bilingual dictionary, 36% of them opted for a thesaurus and only 9% of students selected a special subject dictionary. Gabonese students are mostly using a general dictionary without doubt in French, the official language of Gabon. One can observe that there is a dictionary culture as far as French is concerned. According to Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:12),

In terms of Hausmann (1989:103) a dictionary culture implies that the members of a given speech community are familiar with different types of dictionaries and with the contents and presentation of these dictionaries. It also implies that they have reached a certain level of dictionary using skills. These skills do not come instinctively but need to be acquired.

As mentioned in the preceding chapter, the absence of a dictionary culture suggests that there is a need for user education in Gabon, especially for teacher training. In my opinion, mother-tongue education must be done jointly with dictionary.

7. If one wants to compile a dictionary in Gabonese languages, can he or she begin with?

<i>Type of dictionary in Gabonese languages to begin with</i>	
General dictionary (e.g. Dictionary of French)	32%
Special subject dictionary (e.g. of Music)	2%
Bilingual dictionary (e.g. English-French)	64%
Thesaurus (e.g. Dictionary of Synonyms)	17%
Encyclopaedia	12%

We also asked students with which specific dictionary one should start if one wants to compile a dictionary in Gabonese languages. Sixty-four of the students showed preference for a bilingual dictionary, 32% for a general dictionary, 17% for a thesaurus, 12% for an encyclopaedia and 2% for a special subject dictionary. The compilation of dictionaries in Gabonese languages should start with the bilingual one. Future bilingual dictionaries of Gabonese languages should be planned carefully in order to meet the needs of these dictionary users. In the case of Yipunu, users need a standard translation dictionary that will help them with the written standard of Yipunu.

8. What is your priority when you buy a new dictionary?

<i>Priority when buying a new dictionary</i>	
Its relevance to my needs	90%
The number of words	12%
The number of examples	10%
A reasonable price	12%
The reputation of the publisher	16%
Convenient to carry about	3%

Ninety students opted for relevance to needs, 16% for the reputation of the publisher and 12% for a reasonable price. Most Gabonese students are led by their needs when buying a new dictionary. They are aware that dictionaries are made to satisfy or respond to the users' needs.

9. When you last bought a dictionary, was it...

<i>When you last brought a dictionary, was it...</i>	
Because a teacher or tutor recommended it?	23%
Because a friend or relative suggested it?	7%
As a result of your own deliberate choice?	69%
As a result of an advertisement?	0%
Due to an impulse?	8%
I cannot remember	3%

Sixty-nine Gabonese students last bought a dictionary as a result of their own deliberate choice. Twenty-three responded to the recommendation of a teacher or tutor. I recommend that useful information should be given by Gabonese lexicographers to students and teachers to help them find what they want when they buy a dictionary. The following should be considered:

- The age of the user (child, adolescent, adult).
- The function of the dictionary: Is it a dictionary for text production or text reception? Is it a dictionary for mother-tongue speakers or learners? Is it a monolingual or a bilingual one?
- The language used in the dictionary: The work of the lexicographers who compile dictionaries is to record the way the language is used, not to fossilise it. Does the dictionary include new words or words which existed 15 years ago?
- The number of lemmas, i.e. the number of words defined in the dictionary. The user will often find this information on the cover.
- The language of the definitions: Users need to have a close look at the nature of the definitions and the words used in the definitions. Good dictionaries ensure

that definitions are easy to understand, and difficult words in the definition can be looked up.

- The amount of information given in each entry: Grammatical information such as noun, verb, pronunciation, spelling, etymology, example sentences.
- Illustrations: Research has shown that illustrations do not necessarily help users (especially children) acquire vocabulary or understand meanings, although they do add to the visual appeal and ‘lighten’ the text.
- Ease of reading and use: Lastly, the user must look at features such as the legibility of the typeface, the layout of the entries and appendices, such as spelling rules, common abbreviations, weight and measures, foreign phrases, countries of the world, which can be useful additional information.

10. When do you use a dictionary?

<i>When using a dictionary</i>	
During class	20%
During an exam	4%
Studying at home	91%
Studying in a library	59%
Other (specify)	14%

Ninety-one percent of Gabonese students use a dictionary when they study at home and 59% when they study in a library; only 20% use a dictionary during class and they rarely use dictionaries during an exam (4%). Looking at these results, I recommend that the dictionaries should be used not only at home, but also during class.

11. Do you use a dictionary while you...?

<i>Using a dictionary while...</i>	
Read newspapers and magazines	47%
Read textbooks	65%

Read academic journals	44%
Read a book for entertainment	27%
Work on a translation exercise	75%
Play word games	45%

More than half of the students use a dictionary while they work on a translation exercise and read textbooks. Forty-five percent use dictionaries while they play word games. Doing crosswords and playing word games such as Scrabble encourage Gabonese students' use of dictionaries and improve their dictionary skills.

12. How often do you use a dictionary?

<i>Frequency of use</i>	
When you write	63%
When you read	67%
When you listen	20%
When you speak	1%

To look up a definition/equivalent of a word	74%
To look up a spelling of a word	58%
To look up synonyms/words of a similar meaning	46%
To look up examples of a word's use	37%
To look up a grammar point, e.g. part of speech	20%
To look up encyclopaedic information	13%
To look up the pronunciation	41%
To look up a word origin/etymology	13%

Sixty-three percent of Gabonese students use dictionaries when they write and 67% when they read. They use dictionaries for communicative purposes, i.e. encoding or

decoding purposes. Seventy-four percent of Gabonese students use a dictionary to look for a definition/equivalent of a word, 58% for the spelling, 46% look for synonyms, 41% go to a dictionary to look for pronunciation, 37 % for examples, 21% look for an idiom/proverb, 20% for a part of speech, and only 13% look for encyclopaedic information and 13% for etymology.

These results give an idea of the data type these Gabonese students are looking for in a dictionary: definition/equivalent of a word, spelling, pronunciation, examples, idiom/proverb and part of speech. Gabonese students are not familiar with encyclopaedic data and etymology. I recommend that the importance of each data type should be emphasised in the teaching of dictionary use, particularly encyclopaedic data and etymology.

13. What do you do when you notice a new or difficult word while reading?

<i>When you notice a new or difficult word while reading, you</i>	
look it up in a dictionary	13%
guess the meaning	44%
ask other people what it means	18%
ignore it and go on reading	11%

While 67% of Gabonese students use a dictionary when they read, only 13% consult a dictionary all the time or use a dictionary when they notice a new or difficult word while reading. The students solve their vocabulary problems by

- Guessing the meaning (44%, most of the students)
- Asking other people what it means (18%)
- Ignoring it and going on reading (11%)

Gabonese students should be taught to use a dictionary when they notice a new or difficult word while reading. According to Schofield (1999:17-18),

... guessing rarely gives a precise result and could yield no more certain information about the word than he/she already possesses ...

Users need to be taught, or at least have risen to their consciousness, what are sensible reasons for choosing to look up an unknown word rather than deal with it some other way.

14. Do you ever use information contained in the appendices?

We exposed our subjects to a list of options, including the most common information appendices shown in the different dictionaries. Seventy-three percent of students selected a list of regular/irregular verbs, 57% the list of abbreviations, 26% the proper names, 21% the units of measurement.

<i>Information contained in the appendices</i>	
List of abbreviations	57%
List of regular/irregular verbs	73%
Units of measurement	21%
Proper names	26%
Other	12%

Looking at the results above, I recommend that the structures of the dictionary – particularly the frame structure, consisting of the central list (the dictionary proper), the front matter (all functional text parts preceding the central list) and the back matter (texts coming after the central list) – and how to retrieve the maximum information from these texts should be taught to students.

15. If you are aware of the user guide notes at the front matter of the dictionary, do you...

<i>User guidance notes</i>	
Study them?	24%
Find them user friendly?	31%
Manage without them?	40%

It is also interesting to note that 40% of students do not take advantage of the information in these guides, which is not a very encouraging result if we take into account that they provide useful information (organisation of information, pronunciation guide, etc.). Familiarity with usage guides could produce an immediate effect in both understanding and time reduction of the looking-up process. The importance of the user guidance notes should therefore be taught to students.

16. Do you ever consult a dictionary without being able to find the information you need?

<i>Inability to find the information needed in a dictionary</i>	
Very often	4%
Often	11%
Sometimes	76%
Never	10%

Seventy-six students are sometimes frustrated and do not find the information they need, thus facing a dictionary consultation failure. It is important to teach them how and where to find the information they need.

17. What type of information is most difficult to find?

Our questionnaire also explored the type of information that is most difficult to find. Seventy-three per cent of students selected specialised technical terms as the most difficult type of information to find.

<i>Type of information most difficult to find</i>	
General words	2%
Specialised technical terms	73%
Common words in a special subject area	34%
Idiom, proverb, phrase	26%

Gabonese students need help on how to find a specialised technical term in a dictionary.

18. What do you think are the causes of these difficulties?

<i>Cause of difficulties</i>	
My lack of dictionary skills	13%
My lack of dictionary knowledge	7%
Not enough information in the dictionary	63%
Unclear layout of the dictionary	22%
I don't read the instructions to the user	13%

It is worth noting that students attributed the bulk of their difficulties to the dictionary itself. In fact, most of the students (63%) believed that these problems were mainly due to the fact that there is not enough information in the dictionary, and others considered these problems related to the unclear layout of the dictionary (22%), lack of dictionary skills (13%), or other reasons, such as the misreading of the instruction to the user (13%). From a user point of view, the importance of dictionary skills should be taught to the users in order to avoid these difficulties in dictionary consultation.

19. Are you on the whole satisfied with your ability to use a dictionary?

<i>Satisfaction with your ability to use a dictionary</i>	
Yes	81%
No	19%

Eighty-one Gabonese students are satisfied with their ability to use a dictionary; 81 students have acquired some dictionary skills.

20. In your opinion, using dictionaries is...

<i>Using dictionaries is</i>	
Easy	48%
Difficult	3%
Exciting/fun	24%
Tedious/boring	3%
Worthwhile/informative	58%
Of little help/not worth the trouble	2%

Forty-eight students state that using dictionaries is easy and informative. Gabonese students are familiar with dictionaries and aware of the fact that dictionaries have a knowledge-orientated function.

21. Based on your experience, which of the following statements do you agree with?

<i>Using dictionaries can improve ...</i>	
Using dictionaries can improve my reading	38%
Using dictionaries can improve my writing	66%
Using dictionaries can help my speaking	43%
Using dictionaries can help me perform better in my studies	53%

More than 50% of the students state that using dictionaries can improve their writing and help them to perform better in their studies. Less than 50% of the students think that using dictionaries can improve their reading and their speaking. I recommend that the functions of dictionaries in text production and in text reception should be taught to the students.

22. Have you ever been taught how to use a dictionary in Gabon?

<i>Being taught how to use a dictionary in Gabon</i>	
Yes	32%
A little	38%
Never	27%

When commenting on instruction in dictionary use, it turned out that 27 students have never been taught how to use dictionaries in Gabon. Thirty-eight have been taught a little. Gabonese students should be taught how to use a dictionary.

23. Do you think it is important for students in Gabon to be taught how to use dictionaries?

<i>Importance of being taught how to use dictionaries</i>	
It is very important	64%
It is important	25%
It is not important	0%
I do not know	7%

Sixty-four students think it is very important to be taught how to use dictionaries.

4.1.1.6 Research conclusions

The research mentioned above has presented some Gabonese students' viewpoints on aspects of dictionaries. One can observe that there is a dictionary culture as far as French is concerned, but there is a lack of a dictionary culture as far as Gabonese languages are concerned. Bilingual dictionaries for text production and/or text reception aimed at Gabonese users should be the first to be compiled in order to establish a dictionary culture in Gabonese languages. Mother-tongue education is needed and a primary requirement for the use of Gabonese language dictionaries. Similarly, Gabonese teachers should be taught how to use a dictionary. As far as Gabonese users are concerned, dictionaries should be introduced to pre-primary

schools. Instructions in dictionary use should be taught at primary level and continued to secondary and university levels. This survey is a preliminary study as far as the Gabonese user profile is concerned and is not exhaustive. Further quantitative and qualitative research and similar experiments should be conducted in Gabon with reference to different dictionary users (teachers, children, adolescents and different speech communities), dictionary types, content, presentation of dictionaries and dictionary use.

4.1.2 User education in Gabon: The teaching of dictionary use

As mentioned above, instructions in dictionary use should start at primary school and continue to secondary school and university. It should be recommended for pupils and students because dictionaries are important tools in the acquisition of a language and for teachers of a “native language and of foreign languages” (Hausmann 1986:109). The main objective of language teaching is to improve language proficiency with regard to speaking, listening, reading and writing. These four linguistic activities are sometimes grouped in pairs, and a differentiation is made between more passive “decoding or reception” (reading and listening) and more active “encoding or production” (writing and speaking). For language teaching, a variety of tools can be employed as facilitators, for example textbooks, grammar exercises, games, role-play, translations, voice recordings, videotapes, creative writing, and dictionaries. The teaching of dictionary use should first target the teachers because by training teachers to be good users themselves, it is envisaged that they could pass these skills on to students and eventually to society in general. As previously mentioned, there is a need for user education, especially for teacher training in Gabon. Hartmann and James (1998:152) define *user education* as “the training of users in the *reference skills* in response to *reference needs*.”

The *reference skills* are “the abilities required on the part of the dictionary user to find the *information* being sought” .The *reference needs* are “the circumstances that drive individuals to seek *information* in *reference works* such as *dictionaries*” (Hartmann & James 1998:116-117).

4.1.2.1 Teaching dictionary use to teachers in Gabon

Some studies have shown that many teachers are indifferent to dictionaries (Herbst & Stein 1987) and several recent studies have also shown that dictionaries are not always used in the way their compilers intended them to be used.

As illustration, it has been established that some of the data supplied by dictionaries is consistently misunderstood. For example, some types of data (grammatical, etc.) offered by dictionaries are used much less than could have been expected (see Atkins 1985:23; Béjoint 1989:208). Many users also seem to be unaware of the variety of dictionaries available and the differences between them (Kirkpatrick 1985:7). In South Africa, for instance, a preliminary survey among secondary school teachers in Pretoria indicated that many of them have only a blurred picture of dictionary structure; some cannot even tell the difference between a definition and a usage example (Carstens 1995:109). Teachers should be taught reference skills as part of their training in order to enable them to make maximum use of the dictionary and reference books, and to enable them to impart this knowledge to their students. Teachers are in a better position than other researchers or even lexicographers to assess the students' lexicographic needs. If teachers gain competence in dictionary skills and dictionary use and pass on the skills to students and eventually to the society, it will develop a dictionary culture among Gabonese communities.

The teaching of dictionary use and of dictionary skills can be incorporated into courses on dictionary activities and should be part of the normal curriculum. Teaching dictionary skills is part of language teaching. The teaching of dictionary skills in Gabon can be done through the establishments of teachers' training: *Ecole Normale Supérieure* (ENS) for secondary schools and *Ecole Normale d'Instituteurs* (ENI) for primary schools. In addition, at universities of Gabon, lecturers and students should be taught how to use a dictionary.

The teacher trainers will eventually be the Gabonese lexicographers, who have been trained in lexicography. Gabon's lexicographers are responsible for the teaching of dictionary skills to teachers. As a result, these teachers will appreciate dictionaries and

will have a positive attitude towards them. However, a careful analysis of Gabonese teachers' existing reference skills should be made prior to this teaching of dictionary use in Gabon. One way to do that is to organise activities (reading texts, word games, etc.) that require the use of dictionaries, and to observe the areas where difficulties arise.

4.1.2.2 Teaching dictionary use to pupils and students in Gabon.

The teaching of dictionary use should firstly target teachers, as pointed out above, and then it should focus on pupils and students. Béjoint (1989:210) presents a checklist of skills that the ideal dictionary user should possess. This checklist is based on experimental evidence of difficulties of various populations of users and existing programmes teaching dictionary use. After having analysed the needs and the skills of their user groups, Gabonese instructors should be able to know what is relevant to their groups (teachers and students).

For Gabonese pupils and students, each level should have a dictionary suitable for its level. I recommend that the dictionary consultation should start as follows:

- In primary schools, using monolingual dictionaries and picture dictionaries: Dictionary use should be taught to children using children's dictionaries. At this level, the awareness of the user guide should be emphasised and the necessity of dictionary skills brought to the attention of the Gabonese child in the very early days of teaching him or her French. They must be taught how to use a dictionary, how to "de-code" it, and made to acquire the habit of using it. Most good dictionaries for young users have accompanying workbooks to teach and practise dictionary skills, such as alphabetical sequencing (the most basic skill for using a dictionary) and the spelling of difficult words. Teachers should work in accord with parents of children in primary schools. Through dictionary campaigns and workshops, Gabonese parents should be taught how important dictionaries are and how to use them. Gabonese parents should encourage children's use of dictionaries by ensuring that each child has his or her own suitable one, and by having a range of them for the family in the home and

doing crosswords and playing games such as Scrabble that require dictionaries. In this way, the Gabonese child will receive the gift of a life-long skill, which will improve his or her language ability, and, more importantly, provide a source of wonderment through the discovery of the world of words and language.

- In secondary schools, dictionary consultation should be done through bilingual dictionaries and encyclopaedias. In the first cycle of secondary school, pupils should learn to use bilingual and monolingual dictionaries in their learning of foreign languages.⁸ According to Béjoint and Moulin (1987), bilingual dictionaries are ideal for quick consultation, while monolingual dictionaries, though difficult to use, have the extra merit of directly introducing the user to the lexical system of the L2. Monolingual learner dictionaries are perceived as being more demanding and less likely to offer a quick solution, even though students who actually use monolingual learner dictionaries tend to record higher levels of satisfaction. Laufer and Melamed (1994:575) found that experienced monolingual learner dictionary users “obtained better results [than bilingual users] ... both in comprehension and in production.” There is also a general feeling among educators that students who make an effort to use a monolingual dictionary will ultimately derive more benefit. Gabonese teachers should encourage L2 users to use a monolingual dictionary. It can be done in conjunction with a small bilingual one, which acts as a prompt. In the second cycle of secondary schools, pupils will learn how to use an encyclopaedia. As far as Gabonese languages dictionaries are concerned, mother-tongue education is primarily required for their use.
- At universities, other dictionary types can be introduced, such as technical and electronic dictionaries. All dictionary types should be taught because at tertiary level, students should be able to know how to use any dictionary. The technical vocabulary used in metalexigraphy (lemma, lemmatisation, macrostructure, etc.) can be taught at universities.

⁸ For detailed information of foreign languages taught in Gabon, see Section 1.2.2.2.3 of Chapter 1. *Metalexigraphic Criteria for a Monolingual Descriptive Dictionary Presenting the Standard Variety of Yipunu*

4.1.2.3 How to teach dictionary skills

The education of dictionary users should be practical rather than theoretical. Gabonese teachers should encourage dictionary use in texts production and reception. Teachers must teach Gabonese users (students) why it is better to look up an unknown word in a dictionary while reading rather than deal with it some other way, for example guessing the meaning, asking other people what it means or ignoring it and going on reading, as demonstrated in the survey on dictionary use discussed above. I do share Schofield's (1999:18) opinion saying that,

[A]n obvious way of doing this is by overt discussion with the class whenever an unknown word arises in a reading task. The teacher can also engineer such a discussion by going through a passage in which some content words have been left out, or replaced by nonsense words, eliciting opinions about how one would deal with each one.

Another activity for the teaching of dictionary skills is the study of dictionary compilation. (Cf. Whitfield 1993: 38-40). Following Whitfield (1993), Campoy Cubillo (2002:206–228) points out an experimental study on the design of dictionaries by 85 chemistry students according to their own needs. As an alternative to the use of dictionary workbooks, this group of students was asked to produce their own dictionaries. These students were told to use the texts they have been referred to during the course and to design a dictionary according to their needs. The aims of this project were as follows:

1. For students:
 - (a) To revise vocabulary for their final examinations
 - (b) To familiarise themselves with dictionaries and their macro- and microstructures

2. For the teacher/researcher:
 - (a) To understand the way in which this particular group of students
 - (b) visualised dictionaries, i.e. how they viewed the structure and content of a dictionary

- (c) To analyse students' needs regarding dictionary skills
- (d) To check the results so as to improve future explanations of dictionary content and dictionary use
- (e) To increase awareness of the scope of an ideal dictionary for these chemistry students – and its limitations

Similar studies of dictionary compilation can be done in the Gabonese context at the secondary and university levels. In primary and in the first cycle of secondary schools, I share Béjoint's view (1989:221) that activities should only be language-oriented (production or/and reception of text) and not dictionary-oriented.

4.1.2.4 Concluding remarks on teaching dictionary use in Gabon

Instructions in dictionary use in Gabon should first of all target teachers. Teachers are in a better position than other researchers or even lexicographers to assess the students' lexicographic needs. The responsibility lies with Gabonese lexicographers to teach dictionary skills to teachers. The teaching of dictionary skills in Gabon can be done through the establishment of teachers' training. However, a careful analysis of Gabonese teachers' existing reference skills should be made prior to this teaching of dictionary use in Gabon. After having analysed their needs and their skills, Gabonese instructors should be able to present a checklist of skills that the ideal dictionary user (teacher) should possess. Instructions in dictionary use should start at primary schools and continue to secondary schools and universities:

- In primary schools, (French) monolingual dictionaries should be used, and teachers and parents should help the child to develop his or her dictionary skills.
- In secondary schools, bilingual dictionaries and encyclopaedias should be used. Teachers should encourage the use of monolingual dictionaries in conjunction with bilingual ones; mother-tongue education is primarily required for the use of Gabonese language dictionaries.
- At universities, other dictionary types can be introduced, such as technical and electronic dictionaries. The technical vocabulary of metalexigraphy can be taught at universities. The education of dictionary users should be practical

rather than theoretical. These practical activities are language- and dictionary-oriented activities.

To sum up, instructions in dictionary use in Gabon cannot be restricted to schools only; it should also be extended to communities. This extension is possible through media such as television and radio, an area not covered in the current research. The following section will discuss the user profile of the proposed dictionary.

4.2 Users of the MDDPSVY

4.2.1 User characteristics

The compilation of the MDDPSVY should be based on the characteristics of the users. Tarp (2002a:67–68; 2002b:10) argues that the user's characteristics must be determined on the basis of specific parameters or variables of their language for general purposes (LGP), language for special purposes (LSP), cultural purpose, special subject field, translation and lexicographic competencies. The MDDPSVY does not deal with translation or special subjects and the parameters related to them fall outside the current research. Here, I will only develop the parameters relevant to the envisaged project:

1. Which language is their mother tongue?
2. At what level do they master their mother tongue?
3. At what level do they master a foreign language?
4. What is the level of their general cultural and encyclopaedic knowledge?
5. How are their experiences in dictionary use?

Each parameter mentioned above will be exposed in the following sections.

4.2.1.1 Which language is their mother tongue?

The Bapunu mother-tongue speakers who will be users of the MDDPSVY have Yipunu as their first or native language, and French as their second language. The proposed dictionary is directed at adult and mother-tongue speakers. The teachers of Yipunu, according to Mabika Mbokou (2006a:57),

... are adult educators, mostly students from the Language Sciences Department of the Omar Bongo University of Libreville. The others are volunteers interested in languages who want to see Gabonese language promoted. They are mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu and they all received training and have *Rapidolangue (Méthode d'apprentissage des Langues nationales)* as basis for their methodology and also have French as their second language.

The learners of Yipunu (Bapunu learners) have French / a Gabonese language (excluding Yipunu) /a foreign language as their first language. These learners who have French as their first language can be divided into two sub-groups: Those who come from homes where parents speak Yipunu and those who do not. Those who come from Yipunu homes have the advantage of being helped by their parents in the process of the acquisition of Yipunu. The following section will give the profile of the learners of Yipunu.

4.2.1.1.1 The learner profile

Tarp (2004:225) has defined the following variables which must, at least, be taken into account in order to produce a more detailed profile of the dictionary user:

- a. Proficiency level
- b. Adult or child
- c. “Joint” or separate culture
- d. Level of general culture

a. Proficiency level

The proficiency level is by far the most important factor to distinguish between different learner characteristics. As previously mentioned in Chapter 1, a distinction is made between three levels of language learning: beginners, experienced learners and advanced learners. Tarp (2004:227) presents the following definitions:

[B]eginners [are] those who are taking the first steps into the foreign language and are trying to assimilate the basic vocabulary and grammar. *Experienced learners* are those who have mastered the basic vocabulary and the most important grammatical rules and are beginning to think and express themselves relatively freely in the foreign language, but sometimes have to pass through their mother tongue in order to produce more complex phrases. *Advanced learners* refer to learners who have acquired a considerable active and passive vocabulary, have assimilated the general grammar of the foreign language and are thinking and expressing themselves freely in this language, although they are still not native.

With regard to the relationship between dictionary types and proficiency level, the use of a monolingual learner's dictionary is of value if the user's knowledge of the language is sufficient for him or her to understand the meaning of the words and expressions, and other information given. The difficulties that have been mentioned above can be observed if the monolingual dictionary is to be used for beginners. Monolingual learners' dictionaries are aimed at advanced learners; some are aimed at experienced learners. They are based on the supposition that learners of a language must move from a bilingual dictionary to a monolingual dictionary as they advance in their study of the foreign language. The MDDPSVY is not directed at beginner learners of Yipunu, but at experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu. As mentioned in Chapter 1, it will not be a learner's dictionary, but a dictionary with a learner dimension, containing some features of a learner's dictionary.

b. Adult, adolescent or child

Apart from the proficiency level, there are also other factors that should be taken into account before conceiving or reviewing a dictionary. One of these is the distinction between learners who are adults and children. I strongly agree with Tarp's (2004:227) argument that

... a child is, for instance, still in the process of learning his/her mother tongue and reaching the adults' level of general culture and instruction

and is supposed to have little experience in dictionary use. Dictionaries for children should adapt to this reality and this would imply that the selected vocabulary could be reduced, that the definitions and the metalanguage should be easier, that the lexicographic structures and layout be simpler, etc.

With regard to the planned dictionary, its target users are adolescent and adult learners of Yipunu. The proposed dictionary will accustom its learners to the style that most Bapunu adults use.

c. An emigrant or a “normal” learner

With reference to the Gabonese environment, “foreigner” can replace the term *emigrant*. Gabon counts 15, 2% of foreigners and 84, 8% Gabonese as its population. In secondary schools, learners of Yipunu are composed of Gabonese and of foreign (non-Gabonese) learners. The proposed dictionary is intended for both Gabonese and foreign learners, who are from a variety of backgrounds and are interested in learning the Gabonese languages taught at school because they are part of their curriculum. In most cases, the foreign learner learns the Gabonese language of his or her friend(s).

d. “Joint” or separate culture

Dictionaries compiled for learners should take the very different cultural backgrounds of the dictionary users into account. The dictionary compilers must have at least some knowledge about the target group’s cultural background and whether this is close to or far from the culture related to the language that is being learned. If the learner culture is different from the foreign-language community, a cultural knowledge has to be acquired together with the language learning. This implies that the dictionary, in this case, should be compiled in such a way to provide cultural data and notes on cultures to the learners. In the case of the MDDPDSVY, the cultural backgrounds of the learners are French/Gabonese languages (excluding Yipunu)/ foreign language.

e. Level of general culture

The learner's general cultural level is the last factor that must be taken into account in order to generate a user profile of a concrete dictionary. The learner's general cultural level has consequences, according to Tarp (2004:228), for the lemma selection, the character of the explanations, the possible cultural notes, the metalanguage and symbols and the structures of the dictionary.

As far as the learners of Yipunu are concerned, they do have a level of general culture in French /Gabonese language /foreign language, but do not have a good level, or lack a general culture in Yipunu.

4.2.1.1.2 General circumstances of foreign language learning

There are also a number of user-related factors about the general circumstances in which the language-learning process takes place which are relevant in determining the user needs and corresponding data to be included in the dictionary. Four of these circumstances (cf. Tarp 2004:229) are:

1. Conscious or spontaneous learning
2. Learning inside or outside the language area
3. Learning related or not to a specific textbook or didactic system
4. Learning related or not to a particular topic (economy, history, culture)

4.2.1.1.2.1 Conscious or spontaneous learning

Conscious learning, in Tarp's (2004:229) view, is supposed to take place either as an individually planned and conducted study or related to a specific didactic system or textbook. Spontaneous learning, on the other hand, takes place without these characteristics and is considered more unsystematic. The learners of Yipunu are divided into conscious and spontaneous learners. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the conscious learning of Yipunu is related to the textbook *Rapidolangue* and the spontaneous learning of Yipunu is private and self-educated. The spontaneous learners are those who have French as their mother tongue and come from Yipunu homes.

4.2.1.1.2.2 Learning inside or outside the language area

The geographical situation in which the learning takes place, i.e. inside or outside the area where the language in question is spoken, has serious consequences for the learners. Studying outside the language area makes it much easier to know and control the vocabulary to which learners are exposed. Tarp (2004:230) remarks that the learners studying inside the language area need dictionaries with a large number of lemmata for text reception because, when the learning takes place inside the language area, learners would be exposed to thousands of words every day, on the streets, in the shopping centres, through television and radio. The conscious learning of Yipunu currently occurs outside the language area in urban areas where French is dominant. In future, the teaching of Gabonese languages and of Yipunu in particular will be extended to schools in other provinces of Gabon. The teaching will take place inside the language area, namely the Ngounié and the Nyanga provinces. As far as the proposed dictionary is directed at conscious and spontaneous learners, the MDDPSVY should accommodate the learning of Yipunu inside and outside the language area.

4.2.1.1.2.3 Learning related or not to a specific textbook or didactic system

Frequently, foreign-language learning is related to a specific textbook or didactic system during a certain period of the overall learning process. As mentioned above, the conscious learning of Yipunu is related to the textbook *Rapidolangue*. The spontaneous learning of Yipunu does not involve a didactic system.

4.2.1.1.2.4 Learning related or not related to a particular topic

The learning of a second or foreign language is sometimes combined with the learning of a specific topic, e.g. history and geography. The conscious learning of Yipunu with reference to the textbook *Rapidolangue* is combined with cultural aspects of the Bapunu people. The MDDPSVY will include cultural data to accommodate these learners.

The user characteristics mentioned above are all important in order to construct a reliable user profile for any dictionary. In addition, some other characteristics related to the user's language competences must be considered in this regard. The following questions referring to the users' language competences can be developed:

- At what level do they master their mother tongue?
- At what level do they master a foreign language?
- How are their experiences in dictionary use?

The following sections will discuss each of the three users' language competences of the MDDPSVY.

4.2.1.2 At what level do they master their mother tongue?

The teachers of Yipunu master their mother tongue at the production and reception levels. The mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu master their mother tongue at the listening and at the speaking levels. The learners master French at the reception and the production levels.

4.2.1.3 At what level do they master a foreign language?

The Bapunu mother-tongue speakers and the teachers of Yipunu have French as their second language and master it at the production and reception levels. The conscious learners of Yipunu have assimilated the 1500 words of vocabulary that they learnt through Niveau 1 and 2 of *Rapidolangue* (cf. Mabika Mbokou 2006a:70). These learners master Yipunu at the listening level, but sometimes have to pass through French in order to produce or understand more complex phrases. The spontaneous learners master Yipunu at the listening and the reading levels.

4.2.1.4 How are their experiences in dictionary use?

It is evident that the lexicographers of the proposed dictionary must also know the intended user group's lexicographic experience in order to produce a high-quality and user-friendly dictionary. The intended user groups of the MDDPSVY are experienced

in dictionary use as far as French dictionaries are concerned, but not adequately experienced in Gabonese language dictionary use. They need skills to use a monolingual dictionary in Yipunu and should receive training in this. Learners should use the MDDPSVY in conjunction with a small bilingual dictionary (Yipunu-French).

4.2.2 User situations

There are two different kinds of general user situations. According to Tarp (2002a:68; 2002b:11–12), the first type is when the user consults the dictionary in order to facilitate existing or future communication. The second is when the user consults the dictionary in order to get knowledge about a special subject or in order to learn and study a foreign language. These two types of user situations can be called communication-orientated and knowledge-orientated.

There are two different types of knowledge-orientated user situations:

1. Searching for knowledge
2. Studying a language

There are six different types of communication-orientated user situations:

1. Production of texts in mother tongue (or first language)
2. Reception of texts in the mother tongue (or first language)
3. Production of texts in a foreign language (or second, third language, etc.)
4. Reception of texts in a foreign language (or second, third language)
5. Translation of texts from the mother tongue (or first language) into a foreign language (or second, third language, etc.)
6. Translation of texts from a foreign language (or second, third language, etc) into the mother tongue (or first language)

The knowledge-orientated user situations and the communication-orientated user situations of the MDDPSVY are as follows:

- Searching for knowledge (or culture)
- Studying Yipunu
- Reception of texts in the mother tongue

- Production of texts in a foreign language

4.2.3 User needs

Once the characteristics of the user group and the user situations have been characterised, it is possible to proceed to a characterisation of the user needs. The user needs are the information needed by the users in order to solve their specific problems. According to Sobkowiak (2006), one should not confuse user needs and user wants. Contrary to user needs, user wants are the information wanted by the users but not necessarily needed. Sometimes user wants and user needs are identical. As an illustration of the coincidence between user needs and user wants, Ekwa Ebanéga and Tomba Moussavou (2006b) have observed in their survey of dictionary use that “Gabonese students want bilingual dictionaries as starting point in the compilation of Gabonese language dictionaries.” Regarding the multilingual and multicultural situation of Gabon, Tomba Moussavou (2002:162) states that bilingual dictionaries should be the first to be compiled; they must precede monolingual ones. Gabonese users need and want bilingual dictionaries. As far as Yipunu dictionaries are concerned, a model for the compilation of a Yipunu-French school dictionary has been designed (cf. Mabika Mbokou 2006a).

