

**An Analysis of the Megastructure and Mediostructure Aspects for Kriel, Pharos,
and Oxford Northern Sotho-English Bilingual Dictionaries**

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DECLARATION

I declare that “*An Analysis of the Mediostructure for Kriel, Pharos, and Oxford Northern Sotho-English Bilingual Dictionaries*” is my work and that all the sources used or quoted have been specified and acknowledged using comprehensive references and that this work has not yet been submitted before or for any other degree at any other institution.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my journey to complete the PhD, the challenges, and the successes I experienced. I would not have come this far if it had not been for the people who believed in me.

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the megastructure and mediostructure features of the Kriel, Pharos, and Oxford Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. The study is prompted by the deficiencies in the presentation of megastructure and mediostructure features of the aforementioned bilingual dictionaries. The aforementioned Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries are being utilised for communicative and receptive purposes such as teaching and learning, as well as language practice by its intended target users. The study supports for the presentation of a complete megastructure and mediostructure in bilingual dictionaries that match the target users' current demands. The study was conducted qualitatively, using the Lexicographic theory of Function in conjunction with the lexicographic principle of user-friendliness. The collected data was presented and analysed in Chapters Four and Five of the study. The fourth chapter of the study focuses on satisfying the first two research objectives by analysing the megastructure's presentation and the usage of cotext and context. Chapter Five concentrated on the display of mediostructure, the application of the reversibility principle, and the classification of lexicographic data boxes. Given that the bilingual dictionaries were traditionally constructed, the study's findings suggest that the compilers did not consult with the intended target users before creating the bilingual dictionaries. Furthermore, several of the multilingual dictionaries lack user-friendly front matter. Additionally, the compilers did not consider the correctness and suitability of the provided translation equivalents and contextual assistance. Furthermore, the study revealed that the bilingual dictionary compilers are not Northern Sotho native speakers; however, at the time of publication, statutory bodies such as the National Lexicographic Units and Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) were established to provide sociolinguistic and societal support to the bilingual dictionary compilers. The study suggests that future bilingual dictionaries should consider the needs of the target user and ensure that the bilingual dictionary meets both communicative and receptive functions to compile a comprehensive megastructure that will have a positive impact on the presentation of the mediostructure.

Keywords: Bilingual dictionary, context, cotext, macro-/microstructure, megastructure, mediostructure, Northern Sotho, translation equivalents

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CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Dictionaries can be perceived as roadmaps of individual languages and how words, definitions, and translation equivalents in the applicable context can be used to appropriately navigate language usage amongst cultures and societies. Dictionaries comprise various sections which are compiled to become a single text that can be used as a resource for a specific linguistic community. This study introduces the functionality of the various sections regarding configuring a dictionary, with special reference to Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. In this chapter, the focus is on providing information that prompted the researcher to conduct the study. The researcher identifies the factors that informed the research problem and touches on the use and construction of Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries in the contemporary context. The chapter outlines a series of key terms commonly referred to in this study, followed by a series of questions that are answered within the study itself. Additionally, the chapter specifies the content presented in the subsequent chapters.

1.2. Background and motivation for the study

Dictionaries are utilised for various functions and purposes intended to serve the needs of the target users. Hence, Lew & Adamska-Sałaciak (2014:1) outline that a dictionary is fundamental to language learning and teaching because it promotes learner autonomy. Since probing the (human) educator is not always an option, a well-chosen dictionary may be the next best thing when tackling lexical problems encountered in language learning. The ability to solve such problems quickly is generally believed to be the primary advantage of dictionaries. Therefore, dictionaries are indicators or reflectors of a country's social, cultural, scientific, and technical advancement. It is essential to assess the function of translation in their composition. Inadequate translation skills result in an inappropriate translation, whereas competent translation results in efficient communication (Nthambeleni,2016:19). This explains why dictionaries are required or have certain goals. In the case of bilingual dictionaries, the function is to improve the quality of translation from the source language (SL) to the target language (TL). This is supported by Ahmed & Omar (2017:5), who mentions that dictionaries, particularly multilingual dictionaries, serve as educational tools, offering

rules for proper usage and increasing intercultural dialogue. Furthermore, dictionaries provide reasonable companionship for language learners and other target users since they are simply tools for knowledge and comprehension of the target language to be enhanced.

Furthermore, Chi (2016:145) asserts that dictionaries which present the linguistic information of vocabulary items, are often perceived as effective language-learning tools, as it is not unusual to see learners checking dictionaries for difficult terms while reading. However, it is questionable if the linguistic information offered in dictionaries is also sufficient in assisting target users in acquiring the usage of words and avoiding lexical mistakes, filling gaps in their linguistic knowledge, or correcting their misconceptions regarding lexical knowledge. Furthermore, dictionaries are broadly classified into two categories: monolingual and bilingual, and the user-friendliness of these two types of dictionaries assists target users to avoid lexical mistakes.

In addition to what Chi (2016:145) has stated, Gao (2010: 288) provides a supportive background that dictionary-making stretches back more than 4,000 years, implying that lexicography has a long history. A dictionary provides a picture of the special culture (in the Source Language), without which a specific cultural or linguistic group would almost certainly perish. Dictionaries and other reference books have and continue to play an important role in modern culture since they facilitate people's practice and study of language development. In addition, bilingual dictionaries have been created to strengthen language communication relationships between two linguistic communities (in the case of a bilingual dictionary). Furthermore, Mongwe (2006:65) provides a rather historical background that the most renowned reference work is the Rosetta Stone, created in Egypt around 200 BC. It depicts a king's coronation in hieroglyphics in early Arabic and Greek. The mandated dictionaries only arose in the early centuries.

Gouws & Prinsloo (2006) contributes to what Mongwe (2006) has discussed that the tradition of practical assistance was already present in the early dictionaries, such as those compiled on clay tablets by the Assyrians to assist children (as target users) in understanding Sumerian writings, early Egyptian dictionaries written on papyrus

leaves, and Arabic dictionaries providing target users with access to the holy scriptures of Islam. This supports the views held that not only historical documents and religious material were transcribed on tablets, but also dictionaries were compiled on those tablets. Therefore, bilingual dictionaries served as knowledge sources for certain target user groups. Similarly, the glossae published in Christian monasteries throughout the mediaeval era were attempts to aid students qualifying for a clerical profession in confronting biblical and other texts.

The early dictionary compilers were entrusted with the reading and interpreting of different religious texts or even entrusted by royalties as their transcribers and writers. Hence, Mongwe (2006:65) mentions that ancient civilisations countries could write bilingual or multilingual lists written by scribes and officials. Bilingual dictionaries emerged because of a breakdown in monolingual communication. However, the existing possibilities are that the early dictionaries were based on a particular field or context. For example, the dictionaries compiled on stone tablets were based on defining or translating religious or cultural concepts of that cultural group. Some of those concepts were the building blocks of the early paper-based compiled dictionaries. This is confirmed by Gao (2010:294), who states that outstanding dictionaries in a specific topic indicate, to a large part, the maturity of that discipline. This reflects that developing specialised dictionaries contributes to the growth of lexicons and terminologies within that field.

Subsequently, the compilation of the paper-based dictionary emerged as the relationship between China and Europe existed. This is confirmed by Henning (2019:318), who states that cultural interaction between China and Europe resulted in the development of many bilingual dictionaries well before the nineteenth century. However, due to discrepancies between the Chinese and Roman alphabets, there were visible and unignored differences between the orthography and the word arrangements. Hence, Henning (2019:324) mentions that when comparing the (native) monolingual dictionaries, the first set of bilingual dictionaries compiled for both Chinese and European languages had two non-obvious differences: the selection of Chinese

source languages and a digraph arrangement (word arrangement) of entries involving Chinese characters and transcriptions using the Roman alphabets.

However, due to a lack of accurate bibliographical evidence, the proportions of early European-Chinese lexicography cannot be specified with precision. Furthermore, at that time, direct cultural contact with China sparked widespread interest in the Chinese language (or languages) and the Chinese character throughout Europe (Henning, 2019:324). In contrast, from the Chinese perspective, adopting alphabetic writing opened new options for bilingual dictionary layouts. Meanwhile, dictionary compilation is still in its infancy because lexicography should be founded on current linguistics, and its theoretical system and research methodologies did not emerge until recently. Historically, the production of bilingual dictionaries was seen as an empirical procedure with little academic significance (Gao,2010:299). Henning (2019:325) asserts that major publications were authored by missionaries residing in China and European philologists who had planned the missionary documents. The intention was to speedily integrate English as the second or rather first superior language in the Chinese communities. The first Chinese bilingual dictionary produced in Europe was a 44-page Chinese-French bilingual dictionary published in 1670.

To bridge language barriers between the missionaries and the Chinese communities, the bilingual dictionary was a resource to attend to such a need. Hence, Henning (2019:326) asserts that the productive growth and emergence of bilingual Chinese-European dictionaries happened after the turn of the century. Two major causes have contributed to this evolution. For starters, the development of new printing technologies allowed to production of a huge number of multilingual and digraphic editions. Second, the forced opening of China's major port cities to missionary work, as well as China's growing involvement in international politics, resulted in a slew of new demands for high-quality dictionaries.

Apart from the Chinese, the production of dictionaries was vast in other linguistic groups as well. According to Gao (2010:285), the first Greek glossaries, or preparatory dictionaries, were largely used in Europe to clarify difficult terms in a specific author's

work, particularly to aid understanding of the canons of the 8th century BC, such as Homer's Iliad and Odyssey. Additionally, Henning (2019:326) asserts that on the Chinese side, an unprecedentedly wide diversity of Sinitic regional vernaculars was identified as either the source or target languages of bilingual dictionaries over the hundred years following the commencement of Protestant missionary work in China. Throughout the second half of the nineteenth and early half of the twentieth centuries, bilingual lexicography was dominated by dictionaries written by missionaries or members of foreign diplomatic services in China. Although these dictionaries were created for foreigners in China, they quickly acquired appeal among Chinese who had encounters with Westerners.

As years passed, bilingual dictionaries' production portrayed exceptional progress and positive change as it accommodated more European and Asian languages. Hence, Chen (2011:318) states that the Advanced Learner's Dictionary English-Chinese (published in Taipei, then in Hong Kong) debuted in 1970, followed by comparable translations in Hindi, Greek, Italian, Spanish, Norwegian, Japanese, and Portuguese (Hartmann 1994, Marelllo 1998). Kernerman Publishers of Tel Aviv, Israel, began producing semi-bilingual dictionaries in the late 1970s, providing easy and brief glosses for English words for speakers of Hebrew, Arabic, and several European, Asian, and African languages. Furthermore, Henning (2019:323) states that political and social transformations at the turn of the twentieth century created the door for new lexicographical innovations. Dictionaries were crucial in language planning and the implementation of new language standards. Moreover, new types of lexicographic organisation and entry information were introduced, albeit delayed, in response to lexical changes.

The practice and the craft of compiling both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries in Asian and European countries were developed before the period of paper-printing as some countries and societies used rock stones and some used leaves. What can be identified from the development of bilingual dictionaries in a global context is that the purpose of compiling bilingual dictionaries was to provide linguistic information and encourage intercultural communication. Furthermore, the compilation of bilingual

dictionaries in Asian and European countries was considered an improvement from monolingual dictionaries to conduct trade and document and safeguard cultural and religious practices.

Bilingual dictionary production in Africa was also not and is still not easy to undertake. It remains a challenge even to contemporary dictionary compilers. Sithole & Nkomo (2017:481) postulate that African languages are disregarded in higher-order domains due to colonial language restrictions. However, a few languages, such as Swahili, have developed into powerful ones monopolising public spaces in society because of committed players' deliberate, planned, and opportune political interventions. This came as a result that most Swahili native-speaking countries have ensured to make Swahili an immediate alternative to English or any other European language.

However, Chabata & Nkomo (2010:74) mention that in the case of African languages, the "Golden Age of lexicography" really began in the 1990s when more and new dictionaries began to be produced to empower the speech communities. It was also then those African linguists became more interested in theoretical lexicography, starting ground-breaking collaborations with international scholars in the field. Furthermore, Nkomo (2010:372) opines that despite such worldwide advances, lexicographic practice in indigenous African languages continues to confront significant challenges. These include the languages' stage of development and a youthful, or perhaps non-existent, dictionary culture. Contributing factors to such challenges include that many African language groups continue to believe that they do not require lexicographic aid in their languages. As a result, indigenous language dictionaries should be viewed as something other than the useful tools they should be.

For the African lexicography to be disregarded, Gao (2010: 290-292) mentions that the relationship between the lexicon and social culture has been widely disregarded. The dictionary's position in culture and society needs to receive more attention. The fundamental objective of the dictionary should be frequently assumed to be to record, standardise, or promote a given language or science. However, since the documentation of physical and cultural surroundings was insufficient, interdisciplinary

studies could not previously reach the minds of dictionary experts of that period. This has consequently led to the interdisciplinary study of certain subjects being exceedingly uncommon in the past, and people needed more incentive to approach the dictionary from an integrative perspective. That is because most of the African lexicographic materials are only becoming noteworthy, and it is only now that most interdisciplinary materials are being produced using African languages. Therefore, this motivates the contemporary emerging need for lexicons in African languages.

Colonialism had a greater effect on language development, meaning that language resources such as bilingual dictionaries were compiled and used for instruction and to control the development and use of African languages. Nkomo (2008:14) confirms this by indicating that the dictionaries produced in African countries in the colonial era were all compiled by foreigners of European origin. Furthermore, those dictionaries were compiled mainly for use by the colonial settlers. They were meant to meet the communication needs experienced or perceived by foreigners in their pursuit of mining, agricultural, missionary, educational, and political ventures.

The situation remains the same in South Africa as in other African nations. Gouws (1999:270-271) mentions that the history of lexicographic reference works in South Africa emphasises the dominating role of Afrikaans descriptive and translation dictionaries. However, the position of English, and more specifically South African English, in the development of South African dictionaries may never be underestimated. Changuion (1844) and Mansvelt (1884) compiled two of the most important forerunners in the domain of descriptive dictionaries focusing on Afrikaans. Although both these dictionaries played a key role in establishing Afrikaans lexicography, the respective lexicographers had opposing objectives. Changuion's dictionary was an attempt to impede the development of Afrikaans and to maintain the continued use of Dutch in the Cape. Whereas Mansvelt emphasised the distinctiveness of the Afrikaans language by incorporating terms and idioms not found in standard Dutch. His dictionary was one of the first lexicographic descriptions of Afrikaans, although it also included things regularly used in South African English at the time.

According to Nkomo (2019:97), language policies and language planning efforts seeking to develop and promote the continent's indigenous African languages that were marginalised during the colonial era and the apartheid era in South Africa, have culminated in the proliferation of lexicographical resources focusing on specialised academic and professional disciplines. Therefore, with the advent of a democratic government in South Africa, the motive became to ensure that the African languages spoken in the country were to be constitutionally included and made official. Furthermore, Mongwe (2006:35) mentions that since 1994, South Africa has had eleven official languages. Although the constitution grants all these languages official status, practical issues are crucial in determining language choice in communication situations. Even though the number of native English speakers in South Africa is lower than that of other indigenous languages such as isiZulu, isiXhosa, and Afrikaans, as well as some other indigenous languages, English continues to hold a dominant position as a language of documentation and a general lingua franca.

Afrikaans had a lot of influence in shaping South African lexicography and it became more of a mandate for bilingual dictionary compilers and publishers to address the issue and accommodate the African languages which were constitutionally made official. In attest to this, Nkomo (2019) further mentions that in South Africa, the language-in-education policy which seeks to cultivate multilingualism in education incentivised the production of bilingual and multilingual school dictionaries mainly by commercial publishers such as Oxford University Press — Southern Africa, Maskew-Miller Longman, and Pharos. For example, Oxford University Press — Southern Africa has over recent years produced a series of bilingual school dictionaries pairing English with languages such as isiZulu, isiXhosa, and Sesotho sa Leboa. The policy of *apartheid* emphasised that Afrikaans words included in almost every non-Afrikaans dictionary, were formulated by the National Party which used to be the political home of predominantly Afrikaans-speaking white South Africans. As a result, Afrikaans had for years been regarded as the language of the oppressor. Many Afrikaans words became stigmatised due to their occurrence in the apartheid terminology.