In Tarp’s point of view (2002a:69; 2002b:13), the user needs will mainly consist of the following main types of information:

1. Information about the native language
2. Information about a foreign language
3. Comparison between the native and a foreign language, and vice versa
4. Information about culture and the world in general
5. Information about the special subject field
6. Comparison between the subject field in the native and foreign culture
7. Information about the native LSP
8. Information about the foreign LSP
9. Comparison between the native and foreign LSP

All these needs constitute the primary user needs that lead to the consultation of the dictionary. There are, however, also other kinds of lexicographic user needs, which can be called the secondary user needs. These arise when using a dictionary for the following:

1. General information about lexicography and dictionary use
2. Information about a dictionary and how to use it

The target users of the planned dictionary have the following needs:

1. Information about the native language
2. Information about the foreign language
3. Information about the culture and the world in general
4. Information about the dictionary and how to use it

When the lexicographers know the user group and its specific characteristics, the user situations and the specific user needs related to these situations, they can then proceed to the determination of the lexicographic functions.

4.2.4 Functions and genuine purpose of the MDDPSVY

A lexicographic function of a given dictionary is to provide assistance to a specific user group with specific characteristics in order to cover the complex of needs that arise in a specific user situation. A concrete dictionary can have one or more functions. It can be mono- or multi-functional. Experience has shown that the determining element in a dictionary function is the user situation.

Functions are frequently named after the corresponding user situations. In this way, the lexicographic functions can be subdivided into communication-orientated and knowledge-orientated in correspondence with the respective main types of user situations.

The knowledge-orientated functions (cf. Tarp (2002a:14) are as follows:

- To provide general cultural and encyclopaedic data
- To provide special data about the subject field
- To provide data about the language

The communication-orientated functions are as follows:

- To assist the users solving problems related to text production in the native language
- To assist the users solving problems related to text reception in the native language
- To assist the users solving problems related to text production in the foreign language
- To assist the users solving problems related to text reception in the foreign language
- To assist the users solving problems related to text translation from the native language into a foreign language
- To assist the users solving problems related to text translation from the foreign language into the native language

The MDDPSVY will be multifunctional.

The communication-orientated functions of the MDDPSVY will be as follows:

- To assist the intermediate and advanced learners with Yipunu text production
- To assist mother-tongue speakers and teachers with Yipunu text reception
-

Its knowledge-orientated functions are the following:

- To provide general cultural and encyclopaedic data to the users of MDDPSVY (mother-tongue speakers, teachers, experienced learners of Yipunu)
- To provide data about the language

4.2.5 Lexicographic assistance of the MDDPSVY

Dictionaries provide lexicographic assistance to problems related to text production and reception. The following subsections will discuss how the MDDPSVY provide

assistance to the production of texts in the foreign language and the reception of texts in the native language respectively.

4.2.5.1 Lexicographic assistance for text production in the foreign language

The question here is to produce or reproduce a correct and adequate text in the foreign language. Rundell (1999:37) emphasises that “using a dictionary is not always a realistic option, particularly in the spoken medium.” Ekwa Ebanéga and Tomba Moussavou (2006b) show that only 1% of Gabonese students use a dictionary when they speak, but 63% when they write. With regard to the proposed model, the MDDPSVY makers must be capable of assisting the conscious learners of Yipunu with the production of texts. The MDDPSVY should provide all the necessary data categories to enable the conscious learners to produce texts in Yipunu.

These data categories should have a clear dictionary organisation and should be easily accessible to the users. In the written medium, Rundell (1999:37) and Tarp (2004:308) have given the main categories of information that most students will need in order to perform most types of production tasks:

The information that the user needs in order to produce a correct text in a foreign language is first of all the foreign word, its orthography, pronunciation, part of speech and gender. Then they need confirmation that the word in question has the right meaning or sense for the concrete purpose. Furthermore, they need synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms etc. as well as pragmatic and even cultural information in order to vary the style and assure that the word is used in the correct context. And finally, of course, they need information on inflectional morphology and syntactical properties, which also includes word combinations such as collocations, idioms and proverbs.

From the dictionary user point of view, the users of the MDDPSVY must identify the right lemma. They are supposed to know the lemma and the relevant meaning, and

might only need to be sure that the meaning treated under the actual meaning is the relevant meaning when consulting the MDDPSVY. The positioning and the treatment of data categories relevant to the MDDPSVY will have a detailed discussion in Chapter 7, referring to its microstructure.

4.2.5.2 Lexicographic assistance to text reception in the native language

Reception of texts occurs mainly when someone is reading. Being able to comprehend a text accurately and at a relatively rapid rate presupposes a rather extensive knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Without a well-developed knowledge of vocabulary, the process of reading might break down. In fact, reading and vocabulary have a bilateral relationship: one really is not possible without the other. Reception of texts occurs also when someone is listening. Listeners hearing unfamiliar words may write them down and look them up later. In a receptive situation, an unfamiliar word or phrase has been met. The users of MDDPSVY have to be able to identify the lemmatised form of a word from the form that has been met. They must be able to identify the right lemma in the dictionary. They must know the basic form lemmatised in the dictionary. In addition, the users of the MDDPSVY have to be able to use the Yipunu alphabetical order fluently. They must master all common sounds to spelling rules of Yipunu. To assist the user in this identification, the proposed dictionary must provide data about word class, gender, irregular inflected forms, complex words, orthographic variants and pronunciation.

The lexicographic assistance for text reception is given by means of paraphrase of meaning, synonyms, hyperonyms, hyponyms and concrete text examples, brief or more profound explanations. In addition, meaning of collocations, idioms and proverbs should be provided. This kind of data therefore serves the purpose of text reception as far as the proposed model provides assistance to understanding at word, collocation, and idiom and proverb level. A dictionary cannot provide understanding of whole texts as such.

4.3 Conclusion

In modern lexicography, user-perspective has emerged as an important criterion in the selection and lexicographical treatment of lexical items. As far as the Gabonese environment is concerned, an account of a preliminary study of research into dictionary use has been given. The conclusions of this survey show that there is a need for mother-tongue education. Most Gabonese students do not know how to write their language. There is a dictionary culture as far as French and English are concerned, but a lack of it as far as Gabonese languages are concerned. It is very important to teach the Gabonese students how to use a dictionary. The use of Gabonese dictionaries firstly presupposes that the user knows the alphabetical ordering principle of the dictionary and is acquainted with the use of key words at the top of the pages. It also presupposes basic knowledge of the grammatical structure of the language. Dictionaries should be introduced in pre-primary schools and instructions in dictionary use should start at primary schools and continue to secondary schools and universities.

It has been argued in this chapter that there is a need for user education among Gabonese students and particularly among teachers in Gabon. Instruction in dictionary use in Gabon should first target teachers. Teachers are in a better position than other researchers or even lexicographers to assess the students' lexicographic needs. If teachers gain competence in dictionary skills and pass these on to students, and eventually to the society, a dictionary culture among Gabonese communities will develop.

The media can also play a significant role in the development of a dictionary culture among Gabonese communities. More research on dictionary use is needed in many areas of interest, such as dictionary typology, dictionary preferences, analysis of dictionary micro- and macro-structures in one or several dictionaries and dictionary compilation for the effective teaching of dictionary use in the Gabonese context.

This chapter has also presented the user profile, user characteristics, user situations and user needs of the MDDPSVY. The proposed dictionary is aimed at mother-tongue

speakers of Yipunu, teachers, and experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu. The MDDPSVY is designed for text production and reception purposes and it is also designed for a knowledge-oriented function. The MDDPSVY has to be planned according to the needs of the potential users, the dictionary functions and the reference skills. Surveys on dictionary use, dictionary structure and user profile are required when planning the MDDPSVY.

CHAPTER 5: DICTIONARY PLAN

5.0 Introduction

Planning is of the utmost importance in dictionary making. Planning should be done according to the needs of the target users, the reference skills, the dictionary type and the dictionary functions. The planning of the proposed dictionary will take into account the parameters mentioned above and will also give attention to the structure and the contents of the proposed dictionary. This chapter discusses the dictionary plan of the MDDPSVY, which includes two main components, the organisational plan and the dictionary conceptualisation plan. The organisational plan is primarily directed at management and logistics. The dictionary conceptualisation plan is concerned with lexicographic issues and includes dictionary typology, target user, structure of the dictionary and lexicographical presentation (cf. Gouws 2001b:64).

5.1 The organisational plan of the MDDPSVY

According to Gouws (2001b:65), the organisational plan is primarily directed at the logistics of the project and all the managerial aspects. This planning is essential for the success of the MDDPSVY project and the logistic and managerial infrastructure must precede the editorial work. One of the aspects of the organisational plan is the identification and the formulation of the genuine purpose of the intended dictionary.

5.1.1 The genuine purpose of the MDDPSVY

As with any other utility product, dictionaries also have a genuine purpose. This genuine purpose is made up of the totality of functions of a given dictionary and the subject field(s) that it covers. As already mentioned in Chapter 4, the MDDPSVY is a multifunctional dictionary. The most important communication-orientated functions of the MDDPSVY are as follows:

- To assist the intermediate and advanced learners with Yipunu text production
- To assist mother-tongue speakers and teachers with Yipunu text reception

Its most important knowledge-orientated functions are:

- To provide general cultural and encyclopaedic data to its users (mother-tongue speakers, teachers, experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu)
- To provide data about the language to its users

The corresponding genuine purpose of the MDDPSVY would then be as follows:

To be a monolingual descriptive dictionary, presenting the standard variety of Yipunu, that assists mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu who can solve problems related to text reception in Yipunu and learners of Yipunu at both intermediate and advanced levels who can solve problems related to text production in Yipunu.

5.2 The dictionary conceptualisation plan

According to Wiegand (Gouws 2001b:67) the dictionary conceptualisation plan can be divided into the following five subdivisions:

1. The general preparation phase
2. The material acquisition phase
3. The material preparation phase
4. The material processing phase
5. The publishing preparation phase

The general preparation phase of the dictionary conceptualisation plan lays the foundation for the structure, contents and presentation of the final product (Gouws 2001b:97). The material acquisition phase precedes the compilation process and focuses on the gathering of language material from the sources earmarked for the dictionary basis. The material preparation phase is the phase where lexicographers

prepare the collected material for the next steps of the lexicographic process. This phase gives the staff the opportunity to sort material in order to omit material that cannot be used. The material processing phase comprises the application of the data distribution structure and the writing of the dictionary texts. The publishing preparation phase, which is the final phase of the dictionary conceptualisation plan, is the preparation for the publishing of the dictionary. Each phase will be discussed in the following sections.

5.2.1 The general preparation phase

In the general preparation phase, the MDDPSVY compilers will pay attention to the macrostructural selection and presentation, the lexicographic instruction book, the microstructural programme and the dictionary basis.

5.2.1.1 Macrostructural selection and presentation

In planning the proposed dictionary, the lexicographers should make decisions regarding the macrostructural selection and presentation. The lexicographer of the proposed dictionary should plan the number of the lemmata to incorporate in the dictionary taken from the corpus. The lexicographers must also make decisions regarding the form to be lemmatised and must decide which form to include as macrostructural component. The compilers of the proposed dictionary should decide on the nature of the macrostructure, and should choose between a straight alphabetical ordering or niched or nested ordering. The macrostructural selection and presentation of the MDDPSVY will be discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

5.2.1.2 The lexicographic instruction book

One of the significant assignments the staff members of the dictionary project will have in the general preparation phase is the compilation of a lexicographic instruction book, also known as a lexicographic style guide (Gouws 2001b:67). The style guide is a set of generalisations with accompanying illustrations from the dictionary, a set of instructions showing the order of components, typographical presentation and input

instructions for the database. The style guide helps the lexicographer to be confident and consistent, and ensures a uniform character in the compilation process, preventing the lexicographer from gradually deviating from the rules when treating raw material originally decided on. It is a learnable system for the new lexicographers and is needed for the trust of the reader. The lexicographic style guide is indispensable for the proposed dictionary in order not to perpetuate lexicographic failures of the past, such as the arbitrariness and inconsistency observed in the past Yipunu lexicographic works.

According to Harteveld and Louw (2004), the style guide contains detailed guidelines on how to treat each type of data category, how to treat difficult or prominent semantic and grammatical phenomena (homonymy, polysemy, etc.) and other important data for the lexicographer. These include the following:

- Spelling conventions
- Data on pronunciation
- Parts of speech
- Cross references
- List of labels
- List of editorial abbreviations
- Paraphrase of meaning
- Example material
- Homonymy, polysemy and synonymy
- Treatment of sensitive lexical items
- Treatment of cultural data

A style guide is compiled by

- Setting up a typographical and publishing profile
- Setting up general editorial principles
- Setting up some sample entries
- Setting up a rough style guide according to the data categories abstracted from the sample entries

- Testing sample entries for consistency by compiling a DTD
- Refining sample entries and style guide to reflect changes

During the compilation of the dictionary, the lexicographer can continually update the style guide.

Computerisation has the following effects on styles guides:

- The DTD design helps to root out inconsistencies in the style guide, especially in senses and sub-senses
- It makes it easier to apply the style guide consistently, especially with regard to the ordering of data and formatting of entries

The style guide should have a dynamic character as specific problems encountered in the dictionary-making process may necessitate changes. Weekly or monthly meetings should be held and after discussion the style guide could be adapted.

5. 2.1.3 The microstructural programme

Another aspect that MDDPSVY compilers need to pay attention to in the general preparation is the microstructural programme of the dictionary, which contains the following data categories:

- The lemma in bold in its singular form
- The spelling, the SOY shows word division by raised dots at the possible division points
- The pronunciation
- The part of speech
- The class number
- The plural form (when it exists)
- The paraphrase of meaning
- The synonym
- The antonym
- The example (proverbs or idiomatic expressions when necessary)

- The etymology (for loan words only)
- Labelling (when it is necessary)
- Usage note (when it is necessary)
- Encyclopaedic data (when it is necessary)
- Pictorial illustrations (when it is necessary)

The MDDPSVY compilers must plan the different data categories to be included in the treatment of the lemmata and the typical article slots allocated to these categories. The microstructure, articles, data and items of the MDDPSVY will be described in Chapter 7.

5.2.1.4 The dictionary basis

The last aspect to consider in the general preparation phase is the dictionary basis. The dictionary basis of the MDDPSVY must suit the intended dictionary. As already mentioned in Chapter 1, the dictionary basis consists of the following:

The lexicographic corpus forms the primary sources. The lexicographic corpus of the MDDPSVY will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

The secondary sources consist of the set of all the available dictionaries in the specific language. Existing dictionaries could be used to form a preliminary lemma list. These dictionaries or lexicographic works are:

- *Grammaire pounoue et lexique pounou-français*
- *Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou- Yipounou- Français*
- *Bibala. Yivigu yikala na yivigu yigona*

Any other linguistic material that may be consulted as tertiary sources, which comprise all other linguistic material that can be used, e.g. linguistic monographs and papers, and grammars of Yipunu.

5.2.1.4.1 The lexicographic corpus⁹

5.2.1.4.1.1 The lexicographic corpus : an historical perspective

The lexicographic corpus is the set of all the primary sources, which are not dictionaries themselves. In language sciences, a corpus is a body of written text or transcribed speech which can serve as a basis for linguistic analysis and description (Kennedy 1998:1). Nowadays corpora are stored electronically and are known as electronic corpora. An electronic corpus, according to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:21), can be defined in an oversimplified way as a computerised collection of texts. Corpus-based research has been around for more than forty years. The basic idea of a corpus-based dictionary is that the meaning of lexical units cannot be viewed independently of the contexts in which they occur. A corpus-driven perspective could give rise to an entirely new generation of dictionaries. It would list what the corpus analysis reveals or list units of meanings, and not just words, and the meanings it assigns to these units of meaning would be based on their collocation profiles.

From a historical perspective, the earliest major electronic corpus for linguistic research was the pioneering *Brown University Standard Corpus of Present-Day American* (also known as the *Brown Corpus*), a synchronic corpus of roughly one million words (Francis & Kucera 1964). Since the early nineties, beginning with the first major lexicographical mega-corpus project, the *Collins Birmingham University International Language Database (COBUILD)*, corpus sizes went inexorably upwards. Between 1991 and 1995, the *British National Corpus (BNC)* contained about 100 million words and the *Bank of English* more than 320 million words in 1998. Since 2000, corpus sizes continued to grow by several hundreds of millions of words. A collection such as the *Media 24 Archive* for Afrikaans is estimated at 800 million words and could well be one of the biggest corpora in the world.

⁹ Information given in this section comes from seminars on Corpora for African Languages presented by Prof. Prinsloo (2002-2004) at Stellenbosch University.

5.2.1.4.1.2 Balanced versus representative, and organic versus structured corpora

Anyone leafing through the literature on corpus linguistics will quickly find out that the endeavour to compile ‘valid corpora’ (Kennedy’s term) revolves around two concepts, namely ‘balanced corpora’ versus ‘representative corpora’. “Questions associated with ‘representativeness’ and ‘balance’ are complex and often intractable”, according to Kennedy (1998:62). At one extreme, we might look at corpora from a bird’s-eye view and adopt the stance that “the verb most frequently collocating with *corpus* is probably ‘*compile*’” (Johansson 1994), and hence that one simply needs to compile corpora without being concerned about their validity.

According to Kennedy (1998:20, 52, 62):

A general corpus is typically designed to be *balanced*, by containing texts from different genres and domains of use including spoken and written, private and public ... For a corpus to be ‘representative’ there must be a clearly analysed and defined population to take the sample from. But because we cannot be confident we know all the possible text types nor their proportions of use in the population, a ‘representative’ sample is at best a rough approximation to representativeness, given the vast universe of discourse ... the issue is really ‘representative of what?’ In light of the perspectives on variation offered by several decades of research in discourse analysis and sociolinguistics, it is not easy to be confident that a sample of texts can be thoroughly representative of all possible genres or even of a particular genre.

A completely different viewpoint is that of for instance Leech (1991). He calls a corpus ‘representative’ if the findings based on an analysis there of can be generalised, if not to the language as a whole, at least to a specified part of it. Summers also believes in a ‘representative’ corpus, claiming that:

The idea of representativeness has been central to our thinking about the structure of the corpus. We believe that unless the corpus is representative, it is ipso facto unreliable as a means of acquiring lexical knowledge. Our answer to the question: ‘Representative of what?’ would be ‘Representative of the standard language in a very general sense, not restricted to a regional variety ... or a narrow range of text types’ ...

What we mean by representative is covering what we judge to be the typical and central aspects of the language, and providing enough occurrences of words and phrases for the lexicographers ... to believe that they have sufficient evidence from the corpus to make accurate statements about lexical behaviour’ ... ‘to be representative of general language. This is a bold ambition – some say one that is impossible to fulfil (Summers; *s.d* [1995-1998]:6).

Still other scholars simply fuse the two terms, for example,

“COBUILD has always insisted that it is impossible to create a corpus that is truly representative of the language, and have focused on size of corpus rather than balance” (Kilgarriff 1997:150).

“Lexicographers traditionally aim at a ‘representative’ or ‘balanced’ corpus, that is, the corpus should be appropriate as the basis for generalizations concerning the language as a whole” (Kruyt & Dutilh 1997:230).

From the above, it is clear that linguists do not agree on whether a corpus should try to be balanced or representative. It seems as if a corpus will never be balanced because there are too many parameters, and it seems as if a corpus will never be truly representative of all language usage either as it is impossible to define the population. Yet the corpus compiler can strive to come as close to the ideal situation as possible. This agrees with Kennedy’s observation in that “the notions of representativeness and balance are, of course, in the final analysis, matters of judgement and can only be approximate” (1998:62).

Nonetheless, probably one of the most interesting approaches is the one by Atkins. She introduces the concept of ‘organic corpora’:

A corpus builder should first attempt to create a representative corpus. Then this corpus should be used and analysed and its strengths and weaknesses identified and reported. In the light of experience and feedback the corpus is enhanced by addition or deletion of material and the circle repeated continually. This is the way to approach a balanced corpus. One should not try to make a comprehensive and watertight listing ... rather, a corpus may be thought of as organic, and must be allowed to grow and live if it is to reflect a growing living language ... In our ten years’ experience of analysing corpus material for lexicographic purposes, we have found any corpus – however unbalanced – to be a source of information and indeed inspiration. ‘Knowing that your corpus is unbalanced is what counts’ (Atkins 1997: oral communication at Salex’1997).

Formulated differently, it is any corpus compiler’s task to attempt to assemble a representative corpus for his or her specific need(s). Subsequent additions of sections should be seen as a balancing activity to rectify initial weaknesses, but more importantly, also to take account of and track a growing, living language.

5.2.1.4.1.3 African corpora

Prinsloo (2002) states that since “an electronic corpus [is] a crucial aspect in modern linguistics, African corpora must be – and *are* being – built.” The present endeavours in the South African corpus field of which we are aware are summarised in the table below (Prinsloo 2002):

Corpora of South Africa's eleven official languages				
Language	Name	Acronym	Place	size
Afrikaans	Pretoria Afrikaans Corpus	PAfC	Pretoria	0.8million
Afrikaans	Pharos	_	Cape town	2.7 million
English	Corpus of South African English	CoSAE	Port Elizabeth	>2 million
isiNdebele	Pretoria Ndebele Corpus	PNC	Pretoria	0.4 million
isiXhosa	Pretoria Xhosa Corpus	PXhC	Pretoria	1.4 million
isiXhosa	(pilot study)	_	Port Elizabeth	_
isiZulu	Pretoria Zulu Corpus	PZC	Pretoria	0.7 million
isiZulu	(pilot study)	_	Durban	_
Sepedi	Pretoria Sepedi Corpus	PSC	Pretoria	4 million
Sesotho	Pretoria Sesotho Corpus	PSSC	Pretoria	0.2 million
Setswana	Pretoria Setswana Corpus	PSTC	Pretoria	1.2 million
siSwati	Pretoria Swati Corpus	PSwC	Pretoria	0.1 million
Tshivenda	Pretoria Tshivenda Corpus	PTC	Pretoria	0.2 million
Xitsonga	Pretoria Xitsonga Corpus	PXiC	Pretoria	1 million

One can also mention some African languages corpora outside South Africa.

Corpora of African Languages (excluding the South African ones)				
Language	Name	Acronym	Place(s)	Size
ChiShona	ALLEX- Shona Corpus	_	Harare/Oslo/Gothenburg	2.2 million
Cilubà	Recall's Cilubà Corpus	RCC	Ghent	0.3 million
isiNdebele	ALLEX- Ndebele Corpus	_	Harare/ Oslo/Gothenburg	0.7 million
Kiswahili	Kiswahili Internet Corpus	KIC	Pretoria/ Ghent	1.7 million
Kiswahili	Helsinki Corpus of Swahili	HCT	Helsinki	1 million

With regard to Gabonese languages, corpus building is a necessity. Emejulu (2001) and Ekwa Ebanega (2002:188-206) have argued in favour of the compilation of Gabonese corpora. As far as Gabonese corpora are concerned, these are under construction and it is difficult to determine their size. However, the existing Gabonese corpora are *Yipunu Corpus of Blanchon* (undated) and the *Yilumbu Corpus*.

The *Yilumbu Corpus* totals 35,660 words and their concordances. This data corpus collected so far has been the object of a frequency study conducted at the Bureau of the WAT (Mavoungou 2000). The *Yipunu Corpus of Blanchon*, consists of a list 7000 Yipunu types (including their plural forms), thus containing words that occur once in

the corpus. Their types are presented with their French equivalent. The Blanchon list is monodirectional (from Yipunu to French) and presents an ordering on which the first letter of the stem indicates the alphabetical positioning of a word. This corpus is linguistically based and gives all kinds of phonological and morphological diacritics (tones).

mwǎli/ myǎli ‘tree’

dyǎli/ mǎli ‘fruit’

yá:lə/ byá:lə ‘fish’

dwá:lə/ nyálə ‘nail’

bwá:li/ má:li ‘sickness’

Other corpora are needed for the Yipunu language. A Yipunu corpus compiled for the dictionary under discussion may present some similarities with and differences from the Yipunu corpus of Blanchon. One of the differences is that the Yipunu words of the corpus of the proposed dictionary will be written without tones. For a language such as Yipunu, which does not yet have sophisticated dictionaries, taking a corpus as the point of departure for dictionary making is the right way to follow.

In the African context, I agree with Otlogetswe (2006:145-160) that it is not always possible to assemble the representative and balanced corpus ideally wanted. The following are some problems associated with the construction of corpora for dictionary making:

- The poverty of data, which is the lack of texts to construct corpora representative of the different instances of language usage in a specific speech community
- The high illiteracy levels in African countries pose a great challenge to researchers hoping to collect written texts read by specific populations.
- Problems are faced with sampling the standard against non-standard varieties, various sociolects covering status, gender, ethnicity, age, occupation and others, different regional varieties and different registers like casual, formal, technical and others.

- The practical constraints, such as a shortage of time and money, the unavailability of machine-readable text and copyright restrictions.
- The problem of representing speech, which stands as one of the great challenges not only to African lexicographic research, but also to research in many Western countries.

A corpus, ideally, should contain large quantities of both spoken and written data. For the case of Gabonese languages, Nzang Bié (2002:225) indicates that a priority should be given to spoken texts (60%) over written texts (40%). In the same vein, Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:21) indicate that spoken data is absolutely significant for those African languages which do not yet have many written sources. But for a language such as Yipunu, which has some valuable written material; I think that it will be interesting to explore it through corpora. Kennedy's approach (1998:7) that, "in this case of corpus based research, the evidence is derived directly from texts" could be beneficial. The most common source of language material is the written text. Because words are available in their full context, the texts are readily accessible and can be utilised immediately. My point is that Yipunu corpora have to prioritise the written texts (60%) over the spoken ones (40%).

This approach is more realistic given the tricky problems that the lexicographers working on Yipunu are confronted with while collecting oral language material. The corpus for the compilation of the MDDPSVY will consist of 60% of written texts and 40% of spoken ones.

5.2.1.4.1.4 Corpus design

In the literature, 'corpora type dichotomies' can be distinguished. One can, for instance, differentiate between 'general or core corpora' versus 'specialised corpora' (such as training and test corpora (Leech 1991:112), dialect corpora, learner's corpora, etc.) or 'written corpora versus 'spoken corpora', 'full-text corpora' versus 'sample-text corpora', 'synchronic corpora' versus 'diachronic corpora', or even 'static corpora' versus 'dynamic corpora or monitor corpora', 'monolingual corpora'

versus multilingual corpora' (Kennedy 1998:19-23). A 'dynamic or monitor corpus' is an open-ended language bank in which new text opportunistically replaces material which was in the corpus earlier. Although such a corpus is constantly growing and changing, Sinclair (1991:25) points out that the huge number (hundred of millions of words, would gradually "get too large for any practicable handling and will be effectively discarded". A dynamic or monitor corpus should thus not be confused with an organic corpus, for, in the first, vast numbers of running words simply replace careful planning of sampling as the main design criterion.

With this spectrum of possibilities for 'corpus design' – where different poles of various dichotomies can of course be combined – one should keep in mind that "[t]he optimal design of a corpus is highly dependent on the purpose for which it is intended to be used" (Kennedy 1998:70). No general statements can therefore be made. Yet, in order to illustrate possible design methods, we can begin by looking at how the first major lexicographical mega-corpus was conceived. Some of the principles that were used in the creation of the 7.3 million word *COBUILD Main Corpus* have been enumerated by Renouf (1987:2–5): 25% spoken text, broadly general rather than technical language, from 1960 onwards, preferably 'naturally occurring' text, writing and speech produced by adults aged 16 or over.

Spoken texts came from transcripts of radio broadcasts, university archives of oral interviews and lectures; written texts were chosen from widely read works (excluding poetry) and authorship was 25% female. Newspaper and journalistic texts were also thrown in.

With regard to the corpus design of the MDDPSVY, it will

- Be systematically collected and ordered
- Be in one language (Yipunu)
- Select synchronic points of view
- Contain examples of standard language and of other varieties
- Consists of 60% of written texts and 40% of spoken texts

5.2.1.4.1.5 Corpus query tools and query terminology

Corpora are of no use without powerful ‘corpus query tools’. As a minimum requirement, such tools must be able to

- Deal with huge numbers of text files
- Handle files stored in plain texts as well as in mark-up format
- Calculate basic statistics
- Present alphabetical and frequency wordlists
- Provide concordance lines

There are quite a number of software packages available to perform these tasks, like *Corpus Bench* from Denmark, *MonoConc* from the US, *WordSmith tools* from England, or an Access-based program developed at the University of Pretoria.

It is important to note that a large ‘*query terminology*’ is connected with corpus query tools, of which the terms ‘tokens’ or ‘running words’, ‘types’, ‘hapax legomena’ and KWIC concordance are absolutely basic. In corpus linguistics, the terms ‘tokens’ or ‘running words’ stand for the total number of items in a corpus, and the term ‘types’ stand for the total number of different items in a corpus.

The term ‘hapax legomena’ (something said only once) refers to those items which appear only once in a corpus. Normally half of the different words in a corpus occur once only. Finally, ‘KWIC concordance’ is the acronym for ‘keyword in context concordance’ and is “a word or phrase extracted from a text and listed in alphabetical frequency or other order, together with the words occurring in its immediate environment” (Hartmann & James 1998:79), when listing KWIC concordance lines (often shortened to just ‘concordance lines’).

5.2.1.4.1.6 The value of electronic corpora

In dictionary compilation, the data provided by electronic corpora assist the lexicographer in several ways on both the macro- and microstructural levels. The lexicographer is interested in at least two basic outputs of the electronic corpus, namely word-frequency counts and concordance lines. Word-frequency counts can be

used in order to decide which data to include and how to include the data. “The decision what to include in the dictionary still has to be made by the lexicographer himself, however, and this depends in turn upon the nature and size of the dictionary and its intended users. In this respect lemmatised-frequency lists can be a further help, [...] we have reached a stage where co-operation between man and machine is useful and perhaps indispensable in making better dictionaries” (Martin et al. 1983:81-2, 87).

The lemmatised frequency lists are advanced as guidance in order to decide what to put in and what to exclude from a useful dictionary. For instance, the example below lists the twenty most frequently words used in Kiswahili in a corpus consisting of 507,370 running words taken from newspaper and magazine texts. The latter is but a sub-corpus of the 1.3million-large *Kiswahili Internet Corpus* (KIC) currently under construction. (De Schryver & Prinsloo 2001).

<i>N</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Count</i>	<i>%</i>
1	na	24,309	4.79
2	ya	20,614	4.06
3	wa	15,612	3.08
4	kwa	10,379	2.05
5	kuwa	6,897	1.36
6	katika	5,350	1.05
7	ni	5,118	1.01
8	za	4,364	0.86
9	la	3,749	0.74
10	hiyo	3,748	0.74
11	alisema	3,345	0.66
12	huyo	3,280	0.65
13	bw	3,008	0.59
14	cha	2,996	0.59
15	kwamba	2,389	0.47
16	kama	2,329	0.46
17	yake	2,286	0.45

18	baada	1,899	0.37
19	hilo	1,860	0.37
20	huo	1, 786	0.35

Kiswahili (counts in the Newspaper & Magazine Sub-corpus of KIC)

On the microstructural level, corpora are indispensable as an aid to sense distinction for the writing of better definitions as far as monolingual dictionaries are concerned. Concordance lines also reflect typical collocations, idioms, proverbs and examples of usage. The concordance lines take the lexicographer to the heart of the actual usage of words through the display of the word(s) in context, allowing the lexicographer to see up to several dozens of contexts at a glance. A corpus helps the lexicographer considerably to ascertain whether all relevant senses of a particular lemma have been covered. A simple word such as *run*,¹⁰ for example, contains an astonishing 82 different senses and roughly 350 sub-senses in the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1992). The chance of a dictionary compiler gathering all of these senses and sub-senses on the basis of intuition is zero. However, by studying a selection or screenful of corpus lines, as in the oversimplified example shown below, which is a tiny extract of *crawl* concordance lines from the *British National Corpus*, the various senses and sub-senses can easily be determined.

You have to	crawl	along these tunnels
Exhausted fugitives	crawl	from the lake
Too tired even to read, he	crawled	into bed
A two-mile tail-back	crawled	towards the auditorium
... as if a gigantic spider had just	crawled	across the table
You've got little brown insects	crawling	about all over you
The whole kitchen was	crawling	with ants

¹⁰ These examples come from Prof. Prinsloo's seminar on Corpora of African languages held at Stellenbosch University (2002).

East Germany is	crawling	with spies and traitors
Dark heavy clouds	crawling	across the sky
Angela Morgan's car was being	crawled	over inch by inch by a forensic team
Let's stop trying to get women to support us by	crawling	to them
There was a little sheep trail	crawling	up the hillside
She was having little chats as she	crawled	down the list
The days before then seemed to	crawl	past

A single glance at these lines is sufficient to detect the main senses of *crawl*, such as 'moving on hands and feet', 'time moving slowly', 'be overcrowded', etc.

5.2.2. The material acquisition phase

The result of the material acquisition phase is the compilation of the data basis or a lexicographic corpus. The preceding section has given a discussion of the corpus. The focus in this part will be on the material collection.

5.2.2.1 Text collection

Language material collection is necessary when compiling a good dictionary and is the first step towards the construction of a language material database or a corpus. By language material we understand processed information obtained from various media and sources.

5.2.2.1.1 Language material collection policy

The first step towards a well-balanced dictionary is a policy that specifies that the language material should be representative and balanced. Representativeness is a

normative guideline pertaining to the period, region and subject of the language material. The collected language material of the proposed dictionary should represent the spoken (40%) and written languages (60%). I have previously argued that it is not always possible in the case of African languages to assemble a representative and balanced corpus. However, the envisaged dictionary will be representative in terms of all the areas where there are mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu, namely Libreville, Mabanda, Moabi, Mouila, Ndendé and Tchibanga, and in terms of the urban and rural areas. The language material policy is dynamic in the sense that it is drawn up with the following considerations in mind:

- The type of dictionary to be compiled (in our case the monolingual one)
- The target reader (mother-tongue speakers and learners)
- The state and composition of the existing language data (e.g. supplementing an existing language data)
- The flexibility of the corpus (e.g. new or existing projects utilising the same corpus, adding new types of data to the existing corpus)

Such a policy should also guide a project regarding the types of language material, i.e. the spoken and the written sources collected and the methods of collection.

5.2.2.1.2 Methods of language material collection

Yipunu material from various types of sources will be collected. As mentioned previously, the MDDPSVY corpus will come from written (60%) and spoken sources (40%). The various collection methods followed by source material collectors depend on the type of source material collected for the proposed dictionary.

5.2.2.1.2.1 Methods of collecting oral material

Oral material of the MDDPSVY corpus may include public material such as scripted radio, Yipunu songs from Bapunu singers such as Christian Makaya (Mackjoss), Annie-Flore Batsiellilys and the deceased Véronique Itsiembou, as well as natural, spontaneous or private material such as recordings and transcripts of conversations, dialogues and interviews. This oral material for the MDDPSVY corpus can be

collected by means of unstructured and structured interviews. The informants and the interviewers for the compilation of the MDDPSVY must be fluent mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu. The fact that the interviewers are fluent mother-tongue speakers is also interesting from a cultural point of view. Both informants and interviewers are aware of the cultural orientation of the Yipunu society (what is considered improper to discuss in the public domain and what not, such as sexuality). For the interviews, the lexicographer must be equipped with recording equipment: a recorder and some cassettes. The lexicographer needs assistance with regard to data collection.

The makers of MDDPSVY can make an appeal to get more interviewers involved in the collection of oral material. All these interviewers need to be trained in data collection like the interviewers of the Ndebele Language Corpus of Zimbabwe. Hadebe (2002:163-164) indicates that “the student research assistants were fluent mother-tongue speakers of Ndebele, they had undergone a crash course on the basics of fieldwork that included training in the use of audio-recorders and transcribing recorded material.”

The interviewers of the Yipunu corpus can, like those of the Ndebele Language Corpus, work in their home districts and towns. It adds advantage in the sense that they are familiar with the people and know their potential to provide certain information. Each of the interviewers for the Yipunu corpus will be responsible for determining whether to use a structured or an unstructured interview. Some will begin as structured but flow into more or less unstructured discussions. Guidelines will be given for typical structured interviews on specific topics on which they are required to gather material. With regard to oral sources, Kennedy (1998:71) emphasises that careful thought needs to be given to which genres should be included when oral sources are part of a corpus. Kennedy (1998:72) lists the following categories, which may be considered for inclusion in a corpus of oral sources:

Monologue

- formal
- written to be read aloud
- prepared but unscripted public speech
- less formal
- academic lectures
- commentaries on public occasions
- sports commentaries
- demonstrations

Dialogue

- face-to-face dialogue
- public discussion (e.g. on radio)
- business or professional transactions, e.g.
- client and professional
- workplace interaction between colleagues
- commercial (sales) transaction
- informal
- within family
- between friends
- telephone dialogue
- between interlocutors known to each other
- between interlocutors unknown to each other
- structured interaction
- interview
- formal, e.g. arts programme
- less formal, e.g. with survivors and witnesses to events such as accidents
- debate

Nzang Bié (2002:222-223), following in Kennedy's footsteps, proposes interesting subjects connected to the oral sources of Fang-Mekè and, to a large extent, to other Gabonese languages.

These subjects are contained in the following figure:

Monologue

- radio and television programmes
- news presentation, commercial
- public advertisements, cultural advertisements, sports commentaries
- music
- movies
- documentaries
- theatre

Dialogue

- free production (allow getting access to various subjects)
- participation in various celebrations
- rituals
- funerals (bereavement, widowhood etc.)
- folk, traditional music
- initiation rites
- religious
- settling of debate
- traditional court
- making-up
- body care
- cleansing
- divination
- marriage

This list is not exhaustive; other topics can be added such as recording of the teachers of Yipunu, church sermons, etc. Interviewers will be given the discretion to choose between structured and unstructured interviews depending on what they think best in prevailing circumstances. Concerning the recording of teachers, the teachers involved will do the recordings themselves in some classrooms to avoid the presence of a stranger. In some situations, a particular speaker in terms of name, age and occupation will be identified. All oral interviews will be marked with these details for record purposes. All interviewers will be given notebooks in order to use it like diaries to record in detail all research experiences.

The oral material can be subdivided into oral interviews and oral recordings (classroom lessons, church sermons, court session, wedding ceremonies, radio recordings).

5.2.2.1.2.2 Method of collecting written texts

Written source material may be obtained from Yipunu publications:

- *Bibala*,
- *Recueil de cantiques en langue des Bapounou/ Nyimbu tsimusamu uboti*
- textbooks (*Rapidolangue*);
- Kwenzi Mikala's works
- Raponda Walker's works
- Unpublished dissertations and theses on Yipunu of master's and doctoral students.

In Smit's (1996:124) view, one could add several types of codes and other information to the excerpted texts. For example, while extracting citations from books, one could classify the type of text from which the citations come by means of categories such as

- Indication of the publishing date, volume, number, day, page
- Number within the corpus
- Place of origin
- Author of the book
- Agency
- Subject
- Special field

5.2.2.1.2.3 Composition of the MDDPSVY corpus

As mentioned above, the MDDPSVY corpus will consist of both oral and written texts, all transcribed and converted into machine-readable texts. The oral material can be subdivided into oral recordings (of classroom lessons, traditional wedding, funerals, church sermons), oral interviews, radio and songs of Bapunu singers. The written texts include publications and religious literature mentioned above and manuscripts, for example unpublished dissertations and theses.

<i>Type of texts</i>	<i>Quantity in%</i>
<p><u>Written Material</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Religious literature <p>-<i>Bibala</i></p> <p>-<i>Recueil de cantiques en langue des Bapounou/ Nyimbu tsimusamu uboti</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Publications <p>-<i>Rapidolangue</i> (textbooks)</p> <p>-Kwenzi Mikala's works</p> <p>-Raponda Walker's works on Yipunu</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manuscripts <p>Unpublished dissertations and theses</p>	60
<p><u>Oral Material</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Radio recordings • Yipunu songs of Christian Makaya Mackjoss, of Annie-Flore Batsiellilys and of the deceased Véronique Itsiembou • Oral recordings (weddings, marketplace, church, schools, funerals, etc.) • Oral interviews 	40

5.2.3 The material preparation phase

In this phase especially, the oral material must be transcribed and scanned into the computer for eventual inclusion in the corpus. The recordings of spoken language must be transcribed on a word processor using the (created standardised) orthography,

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and instantly saved in computer files. When it comes to existing written material, there seems to be three ways of entering them into computer files: a) electronic transfer, b) (re)keyboarding i.e. typing of handwritten documents or even printed matter into computer files, and c) scanning of printed matter into computer files by means of the so-called OCR (Optical Character Recognition) process using computer software such as OmniPage. This phase gives the staff of the dictionary project the opportunity to sort the material in order to omit material that cannot be used. Once the corpus is in order, the lexicographer can proceed with the macrostructural selection to present the lexical items to be included as lemmata in the dictionary. The macrostructural selection for the proposed dictionary will be discussed in the section below.

5.2.3.1 Selection strategy of lemmata in the MDDPSVY corpus

The lexicographer, in devising the macrostructure of a dictionary, should devise criteria for the selection of lexical items to be included and treated in the dictionary. One of the criteria defined by lexicographers is that of frequency of use. Lexical items are selected from a corpus and entered in the dictionary as lemma candidates by the criteria of frequency of use. Frequency of use is the method of solving one basic problem at the macrostructural level, namely what to include and what to exclude from the dictionary. As far as the proposed dictionary is concerned, frequency of use will serve to enter lemmata in the dictionary. The words most frequently used will be included as lemmata in the proposed dictionary. Frequency counts are very useful in the selection of entries for the central list of a dictionary. As illustration, one can find below the ten Yipunu words most frequently used extracted from texts of Yipunu Christian songs of CMA (1980). These words are presented alphabetically.

	<i>Word</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
1	a	19	0.87
2	ami	21	0.96
3	fumu	24	1.10
4	ka	15	0.69
5	la	16	0.73

6	le	15	0.69
7	mu	53	2.43
8	na	72	3.30
9	no	15	0.69
10	nsambi	16	0.73

With the use of a computerised database and electronic corpus, it is much less of an effort than in the time before user-friendly and accessible computer programs to determine the most frequently used lexical items.

However, the lexicographer cannot leave the task of selecting entries completely to the principle of frequent use. Frequency lists can easily fail to show certain words that, although not frequently used, are still an essential part of the language. Lexical items with taboo status can be a good illustration of this. Taboo refers to terms that are inappropriate for use in a certain social context or register. Even though in Yipunu words that are taboo are not frequently used by speakers and even less in written texts, it does not mean that a lexicographer should refrain from selecting these lexical items for entries in the macrostructure.

I share the argument of Van Huysteen (2002) who writes that, in the African languages of South Africa, the concept of taboo is very important for lexicographers who have to devise and lemmatise new terms for sex education, specifically in relation to HIV/AIDS. She explains that for instance in Zulu culture taboo refers to sexual connotation in a direct fashion. The taboo term is then described through the use of an inoffensive expression, an *Ihlonipho*, in order to show respect through avoidance. Frequency lists might pick up on some of the euphemistic expressions used to deal with taboo words, but, as Van Huysteen states, lexicographers have to deal with the taboo as well when devising and lemmatising terms dealing with sex education or HIV/AIDS.

Another instance where frequency counts are not necessarily a sufficient way of selecting items is specialised or technical terms. Magay (1984) performed a number of tests in which he investigated the value of frequency counts in the selection of

specialised terms for admission to the macrostructure of a medium-sized bilingual dictionary. He checked several frequency counts for the inclusion of the names of diseases and came to the conclusion that word-frequency counts are of little use when specialised terms are to be integrated into the general vocabulary. This point of taboo words and specialised terms should warn the lexicographer to question or at least re-evaluate the entries selected on the grounds of frequency before the final selection of entries for the central list of a dictionary.

5.2.4 The material processing phase

The material processing phase comprises, according to Gouws (2001b:70), the application of the data distribution structure and the writing of the dictionary texts. The data distribution structure determines the specific position of each data type in the texts accommodated in the front and back matter, while other data will be included in the articles, the texts constituting the central list of a dictionary. The proposed dictionary will contain a front matter, a central list, a middle matter and a back matter. Regarding the micro-architecture, Bergenholtz, Tarp and Wiegand (1999) distinguish between dictionary articles with and without a micro-architecture.

The following article from the *Dictionnaire Hachette Langue Française* does not display a micro-architecture:

Minable [minabl] adj. et n. **1.** Qui fait pitié. *Aspect minable.*

2. Fam. Médiocre, dérisoire. *Des resultants minables.* – Subst. *Un minable.*

♦De miner

The introduction of a micro-architecture could lead to the following presentation:

Minable [minabl] adj. et n.

1. Qui fait pitié. *Aspect minable.*

2. Fam. Médiocre, dérisoire. *Des resultants minables.* – Subst. *Un minable.*

♦De miner

With regard to the writing of dictionary texts, Wiegand (quoted by Smit 1996:117) distinguishes between the planning phase and the actual writing of the articles. According to Smit¹¹ (1996:117), the planning phase concerns the planning of the time span and the organisation of the dictionary project. Usually, the work is divided between members of the dictionary staff. At the head of staff is a chief editor. The work can be divided in several ways. Every person of the project is responsible for certain letters of the alphabet, or for certain subjects. The articles supplied by the lexicographer are evaluated by other co-editors and corrected at least twice. The articles should be ready for the press when they reach the chief editor, who edits them once more. The staff has to complete a certain amount of work according to certain standards within a specific period. Zgusta (1971:351) notes,

It is also necessary that all the (sub) editors have an intimate knowledge of all the aims, purposes, intentions, etc. of the prepared dictionary, and of its character, scope, etc., so that the particular concrete decisions are always made on the background of the general policy and on its implementation.

All articles containing expressions in languages for special purposes are sent to institutions (for example the CNT, *Commission Nationale de Terminologie*) or special-field experts for evaluation of the initial choice of lemmata from the special-field languages. They are free to suggest modifications. Afterwards, the co-editors once again edit the articles. The time span for the completion of a dictionary should also be set out at the beginning of the project. For example, it should be stated how long the co-editors have to work on their own sections, and how long the editing and correcting phase will be. For the actual writing of dictionary articles, the selection of lemma signs from the dictionary basis must take place on the macrostructural level. Then these lemma signs must be alphabetised and lemmatised, followed by the phase of the internal or inner selection. This entails the actual writing of the dictionary article.

5.2.5 The publishing preparation phase

¹¹ This paragraph is based on Smit (1996:117).

The final phase of the dictionary conceptualisation is the preparation for the publishing of the dictionary. From an editorial point of view, this phase is directed at the various stages of proofreading and final adjustments to the manuscript. Regarding the editing, one or more editors (editorial staff) should revise the work of the others. Amongst other things, he or she must see to it that the editorial style guide is followed correctly to ensure that the dictionary has a uniform character. She or he has to look at the data and decide whether it has been interpreted correctly. Firstly, she or he must judge whether the inclusion of the lemma complies with the inclusion policy; check the pronunciation indicated, the grammatical information supplied, etc.; ascertain whether the factual information in the definition is correct, whether it is clearly and unambiguously formulated; see that a disproportionate number of quotations is not used; and check all cross-references to ensure that the dictionary is a reliable and closely knit unit. But, fortunately, editing is not only about checking up and correcting mistakes. It is also of invaluable help to the younger colleagues who learn a tremendous amount from the changes suggested. In the beginning, the changes should always be discussed with younger colleagues because this promotes the learning process (cf. Hartevelde & Louw 2004).

5.3 Conclusion

This chapter has described the dictionary plan and the planning phases of the intended dictionary, namely the general preparation phase, the material acquisition phase, the material preparation phase, the material processing phase and the publishing preparation phase. It has been stated that the MDDPSVY makers must formulate the genuine purpose of the proposed dictionary, must pay attention to the macrostructural selection and presentation, the compilation of a style guide that ensures the uniformity and the consistency of the dictionary, and the microstructural programme.

They must also take into account the dictionary basis which suits the intended dictionary. The proposed dictionary intends to be a corpus-based dictionary. The corpus intends to be a monolingual synchronic corpus, which includes both written and spoken languages. The corpus of the proposed dictionary gives priority to the written material. The corpus of the MDDPSVY will be composed of 60% written texts and 40% spoken material. The spoken texts will be subdivided in radio

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recordings, oral recordings and interviews. The written texts consist of publications and manuscripts. At the macrostructural level, the frequency counts will be very useful in the selection of entries for the central list of the proposed dictionary. On the microstructural level, the concordance lines are an aid to sense distinction. Concordance lines also reflect typical collocations, idioms, proverbs and examples of usage.

CHAPTER 6: MACROSTRUCTURE OF THE MDDPSVY

6.0 Introductory remarks on the macrostructure

The macrostructure is regarded as the ordered set of all lemmata of a dictionary. The first major problem with which a lexicographer is confronted on the macrostructural level is “to decide what to put in the dictionary and what to exclude” (Tomaszczyk 1983:51). Other problems confronting the lexicographer are decisions about the form of the lemma, the type of macrostructural ordering and the types of lemma to incorporate in the proposed dictionary. The criterion for the inclusion policy of lemmata in the macrostructure of the proposed dictionary is the frequency factor. It has been stated that the MDDPSVY will rely on observable frequencies from a corpus. Frequencies inform decisions on which words to include in the proposed dictionary. Frequency information can be given in the dictionary to highlight those words which are most common, and frequency help to organise the information on an individual word so that the most frequent senses are given priority.

The nature of the macrostructure of the MDDPSVY, the type of articles, the macrostructural procedures and strategies of the proposed dictionary will be determined in accordance with the genuine purpose of the dictionary, in addition to the needs and reference skills of its target users. This chapter will discuss these various aspects of the macrostructure of the envisaged dictionary.

6.1 Macrostructural elements of the MDDPSVY

6.1.1 Standard form and dialectal or regional variation

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Yipunu has a number of dialects marked by differences in spelling, pronunciation, semantics, grammar and vocabulary. For instance, the meaning of the verb “*utsuna*” is *ulaba, ughengila* ‘to look, to see’ for the majority of Bapunu, but for the Bapunu of Mouila and Ndendé it also means *uwivhula* ‘to question, to ask’. The word for ‘God’ is “*Nsambi*” for the Bapunu of the towns of

The model I am proposing will give an account of the dialectal differences in Yipunu and make provision for the inclusion of their standard form as well as these regional or dialectal variations. The standard form can be defined as the form which is used by the majority of Bapunu speakers, and the regional variation as the form used by a certain region of the Bapunu speakers. The standard form will be deduced from the corpus according to the frequency criteria. Both the standard and the regional forms will be incorporated at macrostructural level. The dialectal or regional form is introduced in the microstructure of the proposed dictionary by an abbreviated marker ‘duk.ji’, ‘dukakulu ji’ which means ‘variant of’. The regional form will be treated by means of a cross-reference to its standard form, which is indicated by small capitals. For instance, the regional variations mentioned above, *Nyambi*, *mbingu* and *uwivhula*, will be treated in the proposed dictionary as follows:

Nyambi ... duk. ji NSAMBI

mbingu ... duk. ji BIJUJI

-wivhula ... duk. ji -TSUNA

The MDDPSVY will not mark dialectal sources or areas to avoid division among speakers of the language. It will exclude such information in order to produce a standard Yipunu to unify speakers of different geographical locations in the Yipunu-speaking communities. In the articles of the lemmata of standard forms mentioned above, the regional form will be indicated in bold and roman letters. These regional forms will be followed by a Yipunu marker WANDI, which means ALSO. The following examples illustrate the point in question:

-tsuna

1. -laba, -ghengila

2 (-whivula WANDI)

Nsambi (Nyambi WANDI)

bijuji (mbingu WANDI)

One remarks that the verbs *-tsuna*, *-whivula*, *-ghengila* are entered in the MDDPSVY according to their stem. This lemmatisation of verbs in the MDDPSVY will have a detailed discussion later on in this chapter.

6.1.2 Technical terms

Chapter 2 recommends that the special terms of the future dictionaries of Yipunu should not be restricted to the field of anatomy, sorcery and Christian religion. They should embrace other special field terms. Therefore, the proposed dictionary will include the technical terms of other fields in addition to the field of anatomy, sorcery and Christian religion. Svensén (1993:49) notes that technical language arises as a consequence of constant development and specialisation in the fields of science, technology and sociology. There are many specialised terms used in technical subjects in education, economics, sport, law, medicine and others. However, despite their origin in the terminology of various technical fields, many of these terms make their way into general language and become known to lay-people.

Svensén (1993:49) notes that general and broad terms within a certain area tend to move more readily across from technical to general language than terms representing specific concepts. Not all technical terms are eligible for selection as lemmas for the proposed dictionary. The eligibility of specialised and technical terms will not be based on their importance in their respective subject areas, but on their use in general language. According to Hartmann and James (1998:140), “the term *terminology* refers to a field concerned with the theory and practice of coining, documenting and explaining technical terms in general and their use in particular fields of specialisation.” The proposed dictionary will include the technical terms that are used among Bapunu speakers.

In addition to the field of anatomy, sorcery and Christian religion, the proposed dictionary will include Yipunu terms of medicinal plants extracted from the lexicographic work *Les Plantes Utiles du Gabon* (The Useful Plants of Gabon) by Raponda Walker and Sillans (1961). This work contains encyclopaedic data on different species, their features, habitat, denominations and pharmacological virtues, in all the Gabonese languages, in addition to other cultural usages like the marking of fabric, furniture, and gives both the scientific and the local names of plants. The proposed dictionary will also contain names of Yipunu trees. Borobou Borobou, Kwenzi Mikala and Mounzeo (1997: 119-150) made a thematic study of 62 Punu paremies in relation to the vegetal world. These paremies constitute a coded language that allows the whole Punu society to educate and criticise the members of the community. The publication of paremies goes together with some plants of the Gabonese forest. Some Yipunu trees and their scientific names are as follows:

Yipunu name	Scientific name
<i>dibala</i>	Musanga cecropioide
<i>dighembi</i>	Stychnos aculate, Loganiaceae
<i>ditsanda</i>	Ficus sp, Moraceae
<i>duvhunga</i>	Urena biboba
<i>mukumi</i>	Aucoumea Klaineana
<i>mulenda</i>	Irvingia grandifolia, Irvingiaceae
<i>musafu</i>	Dracryodes edulis, burseraceae
<i>musungu</i>	Saccharum officinarum, Poaceae
<i>mwabi</i>	Baillonella toxiperma, Sapaceae
<i>yatsi</i>	Elaeis guineensis, Arecaceae

The proposed dictionary will also incorporate the names of poisonous plants (itchio-plants) utilised by the Bapunu speaking people for fishing. According to Mounzeo (1997:103; quoted by Mihindou 2006:56),

[F]ishing poisons are used by women in rural areas to catch fish in streams, watercourses, etc. in the dry season period when the water starts to dry up. However, before they start fishing women make two

dams across the river, one upstream and one downstream, they crush and spread the poisonous mixture in the water. Leaves, bark, fruit and sometimes the entire plant are the ingredient of these poisons.

Below are some of these poisonous plants and their scientific counterparts:

Yipunu poisonous plant	Scientific names
<i>Dighembi</i>	Strychnos aculeata
<i>Kungi</i>	Justicia extensa
<i>Mukese mbedi</i>	Uraria picta
<i>Mumandi</i>	Brenania brieyi
<i>Ngudu</i>	Tephrosia vogelii
<i>Tsofi</i>	Raphia hookeri

With regard to the field of medicine, the proposed dictionary will take in the medical terms related to the parts of the human body and some diseases frequently contracted by the Bapunu communities. The following tables list some of these Yipunu terms of parts of the human body and diseases and their French and English equivalents (cf. Mihindou 2006):

Yipunu terms for parts of the human body	French equivalent	English equivalent
<i>diisu, miisu</i>	oeil, yeux	eye(s)
<i>dituji, matuji</i>	oreille(s)	ear(s)
<i>mulembu, milembu</i>	doigt(s)	finger(s)
<i>mulembu mulumi</i>	pouce	thumb
<i>mulembu tsyeli</i>	auriculaire	little finger
<i>mulembu ghaari</i>	majeur (medium)	middle finger
<i>nduka tsyeli</i>	annulaire	ring finger
<i>yivhenda yaamba</i>	index	index finger

Yipunu terms of diseases	French equivalent	English equivalent
<i>bafilera</i>	Les filaires	filariasis
<i>mubaaki</i>	Tuberculose	Tuberculosis
<i>muvhita</i>	asthme	asthma
<i>palu/ dibaghu</i>	Paludisme	Malaria
<i>yitsyedi/ isyedi</i>	Panaris	whitlow

The proposed dictionary will include all these indigenous technical terms that are used among Bapunu speakers. The proposed dictionary will also include their scientific counterparts. The proposed dictionary will consider them as synonyms. The treatment of the technical terms *dighembi* and *kungi* will be presented as follows:

dighembi= *strychnos aculeata*

kungi= *justicia extenca*

6.1.2.1 Terminological procedures

In order to develop special-field terminologies for various subjects, terminologists and terminographers traditionally use, among other things, the following means (Alberts 1999:26):

- Transliteration
- Loan words
- Total embedding or adoption
- Extension of meaning
- Neologisms (new coinages)

6.1.2.1.1 Transliteration

According to Alberts (1999:27) the classic stem (usually Latin or Greek) is used to coin an equivalent.

Silver: ME from OE *seolfor*; akin to OHG *silabar*, *silbar*, *silver*, ON *silfr*, Goth *silul-* all from a prehistoric Germanic word borrowed from an Asiatic source language. Equivalents in South African languages: *silver*, *silwer*, *silibera*, *silefera*, *solefera*, *isilivere*, and *isiliva*. **Bail:** ME *bail*, *baille*, from MF *bail*, from *bailer* “to give, deliver”, from L *bajula*. “to bear a burden, keep in custody”, from *Bajulus* “porter, load carrier”. Equivalents in English, Afrikaans and Sepedi are **bail**, **borg** and **peile** respectively. The source language (English) was used to coin the term equivalent in Sepedi. A **p** was used instead of a **b** to get the right pronunciation in Sepedi.

In the Gabonese context, the French word *école* “school” has the following equivalents in the Gabonese languages Fang, Yinzebi, Leembaama and Yipunu respectively: *sikolo*, *lekole*, *lekoolo* and *yikola*. The word *dollar* borrowed from English has the equivalent *doli* in Yipunu and *dole* in Fang. In Fang and Yipunu *doli*

and *dole* have the meaning of “money”. The source language (English) was used to coin the term equivalent in Yipunu. A *i* was used instead of *ar* to get the right pronunciation in Yipunu.

Taking about South African languages, Mphahlele (2004:347) argues that transliteration should not be regarded as the first but the last solution after all measures for supplying term equivalents have failed. For Gabonese languages, I consider transliteration to be the first solution. As I have observed in the examples above, transliteration takes place naturally in Gabonese languages.

6.1.2.1.2 Loan words (borrowings)

Languages are not static systems. They develop and change, add new items while others become outdated. These changes can be clearly observed in the lexicon especially. No language can afford to ignore foreign influence. In the Gabonese situation, languages are in contact with each other and with French. The proposed dictionary should take into account this foreign influence and represent the Yipunu living language as the people use it. Concerning the contact between Yipunu and other Gabonese languages, Idiata and Blanchon (forthcoming) have investigated the closeness of the languages of the Shira Punu group and Merye group in terms of word lists and lexicostatistic analyses. The lexicostatistic analysis of Idiata and Blanchon (forthcoming) reveals that Yipunu shares a certain amount of vocabulary with Ghisira, Yilumbu and Yisangu:

	Ghisira	Yisangu	<i>Yipunu</i>	Yilumbu
Ghisira		76%	73%	57.8%
Yisangu	76%		73%	57.8%
<i>Yipunu</i>	73%	73%		57.8%
Yilumbu	57.8 %	57.8%	57.8%	

The dialectological data of the four languages (Ghisira, Yisangu, Yipunu and Yilumbu) shows that one can group these languages into three tendencies, whatever criterion one can restrain: (1) *Ghisira* and *Yisangu* are closer with 76% of the common vocabulary; (2) *Ghisira*, *Yisangu* and *Yipunu* have at least a 73% common lexis; (3) *Yilumbu* only shares a 57.8% similarity at the lexical level with the three other languages.

The problem of loan words in Yipunu has received attention from Kwenzi Mikala (1989:157-170), who has investigated 70 nouns borrowed from French. He concurs that some loan words have been adapted and integrated into the structure of Yipunu. However, others that were not adapted can be problematic to the phonological structure of Yipunu¹². As far as the usage of loan words is concerned, it depends mainly on different social factors like age, geographical area and education. For example, the loan word *sapu* borrowed from the French word “chapeau” (hat) is frequently used in urban areas, whilst its indigenous counterpart *yipokulu* exists naturally in rural areas.

Yipunu has some loan words that also have indigenous counterparts. With regard to the dichotomy loan words versus indigenous counterparts, the lexicographer is faced with a dilemma. Does he or she include both loan words and their indigenous counterparts? To solve this dilemma, the usage frequency from the Yipunu corpus helps to reveal which one of the lexical items mother-tongue speakers use on a daily basis. However, the lexicographer could also compile a list of Yipunu loan words that have their indigenous counterparts in the language. Then he or she could use the list in question in order to determine user preferences for loan words versus indigenous or ‘genuine’ words. Researchers like Nong et al. (2002) have emphasised, in the case of Northern Sotho that the problem of loan words lies in language attitude, which varies from generation to generation.

Nong et al. (2002:7) state that, in the case of loan words versus indigenous words in Northern Sotho, the indigenous words will be treated in the dictionary and the loan words should only be used if there is no good alternative. The language attitude

¹² Cf. Chapter 3 section 4.3.4.

towards loan words of Bapunu mother-tongue speakers is also a determining factor for the inclusion of loan words versus indigenous words. Through informal discussions, I have found that the Bapunu speakers want their monolingual dictionary “pure” in the sense that it should include all the existing indigenous words. The Bapunu mother-tongue speakers whom I have interviewed do not at all want the loan words and even think that the lexicographer should create or propose some indigenous words for the loan that does not have an equivalent. The Bapunu speakers feel that the indigenous words have to be included in the proposed dictionary for the purpose of preserving and safeguarding the language. They argue that the former generation of the Bapunu speakers created words or terms for some Western realities they did not know. It is the duty of the lexicographer, according to the interviewers, to record them and to preserve them in the proposed dictionary. The loan words are already in the language and, because they are frequently used, will take time to disappear. In contrast, the indigenous words, if they are not engraved in the dictionary, will vanish. Therefore, the proposed dictionary will be purist and will show preference for the inclusion of indigenous words.

The proposed dictionary will follow the approach of Nong et al (2002:7) in using loan words only if there is no good alternative. For instance, *yipokulu* ‘hat’ will be included instead of its counterpart loan words *sapu*. For a better understanding of the lemma *yipokulu* the lexicographers of the proposed dictionary will add a picture referring to the relevant lemma. The purpose of including pictorial illustrations is to help the users who are not familiar with the word in question to understand and/or know through visualisation what the word means. A more comprehensive discussion of pictorial illustrations will be given in the following chapter.

The Yipunu loan word *diploma* borrowed from French ‘diplôme’ which means ‘diploma’ does not have indigenous counterparts and will be considered as a lemma.

diploma [dipomə] *n. pl. maploma*

◆yiFwala, *diplôme*

In treating the loan word *diploma*, the etymology of the word is indicated by the marker ♦. The proposed dictionary also gives the original language and the etymology of the word for the loan word.

6.1.2.1.3 Total embedding or adoption

A term is used in its original form without transliteration. The original term usually stems from Latin (e.g. the case of legal or medical terms) or Italian (e.g. the case of music terms). The term is embedded in the target language without changing or adapting any part of the original source language term. The terms are usually explained in the target language to enable users to use them appropriately. Examples are as follows:

Bona fide

Mutatis mutandis

Vice versa

As far as the proposed dictionary is concerned, total embedding or adaptation will be the last option.

6.1.2.1.4 Extension of meaning

An existing word is used, but its meaning is broadened to encompass the new concept. Alberts (1999:29) illustrates this point by giving the example of *Bafanabafana*. *Bafanabafana* (“boys”): term for national soccer team that can be regarded as young competitors (“boys”) in the international soccer scene. The Yipunu word *kafi*, which means “coffee”, is borrowed from the French “café”. This meaning of coffee has extended to breakfast due to the fact that the Bapunu people of urban areas have mostly coffee for breakfast or sometimes take a traditional tea “*disosu*”.

6.1.2.1.5 Neologisms (new coinages)

New terms have to be coined for new inventions, situations and articles. For example, Yipunu should create terms for *cellphone*, *microwave*, *computer*, *AIDS*, etc. For *AIDS*, the Bapunu mother-tongue speakers use the three terms *Sida* [sidə] *mubedi*, *sidoni*¹³. The Yipunu term *Sida* [sidə] is borrowed from French *Sida* (*Syndrome Immuno-Déficiare Acquis*). The Yipunu term *mubedi* refers to “the loser”. This term is used during plays. Symbolically, the *mubedi* one must drink bottles of water or soups when he or she loses. While he or she is drinking, the others mock him or her and call him *mudebi*! The use of *mubedi* for *AIDS* is in its analogical sense. It seems that if one plays with *AIDS* and if you catch it, you have lost your life. *Sidoni* is a French female first name (*Sidonie*) and the Bapunu mother-tongue speakers use it ironically because, in their mind, people who have *AIDS* have taken this woman “*sidoni*” who has seduced them.

In the proposed dictionary, the term *sida* will be included as lemma and its treatment is the following:

Si.da [sidə]
 ♦yiFwala, Sida Syndrome Immuno-Déficitaire
 Acquis. (**mubedi**, **sidoni** WANDI)

In treating the lemma ‘*Sida*’, the terms *mudebi* and *sidoni* will be included as variants of *Sida* in the proposed dictionary. The treatment of *Sida* gives the data on etymology.

si.do.ni [sidɔni] musiedu duk.ji SIDA

In the treatment of the lemma **sidoni**, the marker **musiedu** indicates the stylistic label ‘ironic’.

mudebi will be treated as follows in the proposed dictionary:

¹³ This information comes from Mihindou. He has proposed a metalexicographical model for the compilation of a Yipunu-French-English explanatory dictionary of medical terms (cf. Bibliography).

mu.de.bi [mubedi]

1. divhindulu

2. **nana** duk.ji SIDA

In the treatment of **mubedi**, the variant of sida is introduced as the second sense. The marker **nana** indicates the stylistic label ‘by analogy’. The system of labelling in the dictionary under discussion will have a detailed discussion in the following chapter.