However, Gao (2010) asserts that there are insufficient dictionary resources in indigenous South African languages, necessitating the use of monolingual English dictionaries, whereas under different circumstances, the target user (a learner) may have a dictionary in their home language as well as an English dictionary, or the target user may have a bilingual dictionary to use at school. There are also very few bilingual dictionaries with English and an indigenous language, leaving target users with limited options other than using a monolingual English dictionary, even if they are not necessarily fluent in English. Again, these students require language support. Therefore, Gouws (2011:30) mentions that these changing perspectives on learner's dictionaries and the emphasis on the function of the bilingual learner's dictionary will have definite implications for the South African lexicographical endeavours, adding to the variety of exciting challenges that face both lexicographers and linguists in this multicultural and multilingual society.

Prinsloo (2016:218) mentions that several African languages still need a comprehensive bilingual dictionary. For those that do, a one-size-fits-all solution must suffice because a single dictionary must meet the demands of multiple target users. Monolingual dictionaries are sparse, and bilingual dictionaries must provide adequate information to their target users. They typically provide only the most basic treatment of lemmas, i.e., translation equivalents. They only meet the target user's most basic text-receiving (decoding) demands and could be more effective for text production (encoding). Even the most recent bilingual dictionaries for African languages are compiled by South Africa's government-funded (National Lexicographic Units) NLUs. Evidence for such is the quality of translation equivalents; some have their translation. Still, the lexicographers would rather omit them or use the borrowing method to Africanise the English headword. Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries are familiar with this; in some cases, it results in an absent translation equivalent.

In Africa, what can be identified from the development and practice of compiling bilingual dictionaries was more reliant on what both Asian and European countries produced before the colonial period. The purpose of compiling bilingual dictionaries in African continent and South Africa as a country is based on two common factors which

are colonial and political purposes. Furthermore, the individuals who were responsible for compiling bilingual dictionaries were missionaries and explorers who wanted to ensure that the people in Africa could communicate with them in their European languages. However apart from those, as years progressed, the intention of compiling bilingual dictionaries was to address the political-linguistic imbalances of the colonial and apartheid period.

However, one striking similarity between European and Asian with African lexicography, according to Adetoyese (2020:30), is that both languages deal with the language and culture of their dictionary target users. Furthermore, the history of European and Asian lexicography is clearer than that of African lexicography, and it is easier to have working theories, organisation, typology, and current research. This is because European and Asian lexicography was the first to emerge. Furthermore, the emergence of European and African lexicography was established based on trading, cultural and religious sustainability reasons. Altogether, what can be considered in the above comparison is that the establishment and development of African lexicography relied on the same European and Asian lexicography.

With the background of how bilingual dictionaries were compiled and developed mentioned, there is a need to provide a background on the structural development of bilingual dictionaries. Gouws & Prinsloo (2006) outline that the function of a dictionary is influenced not only by the target users but also by the usage scenario, and the circumstances in which a bilingual dictionary is used should have a definite impact on the data distribution program and the function of that dictionary. Gouws & Prinsloo (2006) elucidate that a bilingual dictionary must prioritise the needs of the target users and how it presents information to meet the same needs of the dictionary target users. What motivates such a claim is that bilingual dictionaries are a useful resource that reflects a language's direction.

According to Mongwe (2006:17), a dictionary is a type of cultural product, and the demands of its consumers influence its creation. Their need for cultural knowledge inevitably differs as they will be consulting the dictionary for different reasons. The study

of target users and meeting their preferences is essential to the production and publication of dictionaries. The functions performed by target users determine the quality of dictionaries to some extent. The dictionary's scientificness (megastructure), knowledge, practicality, and so on are mostly preconditions for realising its varied roles. Furthermore, different target-user age groups must be considered while keeping in mind the various duties these dictionaries must perform and the fact that some dictionaries are bilingual. Some are monolingual, while others are bilingual, and some are aimed at native speakers. In contrast, others are aimed at users who speak the treated language as a second or additional language (Gouws, Prinsloo & Dlali, 2014). Furthermore, the target users of a bilingual dictionary expect the central list and its components to correlate with the usage of two languages and how the translation equivalents differ in terms of spelling, pronunciation, usage, and appearance.

When a bilingual dictionary has a comprehensive megastructure and mediostructure, the target users can obtain thorough knowledge and Information about the lexical item or the headword, translation equivalents, description, and grammatical usage. Each bilingual dictionary envisages in ensuring its target users are satisfied (and find it user-friendly) with its structure, appearance, and contents. Nkomo (2010:374) confirms this by mentioning that dictionary analysis must be compatible with lexicographic principles. It should be regarded as something other than a goal but rather as constructing more effective and user-friendly dictionaries. Similarly, it is vital to remember that lexicography began as a practical endeavour to provide useful tools rather than formulate theories. Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries have been produced for translation and learning purposes, and therefore the bilingual dictionaries are expected by the target users to have a comprehensive megastructure and mediostructure. However, those Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries confuse the target users and are not user-friendly as they have an incomplete megastructure and some with an absence of the mediostructure.

1.3. Definition of terms

Bilingual dictionary: A dictionary that provides lexical units in the source language with equivalents in the target language

(Yu,2020). A bilingual dictionary can be identified as a dictionary consisting of two languages.

Contextual guidance: Refers to illustrations that are relevant to the lexical terms and appropriate for their purpose. To prevent misconceptions and distortions, dictionary users should have a clear knowledge of the underlying meaning and aim (Ramusi,2020). It can be considered as additional grammatical usage information that indicates how the headword can be used in a sentence. This can also include pictorials, illustrations, and figures.

Cross-referencing: The function of saving space, avoiding unnecessary repetition of information at different places, and guiding the user to where further relevant information is provided, thus ensuring the maximum utility of space and information provided in the dictionary (Yong & Peng, 2007:16). It is also a process of referring the target user of the bilingual dictionary from the reference position to the reference address (connotative and denotative meaning).

Macrostructure: How entry words are arranged and organised in dictionary text (Yong & Peng, 2007:16). The macrostructure can be identified and located on the left side of the central list consisting of bolded headwords.

Megastructure: How all the components (i.e., front matter, middle matter, back matter, and dictionary text) in a dictionary are arranged and organised (Yong & Peng, 2007:16). The structure of a dictionary consists of the following: front matter, Central list, and Back matter.

Microstructure: How the information in an entry is organised and presented (Yong & Peng, 2007:16). The microstructure is located on the right side next to the macrostructure, consisting of the following: noun class, part of speech,

Reversibility:	phonetic transcription, plural form, definition/translation equivalent and contextual guidance (a translated contextual guidance is added if it is a bilingual dictionary). A condition whereby all lexical items presented as lemma signs or translation equivalents in the X-Y section of a dictionary are respectively translation equivalents and lemma signs in the Y-X section of the dictionary (Mothiba,2014:1). The bilingual dictionary's ability to enable the target user to test the translation equivalent by translating them to the source language. This requires a bi-directional bilingual dictionary to occur.
Source Language:	The language of a text which is to be translated into another (the target) language (Hartmaan & James, 1999:128).
Target Language	The language into which a source language text is to be translated (Hartmaan & James, 1999:137).
X-Y Section:	This is the first section of the central list in a bi-directional bilingual dictionary consisting of headwords presented using language and the translation equivalents presented using Language
Y-X Section:	The second section of the central list in a bidirectional bilingual dictionary consists of headwords presented using Language-B, and the translation equivalents presented using Language-B.

1.4. Problem Statement

Bilingual dictionary use and awareness have increased, especially when African languages are recognised as official languages. Therefore, this motivates individuals who need to be more conversant with those languages or would want to contextualise the languages into another disciplines for better understanding by the public , then they are ought to use these bilingual dictionaries. The target users expect the bilingual dictionary megastructure's presentation and application to be user-friendly and comprehensive enough to develop

their English and African language competency skills. However, finding such a bilingual dictionary is nearly impossible. This study investigates the inconsistencies in the bilingual dictionary structure and misrepresentations of the megastructural features that have emerged in the Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. These inconsistencies raise issues such as the structure and presentation of the front matter, central list, and back matter and how they need to be more consistent within the Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. In bilingual dictionaries, the presentation of the user information that guides the target users about the megastructure of the bilingual dictionary needs to reflect the actual presentation in the front matter, central list, and back matter. Regarding misrepresentations in the central list, the problem arises in the non-corelative relationship between the headwords and the translation equivalents.

Understanding and using a bilingual dictionary has always been challenging for target users and language scholars. The way the Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries have been compiled; they are morphed as more editions emerge. However, they are not considered user-friendly as they need a cooperative megastructure and mediostructure. The structure of these bilingual dictionaries needs to be better constructed as some do not have a front matter; some of the front matter is not comprehensive, same is applied to the back matter. Furthermore, some key aspects of the megastructure need to be included or presented within the central list (macro-/microstructure). This results in a bilingual dictionary that can be considered user-friendly as bilingual dictionaries are essential for language planning, translation and interpreting purposes. In those bilingual dictionaries, we find different translation equivalents presented to assist the target user with a thorough knowledge of the usage and context of the translation equivalent. The genuine purpose of a bilingual dictionary is co-determined by, among others, its typological nature, and its intended target user group. Their genuine purpose is to transfer, using lexical data, information regarding the set of lexical items included as treatment units to ensure the linguistic empowerment of the intended target user.

For an African language bilingual dictionary to achieve its comprehensiveness with special reference to the needs of the target users, it must adhere to the cultural settings of the target language, which is the African language. Mphasha (2013:184) confirms this by postulating that future dictionaries should include generic definitions of words and their

cultural settings. The phonetic characteristics of the words (pronunciation) should also be specified; grammatical notations are required for irregular verb forms, plurals, and comparisons. Definitions in several African language dictionaries could be better. Consequently, it questions the quality of these dictionaries and their impact on language development. This can be identified in this manner: the 3 (three) Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries (Kriel, Pharos, and Oxford) share different megastructure qualities. Either they vary in the megastructure itself, translation equivalents, language usage, contextual guidance, lack of reversibility and cross-referencing, or absent translation equivalents.

Another aspect that exacerbates the problem is the intended age and educational group of the target users that must be presented. This portrays a need for more research and understanding of the headwords and their contextual meaning in modern society. Therefore, a bilingual dictionary is expected to outline the intended age or educational level that the bilingual dictionary is meant for. Gouws et al. (2014:28) mention that once the target user has been defined, the lexicographer must determine the function of the proposed dictionary, such as whether it will be used for text production or reception. The next step is to identify the data required to fulfil these functions. Finally, a decision must be made regarding the presentation of the data, i.e., the lexicographic structures, to display and accommodate the data so that the target user can access it and retrieve the information required to complete the dictionary consultation process successfully. Success is accomplished when answers to the questions that prompted the inquiry are discovered.

1.5. Aim and objectives of the study.

The study aims to analyse the presentation of the megastructure and mediostructure aspects in Kriel, Pharos, and Oxford Northern Sotho – English bilingual dictionaries. The abovementioned bilingual dictionaries have been preferred by scholars (as school dictionaries) for many years and target users who intend to learn Northern Sotho and equip their language practice skills.

1.5.1. The objectives of the study are:

- 1.5.1.1 To analyse the presentation of megastructure features in the selected Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries.

- 1.5.1.2 To evaluate the presentation of macrostructural and microstructural aspects, with observation to context and context.
- 1.5.1.3 To examine the presentation of cross-referencing, application of reversibility principle and lexicographic boxes in the selected Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries.

1.6. Research Questions

The key questions for this study are:

- 1.6.1. What can be improved from the presentation of megastructural features in the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries?
- 1.6.2. Which macrostructural and microstructural aspects, with the observance of context and context are well presented in the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries?
- 1.6.3. How can the presentation of the mediostructure, application of the reversibility principle and lexicographic data boxes in the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries be improved or implemented?

1.7. Scope of research

The study intends to establish new methods on how lexicographers of Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries and other languages can be able to improve the dictionaries' megastructure and mediostructure. The study will focus on the three selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries that are currently used by the target users and have a lengthy period in the public domain. This will thus study assist future bilingual dictionary projects in establishing a user-friendly and consistent megastructure (with a set of guidelines that make a commendable and user-friendly bilingual dictionary) that will guide both scholars and students in understanding the usage and location of translation equivalents for language development, translation, and interpreting purposes.

1.8. Significance of the study

The study will benefit the target users of any African language bilingual dictionary, as to assesses which factors to consider towards ensuring that a biliugual dictionary can be considered user-friendly. The study is conducted within the period that the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) considers The Decade for African Languages (2022-2032), which states that: "*The United Nations General Assembly*

declared the period 2022-2032 as the International Decade of Indigenous Languages (IDIL 2022-2032) to draw global attention to the critical situation of many indigenous languages and mobilise stakeholders and resources for their preservation, revitalisation, and promotion (Resolution A/RES/74/135).- UNESCO website: www.unesco.org. Furthermore, the study is aligned with item 1 in the Programme of Action of the African Union Language Plan of Action, which states that: (i) above, the need for each Member State to render its national universities and other research and related institutions a primary instruments for the practical promotion of African languages as regards such critical promotional activities as the compilation of technical and general dictionaries, the writing of textbooks on useful subjects, the training of teachers of language, translators, interpreters, broadcasters and journalists, the production of useful books and other types of literature relevant to the lives of the contemporary African and the up-dating of vocabulary in African languages.

It also serves as an eye-opener for researchers and target users to identify specific aspects before using the bilingual dictionary for communicative or receptive. This implies that they will know that when using a bilingual dictionary, it should guide them on the usage rather than consider the immediate translation equivalents without confirming the context of the translation equivalent. This study also serves as additional lexicographic, and translation studies' material on identifying both microstructural (such as headwords and run-on entries) and microstructural features (such as parts of speech, grammatical information, phonetic transcriptions, contextual guidance, etc.) in the bilingual dictionaries that can assist them in improving their linguistic, translation, or interpreting skills. The target users can identify and determine how a translation equivalent can be used in their modern-day speech and writing in African languages. The compilers will know how to analyse to ensure that the bilingual dictionary is user-friendly to its target users. The study will also provide further guidance for future projects that will focus on compiling an inter-related bilingual dictionary consisting of both African languages of the same linguistic status. That can be achieved by sharing the outcomes of the study with the publishers (such as Pharos, Oxford, etc.) of the Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries to improve on the current publications and render them more user-friendly.

1.9. Limitations and delimitations

More contemporary literature on South African lexicography (between 2020- present) needs to be available, as most publicised, and unpublished literature has been written for over a decade. Furthermore, the literature on South African lexicography appears to be reciprocal as they either surround themselves or are written by the same set of authors (e.g., Gouws, Prinsloo, Nkomo, Tiljard, Khumalo, etc.). This has limited how the researcher intends to blend recent and ancient or classical literature. Furthermore, currently it needs to be that bilingual dictionaries that have proven to have the same or be at the same level as English-Afrikaans bilingual dictionaries in terms of megastructure presentation. This has limited the researcher's ability to provide in-depth comparisons of the megastructure and mediostructure presentation in other English-African language bilingual dictionaries.

1.10. Outlining of chapters

Chapter 1: General Introduction

The chapter introduces the topic and the existence of the problem. Furthermore, the chapter provides an in-depth background of the study (from the global and African to local contexts) and what the researcher expects to achieve after the study. Chapter 1 also mentions the aim of the study and its objectives. It explores a set of key questions that the study will be able to address. Additionally, this chapter presents the scope of the study itself. The chapter concludes by outlining the significance of the study together with its limitations and delimitations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The chapter provides the parameters other scholars set concerning this research topic. It identifies and discusses (in-depth) the work or research conducted by scholars from global (International), African and local perspectives. Furthermore, it then focuses on the studies conducted by scholars about the features of the existing problem.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology and Theoretical Framework

The chapter discusses the research methodology adopted when conducting the study and its significance. It also identifies and discusses the theory in line with the study and how it will be featured in the study.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis: Analysis and Evaluation of the Megastructure, Macrostructure and Microstructure

This chapter is the first part of the discussion of the data collected. It focuses on achieving the first two research objectives related to the megastructure of the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis: Examining Cross Referencing and Reversibility Principle.

This chapter is the second and last part of the discussion of the data amassed. It discusses the presentation of the medicostructure (cross-referencing), the application of the Reversibility principle and the presentation of lexicographic data boxes in the abovementioned bilingual dictionaries.

Chapter 6: Findings, Recommendations and Conclusions

This chapter is the last chapter of the study. It outlines the study's findings and their effect on the target users. It then recommends how the existing problem should be addressed with innovative measures that align with the study's level. Then, the study is concluded on how it was initiated until its completion.

1.11. Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher outlined the research problem and the need for the improvement and application of both megastructure and mediostructure aspects in bilingual dictionaries. The researcher provides an in-depth and detailed background on the study topic, looking at different contexts and levels. The chapter elaborates on the reasons for new strategies to establish and maintain a comprehensive megastructure and mediostructure. The researcher outlines the objectives and the research questions to be later discussed in the subsequent chapters. Furthermore, Chapter One also provided a list of key definitions frequently emerging and used in the study when elaborating more on the content associated with the study topic. The study continues as Chapter Two discusses different scholarly contributions and viewpoints of researchers within the study field.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces various scholarly contributions made by scholars within the context of the study and thus sets informed parameters for it. Therefore, in this chapter, the researcher focuses on the constituents of the megastructure building up to the mediostructure. Furthermore, chapter two touches on the different scholarly contributions leading to evaluating and developing megastructure from International, African, and local perspectives. These discussions in Chapter Two embark on an expatiation of what makes a dictionary a quality dictionary before embarking on the structural, contextual components of a bilingual dictionary. Chapter two includes extractions and illustrations that indicate the impact of the contributions made by various scholars to the subject of the study.

2.2. Quality of a Bilingual Dictionary

Bilingual dictionary compilers and producers need to understand more about the quality and the characteristics of the presentation of translation equivalents and the usage of other macro-/microstructure aspects presented in the bilingual dictionary. Hence, Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:16) mentions that the perception behind bilingual dictionaries has always been that languages are reciprocally translatable, which means that any material conveyed in one language may be translated into another. The (usually implicit) additional assumption, however, that a bilingual dictionary is not only a requirement but also a sufficient condition for effective interlingual translation is based on a reflective misinterpretation of both the nature of human language as such and the nature of the relationships between different languages. Additionally, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:39) solidifies that a dictionary (bilingual) should not primarily represent the lexicographer's mindset but rather be modified to the specific needs of a well-defined target user. Current dictionaries are rated by the ease with which the target user can access the desired information rather than by linguistic achievement.

However, the quality of a bilingual dictionary needs to be established or determined by how the target user utilises it. Still, the quality and the user-friendliness of a monolingual dictionary determine the quality of a bilingual dictionary. This is confirmed by Lew & Adamska-Sałaciak (2014:4), that a bilingualised dictionary of English takes as its point of

departure from a monolingual English dictionary, to which it adds some bilingual elements. The headword list and the sense structure (i.e., the organisation of the entry into blocks) are carried over comprehensively from the original monolingual work. The development of bilingualisation entails providing an L1 equivalent for each of the headword's senses; less commonly, the definitions and examples are translated into L1. Thus, instead of a full L1–English bilingual dictionary section, just a simple L1–English index is generated, listing all and only those L1 terms which feature in the English–L1 part as translation equivalents; their function is to point back to the original entries.

In addition, to determine the type and quality of a bilingual dictionary that a compiler would want to produce, it is important to identify the prospective target user and their linguistic or receptive needs that can be met by the bilingual dictionary itself. Nthambeleni (2016:36) explains that a typical target user of a bilingual dictionary can be considered as an individual who is bilingual but does not have enough knowledge on some aspects of the two languages in his/her command and needs this knowledge to achieve communication or an individual intending to learn another language to communicate with the speakers of that language. It is, therefore, important to understand the duties and functions of a potential bilingual dictionary target user.

When discussing the issue of a good bilingual dictionary that has a viable communicative function from its target users, it is important to determine the category where the prospective target users can be placed. Such may include categorising the prospective target users according to their educational background, age group or language proficiency, but not forgetting that the end function of a bilingual dictionary is to meet the needs of its different prospective target users. Klein (2010:1494) further asserts that one of the characteristics of a good dictionary is a dictionary that empowers and offers its target users the solution they seek. Therefore, a good bilingual dictionary with a foundation of a monolingual dictionary pertains to more effective user-friendliness than a bilingual dictionary that is compiled without any monolingual dictionary elements.

Nonetheless, depending on the target user and the context, every (user-friendly) dictionary can empower individuals by providing them with the words to communicate. Every

dictionary should have an intended target user group, and the contents, functions, and structures should be determined by this group's lexicographic demands and reference abilities (Gouws, 2020). Consequently, both Klein (2010) and Gouws (2020) agree that a good dictionary (be it monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual) is expected to be explicit in outlining who are the intended target users, their educational level and the kind of target user's needs it provides.

Debatably, basing the compilation and production of a bilingual dictionary on a monolingual dictionary does not fulfil the intended function of producing a comprehensive bilingual dictionary. Hence, Gouws & Prinsloo (2006) argue that the most important aspect is to design the entire lexicographic process long before dictionary compilation begins and to ensure that all activities and details relevant to the planned dictionary have been adequately identified and addressed in the formulation of this lexicographic process. While several open dictionary projects share the same goals and objectives, each must be the outcome of its lexicographic process adapted to that dictionary. This proposes that similarly to a monolingual dictionary, compiling a quality bilingual dictionary requires planning and determining its intended function and target users using the lexical process designed specifically for the bilingual dictionary. As a result, the lexicographic approach of this type must focus on all the steps that will lead to the eventual publication of that bilingual dictionary. It is for this reason that bilingual dictionaries can be considered not only as a source of references but also as educational tools for teaching and learning the target language.

Another quality of a bilingual dictionary is that the production and development of a bilingual dictionary is determined by the intended target users and their educational level. Hence, Tarp & Gouws (2012:335) outline that a clear identification of the intended target user of the anticipated dictionary must be one of the key components in developing any dictionary. The target user, for example, the word 'learners', is frequently indicated in the title of a dictionary. The term 'school' also appears frequently in dictionary names. However, when the dictionary's functions, structures, and contents are examined, it is unclear why this word is in the title. In some cases, it simply implies that the bilingual dictionary is of more limited scope.

In the process of compiling dictionaries, challenges can be identified that would restrict the dictionary compilers from determining the qualities and characteristics of a dictionary. According to Prinsloo (2016:221), bilingual dictionaries are exacerbated by varying degrees of inconsistency, a lack of coherence in the presentation of the many languages, and numerous fundamental or clumsy mistakes in bilingual dictionaries. Problematic areas that require investigation are (a) poor and inconsistent lexical item coverage, (b) impoverished/skeleton dictionary articles: lack of sense distinction, lack of parity between translation equivalents, absence of examples of usage, incomplete translation equivalent paradigms, and so on, and (c) the risk of misguiding the user through inappropriate text/speech production or communicative guidance.

As such, when addressing the challenges towards determining the quality of a bilingual dictionary, it is important to also adhere to the standardised linguistic, grammatical and cultural aspects of both the source and the target languages. Therefore, bilingual dictionaries should handle lexical item presentation equally so that the prospective target users have a clearer idea of utilising the lexical item in a sentence. A multilingual dictionary should have equal language treatment, lexical display, and consistency. As a result, bilingual dictionary compilers do not overload the target users with linguistic technicalities or lexicographic words, according to Kosh (2013). For example:

There is no structured distinction between verbs and verb stems maintained. Also, the distinction would be important to a grammarian. Still, for the target users of the dictionary, it serves to know that prefixes are attached to verbs, although mentioning that they are attached to verb stems. This entails distinguishing whether a headword has been presented singular or plural.

Instead of phonetic transcriptions, the compilers have selected 'pronunciation fields' as a guide to correct pronunciation. This term is self-explanatory and thus easily understood by the learner. The pronunciation field slot is only filled in cases where mid-low vowels are involved (marked using a circumflex), which are pronounced differently from their unmarked mid-high counterparts. The megastructure of a bilingual dictionary is the backbone of the dictionary itself, as it comprises structures that build up to form one complete document.

This is also known as the frame structure of the dictionary. Any dictionary (monolingual, bilingual, etc.) comprises three structures: the front matter, the central list, and the back matter. In addition, the external structures (front and back matter) support the central list.

With that being mentioned, it is important to determine that one of the qualities of a bilingual dictionary is to ensure that the headwords presented, and their microstructural information are descriptive to the level of the target users' needs. This is supported by Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:12), who states that a bilingual dictionary's main principle is deceptively simple: give counterparts for all senses of all headwords so that each equivalent has the same meaning as the sense it has been matched with. Unfortunately, putting this theory into action is sometimes incredibly difficult, if not impossible. Three natural language qualities are responsible for this: two intralingual and one interlingual, meaning ambiguity, polysemy, and a lack of one-to-one correlation across various lexical systems (i.e., an isomorphism).

Furthermore, Prinsloo (2020:585) concurs with Adamska-Sałaciak (2013) and simplifies the activity of ensuring that the presentation of headwords and their microstructural components can be descriptive by elaborating that before embarking on the laborious process of lemmatising and treating the language or languages handled in their dictionaries. Therefore, lexicographers must ensure that the prominent aspects of the language or languages treated in their dictionaries are fully understood and comprehended by themselves (the linguistic knowledge of the language by the lexicographers). What may be a challenge in one language may be simple in another or the other member of the language pair in a bilingual dictionary. In addition to extensive knowledge of the language's grammar (s), the lexicographer should address any relevant external concerns and obstacles affecting the bilingual dictionary's creation. Various unique lexicographic efforts involving community participation in the international, African, and local contexts will subsequently be highlighted.

2.3. Megastructure presentation for Bilingual Dictionaries in A Global Context

The practice of bilingual dictionary compilation has been conducted for many years and across different parts of the world. In most cases, the compilation of bilingual dictionaries

in a global context was and still is for both communicative and pedagogical reasons. This is supported by Wang (2012:6), who opines that the field of pedagogical lexicography has been growing rapidly for many years, but its primary focus has always been on English dictionaries. This signifies that the education and teaching of dictionaries have been based on developing English without considering the native languages of the dictionary's target users.

Various countries in a global context, established and developed the art and craft of bilingual dictionary compilation for various reasons that can be perceived to be to their advantage. As mentioned in the background of the study, countries such as the People's Republic of China have been in practice for the compilation of bilingual dictionaries. Their focus was to ensure that these bilingual dictionaries were compiled for English and Chinese to communicate effectively. Hence, Chen (2012:318) states that other bilingual dictionaries are not adapted from a monolingual work but compiled by the same dictionary compiler(s) as the English-Chinese bilingual dictionaries were compiled independently by Chinese scholars. It denotes that some of the bilingual dictionary projects in China were aimed at various subjects and purposes. As a result, some of those bilingual dictionaries were compiled by what the compiler(s) would want to achieve and not for the bilingual dictionary projects to fulfil their function with all the requirements that accommodate various target users.

Furthermore, these bilingual dictionaries were and are currently utilised for pedagogical reasons, meaning that the bilingual dictionaries are used to ensure that target users who are either not conversant in Mandarin or English can acquire either or both languages through these bilingual dictionaries. It is the reason that when it comes to studying Chinese as a foreign language (CFL), the field of pedagogical lexicography is still relatively undeveloped and can hardly meet the needs of the rapidly increasing number of Chinese learners (Wang,2012:17). The development of various bilingual dictionary projects affected the main purpose of what the bilingual dictionary projects had intended to achieve. Thus, the current bilingual dictionaries lose their quality and user-friendliness due to structural and content-based reasons.

Furthermore, in the process of compilation of the bilingual dictionary megastructure, there are challenges that the compilers have encountered and were beyond their initial bilingual dictionary compilation scope. This has been highlighted by Yong & Peng (2008:87) that there were countless challenges encountered while compiling 'The Guide to the Use of the Dictionary' as it was intended to offer the target user immediate access to the needed section or item in the megastructure of the bilingual dictionary. However, there may be exceedingly difficult circumstances where guides in the Chinese-English bilingual dictionaries are much above their scope and capacity. Chinese, unlike English, does not use the alphabet as the foundation of its writing system. Chinese letters are constructed from radicals and strokes. As a result, they were grouped based on radicals in early bilingual dictionaries, implying that any target user wishing to reference Chinese-English bilingual dictionaries must have a solid understanding of how Chinese characters are generated.

The production and demand for dictionaries positively affected their ability to present the megastructure of the bilingual dictionary and its components to ensure that teaching and learning are practised effectively. Additionally, Wang (2012:19) states that bilingual dictionaries are more necessary for Chinese learners abroad, whose numbers are increasing rapidly. This is compared to the insufficient work on bilingual learners' dictionaries in China. However, the demand for the production of English-Chinese bilingual dictionaries affects the quality and the presentation of the megastructure features in the bilingual dictionary. This is reinforced by Yong & Peng (2008:89) who mention that that it is strange that numerous English-Chinese and Chinese-English bilingual dictionaries have been published without anyone attempting to integrate them into a coherent, integrated whole. At the same time, contemporary lexicographers in the West continue to work on producing modern and up-to-date editions of bidirectional bilingual dictionaries.

Furthermore, Wang (2012:15) further explains that one example is that in Chinese, the lack of a comprehensive morphological process, i.e., verbal inflexions in English tenses, some meaning, and information conveyed by inflexions in English are expressed by additional or functional words. Considering that bilingual dictionaries that are in printed form are expected to pay attention to avoid repetition and make space for other lexical items. This

means that one of the challenges that became prevalent for the English-Chinese bilingual dictionary is a comprehensive megastructure that accommodates the presentation of grammatical information of headwords, which would later affect the presentation of the mediostructure. A prevalent cause for such a challenge is the differences in orthography between English and Chinese. Another factor lexicographers need to consider when compiling an English-Chinese bilingual dictionary is the fact that there are many special characteristics of the Chinese language and culture. Such special characteristics of Chinese can be seen by comparing it with English (Wang,2012:15).

Challenges to the presentation of the mediostructure were not only prevalent in English-Chinese bilingual dictionaries, but it has also emerged in other societies in the global context. For instance, Dubey & Varma (2013:164) point out that the content of Hindi documents is less than that of English documents. As a result, several sections in Hindi translations need to be included or clubbed up to represent multiple sections of English words. Some domain-specific documents contain extra information in Hindi documents as well. That means some bilingual dictionaries fail to consist of a mediostructure as some of the headwords in the source language (Hindi) could consist of more than one translation in the target language (English), which could lead to lexical inequality (in terms of lexical treatment of the headword in the target language within the Y-X section) within the bilingual dictionaries.

When a megastructural feature of a bilingual dictionary is not comprehensive, it affects the presentation of the mediostructure. Returning to the English-Chinese bilingual dictionary, the issues are similar as implied in the Hindi-English bilingual dictionary. Wang (2012:5) also validates the same issue with the Chinese-English bilingual dictionaries, that most Chinese and English terms are only partially identical. This partial equivalency frequently needs to be clarified for the target user, leading to various errors. Bridging the gap between the two languages is a significant difficulty for lexicographers working on a Chinese learner's dictionary. The issue of an unequal distribution of headwords and distribution due to the lack of correlation between the two languages affects the product's structure.

A major factor that leads to a lack of mediostructure and a bilingual dictionary that requires a comprehensive megastructure in the English-Chinese dictionaries is the non-description of its target users. This makes the bilingual dictionary either irrelevant or relevant to the target user anonymously. Xue & Tarp (2018:389) mention that apart from the occasional incorrect translation in the *My Chinese Picture Dictionary*, the bilingual dimension, which includes English counterparts for the provided Chinese terms, lowers the barrier to using the bilingual dictionary, at least for the target users who are native English speakers or have a certain degree of ability in this language. The added English and Chinese indexes address the critical issue of access to the vocabulary covered in the drawings. Therefore, the need for a clear description of *My Chinese Picture Dictionary's* target users and functions causes various issues, reducing its usefulness in practical use. As a result, we will quickly examine some of these issues because of their importance to the goal of a Chinese learner's lexicon for foreigners living in China.