6.1.3 Cultural terms

Hammerly (2002:45; quoted by Rubanza 2002:45) defines *culture* widely as a ‘broad concept that embraces all aspects of a life of a man, that is the total way of life of a people.’ The proposed dictionary could be a mirror in which the speaker of Yipunu (mupunu speaker) must recognise both as a native user and as a participant in culture (Tomba Moussavou 2002:167). As a mirror of social, political and religious values of the Yipunu society, the MDDPSVY constitutes the cultural norm of this speech community. The proposed dictionary will include *culture-bound lexical units*. According to Tomaszczyk (1984:289), “culture-bound lexical units include items which represent objects, ideas and other phenomena that are truly unique to a given speech community.” The MDDPSVY could make a contribution to fulfil some social and cultural needs of the Yipunu speech community. This standard dictionary will prevent the Yipunu culture from vanishing in the society where life has become westernised. The proposed dictionary will reflect the realities proper to the Yipunu society. The proposed model will take into account the realities of village life style and those of the western life. The proposed dictionary is therefore not only a linguistic text of Yipunu, but also a cultural text of Yipunu. It will include cultural data such as proverbs. The proposed dictionary will include terms such “*tsombu*” which refers to a price that a man pays to marry his fiancé. The Yipunu *tsombu* is the equivalent of the South African *lobola*. The price of *tsombu* is the dowry valued in terms of money and

other material such as traditional clothes, wines, food, accessories for the home, etc. In the Yipunu culture and Gabonese culture in general, the marriage is an alliance between two families. The husband and the wife are often instruments to seal this alliance. This alliance is celebrated in several manners, but the culminating point is the payment of the dowry to the family of the wife. Without dowry or ‘*tsombu*’, there is no marriage. The dowry thus constitutes a symbol which shows that there has been a transfer of a woman from her family to that of her husband. The treatment of *tsombu* will contain such additional data of a cultural nature for a better understanding of this lemma. The MDDPSVY will also include terms referring to Yipunu culture such as *pagha* “a traditional lamp used for electricity”, *yikoku* “a Yipunu dance”, *mabansi* “Gabonese female rite”, etc.

The previous sections have discussed the inclusion of the macrostructural elements in the proposed dictionary namely the standard form and regional or dialectal form, the technical terms and the borrowings. The following section will deal with the nature of the macrostructure of the MDDPSVY.

6.2 The nature of the macrostructure

6.2.1 Types of macrostructures

The compilers of the MDDPSVY must decide whether to use the onomasiological or the semasiological approach. The proposed dictionary will not display an onomasiological macrostructure because the onomasiological macrostructure is not form based but concept oriented. A form of representation is not the key to a term, but rather its semantic field and related concepts.

Consequently, the paraphrase of meaning (the definition) does not play the most important part, but the classification and position in a semantic net. The onomasiological approach leads to a thematic ordering of the lemmata in a dictionary. This ordering prevails in thesauri and sometimes also in dictionaries dealing with languages for special purposes. The onomasiological approach will be complicated and will not serve one of the purposes of the proposed dictionary, i.e. to convey the standard orthography of Yipunu. The semasiological approach will therefore be used in the proposed dictionary. The semasiological macrostructure is form based,

assigning meaning to a form. The most common way of organising dictionaries and encyclopaedia is the use of the orthographic representation – the spelling – to search for further explanation. The semasiological approach is suitable for the proposed model. The semasiological macrostructure will facilitate and simplify the mission of conveying the standard orthography of Yipunu.

Deciding on the semasiological approach, the MDDPSVY makers must choose between a straight alphabetical ordering, or a niched /nested macrostructure. The straight alphabetical ordering implies that all the lemmata display a vertical macrostructural arrangement and all these lemmata are positioned alphabetically. It is the most uncomplicated version of an alphabetical macrostructure.

As an example, the following list of lemmata from the DHLF is presented below:

abrogation

abroger

abrupt, te

abruptement

abruti, ie

abrutir

abrutissant, ante

abrutissement

abscisse

This vertical ordering of all lemmata implies an uncomplicated main access structure coinciding with the macrostructure. From a user-perspective, access to the lemmata is unimpeded by procedures of textual condensation. The straight alphabetical ordering constitutes a good system for dictionaries directed at users who are not familiar with sophisticated lexicographic procedures. In the niched or nested approach, the macrostructure also displays a horizontal arrangement. As far as the presentation of lemmata is concerned, a well-established distinction exists, based on the occurrence of the lemmata as either main lemmata, participating in the vertical ordering of macrostructural elements, or sublemmata, participating in the horizontal ordering of

macrostructural elements.

Within the category of sublemmata a further distinction is made, i.e. between niched and nested sublemmata (cf. Hausmann & Wiegand 1989). These lemmata function as the guiding elements of niched and nested articles respectively. Procedures of niching and nesting are primarily performed as a space-saving endeavour. The presentation of lemmata in a cluster instead of a linear ordering has to be regarded as a form of textual condensation.

According to Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:336), *niching* is a strict alphabetical clustering of lemmata or articles that may or may not be semantically related, whereas nesting is a clustering of lemmata or articles which displays a deviation from the rules of strict alphabetical ordering.

The following example from *Groot Woorderboek/ Major dictionary* (GW) illustrates the niched lemmatisation:

date...dadel

date datum, dagtekening; afspraak; jaartal; tydperk;....~**line**, datumgrens;...~**loaf**, dadelbrood; ~**mark**, jaarmerk,... ~**oil**, dadelolie;..

dative

The compounds **date line** and **date loaf** have no semantic relation. Their ordering in this sinuous file merely follows from the application of a system of niched lemmatisation.

Nested lemmatisation (also known as *nesting*) that is the ordering of nest lemmata, also is a horizontal ordering of lemmata in the article of one main lemma or in a article introduced by a lemma component in lemma-external entry position. Nested lemmatisation often displays certain morpho-semantic relations between the sublemmata, but does not adhere to a strict alphabetical ordering.

The following example from the HAT illustrates the point of nested lemmata.

koe' ël □ s.nw.(-s) **1** langwerpige, sillinderveormige projektiel met effens spits punt waarmee uit skietwerktuie geskiet word: *lemand'n koeël deur die kop jag. getref deur'n verwaalde koeël. Die outydse koeëls was rond. Δ Die koeël blits dat die klippe so brand* (Toon van den Heever). vgl. PATROON. **2** (meer D.) Ronde Balletjie soos in 'n koeëllaer. UITDR: *Die koeël is deur die **kerk**, die saak is beslis, beklink.*
□ ww. (gekoeël) (w.g.) Skiet na; by uitbr., gooi na: *Hulle het my met akkers gekoeël.*

koël: ~gat, ~tjie, ~vormig, ~wond.

koe' ël.as. As wat op koeëls (bet.2) loop.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:110) remarks that:

[T]he nest displays an internal alphabetical ordering but the strict alphabetical ordering with regard to the main lemma in the vertical order (*koeëlas*) is interrupted because a strict initial alphabetical ordering would have ordered this main lemmata before some of the sublemmata included in the nests.

As far as the proposed dictionary is concerned, it will not choose the macrostructural procedures aimed at the inclusion of niched or nested lemmata, but rather opt for straight alphabetical ordering. Despite the fact that the straight alphabetical ordering has some space saving constraints, this choice is motivated by the following:

- The Yipunu does not yet have a long tradition of dictionaries (cf. Chapter 2). A dictionary culture has to be established. The user profile of the proposed model determines this choice: the users of the MDDPSVY are not yet trained in consulting dictionaries with sophisticated presentation of lemmata, such as the niched and nested procedures. The straight alphabetical ordering is the most uncomplicated version of an alphabetical macrostructure. It constitutes a good and friendly system for MDDPSVY users who are not familiar with sophisticated presentation of lemmata.

- The proposed dictionary aims to propagate the standard orthography of Yipunu. Contrary to the niched and nested procedures, the straight alphabetical ordering is the most adequate macrostructure to achieve this mission.

6.2.2 Macrostructure and alphabetisation

As mentioned above, the macrostructure of the MDDPSVY will adhere to straight alphabetical ordering. According to Svensén (1993:223), the alphabetical arrangement can follow either of two different principles: word-by-word alphabetisation or letter-by-letter alphabetisation. The difference can be seen when there are lemmata consisting of more than one graphical word. The letter-by-letter method treats these as if they were continuous, while the word-by-word method takes account of the spaces (which are always ranked before the letters). The proposed dictionary will follow the letter-by-letter alphabetisation tradition, which has been laid down in Yipunu dictionaries of the past¹⁴. The letter-by-letter alphabetisation method found in *Lexique Pounou-Français* by Bonneau is illustrated below:

B

banda

banda kubu

bandama

bandana

M

mukubi

mukudu

mukudu dilolu

mukundi

¹⁴ Cf. Chapter 2 of this dissertation.

6.2.3 Treatment of homonyms

The compilers of the MDDPSVY may find that some words have the same spelling, particularly with homonyms. Homonymy makes provision for different, unrelated meanings being lexicalised as formally identical lexical items. According to Hartmann and James (1998:69), homonymy is the relationship between two or more words that are identical in form but not in meaning. In other words, it is the condition of two words that are pronounced alike or have the same spelling, irrespective of grammatical function, but that differ significantly in other respects. In Yipunu, for example, the word *kala* “a crab” and *kala* “related to the past” are homonyms. Homonyms are further distinguished by whether they are spelled the same (homographs) or pronounced the same (homophones). Homographs and homophones can of course occur together, such as in the examples given above for Yipunu. In alphabetically arranged dictionaries, the lexicographers are concerned with only those homonyms that are spelled alike (homographs) not with homophones that are spelled differently.

Homographs need to be lemmatised and meet the frequency requirements for inclusion. The most frequent homograph will be entered first; the one with a low frequency will come after that. The creative use of structural indicators and the adequate explanation of these markers in the user’s guide must aid the user to understand the treatment of homonyms. With regard to lexicographic conventions, homonyms are dealt with as different lemmas. Homonyms are not single lexical items with different meanings, but different lexical items that coincidentally have the same form. By placing two meanings under different macrostructural elements, the *Dictionnaire Hachette de la Langue française* (DHLF) indicates that there is no synchronic relationship in meaning between the following two words *animal*:

1. animal, aux [animal, o] n.m. **1.** Être vivant, doué de sensibilité et de mouvement (*opposé aux végétaux*). **2.** Être vivant privé du langage, de la faculté de raisonner (*opposé à l’homme*). *L’ignorance rabaisse l’homme au rang des animaux*. **3. Fig.** Personne stupide ou grossière. *Quel animal !*

2. animal, ale, aux [animal, o] adj. **1.** qui est propre à l’animal, qui concerne
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- l'animal. (*en tant qu'opposé aux végétaux*). Règne animal. Chaleur animale.
2. qui est propre à l'animal (*en tant qu'opposé à l'homme*). Nourriture animale.
3. bestial. Une fureur animale.

The homonyms in the proposed dictionary will be entered as different lemmata and will be indicated by a superscript number such as in the lemma *kala*.

kala¹ 'a crab'

kala² 'related to the past'

6.3 Lemmatisation strategies in the MDDPSVY

In planning the macrostructure of a dictionary, the lexicographers must make decisions regarding the form to be lemmatised and must decide which form to include as macrostructural component. According to Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:329), lemmatisation refers to “[t]he selection of one single morphological form whose function in the macrostructure is to represent the total set of grammatical and morphological forms of the linguistic sign treated in the microstructure.”

In the case of African languages, two lexical traditions exist: the word tradition and the stem tradition. The word tradition requires that lexical entries be based on complete written words. In the stem tradition, the stems of written words form the basis of lexical entries. Concerning lemmatisation strategies of African languages, various approaches have been formulated for the lemmatisation of nouns and verbs. I would prefer that wherever applicable, the term Bantu language(s) be used, instead of the term African language(s). The following section will discuss the lemmatisation strategies of nouns and verbs with special reference to the Gabonese languages.

6.3.1 Lemmatisation strategies of nouns

In the case of nouns, the lemmatisation approaches of Gabonese languages manifest in a number of specific strategies, such as lemmatising (a) both singular and plural forms, (b) the singular and the plural form and giving full treatment at one member of

the pair singular and plural form, (c) only singular forms, (d) noun stems, and (e) using left-expanded article structures.

6.3.1.1 Lemmatising both singular and plural noun forms

In Chapter 2, the lemmatisation strategy used in Yipunu dictionaries of the past, namely the DFY/YF and the LPF, is illustrated. I agree with Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:76) that

... lemmatising both singular and plural noun forms is an extremely user-friendly lemmatisation strategy and very popular with inexperienced users and learners of the language. However, the redundancy factor in terms of dictionary space has to be weighed up against the advantages in terms of user-friendliness and practicality.

6.3.1.2 Lemmatising the singular and the plural form and giving full treatment at one member of the pair

This approach is used in the glossary of the *Bibala* (Yipunu Bible). In the example below from this glossary, a complete treatment is allocated to the plural noun form *badukitsi* ‘followers, disciples’ and a limited treatment to its singular form *mudukitsi* ‘follower, disciple’. The limited treatment allows a cross-reference (gengila ‘see’) to the plural form.

badukitsi batu abeduki mutu ususu uyenadilanga malongi mandi. Mu yivigu yigona, diina dieni dilasi abeduki Jesus, sinsa viri digumi na babeji. Amabadukanga Paul na Jean-baptiste bamalugu badukitsi wandi.

mudukitsi gengila **badukitsi**

6.3.1.3 Lemmatising only singular noun forms

This lemmatisation strategy is used by Grelaco (2004) for the *Projet de révision du Dictionnaire Français-Fang et Fang-Français de Samuel Galley*. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:76) quote Van Wyk, who argues that this lemmatisation strategy requires that “the target user [should] know the regular productive rules of the language governing the formation of singular and plural forms.” This lemmatisation strategy saves precious space, which can be utilised for other entries.

6.3.1.4 Lemmatising noun stems

This lemmatisation is used in *Lexique Pové-Français/Français-Pové*. Pové is a conjunctively written Gabonese language. Mickala Manfoumbi (2004) presents the lemmata as follows:

+ dok- ím-	dokíma
+dók-ò	mudóko
+dòkò	budóko
	midoko

Mickala-Manfoumbi (2004) lemmatises the nouns in Pové according to their stem. This lemmatisation refers to the stem tradition. As far as noun lemmatisation is concerned, the tradition is very complicated. According to Van Wyk (1995), quoted by Gouws and Prinsloo (2005: 82),

[T]he crucial difficulties in following the stem tradition for the lemmatisation of nouns lie in the fact that in many instances *neither lexicographer nor the user of his dictionary can isolate the stem of the noun*.

6.3.1.5 Using left-expanded article structures

This strategy of left-expanded articles is used by Blanchon (undated). For example, under the letter **B**, Blanchon includes the following words:

Ubə

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Ibabi

Dibabə /mababə

Dubabangu/ mababangu

Ibaabi/bibaabi

Ubabulə

The user remarks that **-ba-** is redundant and can isolate it. In fact Blanchon (undated) gives the full orthographic form of Yipunu nouns, but the nominal prefix forms are not considered in the alphabetical ordering. Left-expandedness combines the stem and the word lemmatisation. The left-expanded lemmatisation has the advantage, in the terms of Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:45) ‘of restoring grammatical and semantic relations which are broken up by alphabetical ordering in the sense that word stems and full orthographic forms are both displayed in the relation guiding and article-initial prefix.’ However, the left-expanded lemmatisation can be confusing for dictionary users who are only familiar with alphabetical ordering.

6.3.2 Lemmatisation strategies of verbs

Two lemmatisation strategies of verbs are used for Gabonese languages: The stem and word lemmatisation. I have demonstrated in Chapter 2 that the *stem lemmatisation* is the one used in LPF and DFY/YF. Similarly, Grelaco (2004) and Mickala Manfoumbi (2004) also lemmatise the verbal stem. Grelaco (2004) uses a notational device of a hyphen as many lexicographers do for conjunctively written languages. For example, the entry for ‘eat’ in Grelaco (2004) is found as *-dzi*. However, Blanchon (undated) follows the *word lemmatisation*. In the example of Blanchon mentioned above, the verbs *ubə*, *ubabulə* give the full infinitive form of verbs namely the prefix (*u*).

6.3.3 Lemmatisation strategies in the MDDPSVY

6.3.3.1 Lemmatisation strategies of nouns

As far as nouns are concerned, the proposed dictionary will lemmatise only the singular form. The full orthographic form of the noun will be given in the proposed dictionary. Lemmatising only the singular noun form saves precious space, which can be utilised for other entries. This lemmatisation is in accordance with the background Metalexigraphic Criteria for a Monolingual Descriptive Dictionary Presenting the Standard Variety of Yipunu

and reference skills of the users of the proposed dictionary. In fact, lemmatising only the singular noun form suits the users of the proposed dictionary because its target users are mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu and experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu. Mother-tongue speakers intuitively know the rules of the formation of singular and plural nouns of the language, and experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu have already assimilated these grammar rules. As an illustration, the proposed dictionary will offer the following treatment for the lemma *dunaanga* ‘one hair’.

du.naa.nga [duna:ngə] *n. c sg cl 5/6 pl naa.nga*

It has been stated that the MDDPSVY will rely on observable frequencies from a corpus. In fact, the lemmatisation of nouns in the proposed dictionary will be a *hybrid approach* which combines frequency and the singular noun form. The proposed dictionary will lemmatise the singular noun form of words frequently used.

Furthermore, the proposed dictionary will also have an alphabetical list of the plural noun forms and their respective singular noun form in its back matter to help the experienced learner who has not yet mastered these grammar rules to identify the singular noun form in the central list of the proposed dictionary. This text of the back matter of the proposed dictionary will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 8. The MDDPSVY will lemmatise only the singular noun form for the majority of lemmata. For Yipunu nouns that do not have a singular form, the proposed dictionary will lemmatise their plural form. As an illustration, the proposed dictionary will offer the following treatment for the lemma *dunaanga* ‘one hair’.

du.naa.nga [duna:ngə] *n. c sg cl 5/6 pl naa.nga*

For Yipunu nouns that do not have singular form, the proposed dictionary will lemmatise their plural form. The lemma *baghokulu* ‘optic glasses’ that has only a plural form has the following treatment:

ba.gho’kulu [baɣɔkulə] *n l inv cl 2*

6.3.3.2 Lemmatisation of verbs

With regard to the verb lemmatisation, the MDDPSVY will not make use of the word tradition; the proposed dictionary will rather continue the tradition of Yipunu dictionaries of the past, using the stem tradition. If the compilers of the proposed dictionary choose to lemmatise the verbal word instead of the verbal stem, all the Yipunu verbs will be placed under the alphabetical category **U** because all the Yipunu verbs are written with a prefix (*u-*) in their infinitive form. This word lemmatisation affects the balance of the number of lemmas in each alphabetical category of the proposed dictionary. The article stretch **U** will contain large numbers of lemmata compared to the other article stretches of the MDDPSVY.

The stem tradition has the advantage of more or less maintaining equality between the numbers of lemmata between the different article stretches of the proposed dictionary (even if it is generally admitted that articles stretches in any given language do not contain an equal number of words). To lemmatise the verbs on their stem, the MDDPSVY will also use a notational device of a hyphen, which is completely unknown in Yipunu dictionaries of the past. This notational device of a hyphen is usually found in dictionaries for conjunctively written languages, e.g. ‘to see’ is entered as **–bona** in a Zulu dictionary (cf. Van Wyk 1995:84-85); therefore, the entry for ‘uji’ ‘to eat’ in the proposed dictionary will be found as **–ji**.

6.4 Types of lemmata

The types of lemmata to be included should be in accord with the functions and the genuine purpose of the intended dictionary. As stated in the previous chapter, the proposed dictionary serves productive and receptive purposes. It is a monolingual descriptive dictionary presenting the standard variety of Yipunu to assist mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu who can solve problems related to text reception in Yipunu and learners of Yipunu at both intermediate and advanced levels who can solve problems related to text production in Yipunu. Having text reception and text production functions, the proposed dictionary should incorporate high-frequency everyday words and expressions. All these lexical items mostly used by the Bapunu

speakers will be incorporated in the proposed dictionary. These lexical items do not have the same formal characteristics and therefore do not have the same lemma status in the macrostructure of the proposed dictionary.

The lexicographers make a distinction between different types of lemmata. Lexicographers differentiate between lexical lemmata, sublexical lemmata and multilexical lemmata. The lexical lemmata refer to words which constitute single lexical items. The lexical lemmata form the majority of words in the dictionary. For example, words like *affirm*, *affirmative* are lexical lemmata in the CALD. The sublexical lemmata include lexical items smaller than words such as stems and affixes. The affixes *un-* and *-less* are sublexical lemmata in the CALD. The multilexical lemmata consist of more than one word. *Academy Award*, *accidental death*, *access provider* are multilexical lemmata in the CALD.

6.4.1 Lexical lemmata

Lexical lemmata refer to lemmata, which are single words. Lexicographers make a distinction between single (simplex) and complex words. The orthographic system of Yipunu determines the types of words for inclusion in the lemma candidate list of the proposed dictionary. Because Yipunu is a language in the process of standardisation, the word-formation system poses a difficult challenge to lexicographers as far as the lemma status is concerned. The proposed dictionary will make provision for simplex and complex words. Hyphenation will make a distinction between simplex and certain complex words in the proposed model. Some complex words will be hyphenated and others will not. I have mentioned in 3.4.3.7 that some rules on where and how to use hyphens have to be formulated. Two or three words of the same grammatical category, which refer to one concept, will be hyphenated. For example, nouns like *mwana* ‘child’, *nguji* ‘mother’, *taji* ‘father’ function independently in Yipunu and are examples of simplex words, whereas words like *mwana-nguji* ‘sister, brother literally the child of my mother’ and *mwana-taji* ‘sister, brother, the child of my father’ would be complex words. Some replicated words like *mbangu-mbangu* ‘high speed’, *mutu-mutu* ‘each person’ *funi-funi* ‘very abundant’ also belong to this category of complex words.

6.4.2 Sublexical lemmata

Sublexical lemmata concern affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and stems (the verbal stem). Affixes in Yipunu do not function independently and are linked to other words. Prefixes and suffixes constitute the affixes. The prefixes and suffixes in Yipunu are linked to the nominal stem, for example the prefixes *mu-* and *ba-* in *mutu* and *batu* ‘human being(s)’; the suffix *-tsi* in *mulontsi* ‘teacher’. The verbal stem is also linked to the verbal affixes, e.g. *-sil* in *musilyanu* ‘leave him! One remarks that the suffix *-tsi* and the verbal stem *-sil(a)* do have the same form at macrostructural level. The question one should ask is: how does a user differentiate a suffix and a verbal stem? To answer this question, the compiler of the proposed dictionary must provide some data at the microstructural level to differentiate between suffix and a verbal stem. For instance, the item giving the part of speech (*suf* /*suffix*; *v* / *verb*) and also the markers [1] or [2] which are numbers of conjugation for verbs will help to differentiate between a suffix and a verbal stem in the proposed dictionary. These microstructural data will have a detailed discussion in Chapter 7 of this dissertation.

6.4.3 Multilexical lemmata

Multilexical lemmata concern lemmata that consist of more than one word. Some adverbs (adverbs of manner, of place, of time) are multilexical lemmata. For example, *dyela di susu* ‘differently, in a different way’, *na biswasu*, *na maswasu* ‘quickly’, *mbura susu* ‘elsewhere’, *yilema na mumu* ‘long time ago’ belong to this category of multilexical lemmata. Some Yipunu compound words (of the structure noun plus connective plus noun) will also belong to the category of multilexical lemmata. For example, *yilumbu na yilumbu* ‘daily’, *ndaghu yi dubengunu* ‘the church’. These multilexical lemmata pose the problem of determining whether the combination is a compound word or a collocation. From a lexicographical point of view, a collocation is the relationship between two words or groups of words that often go together and form a common expression. For example, in Yipunu *ulaba ghoma* ‘to be afraid’, *ulaba ubweji* ‘to feel happy, to be glad’, *ulaba yisoni* ‘to be ashamed of’, *ulaba firi*, *ulaba kabu* ‘to be angry’ are collocations.

Collocations are microstructural entries and multilexical lemmata are macrostructural entries in the proposed dictionary. Collocations will have a more comprehensive discussion in the following chapter.

6.5 Macrostructure and types of articles

I have mentioned above that the model I am proposing will give an account of the dialectal differences in Yipunu and make provision for the inclusion of their standard form as well as these regional or dialectal variations. The proposed dictionary will also take into account the inclusion of cultural terms. Due to the fact that the proposed dictionary will include different categories of terms, the proposed dictionary has to make provision for the inclusion of three article types: single articles, complex articles and cross-reference articles (cf. Gouws & Prinsloo 2005:90).

The single articles of the proposed dictionary display the typical treatment allocated to the average lemma sign. The above-mentioned article of *dunaanga* ‘one hair’ illustrates the point in question:

du.naa'.nga [duna:ngə] *n. c sg cl 5/6 pl naa.nga*

Myoni tsi muru. “...*nesi nanga tsyenu tsitalu*” (Bibala, Matt 10:30)

The complex articles of the proposed dictionary display a variety of lexicographic data that focus on extra-linguistic aspects, which is the traditional encyclopaedic approach. Complex articles were devised for dictionary articles displaying a variety of lexicographic data that could not fit into the so-called single articles. The proposed dictionary can benefit by including a limited number of complex articles to assist the user with encyclopaedic information regarding some issues relevant to the Yipunu speech community, e.g. certain cultural activities.

Complex articles will be adequate for the treatment of lexical items with a high degree of cultural information. One of the representatives of these lexical items is the so-called “culture-bound lexical items”. The compilers of the proposed dictionary will expose some aspects of the socio-cultural background of the Yipunu lexicon through the use of complex articles. The microstructural arrangement of these complex articles

has to be explained in the front matter in order to avoid communicative problems users of the proposed dictionary might experience.

The proposed dictionary will also display cross-reference articles. In the model, I am proposing all types of lexical items that will be included and will receive a treatment. All lemmata will not get a full lexicographic treatment. Some articles of the proposed dictionary display a restricted treatment with a cross-reference entry guiding the user to the lemma which represents the lexical item with a higher usage. This system has to be explained in the front matter. The relevance of cross-reference articles in the proposed dictionary is for dialectal/regional variations that will receive limited treatment.

The following examples illustrate the point in question:

mbi.ngu [mbingu] *n. pl* duk. ji BIJUJI

i.ba'.ndu [ibandu] duk. ji YIBANDU

The microstructure of the three article types of the proposed model will have a detailed discussion in the Chapter 7.

6.6 Concluding remarks on the macrostructure of the MDDPSVY

This chapter has discussed what should be included in the macrostructure of the proposed dictionary and what should not. The macrostructure of the MDDPSVY will rely on observable frequencies. It will include the standard form and the regional or dialectal form, but they will not have the same microstructural treatment. The standard form will receive a full treatment and the regional/dialectal form a limited treatment. The MDDPSVY will also incorporate technical terms by the procedures of transliteration, loan words and extension of meaning, total embedding or adoption, and neologisms. Concerning loan words, the proposed dictionary will include indigenous words and loan words should only be used if there is no good alternative.

Cultural terms will also be part of the MDDPSVY because the envisaged dictionary is not only a linguistic text of Yipunu, but a cultural text as well.

The MDDPSVY will opt for a straight alphabetical ordering because users are not used to sophisticated ordering procedures. As far as alphabetisation is concerned, priority will be given to the letter-by-letter method. Homonyms in the proposed dictionary will be entered as different lemmata and will be indicated by a superscript number. As far as the noun lemmatisation strategy is concerned, the MDDPSVY will use a hybrid approach which combines the frequency and the singular noun form. The proposed dictionary will lemmatise the singular noun form of the most frequent word. This lemmatisation is in accordance with the reference skills of the target users who are familiar with the grammar rules of the formation of the plural and the singular. The proposed dictionary will lemmatise the plural form for nouns that do not have a singular form. Regarding the verb, the proposed model will follow the tradition of Yipunu dictionaries of the past and lemmatise the stem of the verb. In addition, the MDDPSVY will use the notational device of a hyphen to the verbal stem. With regard to the types of lemmata and articles to include, the MDDPSVY will reflect the lexicon of the language and will contain lexical lemmata, sublexical lemmata and multilexical lemmata. The orthographic system of Yipunu gives guidance in differentiating these types of lemmata such as hyphenation for the complex words of the same grammatical category. The MDDPSVY will mostly include simple articles. The proposed dictionary will also incorporate complex articles that will offer additional data categories when necessary, and cross-referenced articles will be included for dialectal/regional forms.

CHAPTER 7: MICROSTRUCTURE OF THE MDDPSVY

7.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on aspects of the microstructure of the envisaged dictionary. The microstructure is represented by all the data categories included in a dictionary article as part of the treatment of the lemma sign, as well as the structure and presentation of the articles. This chapter will discuss the different data categories and the positioning of the data in the proposed dictionary. Firstly, I will show the different data types found in the microstructure. Attention will be given to data types found in a standard monolingual descriptive dictionary like HAT. I will also discuss the different types of microstructures found in the dictionaries.

7.1 Data types found in the microstructure

The order structure of the microstructure can be described as linear or hierarchical. One could also say that the microstructure of a dictionary article is the total set of linearly ordered data following the lemma (Hausmann & Wiegand, 1989:340). Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:341) identify 12 of the most important data types that should appear in the abstract linear microstructure in the monolingual dictionary, which will be presented. The sequence of the data types might differ from one dictionary to another, and the lexicographer should use his or her own discretion in the application of this to the dictionary.

1. Synchronic identifying data: This data type helps to identify the form of the lemma sign and its morphological paradigm. Synchronic data refers to spelling, pronunciation and accentuation, part of speech and inflexion.
2. Diachronic identifying data: This refers to etymological data concerning the lemma. Borrowing may also belong to this type of data.
3. Labelling: The restriction of usage indicated by a label or mark. There are labels regarding time, region, borrowing, style and situation, special field of activity, frequency, attitude, connotation and usage.

4. Explanatory data: The definition; for certain words this includes further types of explanatory texts such as linguistic or encyclopaedic description.
5. Syntagmatic data on construction and on collocation, which may be given in the form of any type of example (including quotations).
6. Paradigmatic data concerns synonyms, antonyms, analogues, homonyms and paronyms, as well as word formation.
7. Different kinds of semantic data used to complete the definition, e.g. figuratively, metaphorically, which help both to structure the article and mark the semantic process a sign has undergone.
8. Notes: For example, usage-notes are texts of normal readability, contrasting markedly with the characteristic density of the lexicographical text, notes are sometimes presented in boxes or frames and are separated from other microstructural data.
9. Pictorial illustrations can be used to supplement the definition or example material.
10. Ordering devices are signposting the organisation of the article in the form of figures, letters, brackets, punctuation marks, symbols. Although they help to make the structure of the article clear, ordering devices, especially in the form of symbols, are largely responsible for the impression of textual density which the dictionary article conveys.
11. Cross-references are open search paths that possibly end inside the dictionary.
12. Representation or repetition symbols, normally the tilde (~), are substitution instructions.

7.2 Data types found in the microstructure of a standard dictionary: the case of HAT

The purpose of this section is to have an idea of which kind of data types one can find in the microstructure of a standard dictionary. As basis of illustration, the HAT (2005), a monolingual standard descriptive dictionary for Afrikaans, is taken as example. The data types found in the HAT are as follows:

1. lemma/entry
2. homonym
3. stress or the accent in the spelling of the entry
4. word division
5. pronunciation
6. part of speech
7. morphology
8. labels
9. variant spelling
10. meaning
11. usage example
12. expressions and idioms
13. etymology
14. sublemma

Most of these data types will be found in the MDDPSVY. Before giving a detailed presentation of the MDDPSVY data types, I will firstly discuss the different types of microstructures and choose the relevant one for the MDDPSVY.

7.3 Type of microstructures

Dictionary research has resulted in the identification of different types of microstructures (cf. Wiegand 1989; 1996). The compilers of the proposed dictionary must choose between two types of microstructures, i.e. an integrated or a non-integrated microstructure. The distinction between the integrated and non-integrated microstructure is based on the directness of the relation between each entry representing a paraphrase of meaning and the supporting co-text entries representing illustrative examples in the specific article. Depending on the data distribution structure of a given dictionary, the integrated and non-integrated microstructures each make provision for a subdivision between obligatory microstructures and extended obligatory microstructures (Gouws & Prinsloo 2005:138). The compilers of the MDDPSVY must also decide to go with the obligatory microstructure or the obligatory extended one.

7.3.1 Integrated and non-integrated microstructures

According to Gouws (2001b:87) an integrated microstructure presents a relation of direct addressing between a paraphrase of meaning and its co-text entry. See the following articles from DHLF and CALD respectively:

coutume [kutym] n.f. **1.** Manière d’agir, pratique consacrée par l’usage qui se transmet de génération en génération; tradition. *Respecter les coutumes d’un pays. La coutume veut que vous fassiez un vœu.* ▷ *Les us et coutumes:* l’ensemble des usages et coutumes. **2.** Habitude individuelle. *Il a coutume de faire la sieste après le petit déjeuner.* ▷ **Proverbe** *Une fois n’est pas coutume:* l’habitude ne naît pas d’une manière d’agir exceptionnelle. ▷ *De coutume:* à l’ordinaire. *Il est aussi gai que de coutume* ♦Du lat. *consuetudinem*, de *consuescere*, << accoutumer, habituer, s’habituer >>.

banish // verb [T] **1** to send someone away, especially from their country, and forbid them to come back: *He was banished to an uninhabited island for year.* ◦ *They were banished (= sent out) from the library for making a noise.* **2** to get rid of something completely: *you must try to banish all thoughts of revenge from your mind.* **banishment** / / noun [U].

Each paraphrase of meaning is immediately followed by a co-text entry, illustrating the typical usage of the lexical item in question. In the article from the monolingual dictionary, DHLF, the lemma *coutume* gets a paraphrase of meaning for its first sense and for the second one. Illustrative examples are provided to illustrate the typical use of the word in these senses. The treatment in CALD shows a similar pattern. The lemma *banish* represents a polysemous lexical item with two different senses. The paraphrase of meaning is followed by illustrative examples, presented as co-text entries, to illustrate the typical use of the word represented by the lemma sign in that particular sense.