If a bilingual dictionary is deemed user-friendly, it would only be when it has a comprehensive megastructure with a well-presented mediostructure. That would ensure that the needs of the target users are satisfactorily met. With that being mentioned, Halpern (2016) postulates that even though Chinese is the most frequently spoken language in the world, the student is at a disadvantage when compared to those of other major global languages due to a lack of pedagogically effective dictionaries. Traditional Chinese dictionaries, generally rooted in classical Chinese, have several flaws and must fully suit Chinese's demands as foreign language learners. Therefore, the English-Chinese dictionaries can be deemed not user-friendly due to the inadequacies in presenting some of the megastructural features that would contribute to a limited or an absence of the mediostructure.

A lack of comprehensive megastructural features exists in Chinese-English bilingual dictionaries. Still, it also exist in other global bilingual dictionaries, and they contribute negatively towards the presentation and the applications of both the megastructure and mediostructure. Furthermore, Karpinska (2020:21) asserts that the information provided on the megastructural level of the bilingual dictionary needs to be more relevant for determining the type(s) of English-Latvian Bilingual Dictionaries (ELDs) than the

information provided on the microstructural level. However, the megastructural analysis provides useful clues for determining whether these dictionaries are active or passive. Even though the preface in certain dictionaries is in both Latvian and English, and the titles of some outer matter components are bilingual on occasion, the contents of the metafunctional components (preface and user's guide) focus primarily on the description of the English language. The components that provide encyclopaedic and linguistic knowledge are likewise aimed toward describing English. Nonetheless, there are some exceptions when an attempt has been made to suggest a potential bifunctionality of the bilingual dictionary on the megastructural level (*the ELD edition by Belzja et al. (1957) published in Waverly, USA in 1971, and the bidirectional ELD by Birzvalka and Sosre (1989) published in New York, USA in 1993 and 2000*).

When compiling a bilingual dictionary, the compilers must seek linguistic and contextual coordination between the translation equivalents or the lexicon and vice-versa. Furthermore, Jackson (2013) mentions that the headword lists for both languages will need to be established in a bidirectional bilingual dictionary. This is usually done when creating headword lists and applying reversibility to existing bilingual dictionaries. It is done to establish a headword list of the initial target language and requires computational input to derive a lemmatised list. This means that in a bilingual dictionary, the presentation of headwords and translation equivalents must be presented independently. The independence is that the bilingual dictionary must ensure that the mediostructure is intertextual (No language must appear to be of higher status than the other) and considering the issue of space as the bilingual dictionary will be presented in a printed form. In addition, the bilingual dictionary must serve the target users from both languages rather than one since it is a bilingual dictionary.

The presentation of the megastructure promotes the user-friendliness of the bilingual dictionary. It is important to indicate that bilingual dictionaries with a comprehensive megastructure and mediostructure are considered user-friendly by their prospective target users. Moreover, Jackson (2013) advocates for what can be done to ensure that the bilingual dictionaries' macrostructure and microstructures (including the mediostructure) serve one function and rely on each other to ensure the target user that the bilingual

dictionary itself is user-friendly. Therefore, as a start, Chen (2012:319) alludes to illustrative examples (*contextual guidance, which will be discussed later in the chapter*), typically offered to demonstrate that headwords represent the real world and society's worldview. As a result, the bilingual dictionary should not be considered a transparent instrument and an end-product with nothing to do with context and power, as traditional dictionary critique does. Rather, it is a discourse with ideology at the heart of its portrayal of words, senses, and reality.

Having headwords presented by the societal worldview can be challenging in most cases. Kim, Kwon, & Seo (2015) argue that getting such corpora into the public domain is challenging for some language pairs like Korean and Bengali. What is worse, it is difficult to build such corpora because it is very expensive and tedious to build new language pairs parallel and comparable corpora needed for extracting the bilingual lexica. With what Kim et al. (2015) mentioned, Chen (2012:316) argues that the concept of contextualisation is especially relevant to the investigation of the development of a (bilingual) lexicographic discourse because it allows analysis across the spatial and temporal contexts in which a (bilingual) dictionary emerges, as well as in a way that emphasises the intertextuality of each lexicographic discourse.

However, Kim et al. (2015) gives a rebuttal to what Chen (2012) proposes with an encounter that in a Korean-English bilingual dictionary, a Korean word is separated by a space, so compound words, especially compound nouns, should contain one or more spaces between words. In many cases, compound words in Korean real text may be used without space. Furthermore, Kasemu, Yusupova, Denmukhametova, & Mugtasimova (2018:156) concur with Kim et al. (2015) and reveals that the proportion of linguistic and extra-linguistic material in bilingual dictionaries is an important problem in modern lexicography. On the one hand, Turkic bilingual dictionaries are viewed as a cultural storehouse, while on the other, as bridges between different cultures. Incorporating a cultural component into the phrasing of a dictionary entry relates to the anthropocentric approach of current lexicography. It means that the complexities around the morphological appearances of the headwords make the presentation of the microstructure and the

mediostructure challenging, as some morphemes of the headwords are likely to be distorted.

Karpinska (2020:5) mentions that English-Latvian lexicography is governed by a solid and well-established tradition that determines dictionaries' macro-/microstructure. However, this is also the cause of a certain stagnation, which results in an inability or unwillingness to adopt the most recent innovations in lexicographic practice. Despite abundant lexicographic information, bilingual dictionaries are frequently created using outmoded methodologies and lexicographic evidence. The megastructural components that provide encyclopaedic information are mostly reduced to three categories of vocabulary items - abbreviations, geographical names, and personal names - that feature in at least half of the dictionaries, except the smallest ones. This selection of encyclopaedic components attached at the back matter follows the preceding period's trend of unification. It should be mentioned that another type of encyclopaedic component unification may be seen during the period. Nationalities and languages, numbers, nations, territories, and EU terminology, for example, are only present (albeit not systematically) in "*Avots*" dictionaries.

Furthermore, Karpinska (2020:6) mentions that the distinction between these metafunctional components in the ELDs is evident in every other situation. Some significant tendencies may be seen in the composition of these components. With a few exceptions, the preface typically contains information on the bilingual dictionary's purpose, the word stock included (in most cases, information on the scope of vocabulary layers and types of lexical items included is also provided), lexicographic sources, the number of headwords, and the target user, group. The target user's guide currently appears in bilingual dictionaries with a few exceptions. It contains information on the macro- and microstructure of the bilingual dictionary, typographical and nontypographical structural indicators used, and textual condensation methods. The pronunciation key and label list are different components of the target user's guide.

It is also important for a bilingual dictionary to feature contemporary headwords and translation equivalents towards ensuring that the current early beginners (target users) learning the languages can ensure communication between them and that the native

speakers can understand each other. Golynskaia (2022:87) states that there is a recently published *Beginners' Dictionary of Turkish for Foreigners (A1)* by Engin Yılmaz. The bilingual dictionary examination reveals that it was prepared without considering the target users and the basic principles of learner lexicography. According to the preface, the dictionary database comprises the words that appear in the textbooks published by Turkish learning centres of Yunus Emre Institute, Gazi University, and Istanbul University. One of the main flaws of the dictionary is the complexity of the definitions, which mostly results from the use of verbal adjectives and adverbs as well as voice affixes. However, this information is useless to the learners as target users and does nothing but distract their attention. At last, the dictionary's author has tried to make it bilingual by including the English translation of the headwords. However, Kasemu et al. (2018:158) argue that the Turkic dictionaries provide material for becoming familiar with the Tatar people's history, traditions, and folklore, as well as information on the language's phonetical and grammatical systems. Their general tradition is passed down from generation to generation, and modern lexicographers should consider such idiosyncrasies in their new works.

2.4. Megastructure presentation for Bilingual Dictionaries in An African Context

The presentation and the analysis of the megastructure in bilingual dictionaries have not only existed in the global context, but it is also prevalent in Africa. It is then important to voice out the challenges, development, and importance of the megastructure presentation in bilingual dictionaries within the African context. Therefore, it can be noted that the production of bilingual dictionaries for African languages relied on the bilingual dictionary megastructures developed by the European and Asian countries. Hence, Prinsloo (2020:586) asserts that dictionaries for African languages require higher lexicographic quality. The major argument provided was that existing bilingual dictionaries were Eurocentric. Foreign missionaries largely developed them to help them achieve their aims, namely, to help missionaries learn African languages to proclaim the gospel (introduction of Christianity). As a result, such bilingual dictionaries were never meant to fulfil the requirements of Africans, because they never possessed the culture that is imbedded in the African language. The necessity for bilingual dictionaries created in Africa by Africans, particularly for speakers of African languages as target users, has grown in the last decade,

giving rise to the term "Afro-centric approach" to dictionary production. Many bilingual dictionaries make the mistake of portraying European/western culture rather than African reality.

Due to the production of bilingual dictionaries in Africa, some of those bilingual dictionaries contributed towards the standardisation of some of the African languages because they served as resources that are responsible for restoring the languages. Moreover, Chabata (2013:54) supports Prinsloo (2020) that the publication of bilingual dictionaries in many African languages and a few general monolingual dictionaries in a few of these languages has assisted in standardising several indigenous African languages. However, despite the publication of bilingual and general-purpose monolingual dictionaries, indigenous African languages need more capacity to be useful as intellectual languages.

Consequently, the production and compilation of African bilingual dictionaries can be perceived as replicating the dictionaries produced by European countries. This came about when the missionaries intended to either control the lengths to which Africans could be educated for indoctrination purposes or to shape the structure of the African languages. This is supported by Prinsloo (2016:217), that lexicography in Africa does not develop in isolation; it is influenced by the same trends and changes occurring in international lexicography, and dictionary target user's needs are no different from target users' needs in the rest of the world. However, African lexicography faces additional challenges to bilingual dictionary compilation compared to major languages worldwide, such as English, German, French, Chinese, etcetera.

The primary function for the earliest introduction and publication of bilingual dictionaries in Africa was for communicative purposes and to enforce Christianity in different communities. Adetoyese (2020:29) mentions that the most widely used Yoruba dictionary (in Nigeria) is '*A Dictionary of the Yoruba Language*', which has been reprinted by various publishers. Despite being developed from a Christian viewpoint, this dictionary contains numerous adjectives, verbs, and nouns related to the traditional Yoruba way of life and culture. There is no part on grammar, tones, or tenses, only one page on pronouncing vowels and specific characters. A Yoruba language dictionary is a bilingual learner's dictionary containing

several data forms specially selected for the learners. Therefore, many West African languages have limited lexicographic features and even fewer written resources. This is notably true for the Atlantic Group of Niger-Congo languages (Childs,2011).

The earliest bilingual dictionaries in Africa lacked a comprehensive and user-friendly megastructure, it can be considered that the bilingual dictionaries have failed towards meeting the needs of their target users. Adetoyese (2020:10) asserts that the lexicographer's mastery of the Yoruba language and culture is evident in the bilingual Yoruba-English Dictionary. For starters, intonation could be more consistent; a four-syllable phrase gets an intonation mark on just two syllables. Second, in some instances, there is no intonation at all. This may need to be corrected for dictionary target users. The absence of use examples also makes determining a contextual pronunciation challenging. The bilingual dictionary lacks fundamental illustrated instances of usage, which are the most crucial component of a learner's vocabulary. A learner as a target user may comprehend the meaning of a term through paraphrasing, but they may require assistance in utilising the bilingual dictionary effectively and responsibly. Through context-based examples, target users better understand lemma syntactic features like transitivity, word order, countability, and gradeability. None of the dictionary entries offers satisfactory definitions or idioms, word grammar information such as irregular verbs or plurals, dependent prepositions, comparatives and superlatives of adjectives, collocations, synonyms, and opposites, where applicable.

Furthermore, Mphasha (2013:138) asserts that during the colonial period, bilingual dictionaries were compiled by missionaries who lacked linguistic proficiency in African languages. The bilingual dictionary under consideration was created to assist Christian missionaries in Yoruba-speaking areas of West Africa. It aimed to break the language barrier between English-speaking missionaries and their Yoruba-speaking audiences in their missionary area. It then proves that the bilingual dictionaries compiled for the Yoruba-speaking people, like other bilingual dictionaries in Asian countries, had some challenges towards ensuring they were user-friendly.

Similarly, to the bilingual dictionaries produced globally, the prevalent challenge was grammatical issues within African bilingual dictionaries. Furthermore, Adetoyese (2020:31), asserts that the target users frequently resort to the bilingual dictionary to acquire the correct pronunciation of a word; consequently, learning the alphabet alone is insufficient for languages such as Yoruba; assistance with pronunciation should be provided. The bilingual dictionary provides brief pronunciation instruction in the general introduction; it merely provides a note on generating specific sounds. For example, there is no guidance on how to generate *p* and *gb*. The dictionary's introduction section merely asserts that the sounds "do not exist in the English language but can only be learned by ear." The bilingual dictionary does not include phonetic transcription that would assist its target users with pronunciation skills.

The issue with ensuring that the quality of the bilingual dictionary is maintained, is that the type of headwords must be selected in the SL as to how they are used in the TL. Doing so avoids the issue of lemmatisation or presentation of borrowed headwords or translation equivalents. Nkomo (2016) mentions that most children's school dictionaries of English available in African countries may have been designed according to principles that recognise the uniqueness of the needs of children in a general way. These bilingual dictionaries, unfortunately, remain alien and less user-friendly to learners of English as an additional language. They impart knowledge about the language without the socio-cultural aspects that it developed across space and time in the process of becoming an important language in the lives of Africans.

Apart from the Yoruba bilingual dictionaries that were influenced by the missionaries, other languages in Africa started producing bilingual dictionaries. However, these bilingual dictionaries had rather different sets of megastructure problems that made them not to be user-friendly. When considering the context of the Chichewa-English bilingual dictionary, Galafa, Mulongo, & Nthara (2019:76) postulate that the bilingual dictionary's significance rests in its use as reference material for language learners, its semantic precision and the relevance with which translation and other disciplines treat it. Regardless of its wide coverage of the Chichewa and English lexicons, the bilingual dictionary has several flaws which are misleading and confusing for dictionary target users. Such errors include

ambiguity over dictionary type, the inclusion of proper nouns as lexical entries, lack of detailed grammatical information, and silence on morphological typology, among others. On a positive note, this means an effort has been made to produce bilingual dictionaries in Africa for African languages, with major improvement required. However, bilingual dictionaries are not of the same standards as different European or Western bilingual or monolingual dictionaries. Chabata (2013:54) mentions that the lack of established orthographies is the principal impediment for many less commonly spoken languages, and the lack of suitable terminology in highly specialised knowledge areas remains a key impediment in languages already standardised.

Furthermore, Nkomo (2019) asserts that the problem of insufficient treatment of included lemmata is one notable weakness of African language lexicographical/terminographical resources that prevails more when compilers distance themselves, their practice, and products from lexicography as a discipline. As a result, African language lexicographers compile bilingual dictionaries based on what the English monolingual dictionaries and other Western bilingual dictionaries could have produced. It indicates a lack of independence for African lexicographers to compile bilingual dictionaries that were not influenced by other nationalities produced before the colonial period. An example of such inadequacy is emphasised by Shikesho (2019:2-3), who mentions that the production of the Oshindonga-English bilingual Dictionary has grave shortcomings which need to be addressed to strike an acceptable balance regarding its target users. The bilingual dictionary possesses macro-/microstructural deficiencies concerning the arrangement of lemmata, 3-word formation, semantic information, visual aids, phonetic information, and grammatical information.

The bilingual dictionary must maintain the culture of both languages, this would assist the target user in comprehending how specific translation equivalents is supposed to be said or used in the target language. Shikesho (2019:2) further asserts that the presentation of cultural items in the Oshindonga / English Dictionary are not accompanied by a cultural note, e.g., *oshigegeti* (magic potion). This should also be done in cases where there is no ready equivalent in the target language. Additionally, no grammatical texts in the English-Kwanyama Bilingual Dictionary (EKD) were presented to provide Oshikwanyama

grammatical or English grammatical information in the microstructure of the bilingual dictionary. Moreover, Shikesho (2019:115) mentions that if the target user is not a mother-tongue speaker of Oshikwanyama, then an outer text with more grammatical data on Oshikwanyama is required to be presented in the bilingual dictionary. It means that it is a necessity for the bilingual dictionary to have other megastructural features, such as the back matter, to provide more grammatical information about the headword in either of the two languages involved in the bilingual dictionary.

Shikesho (2019:162) furthermore alludes to the fact that there is a need for the target user to be clarified on the information presented in the front matter of the EKD. Another area for improvement in EKD is the outdated orthography. It is vital to recognise that the bilingual dictionary is quite old, and it is less suited for current target users, particularly native English speakers who are the intended target users of this bilingual dictionary. It is because they will acquire spelling that is no longer in use, resulting in a dysfunctional impact. As a result, the bilingual dictionary's usefulness is weakened, particularly for English speakers learning to write in Oshikwanyama. This situation highlights the critical need for contemporary Oshikwanyama-English bilingual dictionaries.

When considering Shona-English bilingual dictionaries, they have appeared to encounter their individual megastructure issues. Chabata & Nkomo (2010:83) elaborate that the front matter texts in *Duramazwi reChiShona* sometimes complement the main text. The imprint, which provides biographical information helpful for library cataloguing and indexing, needs to complement the main text. Other texts are provided for purposes other than bilingual dictionary duties, such as an exhaustive list of editors and participants, acknowledgements, the editorial request for user comments, the African Language Research Institute (ALRI), the publisher's addresses, and the prologue. The editorial request page includes contact information so bilingual dictionary target users may express their questions and comments to the editorial team to make future versions and dictionaries more user-friendly.

Sithole & Nkomo (2017:481) mention that print dictionaries, online dictionaries, computer dictionaries, and smartphone dictionaries are crucial for the resuscitation, expansion, and intellectualisation of a disadvantaged language such as Ndaou. Earlier lexicographic studies

might guide improved documentation and standardisation in an uncodified and unstandardised language since their data can be reutilised for many other language-related tasks, such as literacy, grammar, literature, and linguistic description. The proper and educated use of dictionaries aids in the mediation of dialogue between diverse parties in public spaces. In this approach, dictionaries may genuinely support acquiring and distributing information and knowledge, thereby meeting users' present and future demands. From this standpoint, it is envisaged that lexicography can help to change Ndaus status into a functional language that performs utilitarian and cognitive roles in education, media, technology, administration, legislative, and the court. Sithole & Nkomo (2017:488) continue to indicate that vocabulary acquired from African languages such as Shona and Zulu revealed the present and historical interaction scenario with Ndaus. The Ndaus vocabulary is in the same category, suggesting that Ndaus-English section headwords are translated into English and vice versa. Aside from translations, the bilingual dictionary needs meaningful meanings, contextual information, and synonyms for entries. In keeping with the bilingual dictionary's objective, the compilers were able to produce generally appropriate equivalences between the two languages. The Ndaus vocabulary includes translation equivalents (considered as definitions in this article) that mostly comply with the defining characteristics of cultural acceptability, accessibility, and user-friendliness.

Not all bilingual dictionaries provide translation equivalents for communicative purposes in Africa, some of them have provided a step ladder for the language to be standardised and made official for communicative and educational purposes. Sithole & Nkomo (2017:488) elaborate that the lexicographers of the Ndaus bilingual dictionary employed this approach to capture important phonological elements of Ndaus, such as aspiration, laterality, and phonotactics. It may be stated that the Ndaus vocabulary established a scientific framework for orthography development, which, if enhanced, will substantially benefit the intellectualisation of the language in functional areas. Its correct symbols for aspiration, laterality, and phonotactics, among other things, may be included in fresh revisions of Ndaus orthography to match Ndaus sounds to chosen symbols properly. The usage of loanwords in the Ndaus vocabulary reflects the sociolinguistic and diglossic contexts in which Ndaus occurs. For example, words derived from ex-colonial languages indicate linguistic power

dynamics in Ndaou, a subordinate language to English, Portuguese, and Dutch, and its people frequently borrow from them for prestige purposes.

As years went by, the production of some of the bilingual dictionaries in Africa has improved in identifying its core prospective target users, which may contribute to multilingualism in other disciplines. Chabata & Nkomo (2010: 84-85), *Isichazamazwi SesiNdebele* (IsiNdebele dictionary) provides information that expands the target users' awareness of numerous occurrences. While the main content of the dictionary is primarily concerned with various elements of language, it has gone a step further by including cultural facts that secondary school students, who are the major target users, may find beneficial in their study of Ndebele and other subjects. These writings demonstrate integrated functionalities adhering to exterior texts that may or may not fulfil the same purposes as those found in the primary text. A similar scenario can be seen in *Duramazwi Guru reChiShona*, which has the following back matter texts in addition to the same sort of passages:

— *Zvirungamutauro* (Shona proverbs, idioms, and pithy sayings)

— *Madzishe semiauto nezvidao zvavo kumatunhu anotaurwa ChiShona* (Names, totems, and sub-totems of Shona traditional chiefs)

— *Mazwi anoshandiswa kutsanangura zvemaumbirwo emutauro nezvevaranomwe* (Linguistic and literary terms)

Hadebe (2010:266) claims that, unlike anywhere else, dictionary-making in Zimbabwe follows the people's language development requirements. For example, early bilingual dictionaries, largely created by missionaries, were multilingual, translating English into Ndebele/Shona and vice versa. These bilingual dictionaries were primarily aimed at Ndebele and Shona speakers learning English and Europeans interested in learning these African languages. The bilingual dictionaries that have been compiled might be related to historical times. Both compilers and society, in general, assumed that probable target users and their reference requirements and skills were well understood. Contemporarily, Nkomo (2015) states that using bilingual dictionaries, especially by target users who want to learn English vocabulary and meaning, clearly indicates a gap in the country's lexicographical inventory. While bilingual dictionaries may facilitate additional language acquisition, in the case of Zimbabwe, new bilingual dictionaries are needed that also prioritise the speakers

of indigenous languages as deserving learners of English. Such dictionaries must consider recent metalexicographical developments in bilingual and learners' lexicography.

There are varied interventions that African bilingual dictionary compilers can implement to ensure that the megastructure of the bilingual dictionary is well presented. It is important to ensure that the already publicised bilingual dictionaries can be used to compile new ones that address the issues presented in the previously published bilingual dictionaries. Prinsloo (2020:586) advocates this, stating that prospective compilers face a predicament in which dictionaries are needed for thousands of African languages spoken on the continent. Many of these languages need more basic bilingual dictionaries as a source of reference. As a result, the initial issue is creating a monolingual and bilingual dictionary for the language. In Africa, bilingual dictionaries often bridge the African language with major global languages such as English and French. Lexicographers might revise existing dictionaries when accessible or start from scratch with a new collection.

2.5. Megastructure presentation In Bilingual Dictionaries in South African Context

The presentation of megastructures in bilingual dictionaries in South Africa can be considered unique as post-1994 a series of bilingual dictionaries came into emergence as they were previously not applicable for educational purposes due to apartheid legislations. The publication of megastructures in bilingual dictionaries is no longer a one-person show as it once was. Some African bilingual dictionaries are compiled by African lexicographers (Mphasha,2013:184). These bilingual dictionary compilers are conversant with the language in speech and writing and its historical, social, regional, and stylistic variations. Therefore, they are considered as individuals who are originally based in the different linguistic communities in South Africa. Furthermore, they know the exact needs of the target users as they are actively involved in the process of compiling bilingual dictionaries. In South Africa, the development of bilingual dictionaries for South African languages has expanded positively as the industry has grown over the past few years. The Department of Arts, Culture, Science, and Technology drafted the National Lexicography Units Bill in 1995. (DACST). This bill was designed to enable the establishment and administration of National Lexicography Units (NLU) to provide equal provisions for each of South Africa's

official languages. These NLUs may help to preserve South Africa's linguistic diversity in all its forms (Mongwe, 2006:35).

One of the major tasks that the production of bilingual dictionaries in South Africa must possess, is to assist speakers of various languages to learn to speak each other's language to promote multilingualism. Bilingual dictionaries may be described as dictionaries in which lexical items of the native language are given translation equivalents in a foreign language (Mashamaite, 2001:113). There are different processes of ensuring that bilingual dictionary compilers can follow to ensure that they produce user-friendly bilingual dictionaries to develop the state of African languages. Therefore, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:10) suggest that the following process might be proposed for the various lexicographic processes in the contemporary South African setting:

The primary comprehensive lexicographic process (with PanSALB, commercial publishers, and DAC as role players): In this process, the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) oversees the mandate (from the Department of Arts and Culture) that the National Lexicographic Units (NLUs) for each of the 11 official languages are established. While establishing these NLUs', PanSALB ensured that the lexicographers received the required and relevant training. In addition, Mashamaite (2001:120) mentions that the primary purpose of bilingual dictionaries is to assist the speakers of the various languages spoken in South Africa to learn each other's languages to promote multilingualism. One of the reasons mentioned for the lack of such bilingual dictionaries is the shortage of trained African lexicographers. Fortunately, the Pan South African Language Board, in collaboration with the African Association for Lexicography (AfriLEX), has pledged to address this backlog by providing the necessary training.

Secondary comprehensive lexicographic process (with the NLUs, commercial publishing houses, and other lexicographic institutes as role players): In this process, the NLUs start to identify dictionary projects and plan how to coordinate the project. The design-specific timeframes and work plans measure the time the project intends to take and which language areas to focus on. However, when they plan the dictionary project, they intend to ensure user-friendliness by observing the linguistic needs of the target user.

Specific lexicographic process (for each secondary comprehensive lexicographic process): This refers to the flexibility in independent lexicographers working with the NLUs to compile specialised dictionaries or dictionaries based on Language for Special Purposes (i.e., medical dictionaries.)

Similarly, with the African context both bilingual dictionary compilers and publishing houses must consider compiling bilingual dictionaries that are not just catering for the language needs of the target user, but also their culture as well, considering that South Africa is a multicultural country. Nkomo (2015:75) alludes that incorporating bilingual dictionary pedagogy in school dictionaries is especially beneficial for target users in areas with a patchy dictionary culture. School dictionaries have become an important part of the recent increase in South African lexicography. A publishing house such as Oxford University Press Southern Africa, for example, has published bilingual school dictionaries that pair English with four of the other ten official languages to support the learning of English and those languages as additional languages, as well as English monolingual school dictionaries (both general language and specialised dictionaries). Other publishers, such as Cambridge University Press, Pharos, and Maskew Miller Longman, have also been involved. Unfortunately, the significant increase in bilingual dictionary manufacturing has not been matched by the development of a dictionary culture, which remains low, especially in African language communities.

According to Gouws & Prinsloo (2006), the terminographical procedure for building the English-isiZulu bilingual dictionary began with collecting a corpus of carefully selected isiZulu vocabulary for language learning and basic communication. These fundamental concepts were listed in English as the source language and then translated into isiZulu as the target language for a monolingual English-isiZulu dictionary. Every translated item was carefully reviewed to verify that the best lemma was chosen to represent the English phrase and vice versa.

To emphasise the need for bilingual dictionaries that would support the teaching and learning process amongst the target users, it is important to understand that bilingual dictionaries vary according to the needs of their target users. That is why Chabata & Nkomo

(2010:79) hypothesise that although there have been various bilingual dictionaries that a couple of African countries with major languages such as English and French have produced for many years, new bilingual dictionaries are being developed. Furthermore, due to the sheer restrictions of previous models, their production will continue. The necessity to encourage multilingualism in nations such as South Africa, for example, necessitates the creation of bi- and multilingual dictionaries to assist learners of both/all languages covered by a given dictionary. Furthermore, Ntuli & Mollema (2015:2) also suggest that at preschool, all learners should begin using dictionaries produced in indigenous languages (whether a monolingual isiZulu dictionary or an English-isiZulu bilingual dictionary). It is a practice that should be continued in both lower and upper primary schools. English-isiZulu bilingual dictionaries for young learners can play an important role in meeting the educational requirements of children, second-language learners, and anybody who wishes to study a language other than their native tongue in a multicultural country like South Africa.

According to Ntuli & Mollema (2015:3) bilingual dictionaries in English-isiZulu have been published over the years, but the focus has always been on target users that are adults. Two notable bilingual dictionaries in this field include the Zulu-English Dictionary (1953), produced by C.M Doke, and B.W Vilakazi and *Isichazimazwi Sanamuhla Nangomuso* (Today and Tomorrow's Dictionary) by C.L.S. Nyembezi (1992). In both bilingual dictionaries, the type or font size is small, the format is highly thick, and the bilingual dictionaries are difficult to reference or use, mostly because the lemmas in the dictionaries consist of only the stem of a word. Although isiZulu is written in a conjunctive writing style in which relatively small linguistic words are linked to generate large orthographic words with complicated morphological structures, identifying the word's stem in a bilingual dictionary can be challenging for second language and young learners. Furthermore, the recently published Oxford School Dictionary/*Isichamazwi Sesikole; IsiZulu-IsiNgisi/English-IsiZulu* (2015) is an upgrade over previous editions because it is the sole text that school learners can use. The compilers of this isiZulu-English bilingual dictionary perceive it as a new resource for school learners who speak isiZulu, the nation's most prevalent African language and most generally spoken home language. However, because the bilingual dictionary's primary target users are Grades 4-9 learners, it must be available to younger children and new language learners.

In the case of isiXhosa-English bilingual dictionaries, Nkomo & Wababa (2013:350) state that the number and size of some of the accessible dictionaries in isiXhosa convey a positive picture of the language. On the other hand, a closer and more critical examination of the bilingual dictionaries themselves implies a difference between dictionaries for the language and dictionaries for language users and learners. This means that the bilingual dictionaries are compiled and produced with the primary intention of developing IsiXhosa as an official language in South Africa. By doing so, the bilingual dictionaries can provide the target users with an in-depth structure of the dictionary in IsiXhosa, especially for the target users intending to learn isiXhosa or native IsiXhosa speakers.

Furthermore, Nkomo (2015) alludes to the fact that although the Oxford isiXhosa-Singisi (English) Dictionary's table of contents gives an overview of the text categories from which the target user might receive linguistically and educationally relevant information, the manuscripts named *limpawu zesichazi-magama* (Dictionary features) provide more information and a more complex explication. Many bilingual dictionaries increasingly incorporate 'dictionary features' texts to emphasise not just dictionary contents but also the structural properties of dictionary articles, especially at the macrostructure, microstructure, and mediostructure levels. In this sense, the 'dictionary features' texts serve as alternative narrative aids to dictionary use, which some dictionaries favour. Instead of instructing the target user on how to use the bilingual dictionary, dictionaries' megastructure features demonstrate to the target user how to use the bilingual dictionary.

In the case of the production of Tshivenda–English bilingual dictionaries, there has been a critique towards the presentation of the megastructure components of the bilingual dictionaries and that these components negatively affect the mediostructure presentation. This is confirmed by Madiba & Nkomo (2010:309) mention that the Tshivenda–English *Thalusamaipfi*/Dictionary (TETD) was created at a period when Venda had numerous dictionaries; its vocabulary coverage may have been far too low for home language learners, who are expected to be the bilingual dictionary's major target users. The TETD would benefit from including modern terminology, but this would imply that some words from previous dictionaries would be eliminated.

However, bilingual dictionaries are expected to consist of microstructure aspects that are conversant to the target users and easy for them to use and communicate. Hence, Mafela (2004:503) argues that the target users need help using the Tshivenda bilingual dictionaries because they are met with translation equivalents that they cannot differentiate. In most situations, the input words' counterparts are supplied without meaning distinction. As a result, bilingual dictionary target users are presented with many alternatives that represent distinct meanings. They find it challenging to make the right selection of the translation equivalent for which they are seeking without a good command of Tshivenda and the availability of meaning differentiation.

Tshivenda–English bilingual dictionaries are ineffective for bilingual dictionary target users who are not native speakers. However, Madiba & Nkomo (2010:317) allude to the fact that some of these headwords may be culturally relevant to most intended target users. Furthermore, some headwords may be culturally relevant to most intended target users. This leads us back to the issue of dictionary size and the fact that the dictionary should have prioritised its target users, either home language learners or extra language learners because it cannot equally meet the demands of these very diverse users. A dictionary for all is a dictionary for none, or worse, a dictionary at all if the dictionary's functional usefulness is not prioritised. It is for the same reason that Mafela (2004:502) maintains his argument as he alludes to the fact that Tshivenda–English bilingual dictionaries are ineffective. The treatment of meaning discrimination in Tshivenda bilingual dictionaries is inadequate, and target users must know the microstructural aspects attached to the headword to interpret sentences. It is, therefore, critical to provide more information about the analogues in the target language.