The fact that no other occurrences of paraphrases of meaning come between a given paraphrase of meaning and its co-text entry decreases the textual condensation and

makes it easier for a user to interpret the contents of the sub-comment on semantics correctly. Especially in the treatment of a lexical item with many polysemous senses, the direct relation between co-text entry and paraphrase of meaning ensures an optimal retrieval of information. In contrast, a non-integrated microstructure displays a distant addressing between a co-text entry and the relevant paraphrase of meaning. In a case of a lemma sign representing a polysemous lexical item, a monolingual dictionary will give all the paraphrases of meaning and then present the co-text entries. See the above-mentioned examples presented as non-integrated microstructure:

coutume [kutym] n.f. **1.** Manière d’agir, pratique consacrée par l’usage qui se transmet de génération en génération; tradition. **2.** Habitude individuelle.

(1) *Respecter les coutumes d’un pays. La coutume veut que vous fassiez un voeu* ▷ *Les us et coutumes*: l’ensemble des usages et coutumes. (2) *Il a coutume de faire la siète après le petit déjeuner.* ▷ **1** *Les us et coutumes*: l’ensemble des usages et coutumes. .▷ **2 Proverbe** *Une fois n’est pas coutume*: l’habitude ne nait pas d’une manière d’agir exceptionnelle. ▷ *De coutume*: à l’ordinaire. *Il est aussi gai que de coutume*

◆Du lat. *consuetudinem*, de *consuescere*, << accoutumer, habituer, s’habituer >>.

banish / / *verb* [T] **1** to send someone away, especially from their country, and forbid them to come back: **2** to get rid of something completely: (1)*He was banished to an uninhabited island for year.*◦ *They were banished (= sent out) from the library for making a noise .* (2) *you must try to banish all thoughts of revenge from your mind.*

banishment / / *noun* [U].

I strongly agree with Gouws (2001b:87) who acknowledges the problems that the user could experience in an attempt to co-ordinate a specific co-text entry with a specific paraphrase of meaning due to the indirect relation. Therefore, the proposed dictionary is intended to be user-friendly and will opt for the integrated microstructure in order to avoid such problems for the users.

7.3.2 Obligatory microstructures and extended obligatory microstructures

The relation between obligatory microstructures and extended obligatory microstructures is based on the data distribution structure and the extent of the data categories to be included in an article (Gouws & Prinsloo 2005:141). The obligatory microstructure refers to the microstructural items that will be found in each and every article.

According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:141),

[T]he obligatory microstructure of a monolingual dictionary may contain e.g. the lemma sign, the item giving the part of speech, a paraphrase of meaning presented as the lexicographic definition for each one of the polysemous senses of the word represented by the lemma sign, and an illustrative example as a co-text entry to illustrate the typical use of the word.

The obligatory microstructure implies an identical treatment for all the articles. The extended obligatory microstructure is not the same for all the articles. The extended obligatory microstructure makes provision for additional data categories, such as encyclopaedic data, pictures and inserted inner texts. Given the fact that the proposed dictionary will offer single articles as well as some complex articles (cf. 6.6), it will make provision for an obligatory microstructure and an extended obligatory microstructure. The obligatory microstructure will be composed of an item giving the spelling, an item giving the pronunciation, an item giving the morphology, an item giving the paraphrase of meaning and an item giving the illustrative example. These microstructural data categories as well as the additional data categories will be discussed in detail in the following section.

7.4 Data types of the MDDSVY

Each dictionary article of the MDDPSVY consists typically of a comment on form and a comment on semantics. The comment on form of the MDDPSVY includes data

on spelling, variation, pronunciation and grammatical data. The comment of semantics of the MDDPSVY is characterised by semantic data, syntactic data, pragmatic data and etymological data. The following section offers a discussion on the comment on form and the comment on semantics of the proposed dictionary.

7.4.1 Comment on form

7.4.1.1 Data on spelling

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the compilers of the proposed dictionary will use the Standard Orthography of Yipunu (SOY), the basis of which is the Alphabet of Gabonese Languages (ALG, *Alphabet des Langues Gabonaises*) adopted in 1999. The alphabet of Yipunu contains the following letters:

a [a] , b [b], d [d], e [e], e [ɛ], ë [ə] , f [f], gh [ɣ], i [i], j [dʒ], k [k], l [l] , m [m], mb [mb], mf [mf], n [n], nd [nd] , ng [ng] ny [ny], nz [nz], o [o] , o [ɔ] , p [p], pl [pl], r [r], s [s], t [t], ts [ts]u [u] , vh [β], w [w], y [j].

As already stated in Chapter 3, this orthography will not take tone marking into account. The doubling of vowels will indicate the tone marking. The following examples illustrate the point in question:

bukulu ‘genealogy’

buukulu ‘kind of vegetable’

dikotulu ‘knee’

diikootulu ‘entrance’

This alphabet of Yipunu will be presented in the front matter of the proposed dictionary. This front matter text will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter. With regard to the data on spelling, the proposed dictionary will also show possible ways of dividing a word, for example by raised dots at the possible division points such as:

mu·ji ‘fire’

di·mbu ‘home’

The MDDPSVY will show the syllabification in Yipunu, presented in Chapter 3. Above the word division, the proposed dictionary will indicate the position of the stress (´). This type of data is of interest for the text production function of the envisaged dictionary.

mu´.ji

ndi´.mbu

7.4.1.2 Data on spelling variants

It has been shown in the preceding chapters that Yipunu has a number of dialects marked by differences in spelling, pronunciation, semantics, grammar and vocabulary. As far as spelling is concerned, it has been demonstrated that the form ‘yi’ and **ns** are also respectively spelt as ‘i’ and ‘nz’. The proposed dictionary will give an account of these differences in spelling as follows:

<p>yi.be.'du [yibédu] (ibedu WANDI) ‘a sick person’ nsi'.la [nsilə] (nzila WANDI) ‘way’</p>
--

<p>i.be'. du duk. ji YIBEDU nzi.' la duk. ji NSILA</p>

The two microstructural markers ‘duk. ji’ and WANDI which respectively mean ‘variant of’ and ‘also’ are used to render an account of these differences in the proposed dictionary.

7.4.1.3 Data on pronunciation

In metalexigraphy, giving an indication of pronunciation is regarded as one of the formal differences between a dictionary and an encyclopaedia. A dictionary must provide guidance on spoken language in addition to guidance on written language. Data about pronunciation is needed in the proposed dictionary which is intended partly for text production. The pronunciation is placed immediately after the lemma. The pronunciation is usually shown in ordinary light-face type, in square brackets []. As far as pronunciation is concerned, a distinction is drawn between partial and full transcription. Some dictionaries transcribe only that part of a lemma that could provide problems in pronunciation. For instance, the word **Christian** (ch= [k]). Full transcription has definite advantages over partial transcription in that the lexicographer's own subjective assessment of which part of a word is going to cause problems in pronunciation becomes irrelevant. A full transcription also makes it possible to provide an indication of the tones and of which sounds occur in the envisaged dictionary. The proposed dictionary will definitely present the full phonetic transcription of all the lemmas included. These transcriptions will use the ASG (*Alphabet Scientifique des Langues Gabonaises*). The ASG is a phonetic alphabet of Gabonese languages (cf. Chapter 3 of this dissertation). The ASG for the Yipunu language consists of the following sounds: [a; aa; b; d; e, e; ə, f; ɣ; i; ii; dʒ, k; l; m; mb; mv; n; nd; ng; nj; nz; o;; p; r; s; t; ts; u; β; w]. The length of vowels is indicated by a colon (:) in the proposed dictionary instead of the doubling of the vowel.

The proposed dictionary will provide the notation of tones at the phonetic level of its microstructure. It is also important that the front matter gives an account of tones used in the dictionary by presenting them in the text related to the orthography and sounds of the Yipunu language. I propose that the notation of tones in the pronunciation should not include more than two tones, the principal and regular ones (high and low tones). I have shown in Chapter 3 that the different tones of Yipunu are as follows:

- The extra high tone indicated by the following sign (´´)
- The high tone indicated by the sign of the acute accent (´)
- The low tone indicated by the sign of the grave accent (`)

- The falling tone indicated by the sign of the circumflex accent (^)
- The rising tone indicated by the reversed circumflex accent (ˇ)

Research on Yipunu tonology has received attention from Puech (1980), Fontaney (1980: 51-114). Puech (1980:19-32) has investigated the tone behaviour of the nominal stem. According to Puech (1980:19-32), two tone types are identified for the nominal stem: the isolated form and the form which precedes the associative *na*. Here, I am focusing only on the isolated form because the nouns in the proposed dictionary are described in isolation. Puech (1980:19) argues that the prefinal of trisyllabic nominal stems is high in isolation. For example,

basálitsi ‘workers’

baghukítsi ‘assemblers’

yíkotsúlu ‘cough’

With regard to the disyllabic stems, the rising tone is always constant above the short vowel and the falling one is noted above the long vowel.

dibělu ‘thigh’

baghêtu ‘women’

dibâgha ‘knife’

ditěengu ‘ghost’

As far as the verbs are concerned, Fontaney (1980:53) argues that verbs are divided in two principal groups, differentiated by their tonality, in the infinitive form and in the conjugation. The verbs in the proposed model are lemmatised according to their stem.

The focus here will only be on the verbs in their infinitive form. The infinitive form is closer to the verbal stem which corresponds to their imperative form. The verbs in their infinitive form have a rising tone profile in their verbal stem. The tone is low on the prefix and the finale. The tone of the monosyllabic verbal stem is therefore rising

on this syllable. The polysyllabic verbal stem contains a low tone on the first syllable and a high tone on the last syllable.

Compare the following verbs:

usǎla ‘to choose’

ughoobúla ‘to save, to deliver’

usomba ‘to borrow’

usombísa ‘to lend’

The monosyllabic verbs have a low tone on their stem and a high tone on their prefixes. The following examples illustrate the point in question:

-a

-i

-u

úba ‘to be’

úji ‘to eat’

úfu ‘to die’

úvhi ‘to be cooked’

únu ‘to drink’

With regard to the proposed dictionary, a detailed key to pronunciation must be provided in the front matter to accommodate readers who are unfamiliar with the ASG. The phonetic symbols will be accompanied by examples of lexical items giving each specific sound and their possible transcriptions. The key to the pronunciation of the proposed dictionary will offer a comparative presentation of the systems of the ASG and of the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet). Any user with a basic knowledge of the IPA will be able to decode the transcriptions of the ASG quickly and easily.

Given the fact that the Yipunu dictionaries of the past have ignored the pronunciation in their treatment, the proposed dictionary, in my opinion, will indicate the phonetic transcription for each lemma. The pronunciation is placed immediately after the lemma. Like in most dictionaries, the pronunciation in the proposed dictionary will be shown in ordinary light-face type, in square brackets []. The following examples illustrate the point in question.

di.ba.'gha [dibáɣə] ‘knife’

di.ba'.ghu [dibǎɣu] ‘fever’

7.4.1.4 Grammatical data

In addition to spelling, pronunciation and variation, grammatical data should also be considered in the proposed dictionary. Grammatical data can be presented in several places in a dictionary. It usually features as microstructural elements in the articles of lemmata. Some dictionaries present grammatical data in a separate section in the front or in the back of the dictionary. The proposed dictionary will present some grammatical data in its back matter. This grammatical data included in the back matter of the MDDPSVY will be discussed in more details in the following chapter. Grammatical data of the envisaged dictionary includes the traditional parts of speech.

7.4.1.4.1 Data on parts of speech

Svensén (1993:81) remarks that data on parts of speech is especially useful for text reception. He adds that data on parts of speech is particularly vital in monolingual dictionaries that include, as part of their target user group, “persons whose native language is not the language of the dictionary”. He goes on to concede that, despite data on parts of speech not being relevant ‘in monolingual dictionaries in the user’s native language’, such data is still ‘indispensable if the word concerned can belong to more than one part of speech, for homographs, and elsewhere when clarity demands it’ (Svensén 1993:81).

The proposed dictionary, which targets both mother-tongue and non-mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu will offer comprehensive data on the parts of speech of each lemma. A comprehensive discussion of the different grammatical categories and sub-categories found in Yipunu has already been given in Chapter 3. The data on parts of speech will be placed just after the data on pronunciation in the article of the proposed dictionary. The data on the parts of speech will be in italics. The MDDPSVY will use the condensed French terminology of data on parts of speech.

This choice is motivated by the fact that Yipunu has not yet developed a terminology on grammar. A terminology on grammar has to be developed. However the proposed dictionary for now will make use of the French terminology on grammar. The proposed dictionary will also give an indication of the subcategories of the parts of speech, for instance if the lemma sign is a noun, precision will be added in order to inform the user if this noun is a common noun or a proper noun; if the verb is transitive or intransitive, etc. The proposed dictionary uses the French terminology for the secondary classification or the subcategories of the part of speech. The data on parts of speech and subcategories will be presented in abbreviated form, e.g *n.* (noun), *v.* (verb), *adj.* (adjective), *pron.* (pronoun) *conj.* (conjunction), *prep* (preposition), *adv.* (adverb), *loc.* (locution), in order to save space in the dictionary. The subcategories of these part of speech classes will be given in italics. For example *v. tr* (transitive verb), *v. intr* (intransitive verb), *n. c* (common noun), *n. pr* (proper noun), *adj. qual* (qualificative adjective), *adj. num.* (numeral adjective), etc. A dot eventually separates the part of speech and its subcategory as observed above. The following section gives a discussion of the microstructural treatment of the nouns and the verbs in the proposed dictionary.

7.4.1.4.1.1 Nouns

I have stated in the preceding chapter that the MDDPSVY includes only the full orthographic form of the singular noun. At the microstructural level, the proposed dictionary indicates the plural noun form frequently used in bold characters. The italicised letters of the abbreviated form *pl* will introduce the plural form in the proposed dictionary. The proposed dictionary will also show possible ways of dividing a word, for example by raised dots at the possible division points for the plural noun form. The dictionary under discussion includes also in its microstructure the nominal prefix singular and plural classes.

A more comprehensive discussion of these prefix classes has already been given in Chapter 3. At microstructural level, the proposed dictionary will specify the class numbers of the plural nominal prefix and will place the plural noun form after the prefixes classes. The example of *dunaanga* ‘one hair’ clarifies the point in question:

du.naa'.nga [duná:ngə] *n. c.cl5/6 pl naa'.nga*

One may find that some Yipunu nouns have two plural forms. The plural forms of *dubansi* ‘fly’ are ‘*bansi*, *babansi*’. Those of *mughinu* ‘dance’ are ‘*mighinu*’ and ‘*maghinu*’. The plural forms of *dunyuru* ‘body’ are ‘*manyuru*’ and ‘*nyuru*’ (Chapter 3). The proposed dictionary will reflect these variants in the microstructure. The most frequent plural form is entered in bold letters and the less frequent in small capital letters as follows:

du.ba.n'si [dubǎnzi] *n.c cl 5/6 pl ba.'nsi (ba.ba.'nsi*
WANDI)

Some Yipunu words do not have a plural form, like *yotsi* ‘the cold’ *yelili* ‘lukewarm’. Eventually, the proposed dictionary will not present a plural form of these lemmata because they do not exist in the language. However, the subcategory *inv* ‘invariable’ of data of parts of speech will give precision on the invariability of these lemmata.

yo.'tsi *n inv*

ye'.li.li *n .inv*

For some cases, the proposed dictionary will add the abbreviated form *pl* to the subcategory *inv*. I have argued in the previous chapter that the proposed dictionary will lemmatise the plural form of some Yipunu nouns that do not have a singular form. The precision of the italicised abbreviated form *pl* is important to mention in the proposed dictionary because it gives an indication to the users that this word is a plural noun. The subcategory *inv* conveys to the users that this word does not have a singular form. For instance, the treatment of the lemma *baghokulu* ‘optic glasses’ illustrates the point in question:

ba.gho'kulu [baɣɔkulə] *n. c pl inv cl 2*

7.4.1.4.1.2 Verbs

The stem lemmatisation of verbs prevails in the proposed dictionary. The verbal stem corresponds to the imperative form of the verb in Yipunu, except for the monosyllabic verbs where the imperative form differs from the verbal stem. At microstructural level, the proposed dictionary will indicate the infinitive form (*u-*) for all the verbs and the corresponding prefix class (cl 15). For some verbs, such as the monosyllabic verbs, the proposed dictionary will incorporate in its microstructure irregular imperative forms for the first person of the singular and the first person of the plural. The proposed dictionary will indicate these irregular imperative forms in italicised characters. The following examples illustrate the point in question for the verbs *uji* ‘to eat’ and *unu* ‘to drink’:

-ji: [ji] *v.tr* [1] cl 15 **uji** *jyanga! jyangaanu!* ‘to eat’
-nu [nu] *v.tr* [1] cl 15 **unu** *nyanga! nyangaanu!* ‘to drink’

For some verbs that have the abbreviated form, the proposed dictionary indicates their abbreviated imperative form (cf. Chapter 3). The following examples illustrate the point in question:

-we'.nda [wɛndə] *v. intr* [2] (**we** WANDI) cl 15 **uwenda** ‘to go’
-la'.ba [labə] *v. tr* [2] (**la** WANDI) cl 15 **ulaba** ‘to see’

The grammatical data of verbs in the proposed dictionary will first present the item, giving the part of speech (*v*). The lexicographers will place the infinitive form and the corresponding prefix class mentioned above after the item giving the part of speech. This item giving the part of speech will give precision of the subcategory of verbs: transitive (*tr*), intransitive (*intr*), auxiliary (*aux*), etc. After the item giving the part of speech, the compiler of the MDDPSVY will provide the user with the marker [1] or [2] which are the number of conjugation. Like in the case of DHLF, these markers [1]

or [2] will be in bold and in brackets in order to differentiate them from other markers indicating the different senses of the lemma in the proposed dictionary. The marker [1] will refer to monosyllabic verbs and [2] to polysyllabic verbs. These markers refer to the tables of conjugation in the back matter of the proposed dictionary. I will discuss this back matter text of the tables of conjugation in more detail in the following chapter.

The proposed dictionary will offer the following treatment for the verbs mentioned above:

<p>-ji: [ji] v.tr [1] cl 15 <i>jyanga! Jyangaanu!</i> ‘to eat’ -nu [nu] v.tr [1] cl 15 <i>nyanga! nyangaanu</i> ‘to drink’ -wé’nda [wëndə] v. intr [2] (we WANDI) cl 15 ‘to go’ -la.ba [labə] v. tr [2] (la WANDI) cl 15 ‘to see’</p>

7.4.1.5 Concluding remarks on the comment on form

The comment on the form of the proposed dictionary includes data on spelling, data on pronunciation and data on grammar. The data on spelling concerns standard spelling which is in accordance with the orthography of Yipunu. This orthography has the alphabet of Gabonese Languages as basis. The data on spelling will indicate stress and the word division of lemmata in the proposed dictionary. As for the data on pronunciation, tone marking will be the main characteristic. As far as the data on grammar is concerned, it will incorporate the item giving the part of speech and its subcategory. It will also take in the plural form for nouns and the infinitive form for verbs. The prefix classes’ numbers for nouns and verbs will also be included. The proposed dictionary will indicate some markers referring to the tables of conjugation in the back matter of the proposed dictionary in the microstructural treatment of verbs. The inclusion of data on grammar will not only be at the microstructural level, but also in the outer texts in the proposed dictionary. The discussion of data on grammar in the outer-texts will be offered in the following chapter.

7.4.2 Comment on semantics

7.4.2.1 Semantic data

Most users consult a dictionary in order to establish the meaning of a word. The user consults the dictionary as an authoritative source of especially information about meaning. Providing information about meaning constitutes the greatest and most important part of the dictionary article. The planned dictionary will give an account of two types of meaning namely the paraphrase of meaning and semantic relationships.

7.4.2.1.1 Item giving the paraphrase of meaning

The predominant view in metalexigraphy is that the denotative meaning of a lexical item in a dictionary is represented by a lexicographic definition. In Wiegand's (1994:241) view, "the lexicographic definition" is an inadequate metalexigraphical term. In several of the articles in his book *Semantics and lexicography*, Wiegand offers a terminology with which one can describe the different elements in the lexicographic transfer of meaning. Initially, he replaces "lexical and lexicographic definition" with "lexical and lexicographical paraphrase".

This change, according to Louw (2004:122), "seems to be motivated by a lack of faith in the seamless appropriation of the philosophical term 'definition' for use in lexicography." Later, in Wiegand's seminal article "Elements of a theory towards a so-called lexicographic definition", published in German in 1994, the so-called lexicographic definition is viewed as part of an integrated microstructure within the paradigm of Wiegand's comprehensive textual theory for lexicographic texts, specifically as part of the integrated core of the semantic comment or subcomment (in the case of different senses). Therefore the terminology, which is given preference, is "an item giving the meaning paraphrase" (Wiegand 1994:253) and this can be refined to "an item giving the paraphrase of meaning". In a monolingual dictionary, the paraphrase of meaning is the most salient entry in the comment on semantics. Because the proposed dictionary is a monolingual dictionary, it offers a semantic description of the Yipunu language.

7.4.2.1.1.1 Different types of definition

The proposed dictionary will make use of different definition types in order to describe the meaning of lemmata. The compilers of the proposed dictionary will place the paraphrase of meaning after the grammatical data, i.e. the part of speech, in roman letters. Lexicographers usually use five types of definitions in an explanatory dictionary namely:

- The paraphrase of meaning by means of lexical or descriptive definition
- The paraphrase of meaning by means of the genus-differentia definition
- The paraphrase of meaning by means of the synonym definition
- The paraphrase of meaning by means of the circular definition
- The paraphrase of meaning by means of the definition by example

7.4.2.1.1.1.1 The paraphrase of meaning by means of descriptive definition

In the paraphrase of meaning by means of descriptive definition, the meaning of the definiendum is explained by the definiens without giving an indication of the semantic relationships between the definiendum and other lexical items. As an illustration, the descriptive definition of the lemma *tailor* from CALD is:

tailor someone whose job is to adjust, repair and make clothes, especially someone who makes jackets, trousers, coats, etc. for men.

tailor ... to make or prepare something following particular instructions

7.4.2.1.1.1.2 The paraphrase of meaning by means of genus-differentia definition

This paraphrase of meaning by means of genus-differentia definition consists of two parts.

The definiendum is first placed in the semantic class (the genus) to which it belongs. After that, the differences (differentia) between the definiendum and the other members of the class concerned are indicated.

A genus –differentia definition of leopard is:

leopard Predator, Panthera Pardus (fam. felidae), of the cat family, smaller than a lion or tiger, and with spots.

7.4.2.1.1.3 The paraphrase of meaning by means of synonym definition

The paraphrase of meaning by means of synonym definition gives an account of meaning relationships such as synonymy. The paraphrase of meaning by means of synonym definition differs from a list of synonyms. The WAT uses the terms “sinoniemverwysing” (synonym reference), which refers the dictionary user to a synonym of the lemma under which the definition occurs, and “sinoniemvermelding” (synonym record), which provides a list of one or more of the lemma’s synonyms. In the following example:

feeble adj Faint
faint adj. Lacking strength or vigour, feeble.

Feeble uses a synonym reference (faint) as definition, while *faint* has a descriptive definition and *feeble* is listed as a synonym record.

7.4.2.1.1.4 The paraphrase of meaning by means of the circular definition

In a circular definition, the definiens contains a part of the definiendum or a derivation or root-word of the definiendum, or the definiendum itself.

A circular definition of jump is:

jump Act of jumping

7.4.2.1.1.5 The paraphrase of meaning by means of example

The paraphrase of meaning by means of the definition by example provides a representative example of a term. The Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (CCEDAL) offers a paraphrase of meaning by means of example of the word **soft fruit** as follows:

soft fruit ... any of various types of small edible stoneless fruit, such as strawberries, raspberries, and currants, borne mainly on low-growing plants or bushes.
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7.4.2.1.1.2 Criteria for good definitions

Defining can be considered as one of the most important processes in dictionary making. The goal of defining is to provide a user-friendly paraphrase of meaning. Lexicographers have identified many criteria for a good definition. COBUILD (the dictionary based on the Collins Birmingham University International Database) has outlined the following criteria (cf. Khumalo 2002:266–267):

- (a) Paraphrases of meaning should be as natural as possible
- (b) Paraphrases of meaning should project the typical usage of a lemma
- (c) Paraphrases of meaning should be easy to understand
- (d) A “dictionary as prose” (Hanks 1987:118) should be created, hence parentheses should not be used.

For COBUILD, a good paraphrase of meaning should be short, user-friendly (simple and familiar), culturally relevant, consistent with others of its type and should use

superordinate terms (Hanks 1987:118). A good paraphrase of meaning, in the terms of (Lombard 1991:166 quoted by Gouws and Prinsloo 2005:147-148), should have the following characteristics: completeness, clarity, accuracy, consistency, independency, objectivity and neutrality. The criterion *clarity* has been described above in (c). The criterion *completeness* means that the paraphrase of meaning should be complete, i.e. it should indicate all the features, details and characteristics necessary to understand what the word means. The criterion *consistency* means that the treatment of items, for example from the same word-category (noun, verb, etc.), should be maintained. As for *accuracy*, the paraphrase of meaning should be factually correct. The criterion *independency* of a paraphrase of meaning means that the user does not need to consult more than one paraphrase of meaning to understand the meaning of a specific lemma or sense. The criteria of *objectivity* and *neutrality* refer to the fact that the paraphrase of meaning should not reflect the personal view, preferences or beliefs of the lexicographer. The dictionary makers of the proposed dictionary should consider these criteria to write user-friendly paraphrases of meaning. I recommend that the style guide of the proposed dictionary should provide defining formats helping the editor when defining a particular word, with a scheme to follow. The compilers of the proposed dictionary should investigate well-known defining formats of English and French dictionaries (COBUILD, *Petit Robert*, etc.) and retain some aspects that could be relevant for the proposed dictionary. The proposed dictionary formats could be a mixture of different styles. For the paraphrases of meaning to be user-friendly, the defining styles have to reflect a Yipunu world-view.

7.4.2.1.3 Polysemy and homonymy in the MDDPSVY

Polysemy refers to the phenomenon that a single lexical item can have different distinctions in meaning that all show a mutual relationship. The distinctions in meaning refer to the polysemic values or the distinctions of one lexical item. There is always a particular relationship in the meaning between these distinctions. According to Hartmann and James (1998:69), homonymy is the relationship between two or more words that are identical in form but not in meaning. In other words, it is the condition of two words that are pronounced alike or have the same spelling, irrespective of grammatical function, but that differ significantly in other respects.

In contrast to homonyms, polysemic distinctions involve different values of the same lemma. While the meaning of *animal* was placed in different articles in the DHLF, the different distinctions in the meaning of *âge* were dealt with in one article. By placing two meanings under different macrostructural elements, the *Dictionnaire Hachette de la Langue Française* (DHLF) indicates that there is no synchronic relationship in meaning between the following two words *animal*:

1. animal, aux [animal, o] n.m. **1.** Être vivant, doué de sensibilité et de mouvement (*opposé aux végétaux*). **2.** Être vivant privé du langage, de la faculté de raisonner (*opposé à l'homme*). *L'ignorance rabaisse l'homme au rang des animaux.* **3. Fig.** Personne stupide ou grossière. *Quel animal!*

2. animal, ale, aux [animal, o] adj. **1.** Qui est propre à l'animal, qui concerne l'animal. (*en tant qu'opposé aux végétaux*). *Règne animal. Chaleur animale.*

2. Qui est propre à l'animal (*en tant qu'opposé à l'homme*). *Nourriture animale.*

3. Bestial. *Une fureur animale.*

While the meaning of **animal** was placed in different articles in the DHLF, the different distinctions in the meaning of **âge** were dealt with in one article:

âge [aʒ] n.m. **I.1.** Période écoulée depuis la naissance. *Quel âge a-t-il? ...Période écoulée depuis le début de l'existence d'un être vivant. L'âge d'un animal, d'un arbre* **2. Par extens.** Période écoulée depuis le moment où une chose a commence à exister. *L'âge de la Terre* **3.** (dans quelques expressions.) L'étendue de la vie humaine. La fleur de l'âge: la période de la vie où un être humain est en plein possession de ses moyens physiques et intellectuels. *Le déclin de l'âge:* le commencement de la vieillesse **4.** Période de la vie d'un être humain : *Bas âge, jeune âge, âge mur...* **II** Grande période de l'Histoire. *L'âge de la féodalité, de la monarchie.* **Special.** Chacune des grandes périodes de l'ère quaternaire caractérisées par l'état d'avance ment de l'industrie humaine. Age de la pierre : âge de la pierre taillée, de la Pierre polie. ; âge des métaux : âge du cuivre, du bronze, du fer.

It has been previously stated that homonyms in the proposed dictionary will be entered as different lemmata and will be indicated by a superscript number. A synchronic approach is very important when treating homonymy and polysemy. The proposed dictionary places the meanings of **-laba** ‘to see’ and ‘to be’ in two different articles.

-la.'ba¹ 1. [labə] *v.tr.* Reghila mutu, yima vo yibulu. *Nimalaba mutu.* = **-tsuna**
2. u malaba yima, mutu, yibulu diwendi rie utsi le jiromba. *Ni ma laba kola ni ma rombagma.*

-la.'ba² uba na .

Translation:

-la.'ba¹ 1. to see a person, an animal or a thing *I saw someone* = **-tsuna**
2. to look for something in order to find it.

-la.'ba² ‘to feel’

While the meaning of *laba* is placed in different articles in the proposed dictionary, the different distinctions in the meaning of *tsona* are dealt with in one article. The treatment of *tsona* is as follows:

tso'.na: [tsɔnə] *n.sg .pl.* **batsona.**
1. Yilumbu ajimusambwali yi yisalu jighandusu. *Batu baghesali tsona.*
= **yilumbu yitsona**
2. Temu ji yisambwali yi bilumbu. *Lendi, mardi, ghari tsona, sedi, vendedi, samidi, tsona bilumbu bi tsona.*

Translation:

tsɔna: [tsɔnə] *n.sg .pl.* **batsona.**

1. The 7th day that work is forbidden. *People do not work on Sundays*
=**Sunday**
2. A period of seven days, a week: *Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday and Sunday are the days of the week.*

7.4.2.1.2.3.1 Methods of the arrangement of polysemic distinctions in meaning

Lexicographers use different methods for ordering the senses of polysemous words. Being a synchronic dictionary, the MDDPSVY will not use arrangements that prevail in diachronic dictionaries, such as the historical arrangement and the arrangement according to primary and secondary distinctions in meanings (cf. Bureau of the WAT 2001:19). The MDDPSVY will rather use an empirical arrangement, which is related to the general lexicographical principle that dictionaries must reproduce actual language usage. Polysemic values are arranged hierarchically on the basis of the frequency of their use and the register in which they are used. Such an arrangement is determined statistically with the help of frequency counts and depends practically on the intuition of the lexicographer and the mother-tongue speakers.

Because the MDDPSVY is a corpus-based dictionary, the frequency evidence will be the main criterion for ordering the senses of polysemous words. From a corpus perspective, the concordance lines which are derived from the corpus by means of concordance tools such as those provide by *WordSmith Tools* are indispensable as an aid to sense distinction for the writing of better definitions (cf. 5.2.1.4.1.6).

7.4.2.1.4 Synonymy and antonymy

Two or more lexical items that belong to the same part of speech and designate the same concept or various aspects of the same concept are called synonyms.

Traditionally, antonyms are defined as two words that belong to the same part of speech and are opposite in meaning. Antonymy is a reciprocal relationship between

individual senses of two different words of which the senses are opposite in terms of, at least, gradability (hot, cold), complementariness (male, female), converseness (buy, sell), reversiveness (enter, leave) and antipodality (top, bottom). In the proposed dictionary, the synonyms and antonyms are usually placed close to the item giving the meaning paraphrase and are introduced respectively by typographical structural marker, e.g. = and ≠.

-la.'ba¹ =- tsuna
tata ≠ mama 'dad' ≠ 'mum'

7.4.2.1.5 Hyponymy and hyperonymy

According to Hartmann and James (1992:70), a hyponym is “a member of a set of words or phrases characterised by hyponymy.” The latter can be defined as the sense relation obtaining between the members of a set of words or phrases and their hyperonym. The sense of the hyponym or specific term can be said to be ‘included’ in that of the hyperonym or generic term, e.g. flower or vegetable covered by plant. This relationship is exploited in definitions (e.g. ‘a flower is a plant which ...’ or ‘a plant which ...’). Hyponymy is generally regarded as a relation of inclusion. Bureau of the WAT (2001:21) goes further by making a semantic relation hyponymy versus hyperonymy, which is often used in the frame of “genus and differentia definition”: a genus-differentia definition consists of two parts. The definiendum is first placed in the semantic class (the genus) to which it belongs. After that, the differences (differentia) between the definiendum and the other members of the class concerned are indicated. In terms of Burkhanov (1998:102), a paraphrase of a hyponym is a phrase that includes its hyperonym (genus) and a distinguishing lexical item or items representing the part of its meaning which differentiates it from any other lexical items sharing the same hyperonym (differentia).

As an illustration of hyperonymy/hyponymy, the treatment of the noun *shape* in Collins COBUILD shows that *shape* is a hyperonym of *circle* and *triangle*. Therefore *circle* and *triangle* are hyponyms of *shape*.

shape / / shapes, shaping, shaped.

1. N-VAR. The shape of an object, a person, or an area is the form or pattern of its outline. ...*a keyring in the shape of a fish... the room was square in shape.* **2** N-C A shape is which has a definite form, for example a circle or triangle. ...*a kidney shape.* **3...**

circle / / circles, circling, circled. **1** N-C a **circle** is a round shape. Every part of its edge is the same distance from the centre. **2** VERB to **circle**...

triangle / / triangles. N-C. A triangle is a shape with three straight sides...