A comparable critique on the bilingual dictionary structure provided for the Tshivenda–English emerges to be invariable in the case of Sesotho-English bilingual dictionaries. However, with Sesotho-English bilingual dictionaries, the critique is mainly based on the presentation of the complete micro-/macrostructure. Motjope-Mokhali (2016:180) alludes to the fact that the contents of the *Sesuto-English bilingual Dictionary* and *Sethantso sa Sesotho* are identical, and both bilingual dictionaries lack contemporary terminology that target users encounter in everyday conversation. Furthermore, in the megastructure of the

Sethantso sa Sesotho only fixed a few spelling errors detected in the Sesuto-English bilingual Dictionary, leaving many others untreated, such as those with foreign sounds and sound patterns. Different sorts of information, such as alternate spellings, uncommon forms, derivation, illustrative phrases/sentences, and lexicographic labels, were useful to users in both bilingual dictionaries. These bilingual dictionaries do not fully satisfy the demands of modern target users since they only serve target users to a limited level and do not assist them with contemporary grammar. This means that while the *Sesuto-English Dictionary* is still widely used, changes in the language have rendered it obsolete for modern use. It contains many obsolete terms, some of which have fallen out of usage. Similarly, the *Sethantso sa Sesotho* is outdated since it omits words and concepts in common use. However, there seems to be a contradiction as Motjope-Mokhali, Kosch, & Mafela (2020:8) contest with Motjope-Mokhali (2016) that the bilingual dictionary design technique of the *Sethantso sa Sesotho* presented information in its megastructure that can be perceived to be advantageous to the modern target users in terms of indicating noun classes, plural morphemes, and word division.

However, Motjope-Mokhali (2010:180-181) reiterates that the *Sethantšo sa Sesotho*, like other Sesotho bilingual dictionaries, seems to contain words which were used in the past and that it lacks important words which are relevant for the current users. Therefore, it usually does not assist the target users solve their problems, so they consult it only occasionally. Furthermore, Motjope-Mokhali (2016:180) concludes that the target users felt that the *Sethantšo sa Sesotho* requires improvement so that new words and terms from various fields that have entered the language could be included. They also mentioned that words written in foreign sound patterning should be written using Sesotho orthography, particularly because the Sesotho Academy has not yet amended the rules to allow loan words to be taken over as they are. This implies that the *Sethantšo sa Sesotho* is no different from its predecessors.

Setaka & Prinsloo (2020:446) claim that there are numerous studies have been conducted for Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries on problematic macrostructural and microstructural elements such as lemma selection, lemma treatment, and the use of electronic corpora to improve lexicographic quality. Therefore, on a macrostructural level, most current Northern

Sotho and Setswana bilingual dictionaries use frequency counts from corpora to decide whether to include or exclude lemmas in newly created or amended bilingual dictionaries. Concordance lines taken from corpora contribute to quality enhancement in the creation of definitions, selection of translation counterparts, selection of examples, and so on. To support the claim made by Setaka & Prinsloo (2020), a study conducted by Mojalefa (2008:91) outlines that Al-Kasimi, Martin & Haas raise serious concerns regarding the compilation of a bilingual dictionary. The concerns indicate that although the compilers claim that the New Sepedi Dictionary has been designed for user-friendliness, controversies might still manifest according to the latest accepted standard bilingual dictionary conventions.

In a case where the microstructure and the microstructure of the bilingual dictionary are concerned, Mojalefa (2008:96) confirms the claim made by Prinsloo & Sataka (2020) that so far, the only relevant standard on which written Sepedi is based in Northern Sotho Terminology and Orthography No. 4 of 1988. As a result, it is a decisive document providing Standard Northern Sotho's official spelling standards, created by the old Sesotho sa Leboa Language Board. It is still acknowledged as a genuine orthographic and spelling document in Northern Sotho. The compilers of the New Sepedi Dictionary ignored some Northern Sotho orthography spelling rules because almost all the words misspelt in it have been discussed and correctly spelt in Northern Sotho Terminology and Orthography No 4 of 1988, except for a few instances where this publication causes spelling confusion of words such as *bacteria for bakteria* and *temokrasi for demokrasi*.

In support of what Mojalefa (2008) has stated, a similar supportive claim emerges from Ramusi (2020:55), who also argues that there are spelling and translation errors in the microstructure of the Oxford Learners' Dictionary (2007) and the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004). Bilingual dictionaries' spelling and mistranslation difficulties affect culture-bound and scientific terms and other concepts. Also this affects the presentation of translation equivalents that possess political and economic themes. As a result, the bilingual dictionaries need to be more trustworthy for utilisation by the prospective target users. The bilingual dictionaries will not be user-friendly as a tool for learning Northern Sotho as a language by the intended target user. As a result, when asked to transcribe the

concepts, the intended target user will utilise the incorrect spelling. To confirm this, Modiba (2011:4) mentions that it is noticeable that most bilingual dictionary compilers do not comply with the lexicographic principles and theories regarding synonyms and antonyms. As a result, structural markers were not used, and the bilingual dictionary target users were at risk of losing word coordination.

Apart from cultural influence, grammar and presentation of translation equivalents, there are problematic issues that appear in the megastructure of Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. These inadequacies affect the presentation of the mediostructure, such inadequacies prevailing in the macrostructure and microstructure elements of the bilingual dictionaries that contribute to the problem at hand, as claimed by Setaka & Prinsloo (2020) above. To understand this thoroughly, both macrostructure and microstructure aspects must have an equally balanced presentation of headwords and translation equivalents, and to ensure that the action is fulfilled, the bilingual dictionary compile can apply the reversibility principle. Letsoalo (2012:34) explains the reversibility principle as when a lemma in the first section of the central list (Northern Sotho-English) becomes the translation equivalent, and what has been a translation equivalent in the first part of the central list becomes a lemma in the second section (English–Northern Sotho). It means that what has been on the macrostructure (headwords) now appears in the microstructure (translation equivalents) and vice-versa.

From a bilingual dictionary compiler's perspective, the duty of discovering the relevant translation equivalent for a precise specific headword can be problematic in most cases. Hence, Mojalefa (2008:101) argues that over and above, the translational equivalents should have been favoured in the New Sepedi Dictionary, for it is intended for the speakers of the source language as a resource to produce the accurate translation equivalents in Northern Sotho. A major problem that confronted the bilingual dictionary compilers was that they could not always find the required correspondents in the target language. Consequently, the presentation of structural markers is also one of the contributing factors towards a bilingual dictionary having a poor usage of the reversibility principle. Hence, Nthambeleni (2016:111) contends that even though there is reversibility, the wrong use of structural markers hurts the analysis because the target users end up selecting incorrect

translation equivalents. It then denotes that the bilingual dictionary compilers avoid the reference markers and their function. Such action implies that there could be a scenario where there is possible evidence of reversibility, cross-referencing, and usage of reference markers but without accurate coordination of lexical items that should either be treated synonymously or polysemously.

Additionally, Mothiba (2012:2) asserts that the problem is that not all Northern Sotho-English bidirectional bilingual dictionaries follow the reversibility principle, and even the dictionaries that follow this principle do not have all their articles using the principle. This implies that some of the produced Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries lack both cross-referencing (mediostructure) and reversibility principles that have a sense of accuracy and relevance to the function or the purpose of the bilingual dictionary. The presentation of the megastructure in Northern Sotho dictionaries does not consider the issue of space and economising the length of presenting both macrostructure and microstructure features. Furthermore, Modiba (2011:40) alludes to the fact that cross-referencing is not applied in Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries, in which translation equivalents for synonyms and antonyms become meaningless as they might not have any significance in the target language.

Other megastructural features, such as the front matter, which guides the target user about the central list and the implantation of the macrostructure, microstructure and mediostructure, are important in compiling a bilingual dictionary and maintaining user-friendliness. Another supporting claim is mentioned by Kosch (2013), who alludes to the fact that there are three outside texts available in both Northern Sotho and English within the 2007 Oxford *Pukuntsu ya Sekolo* (School Dictionary) and the grey markings around the margins of the pages readily identify the megastructure features in the front matter. The table of contents, dictionary features, and an introduction are all included in the 12-page front matter. The bilingual dictionary characteristics (pp. iv-vii) are given diagrammatically and may be comprehended immediately. Unfortunately (and unsurprisingly), the small print must impair the legibility of this section to cram in all the features. This may not be well welcomed by a target user who is in a rush to answer his or her lookup inquiry and needs more time to examine the fine print in the diagrams. The study portion of 28 pages (marked

as S1-S28) is located between the Northern Sotho-English (NS-E) and English-Northern Sotho (E-NS) lemma lists. It includes bilingual dictionary exercises in Northern Sotho and English for the novice target user.

As discussed, the presentation of megastructure features in bilingual dictionaries within the South African context can be familiarised with the African context. Issues of culture, grammatical aspects, and inability to present the mediostructure remain an issue. Therefore, Mothiba (2012:77) indicates that it should be acknowledged that in South Africa, one of the main functions of bilingual dictionaries is to assist speakers of different languages to learn each other's language to achieve multilingualism. It then reveals that the improper usage of structural markers and other macrostructural and microstructural aspects negatively affects the presentation of the mediostructure of the bilingual dictionary as the product will lack word coordination and an inaccurate megastructure that can be deemed not user-friendly.

2.6. Megastructural Features in Bilingual Dictionaries

Each dictionary has the megastructure components that make it user-friendly to its prospective target users. Dictionary compilers need to be knowledgeable and identify these features. This is because there are different megastructural aspects for different types of dictionaries. However, it is important to describe and understand what a dictionary megastructure is. Therefore, Vrbinc & Vrbinc (2012:27) mention that the macrostructure and outside matter comprise the megastructure, which is the general framework of the component components of a dictionary. The elements of the outside matter are classified based on their physical position in the dictionary, with the A-Z section serving as the central part: the front matter comes before the A-Z section; the middle matter contains items that are inserted in the A-Z section but do not form a constituent part of it; and the back matter comes after the A-Z section.

Furthermore, Karpinska (2020:59) quoted (Hartmann 2001: 61) that the megastructure of a dictionary refers to “the all-embracing textual framework which in addition to the central macrostructure also includes front matter, middle matter, and back matter”. The megastructure of a dictionary, be it monolingual, bilingual or any specific type of dictionary,

is expected to have a megastructure. It is considered the frame structure of the dictionary. This means that the megastructure concept accommodates the different types of dictionaries and their frame structure.

For the target user to navigate the dictionary, they need a comprehensive megastructure. It should be noted that the primary intention of a dictionary is to ensure that the needs of the target user are effectively met. Hence, Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:1-2) postulates that a dictionary's target audience, scope, and directionality are inextricably linked to its functions. Bilingual dictionaries have two basic roles: receptive (passive, decoding) and productive (active, encoding). The emphasis has always been on reception. This is not unexpected, given that dictionaries travelling from L2 to L1 will be used more frequently (and so have a longer history) than those going oppositely for any language pair studied. The reasons appear to be self-evident. When target users need to comprehend anything written or spoken in a foreign language, and no one can assist them, they must rely on a bilingual dictionary.

2.6.1. The functions of a bilingual dictionary

It is important to conceptualise that each publicised bilingual dictionary has its intended function that is expected to satisfy the needs of the target users. Nielsen & Fuertes-Olivera (2011:193) confirms this by mentioning that the lexicographic basis is the cornerstone of the entire dictionary effort. Any dictionary project requires a solid base to build a fully-fledged tool that the intended target users can use to fulfil certain demands in well-defined contexts. Therefore, a dictionary project must have a mandate it expects to achieve. This ensures that the dictionary project is within scope regarding its structure, contents, and the language to compile the dictionary.

Furthermore, Koeva & Blagoeva (2013:59-60) opine that the formation of clear and consistent guidelines for the macro-, micro-, and medio-structure of a dictionary entry, as well as adherence to these principles, determines the success of any bilingual dictionary development. A bilingual dictionary entry has a complicated structure, as it incorporates aspects to meet the needs of the specific group of bilingual dictionary target users. Each dictionary entry has a structure specified by the bilingual dictionary's principles and the

headword's qualities. Lexicographers can choose to select a template from a repository or develop a new template that represents the most appropriate entry structure when establishing a new bilingual dictionary entry.

Karpinska (2020) concurs with Koeva & Blagoeva (2013) that the functionality of bilingual dictionaries is determined by the needs of the target users, considering that they can represent different speech or linguistic communities. For a similar reason, Imbayarwo (2008:44) agrees that the accessibility and retrieval of desired information measures the effectiveness and success of the bilingual dictionary. Moreover, the lexicographer is responsible for aligning all data so that target users can easily and speedily access and retrieve information to resolve a specific problem. Subsequently, Karpinska (2020) and Imbayarwo (2008) concur that the needs of the target users determine the dictionary's function regardless of the dictionary's type and its megastructural features.

Additionally, Klein (2010:1486) asserts that a good bilingual dictionary empowers its target users by providing them with the solution they seek. Furthermore, African languages require new bilingual dictionaries that meet the standard and effectiveness of English/Afrikaans bilingual dictionaries. A negative effect of those policies is that the lexicographic scope and needs in South Africa became extremely complex (this is due to linguistic diversifications, which were affected by the post-1994 government legislation concerning standardisation and legalisation of African languages spoken in South Africa.) as a broad range of different organisations and individuals compiled dictionaries.

Imbayarwo (2008:17) mentions that the purpose and function(s) of a bilingual dictionary cannot be stressed enough; subsequently, as they constitute the essence and motivation of compiling any lexicographic reference work. The bilingual dictionary is compiled to meet specific needs or problems that weigh down upon the target users. However, Klein (2010:1489) argues that these bilingual dictionaries are usually not sufficient in satisfying the vocabulary needs of the target users, and the problems that occur when using them include misuse of words in context, grammatical errors, misunderstanding of the verbal phrases, and idiomatic expressions, and wrong usage of polysemous words.

Nonetheless, Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:4-5) argues that the organisation of bilingual dictionaries is primarily semasiological, based on the (written) form of the headword. As a result, the arrangement of items in languages with alphabetical writing systems follows the sequence of the alphabet. Each entry is organised around a specific lexical item (the headword) and provides the meanings (senses) the lexical item can represent. Most target users envision this type of reference book when considering bilingual dictionaries. Furthermore, Bothma & Gouws (2022:58) advise that depending on their functions, bilingual dictionaries should include enough items to provide their target users with appropriate cotextual and contextual guidance. The word represented by the lemma sign is treated separately in a bilingual dictionary article. The contextual and cotextual items in the lexicographic treatment should not be chosen haphazardly. Still, they should reflect something of the typical bilingual dictionary external occurrence of the headword using a balanced and representative corpus. This should allow the target user to connect with the translation equivalent encountered in an extra-lexicographic environment (and context) to a specific search zone in the bilingual dictionary containing the relevant treatment of that headword.

Kubicka (2019:84) mentions that bilingual dictionaries serve two types of target users: those who want to understand texts and those who want to create them. Understanding, especially creation, occurs in various contexts, including an unprofessional context (e.g., tourists), where successful communication is a matter of communication skills and situational knowledge rather than pure language skills. In this educational context, target users such as learners and students require clearly described equivalents, allowing them to perceive the language system they are attempting to master as more transparent, a professional context, where the target text should be equivalent to the original and acceptable in the target culture.

Furthermore, Chen (2015:316-317) mentions another function that a bilingual dictionary does not merely reproduce or 'transfer' meaning; it produces meaning by rewriting and representing things in novel ways. No lexicography is solely descriptive. By relocating meaning in a new context (contextualisation), bilingual lexicography invariably modifies the source text because it always ignores the polyvalence of possible entry structure

expressions in the source text because of distinct linguistic systems, cultural discourse traditions, and social circumstances, making any objective portrayal of a language or total adherence to the original nearly impossible.

Another function of a bilingual dictionary is to present and ensure a comprehensive target user manual for the target user to understand how the bilingual is structured. The target user needs to be provided with a manual that it is well structured and contains contents that are at the level of the target user's understanding. Therefore, Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:11) indicates that the A-Z section (the central list) is now frequently preceded by a "How to Use the Dictionary" section in decent bilingual dictionaries. There is also a collection of abbreviations, such as grammatical codes, phonetic symbols, use labels, etc. A common component is a grammar section containing a list of noun declensions and verb conjugations, irregular verbs, and other related information. A selection of false friends, a writing tutorial, a bank of frequent phrases used in regular speech, and a list of popular texting and e-mailing acronyms can occasionally be found (and their TL equivalents). A particular portion of learners' dictionaries is frequently devoted to features of the TL culture.