To render into account of the relation of hyperonymy/hyponymy, the Collins COBUILD makes use of pictorial illustrations. For instance, one finds that a pictorial illustration addressed to the lemma **shape** gives the different kind of shapes (diamond, star, square, heart, cone, cylinder, circle, triangle, crosses, sphere, pyramid, cube, rectangle, oval and crescent). As in the case of Collins COBUILD, the compiler of the proposed model could include pictorial illustrations to render an account of the relation of hyperonymy/ hyponymy between lemmata. As an illustration, the word *dikumbi* which literally means ‘a machine to transport people’ will present a pictorial illustration to describe the different types of machines of transport.



1. dikumbi di butamba
2. dikumbi di julu
3. bwatu
4. nsila ngongula
5. dikumbi di mamba

The words *dikumbi di butamba*, *dikumbi di julu*, *bwatu*, *nsila ngongula* and *dikumbi di mamba* are hyponyms of *dikumbi*. The inclusion of pictorial illustrations in the proposed dictionary will have a detailed discussion later on in this chapter (cf. 7.4.2.3.4)

7.4.2.2 Syntactic data

Syntactic data includes usage examples, collocations and idioms. Frequency evidence is the main criterion for ordering syntactic data supplied for words with rich complementation.

7.4.2.2.1 Usage examples

According to Hartmann and James (1998:53), an example is a word or a phrase used in a reference work to illustrate a particular form or meaning in a wider context, such as a sentence. In other words, an example is any phrase or sentence that illustrates the use of the item defined or translated. The usage example provides the user with the idea of the context within which the term can be used. The usage example is part of the comment on semantics. The primary purpose of usage examples, in Al-Kasimi's (1977:91) terms, is to show the lexical item in a live context and to enhance the understanding of the grammatical and semantic rules governing the usage of the lexical item by showing the rules in action. The functions of usage examples are numerous:

- They serve as a demonstration of the lemma's behaviour in combination with other lexical items.
- They serve to illustrate the specific semantic value of a lexical item, or to indicate the syntactical presentation of the lemma, to indicate the collocation of the lexical item or to illustrate possible contexts in which the item could be used, or to understand the definition correctly and to enhance the user's understanding of the culture of the target language speech community.
- They are also of great importance in the treatment of polysemous lemmas. Examples can illustrate the specific context in which a specific sense of a defined lexical item is relevant for use.
- They play an important role in both text reception and text production. On the decoding level, the examples can help to clarify individual meanings and can help the user to distinguish between related meanings. On an encoding level, they help the user to select the correct grammatical pattern for a given word or sense, to produce language according to stylistic norms typical of native speakers of the given language. The illustrative examples should always be regarded as one of the data categories, which assist the user towards a better understanding and the use of the language.
- Examples play an important role in guiding the user to know the word.

Laufer (1992:71) formulates this as follows:

Knowing a word ideally implies familiarity with all its properties. When a person knows a word, he/she knows the following: the word's pronunciation, its spelling, its morphological components, if any, the words that are morphologically related to it, the word's syntactic behaviour in a sentence, the full range of the word's meaning, the appropriate situations for using the word, its collocational restrictions, its distribution and the relation between the word and other words within a lexical set ... the foreign language learner knows a much smaller number of words ... In many cases word knowledge is only partial; i.e. the learner may have mastered some of the word's properties but not the others.

Lexicographers make a distinction between corpus examples and constructed examples. Corpus examples are derived from a corpus and constructed examples are made or constructed by the lexicographer. Some lexicographers have argued in favour of corpus examples (they are grammatically correct and situationally appropriate) while others are in favour of constructed examples (they are useful or more useful to learners than those taken directly from a corpus with little or no modification). The makers of the proposed dictionary will take the usage example from the corpus and will modify them if necessary. The source of the example taken from the corpus or texts will be acknowledged in the proposed dictionary. The usage example will be placed after the item giving the paraphrase of meaning and will be presented in italic form. The example-**bo**ka 'to kill' clarify the point in question:

-bo'ka 1. -ghusula monyu ji mutu, yibulu. *Amaboka mutu.*

2. -kakēsēna bubatsi, diwela. *bamaboka bubatsi*

Translation:

-bo'.ka 'to kill'

1. to remove the life of a human being or an animal. *He has killed someone.*
2. to break the friendship, a marriage (to divorce). *They broke the friendship (they are not friends anymore).*

7.4.2.2 Collocations, idioms and proverbs

7.4.2.2.1 Collocations

From a lexicographical point of view, the main semantic difference between collocations and idioms is the fact that idioms are single lexical items whereas collocations are combinations of lexical items. A collocation is the relationship between two words or groups of words that often go together and form a common expression.

According to Svénen (1993:101), “information about collocations is important in both monolingual and active bilingual dictionaries, since the user cannot be expected to know which words customarily occur together.” Collocations illustrate the typical combinations in which the lemma occurs and its typical use by mother-tongue speakers, and enable the non mother-tongue speaker to use typical and idiomatic phrases. Collocations should be based on real language usage and the lexicographer should therefore extract them from the corpus. As far as Yipunu is concerned, studies on collocations are rare. The LPF of Bonneau (cf. Chapter 2) includes collocations, but there is no clear identification of them in this work. In English, lexicographers make a distinction between grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. A grammatical collocation in the terms of Benson et al. (1986: ix) is a phrase consisting of a dominant word (noun, adjective and verb) and a preposition or grammatical structure, such as an infinitive or clause. In contrast, lexical collocations normally do not contain prepositions, infinitives or clauses. Many lexical collocations in English consist of a verb and a noun. Benson et al. (1986:ix-xxxv) have described major types of grammatical and lexical collocations that are included in the *BBJ Combinatory Dictionary of English*. Regarding Yipunu, some investigations should be done in

order to describe or identify the major types of grammatical and lexical collocations. I have observed that lexical collocations that consist of a verb and noun are more frequent in Yipunu. For instance *ulaba ghoma* ‘to be afraid’, *ulaba ubweji* ‘to feel happy, to be glad’, *ulaba yisoni* ‘to be ashamed of’, *ulaba firi*, *ulaba kabu* ‘to be angry’, *udimba mbata* ‘to slap’, *udimba kubu* ‘to beat someone’, *udimba musaku* ‘to clear the undergrowth from’ are lexical collocations in Yipunu.

These collocations in the proposed dictionary are not included as multilexical lemmata. They are presented as microstructural elements. For the proposed dictionary, research into collocations is required. The corpus-querying tool will be able to help in indicating the frequency of use of collocations; the compilers of the proposed dictionary can select the most typical ones to include in the dictionary. At this stage, I recommend that collocations will be placed after the corresponding sense of the relevant lemma. For instance, the proposed dictionary will present the collocations of the verbs mentioned above as follows:

-la.'ba¹

-la.'ba²

► -laba **ghoma**, -laba **ubweji**, -laba **yisoni**, -laba **firi**, -laba **kabu**, -laba **nsangu**,
-laba **nsoruru**

-di.'mba

► -dimba **mbata**, -dimba **kubu**, -dimba **musaku**

The marker ► will introduce the collocations in the proposed dictionary. The other combination of the collocation will be presented in bold.

7.4.2.2.2 Idioms

As for idioms, Benson (1985:66) describes “an idiom [as] a relatively frozen expression whose meaning does not reflect the meaning of its component parts.” The study of Yipunu idioms has received little attention. In the LPF, Bonneau includes

collocations and idiomatic and proverbial expressions, but there is no clear demarcation between them. Research is clearly needed to identify the idioms mostly used by the Bapunu people. The proposed dictionary will not include idioms as macrostructural elements, but as microstructural entries. It will include as many idioms as the size of the dictionary allows. The lexicographers of the MDDPSVY will introduce these idioms by a marker ■ in the relevant article. The idiom will be placed under the lemma corresponding to key-word of the idiomatic expressions i.e first noun or the first verb of that idiomatic expression. The idiomatic expressions will be written in bold. For instance the idiom ‘ *uwalula ndosi* ’ ‘to expose a dream, to tell a dream’ will be placed under the lemma –*walula*, as follows:

-wa.’lu.la

■-walula ndosi

The proposed dictionary will also offer some data on idioms in its back matter. This data will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

7.4.2.2.3 Proverbs

Proverbs are fixed expressions and differ from idioms in several ways. The essential difference is that they convey wisdom or an alleged truth. Yipunu proverbs have received attention from Raponda Walker (1993). Through its proverbs, the Yipunu society conveys values such as unity, pride, work ethic, experience, and respect for elders, prudence and so forth. The notion of unity, for example, in Yipunu society is valued because “the union makes the force”. A human being cannot always achieve something alone, which is why union is necessary, not only to achieve a great work, but also to reach better results. Nobody does anything alone. The proverb ‘ *mulembu mosi aghesusi yitsi* ’ ‘one finger does not wash the face’ illustrates this value in the Yipunu society.

The Yipunu traditional society attaches an importance to elders and considers them to have great experience. A child should submit to his or her parents, and it is good to follow the advice of old people, who are also called the wise ones. The proverb

mwana na diwema yivhunda na niga, literally means ‘if the child is disobedient, the parents, the elders are not generous, they are selfish’. In the Yipunu society, it is admitted that elders should reprimand the disobedience of the child.

In the proposed dictionary, proverbs will be included under the lemma which corresponds to the key-word i.e the first noun or the first verb of the proverbial expressions. For instance, the proverb ‘*mulembu mosi aghesusi yitsi*’ will be included under the lemma *mulembu* and the proverb *mwana na diwema yivhunda na niga* will be included under the lemma *mwana*. Proverbs will not substitute the usage example, but will be placed after the usage example. The compilers of the proposed dictionary will also give the meaning of proverbs in roman letters. Proverbs will be in italics. and will be introduced by a marker \diamond and the word **Nongu**, which means proverb in Yipunu. They become secondary treatment units.

The treatment of the lemma *koku* ‘cockerel’ below illustrates the point in question:

ko.’ku : [koku] *n.sg cl pl. ba.ko’ku*

yibulu yidimbu, mapapi mandi ma ghe pumumughi.

\diamond **Nongu.** *Koku a ma busa ndaghu mutu ghuvhigni* :diwendi rie magolu ma mutu erughi ombu busini dyadi.

\diamond **Nongu.** *Koku a ma kamba na tungu, mbura na mbura jilatsi*:diwendi rie pa uji ityanaukambu.

\diamond **Nongu.** *Bakoku ba bapunu be vhosi yiPunu, ba banzabi, be vhosi yiNzabi*.diwendi rie: mutu mutu ana dibandu na bukulu byandi. (3000 proverbes du Gabon)

7.4.2.3 Pragmatic data

7. 4.2.3.1 Lexicographic labels

The proposed dictionary should not only give an account of the use of a lemma (by the use of examples), but also the restrictions on its use. Any restriction on the use of a particular lemma is indicated by means of a label. Labels mark the appropriateness of a lemma for a given communicative situation and enable the dictionary user to

select words to ensure effective communication. Labels usually have a focal position in a dictionary and are responsible for the explicit and immediate transfer of information. Labels indicate that lemmas are used in a certain way or are most often used in a certain place or have specialised uses in a particular subject area.

Lexicographic labels may be divided into four categories, namely stylistic, geographical, temporal and sphere of usage labels. As is the case with grammar terminology, Yipunu has to develop lexicographic conventions for labelling. In the following section I am proposing some Yipunu lexicographic conventions for labelling.

7. 4.2.3.1.1 Stylistic labels

The following stylistic labels are used in French dictionaries and they mainly include style labels and labels indicating frequency of usage: *Fam.* (*familier*), *pop.* (*populaire*), *cour.* (*courant*), *form.* (*formel*), *inform.* ou *arg.* (*informel* ou *argot*), *sout.* (*soutenu*), *enfant.* (*enfantin*), (majoritairement utilisé à la forme singulier ou pluriel), *fréquent.* (*fréquent*, *fréquemment*), *irrég.* (*irrégulier*, *irrégulièrement*) et *rare*. For example, the lemma *proprio* ‘landlord’ has the style label (*fam.*) following treatment in the DHLF:

proprio [proprijo] n. Fam. Abbréviation de propriétaire
--

The marker **dimbu.** will indicate the stylistic label (*informal/familier*) in the proposed dictionary.

7. 4.2.3.1.2 Labels indicating attitude or connotations

The following labels indicating attitude or connotations are used in French dictionaries:

Dénigr. (*par*) (*par dénigrement*), *iron.* (*ironique*, *ironiquement*) or *antiphrase* (*par*) (*par antiphrase*), *vulg.* (*vulgaire*), *dérog.* (*dérogatif*), *péj.* (*péjoratif*), *mél.* (*mélioratif*), *triv.* (*trivial*), *erron.* (*erronée*), *plais.* (*par*) (*par plaisanterie*), *obs.* (*obscène*),

injurieux (injur). Some of the labels indicating attitude or connotation in the proposed

dictionary are:

musiedu ironically

nsoruru obscene

yisiengu vulgar

7. 4.2.3.1.3 Labels indicating expansion or narrowing of the meaning

French dictionaries make use of labels indicating expansion or narrowing of the meaning. *Anal. (par) (par analogie)*, *exagér. (par) (par exagération)* ou *abusiv. (abusivement)*, *ext. (par) (par extension)*, *fig. (figuré)*, *métaph. (métaphore)*, *propre (au) (au propre)*, *oppos. (par) (par opposition)*, *littéral. (littéralement)*, *mod (moderne)*, *sens restr. (sens restreint)*.

The marker **nana.** will indicate the label (by analogy) in the proposed dictionary.

7. 4.2.3.1.4 Labels for special field of activity

Lemmas or other entries that belong to a specialised field and are fairly unfamiliar outside that field are marked with a sphere of usage label. The user is thus immediately informed about the subject area. Labels such as *(natation)*, *(maçonnerie)* place lemmas within specific semantic fields and have a decoding function. Some of the labels for special field of activity in the proposed dictionary are:

mbongu finance

dikundu sorcery

bukreti christianity

mwisika music

bughora military

politika politics

muyitsa religion

bamata mathematics

musamu teknologi information technology

bigana sports

dujabu du dunyuru anatomy

7.4.2.3.1.5 Temporal labels

Labels having a diachronic function will mainly be the following: *Ancien./archaique* (*anciennement/archaique*). *Vieilli* ‘outdated’. This temporal label (*Ancien. /archaic*) has nothing to do with either the productive or the receptive functions of the dictionary. The marker **ghulu** ‘outdated’ could represent the temporal label in Yipunu dictionaries.

7.4.2.3.1.6 Geographical labels

Geographical labels mark the spatial distribution of lemmas and make provision for dialectal variations to be noted in a dictionary. In the WAT, lemmas marked with the label (*regional*) also give an indication of the place, area or region of occurrence, for example (*Willowmore*).

7.4.2.3.1.7 Labels in the proposed dictionary

The proposed dictionary will make use of stylistic labels and labels of special field activity. The proposed dictionary will not make use of geographical labels to give an account of the dialectal differences and of temporal labels. The MDDPSVY will not make use of temporal labels. The proposed dictionary describe the Yipunu contemporary language. The MDDPSVY will also not mark dialectal sources or areas in order to avoid division among speakers of the language. The envisaged dictionary intends to unify the Bapunu speakers of different geographical regions. In addition, the MDDPSVY will not make use of temporal labels. The proposed dictionary describes the Yipunu contemporary language.

An indication of the geographical markers may lead to divisions among Bapunu of different geographical areas. However, it will reflect these differences using a marker

‘duk. ji’ which means ‘variant of ’or (WANDI) ‘also’ in the microstructure. As mentioned above, these markers will be presented as follows in the proposed dictionary:

mbi’.ngu duk. ji BIJUJI Nya’. m bi ..duk. ji NSAMBI
--

bi.juji (mbingu WANDI) Nsam.’bi (Nyambi WANDI)

As mentioned above, Yipunu labels will be used in the proposed dictionary. These labels will be marked in bold in a small font **dimbu, nana**.

7.4.2.3.2 Cultural and encyclopaedic data

Because the proposed dictionary is not only a linguistic text, but a cultural text as well, the lexicographer will provide cultural data of various types to users. I have stated in the previous chapter that the MDDPSVY will display a number of complex articles to accommodate cultural or/and encyclopaedic data.

At the microstructural level, the Yipunu proverbs and idioms reflect the culture and the life style of the Bapunu speakers. Proverbs and idioms are cultural data. The proposed dictionary will include other cultural data such as names. At the microstructural level, the proposed dictionary will also include names that refer to cultural activities, beliefs, groups, etc. Yipunu names that are used within the large community will be entered as additional data. Yipunu names, such as the names of clans (*Badumbi, Jugu*), names of the traditional rites that the Bapunu people practice (*Ilombo, Bwiti, Mabanzi*) and names of Yipunu dances (*Isamba, Ikoku*), will be additional data in the treatment of the lemma *mughinu* ‘dance’. The following examples illustrate the inclusion of cultural data particularly the clan names in the treatment of the lemmata *yibandu* ‘clan from the father side’ and *yifumbu* ‘clan from the mother side’ in the proposed dictionary:

yi.ba'.ndu [jibandu] (**ibandu** WANDI) *n. sg cl 7 pl bibandu.*

Dighukiyi di bifumbu o yari yi taji. *Yibandu yami Badumbi*

■ *yibandu yau yi?* GHENGILA **yifumba**

‘The clan from the mother side’ will offer some additional data with regard to the slight difference between *yifumba* and *yibandu* and the clan names of the Bapunu people. The clan names will be included under the lemma *yifumba* and not *yibandu*. This choice is motivated by the cultural background of the Bapunu people. The traditional family of the Gabonese people and of the Bapunu in particular is characterised by the concept of group, clan and tribe. The community system occupies an important place. A child does not only belong to his parents (father and mother), but to the whole community. The Yipunu society belongs to so-called matrilinear societies, i.e the child belongs to the family of the mother and it is the uncle (brother of the mother) who has a prior voice on the child. Taking into account this cultural background, the clan names will be added to the lemma *yifumba*, which refers to the clan from the mother side’. The treatment of *yifumba* is presented as follows:

yi.fu'.mba [jifumbə] (WANDI **ifumba**) *n. sg cl 7/8 pl. bi.fu'mba.*

biburu o yari yi nguji. *Yifumba yami Jugu*

■ *yifumbu yau yi?* GHENGILA **yibandu**

+

yifumba na yibandu

yifumba diwendi rię o yari yi nguji; *yibandu* diwendi rię o yari yi taji. “*Bajengwi, Badumbi, Bujoyala, Bumweli, Dibamba-kadi, Dikanda, Minzumba, Ndingi: Jugu, Baghoju, Simbu, Polu, Ibaso, Taba*” la bibandu na bifumba bi Bapunu (Mumbwanga, 1997:3)

Translation

The additional data of the article *yifumba* contains the names of the Bapunu clans:

+

yifumba and yibandu

yifumba refers to a clan from your mother side and *yibandu* a clan from your father side. “*Bajengwi, Badumbi, Bujyala, Bumweli, Dibamba-kadi, Dikanda, Minzumba, Ndingi: Jugu, Baghoju, Simbu, Polu, Ibasu, Taba*” are the clans from the mother and the father sides of the Bapunu (Mumbwanga, 1997:3)

The proposed dictionary introduces the cultural or encyclopaedic data by the mathematic symbol +. The articles with additional data i.e cultural data or encyclopaedic data are complex articles.

7. 4.2.3.3 Usage notes

Usage notes supplement the data already provided in the dictionary articles and help to clarify the distinctions that exist between some items. The usage notes present important data on guidance of grammar, diction, pronunciation and registers and nuances of usages. As far as English is concerned, an extensive literature has discussed the different categories of usage notes in dictionaries such as LDOCE and OALD. For the case of English, learners do need guidance on the distinction between the usage of *after an hour* and *in an hour*. The *Longman Active Study Dictionary* (henceforth LASD) clarifies the usage of *after an hour* and *in an hour* by a usage note following the lemma **after**²:

after¹

after² *linking word* at a later time than the time something happens: *Voitek left Poland after the war. 10 days/ 2weeks after. He discovered the jewel was a fake a month after he bought it.*

USAGE NOTE: after an hour and in an hour

Use these phrases to talk about the time in the future when you are going to do something. However, compare the sentences: *We'll leave after an hour* and *We'll leave in an hour*. In the first sentence, the speaker is planning how long to stay in a place before they get there. In the second, the speaker is already at a place, and is deciding how much longer to stay there.

7. 4.2.3.3.1 Categorisation of usage notes in dictionaries

As far as English is concerned, different types of usage notes have been identified in dictionaries such as LASD, LDOCE (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English) and OALD (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary). Three types of notes can be identified in LASD namely usage, grammar and spelling notes. Usage notes refer to the semantics, morphology, syntax and pragmatics. Grammar notes concern the part of speech and tenses. Spelling notes deal with the sounds.

Usage notes	
Semantics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - nouns: <i>action/act</i> - adjectives: <i>continual/continuous</i> - verbs: <i>dress/put on/wear</i>
Morphology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - genre (male or female): <i>actor/actress</i> - suffixes: -er/-est: <i>fewer/fewest</i>
syntax	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - nouns: <i>blame/fault</i> - verb/noun: <i>effect</i> (used as verb)/<i>effect</i> (used as noun) - adjectives/adverbs: <i>enough</i> (used after adjectives and verbs)/<i>enough</i> can be used after nouns - adverbs: <i>hard/hardly</i> - nouns/adjectives: <i>luck/lucky</i>

Pragmatics

- religious: the word *God*.
- Culture: *referee/umpire*
- Formality: big/large
- Regional: phone/call

Grammar notes

Part of speech:

- transitive and intransitive verbs
- word class: *as/like*
- phrases: *after an hour/ in an hour*

Tenses:

- the passive
- the progressive
- the present
- the present perfect
- the present perfect progressive
- the past progressive
- the past perfect
- the future

Spelling notes:

- Sounds /k/ like *cut* and /s/ like *city*

7.4.2.3.3.2 Usage notes and the proposed dictionary

Because the proposed dictionary is directed at mother-tongue speakers and learners, it has to make provision for the inclusion of usage notes. Learners and mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu need clarification on common words, on grammatical and lexical collocations. The proposed dictionary will provide the usage notes to the target users with regard to orthographical, grammatical, syntactical and semantic aspects of the Yipunu language. Until today, no study has been done with regard to usage notes in Yipunu. I do think that the microstructural inclusion of usage notes requires preliminary investigations among learners of Yipunu. The questions raised by learners of Yipunu in their writing will help the compilers of the MDDPSVY to identify which lemma needs to have a usage note and which kind of notes to incorporate. With regard to the placement of usages notes in the proposed dictionary, I recommend that the usage notes will be inserted in a box and placed after the dictionary article of the relevant lemma, like in the case of LASD. This choice is motivated by the fact that the

box is easily accessible and friendly to the users and this lexicographic convention has not been used to represent a type of microstructural data in the proposed dictionary. In addition the French marker **NOTE D'USAGE** or English marker 'USAGE NOTE' will not be taken into account to avoid the use of French or English terminology.

7.4.2.3.4 Pictorial illustrations

Illustrative material in a dictionary can be verbal or non-verbal. The illustrative examples that were discussed previously in this chapter are verbal examples indicating the use of a lemma. Pictorial illustrations are part of the non-verbal data and can be included as microstructural items that fulfil a very important function by providing “visual support for the description of the meaning content of linguistic units” (Svensén 1993:167). Gouws (1993:46) states that the lexicographic validity of the use of pictorial illustrations is unquestionable when these entries enhance the comprehension of the target user. He further points out (1994:63) that, according to the user-perspective, the target user should determine the type of data presented in a dictionary and the way in which the data is presented. In a dictionary intended for a user with less sophisticated dictionary skills, the data presentation should be more explicit and one of the ways in which this explicit presentation of data can take place is through using a method of ostensive addressing and thus presenting the lexicographic treatment in the form of a pictorial illustration. The use of pictorial illustrations in the entries enhances the comprehension of the target user. Illustrations are important in a dictionary such as the proposed dictionary. Al-Kasimi states that pictorial illustrations can be used to illustrate the cultural items which no longer exist and which the user cannot easily conceive without the aid of an illustration.

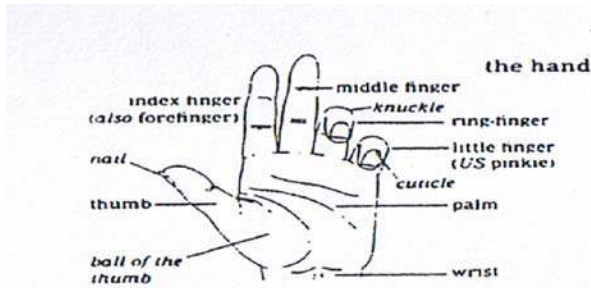
According to Al-Kasimi (1997:98), pictorial illustrations can serve two functions:

1. They cue and reinforce verbal equivalents (or definitions), especially when the dictionary user can identify, attend to and respond differentially to the picture.
2. They serve as generalising examples when several different but relevant pictures are given in order to establish the concept they are intended to illustrate.

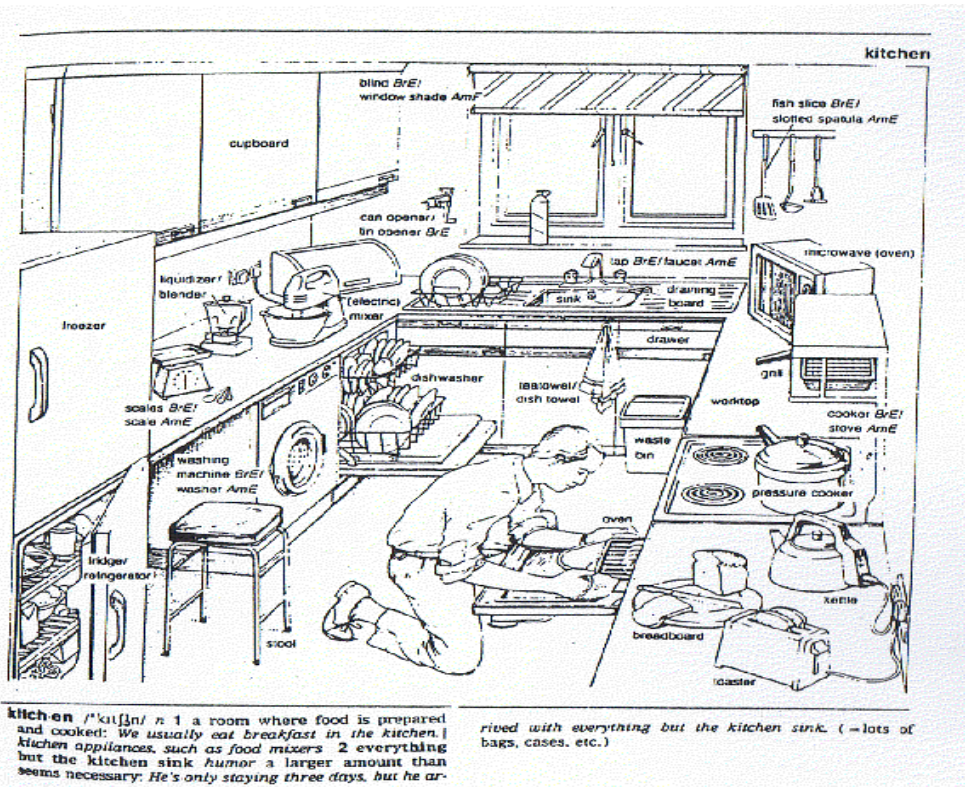
Al- Kasimi (1997:98) points out that pictorial illustration helps the user to understand the content of the accompanying verbal equivalents (or definition) because they motivate him or her, reinforce what is read and symbolically enhance and deepen the meaning of the verbal equivalents (or definitions).

According to Al-Kasimi, pictorial illustrations should be used whenever they have more discerning properties and more control over the desired concept than the verbal equivalent (or definition). Thus, a pictorial illustration should be used when it can get a specific response from the user, and establish a concept more efficiently than a verbal equivalent (definition) alone. Furthermore, pictorial illustrations should be used when the verbal equivalent (or definition) requires the use of too many words or too long explanations. Al-Kasimi states that in such cases a brief definition or short explanatory equivalent should be supplemented by a pictorial illustration, which gives the user a fuller understanding of the given concept. Pictorial illustrations should also be used when the verbal equivalents (or definitions) cannot give a clear indication of sequential or spatial relationships where graphic aids such as charts, maps and diagrams may prove more efficient than words.

Al-Kasimi (1977:100-102) provides the following criteria for pictorial illustrations: They should be compact, realistic and interpretable – the user should be able to understand the message; they should be relevant, simple, precise, complete and clear. Stein (1991:114–115) argues that pictures have not only a visual function but also can help name all characteristic parts of the hand, for example, because the amount of the detail usually goes far beyond the definition of the item. All the nouns denoting places, for example house, kitchen, help to assemble components or identify characteristic components belonging to this noun. The following pictures illustrate the lemmata *hand* and *kitchen* in OALDCE.



hand /'hænd/ *n* 1 [C] end part of the human arm below the wrist: *take/lead sb by the hand* ○ *have one's hands in one's pockets.* ☞ *illus.* 2 a hand [sing] (*informal*) active help: *Please lend a hand.* ○ *Give (me) a hand with the washing-up.* ○ *Do you want/need a hand?* 3 [C] pointer on a clock dial, etc: *the 'hour/'minute/'second hand of a watch.* 4 [C] (a) manual worker on a farm or in a factory, dockyard, etc: *'farm-hands.* (b) member of a ship's crew: *All hands (ie All seamen are needed) on deck!* 5 [sing] skill in using the hands: *He has a light hand with pastry,* ie makes it well. 6 [C] (a) set of cards dealt to a player in a card-game: *have a good, bad, poor, etc hand.* (b) one round in a game of cards: *Let's play one more hand.* 7 [sing] style of handwriting: *He has/writes a good/legible hand.* 8 [sing] (*dated or formal*) promise to marry: *He asked for her hand.* ○ *She gave him her hand (in marriage).* 9 [C] unit of measurement, about four inches (10.16 cm), used for measuring the height of a horse. 10 (idm) all ,hands to the 'pump (*saying*) everyone must help: *We've an urgent job on this week, so it's (a case of) all hands to the pump.* at first, second, etc 'hand directly/indirectly from the original source: *I only heard the news at second hand.* (close/near) at 'hand (a) near; close by: *He lives close at hand.* (b) (*formal*) about to happen: *Your big moment is at hand.* at sb's hands from sb: *I did not expect such unkind treatment at your hands.* be a dab, an old, a poor, etc hand (at



7.4.2.3.4.1 Pictorial illustrations in African language dictionaries

Stein (1991:106) determines four main types of illustrations, which can be included in an African language dictionary in general and particularly in the proposed dictionary:

1. Illustrations showing common animals, objects and plants
2. Illustrations showing things that are not easily explained in words, such as shapes, complex actions, or small differences between words which are similar but not the same
3. Illustrations depicting groups of related objects; these explain the differences between similar objects, show the range of shapes and forms covered by a particular word and serve as an important aid to vocabulary expansion
4. Illustrations showing the basic or physical meaning of words commonly used in an abstract or figurative way; culture-specific terms can be added to the above main types, particularly in African languages dictionaries

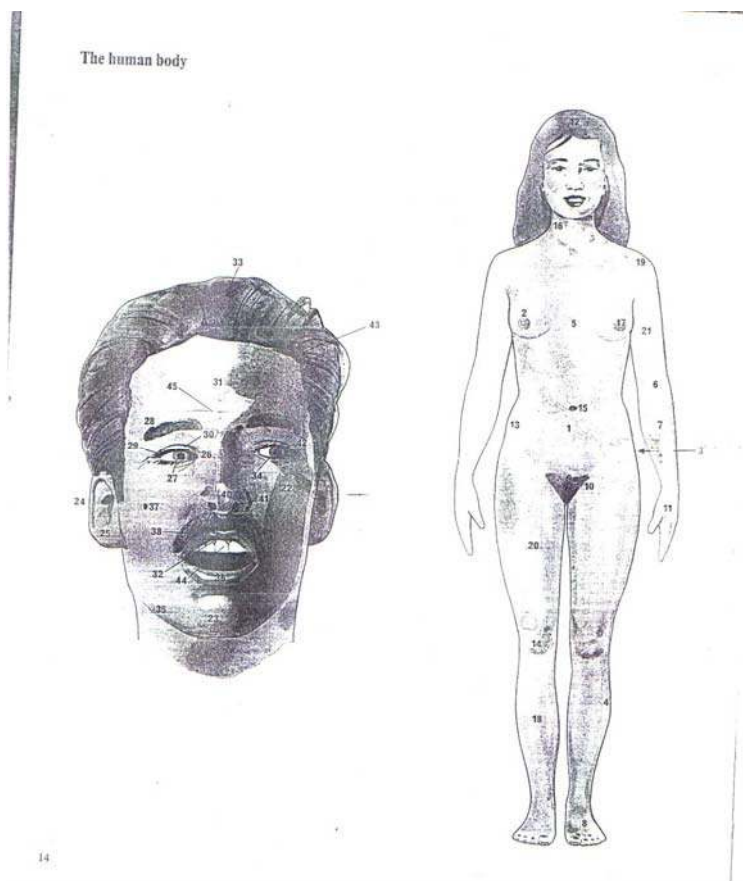
As far as the proposed dictionary is concerned, I think the inclusion of some loan words should be added. I have demonstrated in the previous chapter that the proposed dictionary will show preference for the inclusion of the indigenous counterparts. Learners of Yipunu, because they are not accustomed to indigenous words, need the pictorial illustrations to visualise the meaning of these words. For example, the indigenous word *dikumbi*, which literally means ‘a machine to transport people’, will present a pictorial illustration to describe the different types of machines of transport (cf.7.4.2.1.5). The use of pictorial illustrations in the proposed dictionary can be helpful to render into account the relation of hyperonymy/ hyponymy between lemmata (cf. 7.4.2.1.5).

7.4.2.3.4.2 Placement of illustrations in the proposed dictionary

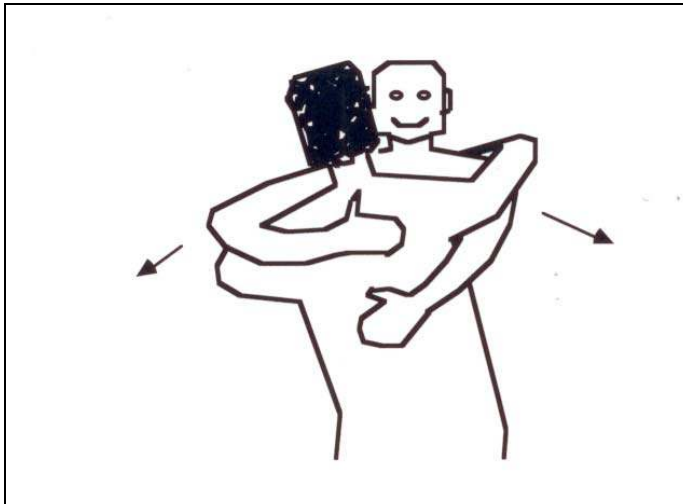
Pictorial illustrations in a dictionary must not be presented in an arbitrary and unsystematic way. In a dictionary, pictorial illustrations are part of the defining formats of the dictionary and the addressing must be applied in a consistent way. The compilers of the proposed dictionary will make use of pictorial illustrations to help in transferring the meaning of cultural specific term to the users. The proposed

dictionary will make provision for the inclusion of illustrations, where it is necessary. The illustration will be placed close or next to the lemma with the word to which the pictorial illustration is directed at the top of that picture. For instance, the proposed dictionary will offer a pictorial illustration for the human body ‘*dunyuru dumutu*’ showing and naming the different body parts as in the picture below.

dunyuru du mutu



Another example is the picture below which shows the Yipunu hug ‘*samba*’. The Bapunu people have different ways to greet people. One way is the ‘*samba*’, which is a warm way of greeting, usually used by two persons who have not seen each other for a long time. The proposed dictionary will illustrate this term, which is a culture-specific term, and the word *samba* will be written at the top of the picture to indicate to users that this picture refers to the lemma *samba*.

samba

In addition to the pictorial illustration, the treatment of the lemma *samba* could add the cultural comment of this kind of greeting like the one mentioned above.

7. 4.2.3.5 Data on etymology

Data on etymology primarily concerns diachronic dictionaries. Retrieving data on etymology for words of a Bantu language such as Yipunu requires some knowledge of the historical linguistics of Bantu language (the Proto-Bantu) from users. The users of the MDDPSVY are not language experts; therefore, etymological data will not be indicated for all the lemmata.

The data on etymology will only concern the borrowings or loan words (adapted or not). The inclusion of loan words in the proposed dictionary has received attention in **6.1.2.1.2**. The marker ♦ will introduce the data on etymology in the proposed dictionary. The language source and the word source will also be given. The term *Sida* borrowed from French ‘Sida’ *Syndrome Immuno-Déficitaire Acquis* will be treated as follows in the proposed dictionary:

Si.da [sidə]
 ♦yifwala, Sida Syndrome Immuno-Déficitaire
 Acquis. (**mubedi**, **sidoni** WANDI)

7.5 Concluding remarks

The proposed dictionary described in this chapter displays an integrated and extended obligatory microstructure. Its dictionary articles will be composed of a comment on form and a comment on semantics. The comment on form will provide the user with a variety of data on spelling, pronunciation and grammar, particularly data on the traditional parts of speech. The comment on semantics will give semantic data particularly, a paraphrase of meaning, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms and polysemes, hyponyms and hyperonyms. The comment on semantics will also include data on syntax, namely collocations, idioms and proverbial expressions. Pragmatic data will also be part of the comment on semantics. Pragmatic data concerns lexicographic labels, cultural and encyclopaedic data, usage notes and pictorial illustrations. With regard to grammar the proposed dictionary will use the French terminology. This choice is motivated by the fact that Yipunu has not yet developed a grammar terminology. Yipunu has to develop his own terminology on grammar. As far as labelling is concerned, some Yipunu lexicographic conventions on labelling have been proposed. As far as etymological data is concerned, it will only be applied to loan words. Some typological markers and characters will be used to ensure easy access for their users. The microstructure should be designed according to the principles of user-friendliness and dictionary accessibility and communicative success.

CHAPTER 8: GUIDE STRUCTURES AND OUTER TEXTS OF THE MDDPSVY

8.0 Introduction

This chapter offers a discussion on the guide structures and the outer texts of the envisaged dictionary. The metalexicographical term *guide structures* refers to the set of structures that provides a framework within which the accessibility and availability of data types in the dictionary can be evaluated (Louw 1999:108–119). The guide structures encompass the access structure, addressing structure, mediostructure and micro-architecture. The outside matter, or outer texts, includes texts in the front and back matters of the dictionary. The front matter consists of all functional text parts preceding the central list and the back matter of texts coming after the central list. The proposed dictionary will be constituted of a frame structure: the front matter and the central list, i.e. the dictionary proper and the back matter.

8.1 Guide structures

8.1.1 Access structure

The access structure can be regarded as the search route the dictionary user follows during a dictionary consultation procedure. Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995:16) define it as the structure of lexicographical indicators directing the user to the information required. The access structure is the primary guide structure to the central texts of any dictionary. The access structure includes certain substructures namely the outer and inner access structure.

The outer access structure leads a user up to the lemma sign, introducing the article from which the needed information is to be retrieved. The inner access structure guides the user within a dictionary article to the search zone in which the relevant data is presented. The objective of this section is to give the elements of the outer and inner access structure out of which the access structure of the proposed dictionary consists.

8.1.1.1 The outer access structure

The outer access structure is 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. The outer access structure includes all the entries on the cover indicating the title of the dictionary and its typological nature, the type and amount of data, as well as certain front matter texts, for example a table of contents and user's guidelines that guide the user to the relevant article (cf. Almind & Bergenholtz 2000; Steyn 2004:278).

The text of the user's guidelines has an access function because it not only informs users of the data collection in the dictionary, but also explicates the positioning and arrangement of data types. By consulting the user's guidelines, complemented by a sample article, the user gains insight into the structure and contents of the dictionary. The table of contents gives access to most of the elements of the wordbook structure. Where the typical outer access structure guides a user to a lemma sign, the table of contents includes entries which guide a user to the different components of the frame structure and to the individual texts contained in these components of the dictionary as a big text. The functional value of a table of contents, which increases the accessibility of the dictionary, should never be underestimated.

The lexicographer must ensure accessibility to the texts in the front matter or back matter and to the central list. The central list is the textual component which is the most typical venue for dictionary consultation procedures. The structure of the central list should therefore facilitate the quick and unimpeded access to the required data. The outer access structure has to guide the user to a specific article stretch within the central list and within the article stretch to a specific lemma sign.

8.1.1.1.1. The spine and front cover

The spine and the front cover of the dictionary can be regarded as part of the outer access structure of the dictionary. According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:166), the spine and the front cover of a dictionary are motivated by specific needs and users

have to select the proper type of dictionary to solve their specific problem. A user may wish to consult a dictionary that is known to him or her by the title or the names of the authors or even by the publishing house. In addition to the foregoing, some dictionaries like *HAT* include on their spine and front cover the abbreviated form, which is familiar to the Afrikaans community. Other dictionaries like the *Larousse*, *Micro-Robert* include the full form of the word, which is well known in the French community.

With regard to the planned dictionary, I propose the titles **DiPUNU**, **diPunu** on the front cover and its abbreviated form **diP** on the spine cover. DI is the prefix of the Yipunu word *dibuku*, which means “book ‘(borrowed from the English *book*). DI is also, for the non-mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu, the two first letters of the Yipunu word *diksyonera* (borrowed from the French dictionnaire ‘dictionary’). The DIPUNU is the “book of the Yipunu language”, *Dibuku di yiPunu*, the dictionary of Yipunu.

However, a questionnaire will be circulated among the mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu in order to ascertain their expectations or requirements with regard to the title of the front cover. Within a questionnaire, this proposition will be presented to the users. The Bapunu mother-tongue speakers also have to propose other abbreviated forms and full forms for the spine and front cover of the MDDPSVY. They have to choose the most appropriate form.

8. 1.1.1.2 The table of contents

The table of contents can also be regarded as part of the outer access structure of the dictionary. According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005), a table of contents guides the user over textual boundaries to different parts of the dictionary. They continue by stating that a table of contents should not only give an overview of the contents of the dictionary, but also increase the access of the dictionary as a big text by means of page numbers to ensure rapid progress to the different texts constituting the big text.

With regard to the planned dictionary, the lexicographer(s) will include a table of contents in the front matter and one in the back matter. The table of contents of the

front matter will guide the users to the different contents of the dictionary by means of an indication of the page numbers to ensure quick progress to the different texts of the dictionary, even those of the back matter. The one in the back matter will indicate the different contents in the appendices of the dictionary. The tables of contents of the proposed dictionary will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

8.1.1.1.3 Alphabetical letter

The alphabetical letter indicating the beginning of a new article stretch forms part of the outer access structure. In the DHLF, the letters **D d** indicate the beginning of the article stretch of lemmata starting with the letter **D**.

D d

d [de]

d' V. de

In some dictionaries like the CALD, a thumb index is presented on the outside of the dictionary page. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:167-168) point out that in some dictionaries two search words are given on each page, with the left hand word indicating the first lemma sign and the right hand word indicating the last lemma sign on that page. Other dictionaries have one search word on the left hand page, indicating the first lemma sign to be entered on that page, and one search word on the right hand page, indicating the last lemma sign on that page. It is noted that the well-informed users will follow the search words presented as headers to have rapid access to the desired lemma.

With regard to the planned dictionary, the lexicographer(s) will do well to include a thumb index. The planned dictionary will give two search words on each page, with the left hand word indicating the first lemma sign on the page and the right hand word indicating the last lemma sign on that page.

8.1.1.1.4 The access alphabet

The access alphabet is the specific alphabetical arrangement principle according to which lemmata are ordered in a given dictionary. This access alphabet also forms part of the outer access structure with regard to the ordering of article stretches. In the proposed dictionary, the access alphabet will not be identical to the alphabet (set of letters arranged in a particular order) used to write lemmata in the proposed dictionary. The access alphabet of the proposed dictionary will be composed of simple letters. The combination letter will be included under the simple letter. For instance, under the letter **N** will be found lemmata formed with nd, ng, ns, ny, etc. This will allow the users of Yipunu to have quick access to the desired article stretches.

8.1.1.1.5 Other guiding elements within the outer texts

With regard to other guiding elements within the outer texts, one can mention bold letters as typographic structural markers. In the DHLF, vertically ordered lemmata are presented in bold. This typographical structural marker forms part of the access structure of this dictionary. The DHLF's decision to use a straight alphabetical ordering has implications for the effortless user access to the desired lemma. With regard to the planned dictionary; the lexicographer(s) will do well to include bold letters as typographic structural markers. As the proposed dictionary will make use of the straight alphabetical ordering, i.e. lemmata will be placed vertically and will be presented in bold. This will allow the users of the planned dictionary to find the desired lemma of the article quickly.

8.1.1.1.6 Mono- and poly-accessibility

According to their outer access profile, dictionaries are classified as mono-accessible or poly-accessible. The dictionary is mono-accessible when the central list is the only outer access structure; therefore, its macrostructure coincides with the outer access structure. The users have only one search path with which to solve a search problem in the mono-accessible dictionary. Poly-accessible dictionaries have additional

wordlists and/or indexes which form part of the comprehensive macrostructure. In these poly-accessible dictionaries, the data can be reached in several ways via the central list and the outer texts in the frame structure. Poly-accessible dictionaries could have only one macrostructure but more than one access structure. Given the fact that the planned dictionary will include some outer texts in the frame structure, the planned dictionary will be poly-accessible and it will have more than one access route other than the macrostructure. For instance, some texts in the back matter of the proposed dictionary will make the dictionary under discussion poly-accessible. These texts allow the user to have access to the central list through the back matter. I will offer a discussion of these texts later on in this chapter. In the following, a discussion regarding the inner access structure is given.

8.1.1.2 The inner access structure

According to Gouws (1996:19), the main goal of the inner access structure is to “help the user to reach the specific information categories within the article.” The complexity of the microstructure and the number of data categories that it encompasses necessarily make the user’s inner search path more difficult. A good inner access structure must employ structural markers to lead the user on this inner search path. These markers are mostly either foreign markers or markers known to users, but used outside of their normal context. The creative use of already known markers confuses users by unnecessarily increasing the dictionary’s textual condensation. Interaction between the inner access structure and the user’s guide is here of the utmost importance. Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:338) state that “most metatexts explain the inner access structure.”

8.1.1.2.1. Structural markers

Gouws (1996:23) defines the role of structural markers as follows: “Structural markers ... indicate the borders between information categories as well as the position and scope of different search areas.” This premise leaves enough room to broaden the scope of the term “structural marker” to include the elements of the access structure that indicate semantic relations. Among the structural markers, Gouws and Prinsloo

(2005:171) distinguish typographical and non-typographical structural indicators.

In some dictionaries, the non-typographical structural indicators such as **1**, **2**, **3**, +, ◇, etc. are used to guide the user to specific types of items. This system needs to be explained in detail in the user's guidelines text in the front matter of the dictionary. The different typefaces, e.g. bold, italic and roman, indicating specific search fields or data categories can be regarded as typographical structural indicators used in some dictionaries like HAT.

The lexicographer(s) of the planned dictionary will do well to include structural indicators. Both typographical and non-typographical structural indicators will be included in the proposed dictionary. With regard to the non-typographical indicators, the lexicographer(s) of the planned dictionary will make use of the indicator ◇Nongu to mark the proverbs; the indicator + will mark the additional or cultural data, the marker ► introduces collocations, the marker ■ introduces idioms, the marker ◆ the etymology. With regard to the typographical markers, the lexicographer(s) will make use of the "bold" for lemmata, "roman letters" for paraphrase of meaning, the usage examples will be in italics, and bold for the collocations and idioms. Once again, the lexicographer(s) of the planned dictionary has to explain the structural indicators used in the user's guidelines.

8.1.2 The addressing structure

Another important structure is the addressing structure. Wiegand (1990:97) explains that one needs the notion of addressing in order to find out to what the items in a dictionary article refer. Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:349) explain that the "items of a dictionary article are always textual elements referring to something outside the text. In language dictionaries the segments refer to properties of expressions of the language." Each item therefore refers to a property of the language, an addressee, by means of an address, which is given in the text of the article. Normally, the central address of a dictionary article is the item that gives the form of the lemma sign, which is the lemma itself. The lemma introduces the lemma sign into the article text by mentioning it. This means that the lemma sign is used to constitute the lemma, which in its turn refers to some property of language. All lexicographical statements made

within the dictionary article comment on the lemma sign. This means that they are all addressed at the lemma sign. There are different types of addressing. When the lemma is addressed, it is lemmatic addressing. Sub-lemmatic addressing occurs when an item is addressed at a sub-lemma. Non-lemmatic addressing takes place when an item is not addressed at the lemma. If all the items are addressed at the lemma sign, there is full lemmatic addressing. This means that there is no topic switching. In other words, there are no inter-comments which refer to other parts of the text instead of to the lemma itself. Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:353) believe that addressing largely contributes to the degree of user-friendliness of a dictionary.

The addressing structure of a dictionary is the system according to which these procedures of one item being directed at another are employed. With regard to the addressing structure, the proposed dictionary will display a lemmatic addressing because all the data such as pronunciation, parts of speech, paraphrase and illustrative examples, collocations and idioms, pictorial illustrations and cultural data will be addressed at the lemma.

8.1.3 Micro-architecture

Apart from the access structure, the success of a dictionary consultation also relies on the search areas. The ways in which the data categories are organised or structured play the role of a search zone in dictionary articles. The quicker and easier the access to a specific item or data type, the higher the level of appreciation the user has for the dictionary and the better the chances of successful dictionary consultation procedures (Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:172).

Yet, the lexicographers should take heed of Gouws and Prinsloo's (2005:172-173) warning that, when planning the data distribution structure of a dictionary, the lexicographers should focus on where specific data should be presented and also on how it should be presented. In this regard, the access structure and the search area structure are of vital importance. For instance, if three data categories (paraphrase of meaning, translation equivalent and cultural data) have to be included in the treatment of a lemma, the lexicographer has to make provision for three article slots or search zones in the dictionary article.

This partly corresponds to Wiegand's (1996b) concept of micro-architecture. Bergenholtz, Tarp and Wiegand (1999:1770) distinguish between articles that display a micro-architecture and those that do not. According to Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:172), a dictionary that displays a micro-architecture is characterised by defined text topological relations, i.e. top to bottom and left to right relations.

The following article from the DHLF does not display a micro-architecture:

<p>Minable [minabl] adj. et n. 1. Qui fait pitié. <i>Aspect minable.</i></p> <p>2. Fam. Médiocre, dérisoire. <i>Des resultants minables.</i> – Subst. <i>Un minable.</i></p> <p>◆De miner</p>
--

The introduction of a micro-architecture could lead to the following presentation:

<p>Minable [minabl] adj. et n.</p> <p>1. Qui fait pitié. <i>Aspect minable.</i></p> <p>2. Fam. Médiocre, dérisoire. <i>Des resultants minables.</i> – Subst. <i>Un minable.</i></p> <p>◆De miner</p>

Contrary to the first example, the second example makes provision for a clear distinction between comment on form and comment on semantics, and treats the different subcomments on semantics in different text blocks.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005:173) add that the division between the text blocks becomes even more clear when a white line is used to separate them.

The following modified articles of the lemma **minable** taken from the DHLF show a white line separating text blocks.

Minable [minabl] adj. et n.

1. Qui fait pitié. *Aspect minable*.

2. **Fam.** Médiocre, dérisoire. *Des resultants minables*. – Subst. *Un minable*.

◆De miner

8.1.3.1 Micro- architecture in the proposed dictionary

In the proposed model, the micro-architecture will correspond to the presentation of each component of the proposed microstructure. Indeed, each component of the microstructure will start with a new paragraph so that it can be identified easily at the extreme left of the article.

Another important microstructural aspect will concern the arrangement of each data category. The article will be presented as an upside down staircase. The first level of the staircase will start with the lemma, items giving the grammatical data or items giving the morphological data; the second level of the staircase will start just below the lemma up to the paraphrase of meaning followed by the usage example, etc. This presentation will allow the user to identify each search zone in the article slot quickly. As an illustration, compare the following article:

la.'ba¹ [labə] *v.tr*

1. Reghila mutu, yima vho yibulu. *Nimalaba mutu*. = **-tsuna**

2. u malaba yima, mutu, yibulu diwendi rie utsi le jiromba.

Ni ma laba kola ni ma rombagha. ≠ **-romba**

8.1.4 The Medio-structure

The mediostructure is the system of cross-referencing which leads a user from a reference position to a reference address. It can be used to establish relations between different components of a dictionary. Wiegand argues that the mediostructure interconnects the knowledge elements represented in different sectors of the

dictionary on several levels of lexicographic description to form a network. The mediostructural entries can guide the user between different texts, for example between the central text and any text in the front matter or the back matter or between various articles functioning as subtexts in the central word list.

8.1.4.1 Mediostructure of MDDPSVY

The proposed dictionary will offer the following mediostructural procedures:

- The first one will be a reference marker GHENGILA ‘see’ referring the user toward the treatment of other lexical item(s) where he or she can find additional data regarding the lemma or any other entry in the article.

The reference marker ‘WANDI ‘also’ and var ji ‘variant of’ means that there is a mutual relation between the treated lexical item and the one given as reference address.

- The second type will be the symbols = (i.e. synonym), ≠ (i.e. antonym), etc. referring the user to other lemma(s) that have a semantic and/or morphological relation with the treated lemma.

8.2. Outer texts

The lexicographer must pay attention to the frame structure of the proposed dictionary because, as Gouws (2004:69) states,

[T]he employment of a frame structure gives the lexicographer a much wider range of possibilities when it comes to decisions regarding the distribution of the data to be included in the dictionary and, if used with the necessary care, enhances the access of the user to a more comprehensive data selection.

The outer texts are not there to prettify the dictionary, but rather to play a functional role. The typical nature of the proposed dictionary, the user and usage situation and

the consequent functions of the proposed dictionary determine the planning and selection of outer texts. This section will describe the outer texts of the proposed dictionary. Firstly, however, I will show the types of texts found in the outer texts of the four monolingual dictionaries: CIDE, CALD DHLF and HAT.

8.2.1.1 Outer texts in monolingual dictionaries: CALD, CIDE, DHLF and HAT

The front matter and the back matter of different monolingual dictionaries may contain very different functional text parts. Compare, for example, CALD, CIDE, DHLF and HAT.

Texts of the front matters	CALD	CIDE	DHLF	HAT
1 st	Parts of speech and common grammar labels used in the dictionary (inside front cover)	Pronunciation symbols (inside front cover)	Title of the dictionary	Title of the dictionary
2 nd	Style and usage labels used in the dictionary	Title of the dictionary	Plan de l'ouvrage	Contents
3 rd	Title of the dictionary	List of the editorial team and consultants	Préface	Acknowledgements
4 th	Contents	List of English language teaching consultants	Utilisation du "Dictionnaire de la langue française"	User guide
5 th	Editorial team	Subject advisers	Table des abréviations	Labels used in the dictionary
6 th	Introduction	Contents	Alphabet Phonétique Internationale	Structure of article

7 th	How to use the dictionary	Foreword by the editor		
8 th	Numbers that are used as words	How to find words and meanings		

Texts of the back matters	CALD	CIDE	DHLF	HAT
1 st	Idiom finger	Defining vocabulary (list of words used in definition)	Symboles mathématiques	Abbreviations ‘afkortings’
2 nd	Word families	Phrase index	Unités physiques	Geographical names ‘geografiese plekname’
3 rd	Geographical names	Pictures, Language Portraits and lists of False Friends	Eléments chimiques	
4 th	Common first names	Grammar labels in the dictionary	Tableau des monnaies	
5 th	Prefixes and suffixes	Usage labels and abbreviations (inside back cover)	Noms des habitants de certaines localités de France	
6 th	Irregular verbs		Alphabets non latins	
7 th	Regular verb tenses		Tableau des conjugaisons des verbes	

8 th	Symbols		Principaux proverbes	
9 th	Units of measurement		Grammaire pratique du Français	
10 th	Pronunciation			
11 th	Pronunciation symbols			

In contrast to CIDE, DHLF and HAT, CALD has a middle matter, which contains the following sections:

- Colour pictures
- Study sections

The Study sections consist of the following topics:

- Work and jobs
- Money
- Periods of time
- Relationships
- Telephoning
- Sounds and smells
- Computers, text messages, email
- Relative clauses
- Phrasal verbs
- Determiners
- Modal verbs
- Homographs
- Letter writing
- Regular inflections
- Punctuation
- Varieties of English

8.2.1.2 Theoretical background

8.2.1.2.1 Partial and complete extension / primary and secondary frame structure

In a dictionary, the central list as well as any text occurring in the front matter or back matter can be extended and this extension can be complete or partial. A partial extension leads to a given text being complemented by either front or back matter texts, whereas a complete extension results in a text complemented by both front and back matter texts. The central list of the proposed dictionary will display a complete extension. It will be composed of front and back matter texts.

8.2.1.2.2 Integrated and unintegrated outer texts

The lexicographer must decide on the nature of the outer texts, especially as to whether they will be integrated or unintegrated outer texts. The distinction between integrated and unintegrated outer texts is made by Bergenhotz, Tarp and Wiegand (1999) and is based on the relation between an outer text and the genuine purpose of a specific dictionary. Unintegrated outer texts complement the central list and are not needed to retrieve the information presented in the articles of the central list, neither do they add to the treatment of the subject matter of the dictionary. Examples of unintegrated outer texts are the title page, introduction, foreword, etc. Integrated outer texts function in coordination with the central list and are aids in ensuring an optimal and full retrieval of information and an accomplishment of the genuine purpose.

According to Gouws (2002:473), there are two types of integrated texts:

These texts belong either to the class of so-called ‘help texts’ with the function to assist the user with a more successful dictionary consultation procedure or, in as far as they contain a part of the lexicographic data presented in the dictionary, they are integrated texts from which the user can retrieve information regarding the subject matter of the dictionary.

The user's guidelines text is an example of a help text that assists the user in order to ensure a successful use of the dictionary. Grammar codes presented in the back matter of the CIDE assist the user in retrieving information regarding the subject matter of the dictionary.

8.2.1.2.3 Functions and outer-texts

As mentioned previously in Chapter 4, the communication-oriented and/or the knowledge-oriented functions are determined by the users and by the usage situation. Gouws (2004:76) is of the opinion that the situation in which a dictionary is used should have a definite influence on the data distribution programme and on the function of that dictionary. The back matter of the DHLF contains a number of texts with both communication- and knowledge-oriented functions. The knowledge-orientated function prevails in the following texts: *Noms des habitants de certaines localités de France*, *Symboles mathématiques*, *Unités physiques*, *Tableau des monnaies*, *Alphabet latins*. The texts such as *Tableau des conjugaisons des verbes*, *Principaux proverbes* and *Grammaire pratique du Français* of the back matter of DHLF display a communication-orientated function.

8.3 Outer texts of the MDDPSVY

The proposed dictionary will contain front and back matter texts.

8.3.1 The front matter texts of the proposed dictionary

The front matter of the proposed dictionary will contain the following accessory texts:

- The title page and the imprint '*diPUNU*'
- The table of contents '*Mighanda mi diPunu*'
- The text on the editorial team and consultants '*Basonitsi*'
- The text of the editors (the preface or introduction) '*Mughanda Basonitsi*'
- The text on the user guide '*Mujabi nsila jiMurangitsi*'
- The abbreviations used in the dictionary '*bilimba mudiPunu*'
- The Yipunu alphabet '*Alfaba ji yiPunu*'

8.3.1.1 The title page and the imprint ‘*diPUNU*’

The title page and the imprint are part of the outer access structure of the dictionary. It gives an indication on the dictionary type.

8.3.1.2 The table of contents ‘*Mighanda mi diPunu*’

The proposed dictionary will include a table of contents in its front matter that gives access to other lists and information in the front matter, the central list and the back matter. The table of contents of the front matter will indicate the page numbers of each front matter text, of the dictionary (from A to Y) and each back matter text. The table of contents guides the users to the different texts of dictionary. This text has an access function.

8.3.1.3 Editorial team and consultants *Basonitsi*

This text lists the people or institutions that have assisted the lexicographer with the dictionary project. The function of this text is to make the dictionary authoritative and reliable. In this text, the compilers of the proposed dictionary will express their gratitude to the people or institutions. Although this text is important, it does not play a pivotal role in conveying data regarding the treatment units or the subject matter of the dictionary to its potential users.

8.3.1.4 Preface or an introduction ‘*Mughanda Basonitsi*’

The proposed dictionary will indicate in its introduction the purpose of the dictionary, the sources of the dictionary (the corpus) and the method of compilation.

8.3.1.5 The user guide ‘*Mujabi nsila jiMurangitsi*’

The guide to the proposed dictionary will provide the description of some samples of the structure of dictionary articles of the central list. This text ensures a successful use of the dictionary. It is one of the compulsory texts in the front matter.

8.3.1.6 The abbreviations used in the dictionary ‘bilimba mudiPunu’

The proposed dictionary will present the abbreviations and lexicographical conventions used in the dictionary on the inside front cover. These abbreviations and lexicographic conventions include grammar codes, labels, structural markers and so forth. The abbreviations and lexicographic conventions have been presented in the preceding chapters.

8.3.1.7 Text on the spelling and the pronunciation of Yipunu ‘Alfabe ji yiPunu’

This text shows the alphabet and the pronunciation of Yipunu. Some sample words will be given from French and English to help the user with the pronunciation and the spelling of Yipunu. Information on the different tones encountered in Yipunu will also be given. This text could also present in a comparative way all the practical alphabets of Yipunu (Rapidolangu, Bibala and ALG). From a phonetic point of view, this text will also present and compare the ASG and the IPA.

8.3.2 The back matter texts of the MDDPSVY

The back matter of the proposed dictionary will contain the following texts:

- The table of contents ‘*Mighanda jidisukusulu*’
- The alphabetical list of plural noun forms and their singular counterparts
- The prefixes and suffixes of Yipunu
- Yipunu idiom finder
- The alphabetical list of Yipunu proverbs ‘*Banongu*’
- Conjugation of YiPunu verbs
- Common personal Yipunu names ‘*miina mi batu*’
- Names of Yipunu villages ‘*mimbu miBapunu*’
- Countries of the world ‘*Malongu ma Butamba*’
- Bibliography (of sources quoted in the dictionary)

8.3.2.1 The table of contents ‘Mighanda ji disukusulu’

The table of contents of the back matter lists the different texts and the page numbers of the back matter. This text helps the user to have quick access to texts of the back matter.

8.3.2.2 Alphabetical list of plural and singular noun forms

This text lists all the plural noun forms alphabetically and give their singular forms. It has a poly-accessible character and will enable the learner who has not yet mastered the rules governing the formation of the singular and the plural nouns of Yipunu to have access to the singular noun form of a lemma in the central list through its plural form in this back matter text.

8.3.2.3 Prefixes and suffixes of Yipunu

I have mentioned in Chapter 6 that the proposed dictionary will incorporate sublexical lemmata such as stems and affixes. The sublexicalisation of lemmata in the proposed dictionary, which encompasses the affixes and the verbal stems, can be confusing to the users at the macrostructural level. The compiler of the proposed dictionary has to provide an additional guidance text in order to help the users differentiate affixes (particularly suffixes) and verbal stems in its back matter. This back matter text presents prefixes and suffixes and how those affixes are used. The affixes in Yipunu have been presented in 3.2.1.1.2. More investigations on affixes in Yipunu is required for the writing of this text.

8.3.2.4 Yipunu idiom finder

As in the CALD, this idiom finder solves the problem of looking for idioms because it lists all the long idioms in the dictionary at every important word in the idiom. All the words of the idioms will be listed with the page number in the dictionary where you can find out what the idiom means. The word that the user is searching for will always be printed in bold to make it easier to find. The idioms will be included in the idiom

finder if they have three or more important words. The users can come straight to the idiom finder to look for a long idiom. This text makes the proposed dictionary poly-accessible because the users can have access to the idioms included in the central list through this text.

8.3.2.5 Yipunu proverbs ‘Banongu’

The existing publications on Yipunu proverbs only use a thematic approach. There is a need for publications with an alphabetical listing of Yipunu proverbs. This text will propose an alphabetical arrangement of Yipunu proverbs. This text will list alphabetically all the Yipunu proverbs included in the proposed dictionary. One can access the proverbs of the proposed dictionary through this text. For instance, the following proverbs will be placed under the alphabetical letter **M**:

M

mulembu mosi aghesusi yitsi ‘one finger can not wash the whole face’

mwana na diwema yivuda na niga ‘if the child is disobedient, the parent, the elder is not generous’

8.3.2.6 Conjugation of Yipunu verbs

With regard to the microstructure of the proposed dictionary, I have stated in Chapter 7 that the compiler of the MDDPSVY will provide the user with the marker **[1]** or **[2]** which are the numbers of conjugation after the item giving the part of speech. Like in the case of DHLF, these markers **[1]** or **[2]** will be in bold and in brackets in order to differentiate them from other markers indicating the different senses of the lemma in the proposed dictionary. The marker **[1]** will refer to monosyllabic verbs and **[2]** to polysyllabic verbs. These markers will refer to the tables of conjugation in the back matter of the proposed dictionary. Therefore, the proposed dictionary will make provision for these tables of conjugation in this back matter text. This text on conjugation of verbs proposes the main tenses in Yipunu for monosyllabic **[1]** and polysyllabic **[2]** verbs as follows:

[1] **uba** 'to be'

The Infinitive

The affirmative form (A)

uba

The negative form (N)

tsi uba

The Imperative:

(A)

ba

banu

tu byanu

(N)

ni ya ba

u ya ba

a ya ba

Present Tense (temu jinamuni, Présent)

(A)

ngi bi

twi bi

e bi

twi bi

dwi bi

be bi

(N)

nge bi

u ghe bi

a ghe bi

tu ghe bi

du ghe bi

ba ghe bi

Future Tense (temu ji mughesa, Futur)

(A)

ngu ba

wu ba

o ba

tuu ba

duu ba

bo ba

(N)

ngo ba

u gho ba

a gho ba

tu gho ba

du gho ba

ba gho ba

Past tense (temu ji masigha, le passé)

(A)

gni betsi, gni be

u betsi, u be

ni ma ba

u ma ba

a ma ba

(N)

nga betsi , nga be

u gha betsi, u gha be

gni sa ma ba

u sa ma ba

a sa ma ba

[2] **usinga** ‘to believe in, to accept’

The Infinitive

(A)

usinga

(N)

tsi usinga

The Imperative

(A)

singa

nsingi

singanu

nsingyanu

(N)

u ya singa

u ya nsinga

du ya singa

du ya nsinga

Present Tense

(A)

gni singi

wi singi

e singi

twi singi

dwi singi

be singi

(N)

nge singi

u ghe singi

a ghe singi

tu ghe singi

du ge singi

ba ghe singi

Future Tense

(A)

ngi singa

wu singa

o singa

twu singa

dwu singa

bo singa

(N)

ngo singa

u gho singa

a gho singa

tu gho singa

du gho singa

ba gho singa

Past tense

(A)

nsi singanga

u tsi singanga

a tsi singanga

tu tsi singanga

du tsi singanga

ba tsi singanga

(N)

nga singanga

u gha singanga

a gha singanga

tu gha singanga

du gha singanga

ba gha singhaga

gnu ma singanga

u ma singanga

gni sa ma singanga

u sa ma singanga

8.3.2.7 Common personal Yipunu Names

The proposed dictionary will pay attention to Yipunu personal names in its back matter. Names in general are carriers of culture and contain cultural values. In the Punu society, like in all human societies, a name enables one to identify an individual and to distinguish him or her from other individuals. In Africa, this name is sacred. For the Mupunu in particular there is a reserve to reveal identity to an unknown person. The study of Yipunu names has received attention from Kwenzi Mikala (1990) who focuses on different aspects of Yipunu personal names, namely when the name is given, who gives the name, different types of names, composition of names, female anthroponomy, male anthroponomy, mixed anthroponomy, twins' names, nicknames, the meaning of the anthroponomy, the symbolic sense and the social

group characteristic. This back matter text presents an alphabetical listing of female anthroponomy, male anthroponomy, mixed anthroponomy and twins' names.

diina di dibaala/ miina ma mabaala (male anthroponomy)

Bivhighu, Bwas, Bubal, Buk, Busughu, Diramb, Divhugi, Jembi, Dukagh, Ibwang, Kas, Kombil, Mabund, Maghen, Mangal, Mapagh, Mbin, Mombu, Mwand, Mwiti, Mukal, Muketu, Mukwam, Mulungi, Mudung, Mungengi, Munombi, Muzyeghu, Musiru, Musodu, Muyam, Nding, Ngaanzi, Nyam, Nzambi, Nzyengi, Nzutsi.

diina di mughetu/ miina ma baghetu (female anthronomy)

Bajin, Baluki, Boghu, Bukandu, Dimengi, Dutson, Ibondu, Isang, Koghu, Majinu, Majinz, Manomb, Marundu, Masolu, Masung, Matsang, Mawili, Milenzi, Mubwengu, Mukit, Nyangi, Ulabu, Pemb, Tomb, Tson.

miina ma mabaala na mabaghetu (mixed anthroponomy)

Bakit, Bibalu, Binymb, Burobu, Ditengu, Ibing, Kumb, Maghang, Mambundu, Mamfumbi, Marogh, Matamb, Mbumb, Musavhu, Mutsing

miina ma mavhasa (twins' names)

Dumfumfu na Dwalu, Irondu na Yenz, Marundu na Mbumb, Mfubu na Nzaghu, Mubamb na Mudum, Mughisi na Musund, Mwiri na Mundugh, Musyali na Mwenzi, Ngeb na Inyung, Pung na Yotsi, Tend na Nyembu, Tson na Mudughu, Uji na Umin, Ughulu na Ulab.