In the context of South African bilingual dictionaries, it is important to understand the function and the intent of the production of the bilingual dictionaries. Mafela (2004:2) mentions that dictionaries in the indigenous African languages within South Africa are bilingual because they are meant to be used by language learners, translators, and other language practitioners as primary target users. Although these bilingual dictionaries can be perceived as resourceful, they pertain to various challenges and inadequacies that endanger the presentation of the megastructure and mediostructure in the bilingual dictionary.

However, Klein (2010:1489) argues with Mafela (2004) that more than these African language bilingual dictionaries are usually needed to satisfy the vocabulary needs of the target users. The problems that occur when target users (that are conversant with both languages) make use of the bilingual dictionaries, they often identify the misuse of translation equivalents in context, grammatical errors, misunderstanding of verbal phrases and idiomatic expressions, and wrong usage of polysemous words. Furthermore Ramusi

(2020:22) also concurs with Klein (2010) that it becomes unfortunate as some of these bilingual dictionaries contain limited information in the target users' style guide, and some do not have a style guide for the target users at all. Consequently, having bilingual dictionaries that provides inadequate information often misleads society, which are the target users of these bilingual dictionaries. It is also important to note that the earliest South African bilingual dictionaries were based on translation purposes but lacked most of the megastructural features.

This makes it difficult for various South African indigenous language speakers to be on equal footing with their English corresponding items regarding information they can access from these dictionaries (Mafela, 2014). It is important to identify the type of presentations that would lead the bilingual dictionary to serve its initial intended function towards meeting the needs of its target users. Additionally, Ramusi (2020:55) mentions that culture-bound concepts are the pillars of any cultural belonging, as they are part of the legacy of that cultural community. Bilingual dictionaries are meant to be the documents used to store these concepts, which in return leads to a society that needs to learn about its cultural belonging. As such, lexicographers should focus on the needs of language learners (as target users) when constructing bilingual dictionaries. In language education, bilingual dictionaries are frequently the only instrument used to assist in understanding and writing a text. In contrast, they are only one (and not the best) of the resources available in translation. Regarding translation practice, bilingual dictionaries are increasingly substituted by parallel or comparative corpora (Kubicka, 2019:85).

To contravene the functions of the bilingual dictionary, it is important that the bilingual dictionary compilers know and can be aware that it is their responsibility to notice that they can implement the abovementioned functions of a bilingual dictionary. This is confirmed by Prinsloo (2020:587), who states that bilingual dictionaries should be compiled for very specific target users; however, when the first dictionary for a language is compiled, the African language lexicographer's only option is to compile a bilingual dictionary that all target users can use, i.e., an unfortunate attempt at a one-size-fits-all dictionary. The lexicographer should strike a good balance between descriptiveness and prescriptiveness while compiling such general bilingual dictionaries. On the one hand, prescriptiveness is

essential, particularly when the language is not fully standardised; on the other hand, the lexicographer must protect against extreme purism, for example, opposing pressure not to include any foreign terms in the bilingual dictionary.

2.6.2. Structure of a bilingual dictionary

With the functions of a bilingual dictionary mentioned above, it is important to understand the components of the bilingual dictionary megastructure. Gallardo (2013:130) asserts that bilingual dictionaries include reciprocity, dictionary form, entry arrangement, example source, ortho-typography, definitions, definition references, and equivalence adjustment. However, they differ in four of these eight flaws: reciprocity, dictionary shape, entry arrangement, and equivalency adjustment – and have a common source: a semasiological production process. Other criteria, such as example source, ortho-typography, definitions, and definition references, are determined by the feature claimed in bilingual dictionaries: the business component of dictionaries, and thus by publication constraints.

Another structural component is for the bilingual dictionary compilers to conceptualise the importance of considering the presentation of both languages in the megastructure. In brief, Lew & Adamska-Sałaciak (2014:6-7) mention that the problems that target users of the bilingual dictionary encounter can be solved with the help of a truly active bilingual learner's dictionary, one aimed specifically at speakers of a particular language and attuned to their needs arising in the production of English texts. Rather than being mere wishful thinking, such bilingual dictionaries already exist. Some of them, like traditional bilingual dictionaries, consist of two parts: English–L1 and L1–English; others go only from the learner's L1 to English, i.e., in the direction responsible for production.

To understand the structure of a bilingual dictionary, it is important to identify and outline the different parts that constitute the megastructure of the bilingual dictionary. Mafela (2014) asserts that practically all dictionaries comprise three parts: the front matter, the main part (central list), and the back matter. All the parts are equally important to the dictionary's target users as they assist them in interpreting the meaning of the lexical entries.

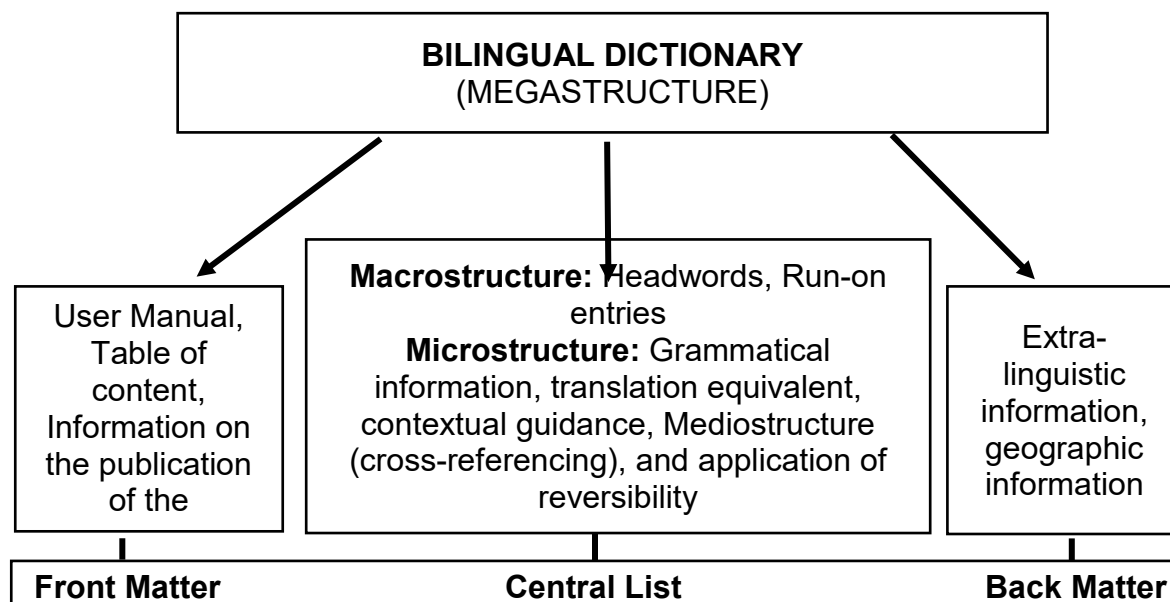


Fig. 2.1. Megastructure of a bilingual dictionary

With the above-presented bilingual dictionary structure, it is important to unpack it and ensure that bilingual dictionary compilers can use it. To start with, Vrbinc & Vrbinc (2012:271) states that the title page, the copyright page and imprint, acknowledgements, the foreword or preface, the table of contents, the list of contributors, the list of abbreviations, labels, and codes used in the text and illustrations, the pronunciation key, the user's guide, and dictionary grammar are all examples of front matter. It may also provide articles on certain parts of language, such as language history, a feature that is heavily dependent on the market to which it is targeted. Moreover, Gouws et al. (2014:8) mention that the front matter section discusses the individual contents of the bilingual dictionary, not just the basic list, and example pages from the various texts are used to show and explain the contribution and purpose of these documents. This explanation is given in two languages: the target language of the bilingual dictionary and English. As the first bilingual dictionary that many target users encounter, they must receive proper advice. The user-guidelines material has been written in an easy-to-understand manner, yet teachers must get acquainted with this content to assist the bilingual dictionary's target users best.

Yong & Peng (2008:84) emphasise that most bilingual dictionaries print the title page in both the source and target languages. Contemporary title pages of bilingual dictionaries often include merely the book's title, author(s), publisher, and, in some cases, publication date. Consequently, there is no standard procedure for arranging functional text parts. It follows that if functional text parts of the front matter are arbitrary, then the front matter of different bilingual dictionaries may host different text types according to the genuine purpose of the bilingual dictionary (Imbayarwo, 2008:32). Furthermore, Yong & Peng (2008:84) elaborate that the material in the preface can be expanded upon in the Introduction. As a result, it offers a more extensive description of the editor(s)' objective, consideration, techniques, principles, and philosophy used in the bilingual dictionary-making process. Early bilingual dictionary producers used to preface the bilingual dictionary material with a full discussion of the grammar of the language(s) (including pronunciation) and a brief history of the language (s).

Furthermore, Hlongwane (2021:149) concurs with Gouws (2014) that any bilingual dictionary should provide the target user information because even if it does not assist the target user in retrieving information, the user will get a clearer picture of what they should expect when the year of publication and the edition of the bilingual dictionary are listed. A target user familiar with different publishing houses might be attracted to consult the bilingual dictionary because they have an idea of what to expect from that publishing house because of its reputation. The names of such publishing houses could indicate the authority such the bilingual dictionary has.

In congruence with how Yong & Peng (2008) describes the front matter, Letsoalo (2012:35) explains that the front matter is a section in the bilingual dictionary where lexicographers should explain, describe, and let the target user know what to expect and how everything is presented in the bilingual dictionary. This includes the following aspects: treating zero-equivalents, reversibility principle, paraphrasing, transliterating, contextual guidance, and even structural markers should be explained in the front matter. Yong & Peng (2008:87) further allude to the fact that modern bilingual dictionaries intend to perform many more roles than their predecessors. As a result, there is a growing recognition of the significance of training the intended target user on making the greatest and most complete use of the

dictionary information and functionalities given. To that aim, practically all modern bilingual dictionaries now include a section called 'Guide to the Use of the Dictionary' in the front matter. The goal of this section is to provide a full description of how the bilingual dictionary is formed, how one structural component is connected to another, how the information is ordered and systematised, and what information is in every portion.

However, some bilingual dictionaries may consist of a front matter or the target user guide, but the target users need to see it more as beneficial. For this reason, Fraser (2008:17) argues that target users rarely consult the users' style guide; they refer to it when confronted with a lexicographic challenge. A bilingual dictionary is used by both learners of the language and native speakers as target users for various reasons; for example, for finding words, the meaning of words, translation equivalents, the spelling of known words, and the pronunciation of known words. Without the target user's style guide, a typical target user may conclude that the bilingual dictionary is not user-friendly to the rest of the target users intending to learn the language.

Imbajarwo (2008:41) elucidates that the central word list is the bilingual dictionary's most important mandatory immediate text constituent. Without the central word list, there can be no bilingual dictionary. Furthermore, the central word list and the target user's guide, provided in the front matter text, is a compulsory functional part. This is the presentation of articles grouped according to the access alphabet, e.g. A-Z. The central word list usually contains article stretches representing letters of the full alphabet. Still, it can include article stretches representing letters or letter combinations not occurring in the ordinary alphabet. Additionally, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005) argue that there is a contrast between single and complex articles, with the single article being the default form. The items, i.e., the entries from which the bilingual dictionary user can retrieve some information about the subject matter of the specific dictionary, include the past tense (verbal lemmas), plural (noun lemmas), an English equivalent of the word represented by the lemma sign, a paraphrase of meaning, an example sentence, an English translation of the example sentence, and a repetition of the small picture appearing in the thematic picture dictionary, as well as a page number.

Fonetelle (2015:44) asserts that a target user who is familiar with a specific bilingual dictionary may skip some phases in the external access process. In contrast, someone unfamiliar with the same bilingual dictionary needs to go through all the steps on the external search route before reaching the lemma sign of the article where the item presenting the required data occurs. Contemporarily, bilingual dictionaries are often presented using different colours and eye-catching schemes. This presentation mode makes them more understandable and attractive to the target user. Besides, they are made as compact and informative as possible (Imbayarwo,2008:92).

According to Imbayarwo (2008:33), the outside matter (back matter) components providing details about the language(s) described in the bilingual dictionary provide the target user with additional information to the one found in the central headword list. The back matter components containing lists of geographical names, names of nationalities, personal names, abbreviations, and lists of the terminology used in a certain field usually fall in this category. Components containing linguistic information on the language being described, for instance, spelling, pronunciation, word formation, and grammar rules, also fall in this category. However, it should be noted that they are less directly related to the general headword list.

Furthermore, Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:10) mentions that the outer texts (back matter) are additions to the bilingual dictionary that are located outside the A-Z core, either on the periphery of the bilingual dictionary itself (front and back matter) or as inserts - plates of drawings, diagrams, and so on - interspersed throughout the words (middle matter). Until recently, neither bilingual dictionary manufacturers nor theoretical lexicographers paid much attention to the optional parts, reasoning that they were rarely utilised. While this is undeniably true, it is difficult to tell whether it is the primary source of the lexicographers' negligence or one of its consequences. What is clear is that outside texts frequently give the sense of being an afterthought, providing content that is very easy to obtain, very likely inserted at the last minute, and without much regard to what the dictionary readership would truly want.

According to Yong & Peng (2008:88), however, the inclusion of linguistic content in the back matter of a bilingual dictionary dates to medieval times. Tables with verb conjugation and pronunciation guidelines were frequently provided. However, as time passed, the breadth of linguistic information in the back matter expanded, and bilingual dictionaries advanced more than monolingual dictionaries. Contemporarily, bilingual dictionaries include, in addition to verb conjugation tables and pronunciation instructions, word construction rules, tense formation rules, rules of agreement (or concord), orthography rules, transcription systems, and alphabets.

2.6.3. User-friendliness in bilingual bidirectional dictionaries

Gouws (2011:31) states that in a multilingual culture, learner's dictionaries are required to give members of various speech communities access to other languages. The place, function, and value of learner's dictionaries were given little consideration in developing and creating South African dictionaries. Today's linguists and dictionary compilers nearly always insist on the descriptive method from the start: According to most of them, it makes much sense to point out that language must be described rather than commanded.

Adamska-Sałaciak (2014:3) contends that it would be unreal to anticipate a bilingual dictionary for every possible pair of natural languages by now. Not at all. Since the development of dictionaries has always been driven by practical considerations, the historically preferred group consists of major global languages, i.e., widely spoken languages that many people want to study. Such languages have been matched with several others, so finding, for example, an English-Lx, Lx-English bilingual dictionary, where Lx can be nearly any language, should not be difficult. Another group in which bilingual lexicographers have understandably been interested in dead languages associated with major ancient cultures, on the one hand, and so-called alien languages, on the other.

Gouws (2011:31) states that the intended target user's lexicographical demands and abilities must be determined before compiling any bilingual dictionary. The desired target user profile should determine the macrostructural selection, the microstructural treatment of lemmas, and the addressing. Determining the target user is as important as defining the

subject area because lexicographical characteristics will differ for adults, children, and immigrants learning English due to differences in their needs, such as general cultural knowledge, knowledge of the foreign culture, learning environment, applied learning methods, and so on (Gallardo, 2013:133).

According to Hlongwane (2021:149) it should be brought to the attention of the prospective target user in the user guide text that the proposed model has a full frame structure, with some texts allocated to the front matter section, then follows the central list and other texts are accommodated in the back matter section. The target user will be advised to look at the table of contents in the front matter to know exactly where the different texts are positioned. The target user will also be advised that the back matter section also has its table of contents, and he/she should look at it to identify the texts allocated to that space. The foreword/preface should also indicate the target users of the proposed bilingual dictionary, their needs, and their situations.