8.3.2.8 Names of Yipunu villages ‘*mimbu miBapunu*’

This text is a cultural text which informs the users about the names of the villages of the Bapunu people and it will be accompanied by maps. The alphabetical listing of the names of Yipunu villages of the Nyanga province recorded by Lisimba (1997:137-140) will be presented in the appendixes of this dissertation.

8.3.2.9 Countries of the word ‘*Malongu ma butamba*’

This text alphabetically lists all the countries of the world. It will also give the pronunciation of these names. It responds to the need of standardising the geographical names in Yipunu discussed in Chapter 3.

Kamaruna	Cameroon
Kongu	Congo
Merika	America
Mulima	Germany
Nijerya	Nigeria
Ngabu	Gabon
Ngana	Ghana
Sapu	Japan
Seneghal	Senegal

8.3.2.10. Bibliography (of quotations used) in the proposed dictionary)

This text lists all the literature and sources mentioned in the central list. This text will help to empower the Yipunu literature and its writers.

8.3.3 Concluding remarks on the guide structures and outer-texts

The proposed dictionary, like other dictionaries, will encompass guide structures. It will have a poly-accessible function. The outer access structure of the proposed dictionary consists of tables of contents in the front and back matter of the dictionary and typographical structural markers. The inner access structure includes structural

markers. The addressing structure of the MDDPSVY is determined by lemmatic addressing. A system of cross-reference will be used in the proposed dictionary. When planning and compiling a dictionary, special care should be given to the use of outer texts, i.e. the texts included in the front matter and back matter. These texts do not only assist the user to ensure successful dictionary consultation procedures and to obtain an optimal retrieval of information, but they also play an important role in the data distribution structure of the dictionary.

The front matter contains the different texts, namely the abbreviations used in the dictionary, the title page and the imprint, the table of contents, a page of the editorial team and consultants, a preface or an introduction, the user's guide, a text on how pronunciation and spelling are shown in the dictionary and a text on the prefix classes. The back matter consists of texts on the plural and singular noun form, prefixes and suffixes of Yipunu, Yipunu idiom finder, Yipunu proverbs, tables of conjugation of Yipunu verbs, common personal Yipunu names, the names of Yipunu villages and the countries of the world, and a bibliography for quotations used in the proposed dictionary.

CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSION

9.1 Concluding remarks

Chapter 1 aimed to contextualise the research. In Africa in general, lexicographical activities were initiated, as pointed out by Busane (1990:20), during the colonial period as a pragmatic response to the communicative needs of the Europeans involved in evangelisation, trade and administration. Dictionaries were compiled in order to facilitate communication between local people and colonists or missionaries. In Gabon, the dictionaries available in Gabonese languages are all translation dictionaries biased towards French. No proper monolingual dictionaries exist in Gabonese languages. There is a need for monolingual dictionaries in Gabonese languages, in particular in Yipunu. Burkhanov (1998:156) defines ‘the monolingual dictionary as a kind of dictionary which contains the linguistic material of one language’. The purpose of this dissertation was to design a metalexigraphic model for the compilation of a monolingual descriptive dictionary presenting the standard variety of Yipunu (MDDPSVY). It focuses primarily on the inclusion and the treatment of the standard variety of Yipunu and to a lesser degree on some of the other varieties.

Yipunu is a Bantu language spoken in Central Africa, particularly in Gabon, the Republic of Congo (Congo-Brazzaville), the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) (Congo Kinshasa), Angola, specifically in the Cabinda region, and in Sao Tome & Principe. In Gabon, Yipunu is spoken in the south of the country, particularly in Ngounié and Nyanga provinces in the towns of Mouila, Ndendé, Tchibanga, Mabanda and Moabi.

Guthrie’s linguistic classification has identified Yipunu as a language which belongs to the B40 group also known as Shira punu group. Conventionally, Yipunu is indicated as “B43”. Regarding Kwenzi Mikala’s classification, Yipunu belongs to the Merye language-unit.

The language policy of Gabon largely depends on the one inherited from the colonial era, with French the only official language. No Gabonese language has a status at national level. With regard to the status of Gabonese language, Yipunu has been identified as a regional vehicular language and a domestic language.

As a regional vehicular language, Yipunu ensures a certain degree of vehicularity in the Ngounié province in the towns of Mouila and Ndendé. It extends to the Nyanga province around regions of Tchibanga and Moabi. As domestic language, Yipunu is restricted to communication inside its ethnic community. In addition, one of the statuses of Yipunu can be seen through the national educational system within which it is one of the seven Gabonese languages introduced as subject since 1995. The choice of these Gabonese languages in school was motivated by the availability of literature (grammar and lexicon for example), the frequency of speech and the number of native speakers of those languages.

Lexicographically speaking, this present study is relevant and important because of the lack of monolingual dictionaries in Yipunu. From a theoretical point of view, the MDDPSVY needs a solid foundation. Metalexigraphic models from Wiegand, Tarp, Gouws, Prinsloo and Zgusta will play a vital role in designing the proposed dictionary.

Wiegand is one of the lexicographers who participated in the formulation of a general theory of lexicography with regard to monolingual dictionaries as well as translation dictionaries. In his metalexigraphic model, Wiegand identifies four major components, namely research of dictionary use, critical dictionary research, historical dictionary research and systematic dictionary research.

Research of dictionary use is an empirically based sociology of dictionary users. One needs empirical knowledge about the users if one wants to produce better dictionaries. Critical dictionary research plays an important part in dictionary making because, when one reviews some existing dictionaries, one discovers their features, limitations and advantages.

Historical dictionary research studies the history of some existing dictionaries. One wants to know the principles and methods governing these dictionaries. It is essential to discern whether the methods are pertinent or not.

Systematic dictionary research provides the lexicographer with guidelines to present linguistic information and to make it accessible to the target user. Wiegand regards dictionaries as carriers of text types. Dictionaries encompass structures such as the frame structure, data distribution structure, macrostructure, microstructure, access structure, addressing structure and mediostructure.

With regard to the user perspective, the proposed model will be based on the work of Tarp. The model is directed at a dictionary primarily dealing with the needs of the average educated members of the Yipunu speech community, the mother-tongue speakers. The proposed model is also designed to be used by experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu and their teachers. Because the MDDPSVY is a user-driven dictionary, it is important to define the target users, user profile, user characteristics and specific needs and functions of it.

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) have applied the general theory of lexicography to the lexicography of the South African languages and provide suggestions for the challenges confronting these languages. From an African language perspective, the MDDPSVY will benefit from the experience of the South African languages in general and particularly of Bantu languages such as the Nguni languages (Zulu, Xhosa, Siswati and Ndebele) and the Sotho languages (Sotho, Northern Sotho, Tswana) spoken in South Africa.

With regard to dictionary typology, the MDDPSVY is classified according to a linguistic, synchronic, general, monolingual, standard and descriptive dictionary, according to Zgusta's dictionary classifications.

From a methodological angle, the study uses both quantitative and qualitative methods. All the linguistic material that forms the empirical basis for the production of a specific dictionary is described as a dictionary basis in Wiegand's formulation.

The dictionary basis consists of at least

- The lexicographical corpus as the set of all the primary sources.
- The secondary sources, which consist of the set of all the available dictionaries in the specific language. The available dictionaries in Yipunu are the *Grammaire pounoue et lexique pounou-français*, *Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou-Français*, *Bibala*, *Yivigu Yikala Na yivigu yigona*
- Any other linguistic material, which may be consulted are tertiary sources.

This study is based on the assumption that no dictionary project can be undertaken without an analysis of the target users, their needs and their reference skills. The first hypothesis of this dissertation refers to the target users of the MDDPSVY. The second one regards the content and structures of the MDDPSVY. The third is related to the preliminaries for the compilation of a monolingual descriptive dictionary presenting the standard variety of an African Bantu language such as Yipunu.

This model, although devised for Yipunu, has the objective eventually to serve as a model for the design of standard descriptive dictionaries for all Gabonese languages. This study also aims to highlight the importance for Gabonese lexicographers to adopt modern lexicographical principles in dictionary compilation, namely the user driven dictionaries and the corpus-based dictionaries.

Chapter 2 has exposed the lexicographic works and needs of Yipunu. It has been demonstrated that, as in many languages, practical lexicography has always preceded theoretical lexicography of Yipunu. The critical analysis of lexicographic works of Yipunu demonstrates that these works belong to the area of a pre-corpus-based dictionary.

These works offer interesting information about the culture and the language that are important aspects of the linguistic heritage missionaries have left to the Bapunu community. However, these works are characterised by their arbitrariness and their inconsistency. Future Yipunu dictionaries need a uniform character and must be based on consistent metalexigraphical principles.

From a theoretical point of view, the critical dictionary research of Wiegand must be developed further and taken into account when criticising dictionaries, not only the microstructure and the macrostructure, but also other dictionary structures, namely access structure, mediostructure, addressing structure and frame structure. In addition, critical dictionary research should be done according to the type of dictionary. A bilingual dictionary could criticise procedures of translation and a monolingual dictionary could criticise the procedures of defining.

Furthermore, this research has shown that the major lexicographic needs of Yipunu are lexicographic training, the creation of a dictionary unit, the compilation of different types of dictionaries, user education and a standard variety of Yipunu.

Chapter 3 has discussed some aspects of the standardisation of Yipunu with regard to language analysis, namely the phonology, grammar, dictionary and orthography. This chapter has shown that the phonology of Yipunu is mainly focused on the descriptions of vocalic and consonant phonemes. Yipunu phonology urgently needs descriptions on stress word division. Different aspects of grammar and syntax of Yipunu need some investigations. The grammar of Yipunu lacks a proper terminology. French terminology is used to describe Yipunu grammar. In addition, Yipunu needs comprehensive grammar books easily accessible to the majority of the Bapunu speaking community.

Standard dictionaries for Yipunu are required to fix the norm on spelling, pronunciation, usage, and meaning. This chapter discussed some general principles in fixing the orthography of Yipunu. Attention was also given to sounds and spelling, borrowings, word division, tone marking, capitalisation and punctuation of the standard orthography of Yipunu. This chapter argues that the standard alphabet of Yipunu has the *Alphabet des Langues Gabonaises* (ALG) as a basis.

Chapter 4 dealt with user perspective. It described a pioneering survey on dictionary use among Gabonese users, which has shown that there is a dictionary culture among Gabonese students as far as French and English languages are concerned, but a lack of dictionary culture regarding Gabonese languages. Mother-tongue education is needed

and required firstly for the use of Gabonese language dictionaries. The importance of instructions in dictionary use is not underestimated among Gabonese students. It is very important to them to be taught how to use a dictionary. Similarly, Gabonese teachers should be taught how to use a dictionary. As far as Gabonese users are concerned, instructions in dictionary use should be taught at primary level and continued to secondary and university levels. This survey is not exhaustive. More research into dictionary use with reference to the Gabonese context is needed in many areas of interest, such as dictionary typology, dictionary preferences, analysis of dictionary micro- and macro-structures in one or several dictionaries, dictionary compilation, and so forth, for an effective teaching of dictionary use in the Gabonese context. The compilation of the MDDSPVY is based on the characteristics of the users. MDDPSVY makers must determine the corresponding or expected group of users and their characteristics to detect their specific needs and decide on the corresponding data to be included in the dictionary. The proposed dictionary is directed at

- The mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu (Bapunu mother-tongue speakers)
- Teachers of Yipunu
- Experienced and advanced learners of Yipunu

With regard to learners, some variables must also be taken into account in order to produce a more detailed profile that include

- Proficiency level
- Adult or child
- Level of general culture

Experienced learners are those who have mastered the basic vocabulary and the most important grammatical rules and are beginning to think and express themselves relatively freely in the foreign language, but sometimes have to pass through their mother tongue in order to produce more complex phrases. Advanced learners are those who have acquired a considerable active and passive vocabulary, have assimilated the general grammar of the foreign language and are thinking and expressing themselves freely in this language, although they are still not 'native'.

The proposed dictionary addresses the needs of adult experienced and advanced

learners. As far as the level of general culture is concerned, the learners of the proposed dictionary do have a good level in French, but lack of one in Yipunu.

Chapter 5 has discussed the dictionary plan of the MDDPSVY and its planning phases, namely the general preparation phase, the material acquisition phase, the material preparation phase, the material processing phase and the publishing preparation phase. It has been stated that the MDDPSVY makers should formulate the genuine purpose of the proposed dictionary and should pay attention to the compilation of a style guide that ensures the uniformity and the consistency of the dictionary. They should also take into account, as suggested by Gouws (2001b:68), the identification, establishment, nature extent and description of a dictionary basis that suits the intended dictionary. This chapter has also discussed different aspects of the corpus of the MDDPSVY.

The corpus is intended to be a monolingual synchronic corpus, which includes both written and spoken languages. Priority is given to written material. The corpus of the MDDPSVY will be composed of 60% of written texts and 40% of spoken material. At the macrostructural level, the frequency counts will be very useful in the selection of entries for the central list of the proposed dictionary. On the microstructural level, the concordance lines are an aid to sense distinction. Concordance lines also reflect typical collocations, idioms, proverbs and examples of usage.

Chapter 6 has discussed the macrostructure of the proposed dictionary. It states that the MDDPSVY will include a standard form of Yipunu lemmata, technical terms by the procedures of transliteration, loan words and extension of meaning, total embedding or adoption and neologisms. Cultural terms will be included because the MDDPSVY is not only a linguistic text of Yipunu, but a cultural text as well. The MDDPSVY will opt for a straight alphabetical ordering because the intended dictionary users are not familiar with sophisticated ordering procedures. As far as alphabetisation is concerned, priority will be given to the letter-by-letter alphabetisation in the MDDPSVY.

As far as the noun lemmatisation strategy is concerned, the MDDPSVY will use a

hybrid approach which combines the frequency and the singular noun form. The proposed dictionary will lemmatise the singular noun form of the most frequent word. For the verbs, the MDDPSVY will lemmatise the verbal stem and will use a notational device of a hyphen to distinguish them from other parts of speech. This choice is in accordance with the reference skills of the target users. The mother-tongue speakers and the learners master the rules governing the formation of plural and singular noun forms to an extent. With regard to types of lemmas and articles to include, the MDDPSVY will reflect the lexicon of the language and will contain lexical lemmata, sublexical lemmata and multilexical lemmata. Homonyms in the proposed dictionary will be entered as separate lemmata and will be indicated by a superscript number. The MDDPSVY will include simple articles, complex articles that will offer additional data categories when necessary and cross-referenced articles for dialectal varieties.

The proposed dictionary described in Chapter 7 displays an integrated and extended obligatory microstructure. Its dictionary articles are composed of a comment on form and of a comment on semantics. The comment on form provides the user with a variety of data on spelling, pronunciation and grammar – particularly on plural and singular form, on class prefix and on part of speech. The comment on semantics will give semantic data, particularly a paraphrase of meaning, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms and polysemes, hyponyms and hyperonyms.

The comment on semantics also includes data on syntax, namely collocations, idiom and proverbial expressions. It includes pragmatic data that concerns lexicographic labels, usage notes, pictorial illustrations and etymological data. With regard to grammar, the proposed dictionary will use French terminology. For reasons of space saving, the proposed dictionary will use the abbreviated form of the French grammar terminology. This choice is motivated by the fact that Yipunu has not yet developed such terminology. Yipunu has to develop his own terminology on grammar. As far as labelling is concerned, some lexicographic conventions have been proposed for Yipunu.

Chapter 8 has discussed the guide structures and the outer texts of the proposed dictionary. The proposed dictionary has a poly-accessible character and the addressing structure is in line with lemmatic addressing. The proposed dictionary will make use of a system of cross-references and has a frame structure, which encompasses front matter and back matter texts.

9.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for the realisation of this proposed model:

- The lexicography of Yipunu has to be cooperative and participative. Lexicographers, linguists, users and community members have to work in accord to develop the Yipunu language. A dictionary unit and a Language Committee for Yipunu have to be established to help with the standardisation of Yipunu. The members of the Language Committee and the staff of the dictionary unit have to find solutions to the orthographic, terminological, term creation, grammatical problems of Yipunu.
- A Yipunu metalanguage and a grammar terminology of Yipunu have to be developed.
- The planning of the proposed dictionary needs lexicographic investigations of various natures from the user perspective to the contents and the dictionary structures in order to meet the needs of the Bapunu mother-tongue speakers.
- The corpus building is the basis of the proposed dictionary compilation. Specific training of lexicographers in the language structure of Yipunu is also necessary.
- Research into lemmatisation strategies of different parts of speech (adjective, pronoun, preposition, etc.) is required for the compilation of the proposed dictionary. In addition, research on Yipunu grammar is a necessity for the phonetic, syntactic and semantic descriptions of Yipunu. Research on stress and

pronunciation is required. Yipunu idioms and collocations also need an in-depth investigation.

- Defining formats and defining styles have to be clearly formulated in the style guide of the proposed dictionary.
- Mother-tongue education is a pre-requisite for Yipunu dictionary use. Mother-tongue education should be oriented to the teaching of the grammar and the vocabulary of Yipunu. Reading and creative writing in Yipunu should be encouraged.

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¹⁵ Information from afrikaans publications was made available to me through discussions with my promoter and other afrikaans speaking persons.

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8	bi	pl
9	n-	sg
10	n-	pl
11	du-	sg
14	bu-	pl
15	u-	Infinitive verbal
16	va-	locative
17	o-	locative
18	mu-	locative

Appendix 2: samples of diP

A

a

a'mi: [ami] *pron. poss.* **ba.'mi** *Mughatsi ami a tsi begha mukwati andi o musiru*

B

b

-be'ji : [bedʒi] *adj.num.* yimosi na yimosi. *Batu babeji.*

-bu.'ra: [bur] *v.tr cl 15* **ubura**

1-vhegha monyo. *Atsi bura mwana dibaala.*

◇**Nongu.** *Ubura mwana, u burughitsa:* diwendi rie nguji pa amabura mwana, omulonsu mambu ba bulongu nana otsana na batu.

2 -funisa. *Mwiri tsi musiru tsimabura miluda.*

D

d

di.plo.'ma [dipomə] *n sg. pl.* **maploma.**

Muranda ji ikola. *Ni tsi dila dipoma di sepa..*

(♦yifwala, diplôme)

du.naa'.nga [duna:ngə] *n. c.cl5/6 pl* **naa'.nga**

Myoni tsi muru. “...nesi nanga tsyenu tsitalu” (Bibala, Matt 10:30)

di.me.'ru [dimeru] *n.c sg cl 5/6 mameru*

yilimba yidutalu du yima vho batu. *Nitali mameru.*

+

1. yimosi
2. bibeji
3. biryeru
4. bina
5. biraanu
6. bisyamunu
7. yisambwali
8. yinaana / dunana
9. yifu / dufu
10. dighumi
11. dighumi na yimosi
20. magu(mi) mabeji
- 21: magu(mi) mabeji na yimosi
- 22: magu(mi) mabeji na bibeji
- 23: magu(mi) mabeji na bireru
- 30: maghumi maryeru/ maghumi matatu
- 31: magumi maryeru na yimosi
- 40: maghumi mana
- 41: magumi mana na yimosi
- 50: maghumi maranu
- 51: maghumi maranu na yimosi
- 60: yiswanuna yi maghumi
- 61: yiswanuna yi maghumi na yimosi
- 70: yiswabwali yi magumi / dusambwali du maghumi
- 71: yisambwali yi magumi na yimosi
- 80: yinana yi maghumi/ dunana du maghumi
- 81: yinana yi maghumi na yimosi
- 90: yifu yi maghumi
- 91: yifu yi maghumi na yimosi

- 100:** kama
101: kama na yimosi
110: kama na dighumi
111: kama na dighumi na yimosi
120: kama na maghu (mi) mabeji
121: kama na maghu (mi) mabeji na yimosi
125: kama na maghu (mi) mabeji na iranu
130: kama na maghu(mi) maryeru
140: kama na maghu(mi) mana
150: kama na maghu(mi) maranu
175: kama na yisambwali yi maghumi na iranu
200: kama beji
201: kama beji na yimosi
210: kama beji na dighumi
220: kama beji na maghu(mi) mabeji
225: kama beji na maghu(mi) mabeji na biranu
250: kama beji na maghu(mi) maranu
260: kama beji na yiswanuna yi maghumi
270: kama beji na yisambwuali yi maghumi
275: kama beji na yisambwali yi maghumi na biranu
280: kama beji na yinana yi maghumi
290: kama beji na yifu yi maghumi
300: kama iryeru/ kama itatu
400: kama jina
500: kama iranu
600: kama isyamunu
700: yisambwali yi kama / dusambwali du kama
800: yinana yi kama / dunana yi kama
900: yifu yi kama/ dufu du kama
1000: tosini
1.010: tosini na dighumi
1.020: tosini na maghu(mi) mabeji
1.100: tosini na kama
2.000: tosini beji

2.010: tosini beji na dighumi

5.000: tosini iranu

10.000: dighumi di tosini

11.000: dighumi di tosini na kama

20.000: maghu (mi) mabeji na tosini

21.000: maghu (mi) mabeji ma tosini na tosini

21.100: maghu (mi) mabeji ma tosini na tosini na kama

26.000: maghu (mi) mabeji ma tosini na yisambwali yi tosini

30.000: maghu (mi) maryeru ma tosini

50.000: maghu (mi) maranu ma tosini

100.000: kama tosini

200.000: kama beji ji tosini

F f

Fu'.mu [fumu] *n.sg. cl 1 pl.* **bafumu**

1. yivhunda yi dimbu, yivhunda yi bulongu. *Dighoba ombu fumu.*

► fumu **bisalu**, Fumu **Nsambi**.

2. mutu aghobulu. ≠ **muvhiga**

Fumu ami mebe

I i

i.be'. du duk. ji YIBEDU

K k

Ko.'ku : [koku] *n.sg cl pl.* **Bakoku**

yibulu yidimbu mapapi mandi ma ghe pumumughi. *koku mulumi, koku dibaala, mwana koku, koku mughatsi, koku mughetu.*

◇**Nongu.** *Koku a ma busē ndaghu mutu ghuvhigni* :diwendi rie magolu ma mutu erughi ombu busini dyadi.

◇**Nongu.** *Koku a ma kamba na tungu, mbura na mbura jilatsi*:diwendi rie pa uji ityanaukambu.

◇**Nongu.** *Bakoku ba bapunu be vhosi yiPunu, ba banzabi, be vhosi yiNzabi*.diwendi rie: mutu mutu ana dibandu na bukulu byandi.

L l

-la.'ba¹ [labə] *v.tr cl 15* **ulaba.**

1.Reghila mutu, yima vo yibulu.*Nimalaba mutu.* = **-tsuna**

2. u malaba yima, mutu, yibulu diwendi rie utsi le jiromba vo u ma ji romba.

Ni ma laba kola ni ma rombagha. ≠ **-romba**

-laba² -ba na: *ni laba munyogu.*

►-laba **ghoma**, -laba **firi**, -laba **keri**, -laba **nsangu**,-laba **tindi munyogu**, -laba **nsoruru**, -laba **ubweji**, -laba **isoni**

M m

Ma'.ma: [mamə] *n sg cl.1 pl.* **bamama**

1.**dimbu.** diina di mughetu ama uburu. *Mama ami etondi pwela.* = **nguji.**

2. yiburu yi dibaala vo mughetu o ghari yi nguji. *Katsi ami ninunengili Ma Mbadinga.* ≠ **tata**

mu.lu.'mi: [mulumi] n. cl1 sg *ji*. **Balumi**

1. Dibaala diwelu na mughetu. *Mulumi ami etsani o Pungu.*
2. yiburu, dibaala vo mughetu o ghari yi dibaala diwelu. *Ni rondi balumi ami .*
3. ajidibaala. *koku mulumi (mulumi koku), mulumi taba.*

N n

ne. si' [nesi] *adv.neg. inv.* Pa wibusu, wighala dyambu. *Nesi, tsi menu!*

S s

si.'da [sidə] bwali duk.ji, **musiedu** *sidoni*. Bwali ji wakili pa wi silimi na mutu.

Side ji boki batu ▯ **mubedi**

(♦yifwala, sida Syndrome Immuno-Déficitaire Acquis)

T t

ta.'ta [tatə] n sg cl.1 *pl.* **batata**

1. **dimbu.** diina di dibaala ama uburu. *tama ami etondi pwela.* = **taji.**
2. yiburu yi dibaala vho mughetu o ghari yi taji. *tata ami jimughetu enengulu Ta Matsang.* ≠ **mata**

tso.'mu [tsomu] nsg ji **matsomu, batsomu** .duk.ji. *twaleta.* Mbura junakila vo usubila..*Ni we o tsomu.*

tso'na: [tsɔnə] *n.sg .pl. batsona.*

1. Yilumbu ajimusambwali yi yisalu jighandusu. *Batu baghesali tsona.*

= **yilumbu yitsona** (♦yingesi, Sunday)

2. Temu ji yisambwali yi bilumbu. *Lendi, mardi, ghari tsona, sedi, vendedi, samidi, tsona bilumbu bi tsona.*

Y **y**

yi.ba.ndu [jibandu, ibandu] *n. sg cl 7 pl bibandu.* Dighukiyi di bifumbu yari yi taji.
yibandu yau yi? GHEGILA **yifumba**

+

Bajengwi, Badumbi, Bujyala, Bumweli, Dibamba-kadi, Dikanda, Minzumba, Ndingi: Jugu, Baghoju, Simbu, Polu, Ibasu, Taba la bibandu na bifumba bi Bapunu (Mumbwanga, 1997:3)

yibedu [jibedu] *n.sg cl 7 pl. bibedu.* (**ibedu** WANDI) mutu avhu na bwali. *O Pitali vhaji pwela bibedu*

yi.fu.mba [jifumbə, ifumba] *n.sg cl 7 pl. bifumba.* biburu o yari yi nguji. ■ **yifumbu yau yi?** GHEGILA **yibandu**

+

yifumbu na yibandu

yifumbu diwendi rię o yari yi nguji

yibandu diwendi rię o yari yi taji

Appendix 3: Names of Yipunu villages (cf. Lisimba 1997)

Baka
Bana
Bandoba
Basali
Bilengi
Binlengi
Binyenzi
Birenki
Bonga-Mburenu
Boti-Tsangu
Bugulu
Bukena-Bumunu
Bulembi
Buyondo

Degweri
Dibumba
Dibundi
Disala
Disyala
Dituga
Ditumba-Nzambi
Divanga
Dufuma
Duganu
Dukanga
Dusala
Dwinyi

Fundu-Nzambi

Ghiduma

Ibanga
Ighumbi
Ilala
Ilelo
Inyoga
Irendi
Irungu
Isinga
Ivhuvhulu

Kaga
Kaka
Keri
Keri-Nzambi

Kesi
Koku Na Ghoma
Komi
Kondzi
Kumu
Kumu-Ghari
Kwanya

Lembunduma
Libonga
Lubombo
Lundu-Nzambi

Mabagha
Mabogha
Madunga
Makabana

Malaba
Malembe
Malimba
Malolo
Masika
Masoti
Matsiendi
Mavhanga
Mavhula
Mbaka
Mbenge
Mbila-Nzambi
Mbingu
Mbuda
Mbuku
Mikindu
Minghanga
Mingola
Mingunga
Mirende
Mivemba
Miyombi
Moabi (Mwabi)
Mododo
Moyombi-Tali
Muboti
Mubungu
Mudanda
Mujamba
Muduma
Mufweni
Muguma

Mukakala
Mukoro
Mukwalu
Munyanga
Munigu
Munongu-Dyambu
Mupunu
Murambu-Dimbu
Murima
Musambo
Musamu-Kugu
Musitu
Muteti
Mutima- Tsyengi
Mutumba
Mutungu

Mwamba
Mwala
Mwila (Mouila)
Myandzi

Nanga
Ndendi
Nduma
Ngaghala
Nganda
Nganga
Ngondi
Ngundzi
Nimalaba
Nyali
Nyenganu
Nyenzi-Monyu
Nyongo
Nyundu
Nzambi Na Tsyengi

Orendi
Ovheliga

Pagha
Pama
Panga
Pembi
Peru

Rina-Nzala

Saladyambu

Sanda

Simba

Sukila

Tandu-Filu

Tchibanga (Massanga)

Tsanda

Tsangu-Dimbu

Tsyengi-Paga

Tsuka

Ufu-sa-Gighanga

Ukamba

Yisoni

Yisoni-isalu

Yumbu

Appendix:4: Some loan words in Yipunu

French	Yipunu	Translation equivalent in English
Auto (automobile)	lotu	car
Ballon	balu	ball
biberon	biberu	Baby bottle
Bonbon	bombu	A sweet
cuisine	kisini	kitchen
docteur	Doktera	doctor
école	Ikola	school
enveloppe	Muvelopa	envelop
four	Mufur	stove
Guitare	yitara	guitar
hopital	Yipitali	hospital
jupe	Sipa	skirt
lait	Dila	milk
lampe	Lambi	lamp
machine	Masina	machine
magasin	Maghasi	shop
mouchoir	Muswari	handkerchief
oignon	Nyonda	onion
prête	Mupelu	priest
savon	Tsavu	soap
tomate	Dumatu	tomato
ville	Divula	city
taxi	taksi	taxi
monnaie	dumoni	Change (money)
television	televisi	television
radio	radi	radio

English terms	Yipunu terms borrowed from English
Boat	Bwata
Book	Dibuku
Boy	Booya , a derogative term for servant
English, English -speaking man	Igesi, Mugesi
Glass	ilasi
Dollar	doli
Sunday	Tsona

Borrowed from Gabonese languages	Yipunu terms	Meaning in English
Yilumbu	Bwala (used in the area of Tchibanga)	House, home
Civili	Ikwanga	Gabonese traditional starchy food made with mashed tubers
Civili	Ulaala	To lie down
Ghisira	Viagha	No
Omyene (Mpongwe)	Mbolo	Hello

Appendix 5: The Yipunu vegetal world

	Yipunu world	vegetal	<i>Scientific name</i>
1	mukumi		<i>Aucoumea klaineana</i> , Burseraceae
2	dibala		<i>Musanga cecropioides</i> , Moraceae
3	ditsanda		<i>Ficus sp</i> , Moraceae
4	duvhunga		<i>Urena Biloba</i> , Malvaceae
5	dighembi		<i>Stychnos aculeata</i> , Loganiaceae
6	munguli		<i>Pterocarpus soyauxii</i> , Mimosaceae
7	mbaanga		<i>Elaeis guineensis</i> , Arecaceae
8	koghondu		<i>Musa paradisiaca</i> , Musaceae
9	mbaamba		<i>Calamus sp</i> , Arecaceae
10	mwabi		<i>Baillonella toxiperma</i> , Sapotaceae
11	mufuma		<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> , Bombacaceae
12	mulenda		<i>Irvingia grandifolia</i> , Irvingiaceae
13	musafu		<i>Dacryodes edulis</i> , Burseraceae
14	tsuvha		<i>Lagenaria siceraria</i> , Cucurbitaceae
15	musungu		<i>Saccharum officinarum</i> , Poaceae
16	dikamba		<i>Dioscorea sp.</i> , Discoraceae
17	musumbi		<i>Uncaria Africana</i> , Rubiaceae
18	duvhinda		<i>Arachis hypogea</i> , Fabaceae
19	dungatsi		<i>Elaeis guineensis</i>