Gouws (2011:31) mentions that to achieve maximum retrievability, the macrostructure of the learner's dictionary must incorporate access structures to overcome potential hedges in the search for a specific lemma; however, retrievability also necessitates a microstructural display that is not only relevant to the user's linguistic and pragmatic needs but also enhances an unbiased and neutral representation of cultural and ideological values. This is especially true when the target users come from a multilingual and multicultural setting. Furthermore Adamska-Sałaciak (2014:4) mentions that the logic behind bilingual dictionaries has always been that languages are mutually translatable, which means that any content conveyed in one language may be expressed in another. This is a reasonable assumption, according to most linguists. However, the (usually implicit) additional assumption that a bilingual dictionary is not only a prerequisite but also a sufficient condition for successful interlingual translation is based on a profound misunderstanding of the nature of human language and the relationships between different languages.

Adamska-Sałaciak (2014:6) further mentions that the suggested rule modification could create a new issue: the desire to use the no-equivalent accessible technique whenever the

lexicographer meets even a little challenge. To reduce the likelihood of this happening, the bilingual dictionary's style guide should make it abundantly clear that the strategy should be used only as a last resort and only when dealing with culturally specific vocabulary or when a specific grammatical category (e.g., ideophones) does not exist in the target language. Moreover, Gouws (2011:34) indicates that one of the primary goals of a learner's dictionary is to help the user achieve a specific level of communicative proficiency. By developing a well-motivated macrostructure, the lexicographer understands that the target user should be able to discover the most common words in the target language. Yet, communication competence is based on much more than a good lemma choice. The microstructural handling of each lemma must allow the target user to build the skills required for true word usage in real dialogue. Furthermore, Gouws (2011:46) states that the lexicographical legitimacy of their use of these bilingual dictionaries is unquestionable when these entries improve the target user's comprehension. In a monolingual dictionary, nonverbal pictures should supplement the verbal definition by providing additional information or explaining some qualities that the definition cannot show enough. However, the presentation of pictorial illustrations should be wider than single-language dictionaries.

According to Hornáčková-Klapicová (2012:59), a bilingual dictionary presents accurate translation equivalents of specific items from the source language's vocabulary in the target language. Therefore, a bilingual dictionary is not required to expand the semantic structure of the terms in the source language. These ideas about the creation of a bilingual dictionary may now be considered obsolete because modern lexicographers do not limit their concept of a bilingual dictionary to the structure entry in the original language - equivalent in the target language, but instead emphasise the importance of other parameters in a bilingual dictionary, such as pronunciation, orthography, grammar, etymology, semantic structure, stylistic characteristics, and so on.

According to Gallardo (2013:142), once the target user has been identified, the level to which the bilingual dictionary is directed must be determined. From a lexicographical standpoint, the target user levels are categorised as follows: Beginners are learners who need the foreign language explained in their native language (using explanations or simply equivalents) and can only produce foreign-language texts based on an original in their

mother tongue (Discussed at global context). Intermediate learners can understand a simple foreign-language explanation based on a limited vocabulary and can think and produce texts in the foreign language to some extent but are forced to use an original in their mother tongue. Advanced learners can understand complex explanations in the foreign language and primarily think and write in the foreign language.

Laufer & Levitzky-Aviad (2006: 137-138) mentions that the strength of the bilingualism dictionary lies in its catering to various possibilities and personal preferences and in combining monolingual and bilingual information. On the other hand, its weakness lies in unidirectionality from the target language. Since bilingual dictionaries provide translations into L2 while syntactic and semantic information and examples are provided in the monolingual dictionaries, the learner as a target user must use both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries for successful production. Such a procedure is rather tedious and not user-friendly. It assumes that the bilingual dictionary target user owns at least two dictionaries. It is also time-consuming and is more suitable for particularly motivated students.

Adamska-Sałaciak (2010:138) states that only in bilingual dictionaries can the learner's native language be addressed systematically, including points of L1-L2 contrast that should be highlighted and places of potential L1 interference that students should be informed about. A bilingual dictionary can at least attempt to understand how various languages code extralinguistic reality. These classification disparities arise, for example, when a lexical item in one language corresponds to a morphological form or a syntactic structure in another. Interlingual contrast also contains purely semantic and pragmatic distinctions, some of which are relatively subtle and hence exceedingly confounding to foreign learners, such as those exhibited by pairs of lexical and phraseological false friends. Stan (2017:77) mentions that from the target users' perspective, the medium may be little more than an outer sign of change, of technology "taking over." Still, from the standpoint of lexicographers, it is a major deciding factor in the overall design of dictionaries: their macrostructure, microstructure, and mediostructure - all the main components in the dictionary's megastructure are affected by it.

Prinsloo (2016:221) asserts that the target user needs and what they require from bilingual dictionaries are complicated issues and cannot be justified within the limitations of a single presentation. Therefore, two basic assumptions which stood the test of time will be taken as a basis. It can be said that target users want to find the words and the information about the words that they are looking for in the bilingual dictionary. Therefore, Hlongwane (2021:150) mentions that the bilingual dictionary's target user guide and its central list, or the dictionary proper, are compulsory texts in every dictionary. There are different ways in which bilingual dictionary compilers present their user guides to target users. There is no one-size-fits-all approach. The prominent thing is that the target user guide should avoid abstruseness, whereby it confuses the target user, and they struggle to obtain the information that prompted the search rapidly. Approaches, strategies, and systems used to search for the required information should be consistent. The procedures given to the prospective target user in the user guide must be applied in an accurate way in the central list of the bilingual dictionary.

Laufer & Levitzky-Aviad (2006:138) mention that the bilingual dictionary's strength comes in its ability to cater for a wide range of look-up options and personal preferences, as well as in mixing monolingual and bilingual information. On the other hand, its shortcoming is that it is unidirectional from the target language, such as English, to the native language. Although the reference point in such a bilingual dictionary is L2, the learner as a target user must be familiar with at least one L2 word form to look it up and obtain the relevant information. The bilingual dictionary must be revised when the learner must locate an uncommon L2 word for a familiar L1 notion.

2.7. Macrostructural features in bilingual dictionaries

As a point of departure, it is important to understand the meaning and the importance of a bilingual dictionary consisting of a macrostructure. Furthermore, it is vital to identify key components or elements that constitute the macrostructure of a bilingual dictionary. Karpinska (2020) defines the macrostructure of a bilingual dictionary as the organisation of headwords in the "body of a dictionary" whether the headwords are systematically sorted alphabetically or by concept, etc. Additionally, Fonetelle (2015:48) explains that the macrostructure is an ordering structure that demonstrates the lemmata (headwords) as

guiding elements of a bilingual dictionary articles in a specific way—different types of ordering lead to different access possibilities.

Arsenteva & Ayupova (2013:65) mention that the description of macrostructural parameters covers the number of head phrases supplied, their selection, and the sequence in which they are presented. The analysis of bilingual dictionaries' microstructural parameters focuses on introducing head phrases from a formal standpoint, revealing their grammatical valency and lexical collocability, stylistic labels, and providing examples of their use and presentation of synonyms and antonyms. Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:4) mentions that the organisation of bilingual dictionaries is primarily semasiological, based on the (written) form of the headword. As a result, the arrangement of items in languages with alphabetical writing systems follows the sequence of the alphabet. Each entry is organised around a specific lexical item (the headword) and provides the meanings (senses) the lexical item can represent. Most people envision this type of reference book when considering bilingual dictionaries.

2.7.1. Entry design

According to Prinsloo (2020:588), lexicographers should offer the target users lexicographic inclusivity and display the information so that they can locate and comprehend what they are searching for in the bilingual dictionary. It is important for a bilingual dictionary to indicate or provide directive in relation to the alphabetical range of headwords. This improves and limits the time spent by the prospective target user searching for a particular headword or presentation. Furthermore, Kawalya & de Schryver (2013:175) mention that it is completely accurate that the alphabetical arrangement of entries is advantageous to the target user, primarily in one aspect: the ease of reference or accessibility (for those who know the alphabet and under the condition that a strict alphabetical ordering, rather than, say, a phonemic classification, is followed). Since the presentation of the headwords in the bilingual dictionary are organised alphabetically, it is simple for target users to find what they are searching for. As such, Prinsloo (2020:588) adds that the target users should be free to reference other sources, such as grammatical descriptions of the language, which seldom exist in the first place.

It is important to know and identify what leads the prospective target user when they are searching for a particular headword in a bilingual dictionary. Fonetelle (2015:48) explains that in a straight-alphabetical macrostructure, all the headwords are presented in vertical order, and the typical access will proceed downwards, starting at the top of each page. Due to space-saving efforts, macrostructures in printed bilingual dictionaries often deviate from a straight alphabetical order in favour of sinuous lemma files (related headwords in terms of genre, typography, and ethnography), where vertical ordering is complemented by horizontal ordering. Furthermore, niching can be defined as a macrostructural procedure of textual concentration. Different bilingual dictionary articles are clustered into one text block as sub-articles headed by the headword (Meiner, 2012). This results in procedures of niching.

Niching comes as support mechanism to economise the space used in the production or compilation of the macrostructure of the bilingual dictionary. It enables the clustering of headwords that are interrelated to be clustered together but considering that headwords are required to be presented in an alphabetic format. Therefore, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:65) advocate that bilingual dictionary compilers, on the other hand, must distinguish between a straight alphabetical macrostructure and a macrostructure with a sinuous lemma file. When presenting a sinuous lemma file, a difference must be made between niching and nested dictionaries. Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:65) explain further the difference between Niching and Straight-line Alphabetic arrangements of headwords: Niching denotes a rigorous alphabetical grouping of headwords that may or may not be semantically linked. Niching denotes a grouping that defies strict alphabetical ordering norms to display morpho-semantic relationships between words. A straight alphabetical arrangement necessitates less effort from the target user. An ordering that allows for the inclusion of nested and niched clusters contributes to textual condensing.

With that mentioned, Imbayarwo (2008:43) mentions that the headword sign hosted in the macrostructure is accompanied by several microstructural entries that are presented as part of the lexicographic treatment. As such, Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:5) asserts that the entry list in the considerably rarer onomasiological (thematic, ideological) bilingual dictionaries is organised by subjects, and each entry is formed around an idea, identifying

the lexical components via which that notion might be articulated. Onomasiological dictionaries are often monoscopic, covering only a portion of the SL lexicon, such as terminology unique to a given topic of expertise. They are likewise primarily concerned with the semantics of the headwords, to the exclusion of other factors such as grammar or pronunciation. An onomasiological dictionary, whether monolingual or bilingual and a semasiological L1-L2 bilingual dictionary have several similarities: Both begin with the familiar (a generic notion and a term in the user's native language, respectively) and progress to the less familiar (a specific word the user wants but cannot recall or does not know), thus performing an encoding role largely.

Lew (2013:8) elaborates further that those works in which senses in a bilingual entry have been organised around their equivalents are more fascinating. In such circumstances, there is an argument to be made for putting at the top the senses that include the most common textual equivalent in the TL and then listing the remaining senses in descending order of the frequency of equivalents translating this headword (not the same, of course, as the absolute frequency of candidate equivalents). This metric can also be thought of as the conditional likelihood of a candidate equivalent existing in a target-language text, given the presence of the source lemma in a source-language text.

As mentioned earlier, bilingual dictionary compilers consider niching of headwords but considering that headwords need to be presented in an alphabetical order. According to Imbayarwo (2008:44), headwords presented in the niche are ordered alphabetically, and the niche fits into the alphabetical environment framed by the preceding and the following main headwords. External deviation implies that the headwords included in the nest do not fit into the alphabetical environment framed by the preceding and following main headword. Additionally, Mojalefa (2008: 90) concurs with Imbayarwo (2008) that the coverage on niching may be measured by the density of entries, i.e., how much of the total lexicon of the language is covered, and by the depth of coverage, i.e., how many meanings are listed under each entry.

The usage of run-on entries provides the target user with an accurate range of presented headwords within a specific alphabetic section in the bilingual dictionary. **Meiner (2012)**

explains that all dictionaries use running heads (run-on entries) for the target user's better orientation within the dictionary itself. These are the words (or three or more initial characters of the words, depending on the length of the dictionary) located on the upper part of the pages. The run-on entries can be located on the left page (or in the left corner of a page) using the first word/phrase/lemma on this page; the running head on the right page (or in the right corner of a page) uses the last word/phrase/lemma on that page. The running heads are usually presented in bold or bigger font sizes than the headwords. Sometimes, one page has even two running heads. Furthermore, Fonetelle (2015:108) explains that in some bilingual dictionaries, these run-on entries are openly marked for specific alphabet stretches. In contrast, some other bilingual dictionaries merely have a small block to indicate the start of a new stretch. i.e., when the target user is paging into a new alphabetic section within the bilingual dictionary. The run-on entry would have the alphabet placed at the top of the page within the relevant alphabetic section. These run-on entries assist especially the knowledgeable bilingual dictionary target user as part of the rapid access structure of the bilingual dictionary.

2.8. Microstructural features and translation impact in bilingual dictionaries

We move on to another component of the central list in the megastructure of the bilingual dictionary, which is the microstructure. It is important to indicate the different microstructure components that feature in the central list and their function towards assuring that the bilingual dictionary remains user-friendly. The microstructure of a bilingual dictionary is the consistent organisation of lexical information (information about the headword) within lexical entries (Karpinska, 2020:74). The information presented in the microstructure is featured to ensure that the relevant information about the headword is accurately conveyed with cognisance to space issues in the printed bilingual dictionary as they were traditionally compiled. Karpinska (2020:75-76) further explains that entry structure is proposed as typical of a bilingual dictionary:

- 1) The headword with its variant spellings (Not a microstructure feature but discussed under macrostructure features)
- 2) Pronunciation (phonetic transcription)
- 3) Indication of the part(s) of speech.
- 4) Morphological information – potentially confusing irregular inflexions.

- 5) Syntactic properties of the headword.
- 6) Translation equivalents of various senses of the headword.
- 7) Illustration of usage (including collocations phraseology) always translated.
- 8) Indication of semantic information and selectional restrictions.
- 9) Indication of usage restrictions (with the help of labels);
- 10) Cross-reference(s) (mediostructure)

According to Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:12), in a contemporary bilingual dictionary, the microstructure, or structure of a single headword, can be rather 'complicated', with several constituent pieces succeeding in a predetermined order, each communicating distinct types of information. However, within the 'complicated' constituents of the microstructure, it is important to conceptualise the most important microstructure element that would make the dictionary to be considered bilingual. In addition, Fonetelle (2015:353) mentions that the translation equivalent is the single mandatory field in the microstructure of a bilingual dictionary and, in certain situations, the only field. In contrast to general language dictionaries, bilingual and multilingual specialised dictionaries frequently include both equivalent and definition, with the latter placing the headword in its conceptual context, thereby assisting in selecting the correct equivalent in the translation-related receptive task.

2.8.1. Parts of speech, pronunciation, and grammatical features

In consideration of ensuring the functionality of the bilingual dictionary and for the target user to conceptualise the usage, pronunciations and contextual usage of the headword or the translation equivalent, it is important that issues of phonetical and grammar issues in the microstructure to be highlighted. Lew & Adamska-Sałaciak (2014:6) mentions that the information categories which are often missing from L1–English entries include an indication of noun countability (thus making it difficult to avoid production errors such as *information), verb complementation (so learners are not prevented from saying *explain me the meaning), and typical collocational patterns (resulting in unidiomatic combinations such as *make an experiment). Traditional bilingual dictionaries do not offer full-sentence, corpus-based examples that could be models for the learners' production. Hence, Arsenteva & Ayupova (2020:77) mention that more emphasis is being placed on describing headwords' grammatical and lexical collocations. Illustrative material has become more

reliable, with more examples from literary texts used, a greater number of examples per entry, frequently illustrating different types of use and in various forms, including pictures. Finally, in subsequent versions of bilingual dictionaries, information regarding obsolete or archaic components and phrases is more readily available. Prinsloo (2020:587) also mentions that African language lexicographers function as middlemen between the target users' expectations and complex grammatical systems. It is not stated that African languages are the only ones having complex grammatical systems; rather, the lexicographer should be well-versed in the main grammatical systems of the language(s) under consideration. These core systems are complex nominal and verbal systems for members of the Bantu language family.

When presenting grammar categorisation of the headword, it is important to consider issues of culture of both languages attached to the bilingual dictionary. Hence Ramusi (2020) quotes Matlala (2018), that "additional information such as the culture, background, and grammatical information of the word should at least be provided in our bilingual dictionaries, and that should be the lexicologists', lexicographers', and translators' priority". To confirm this, Yong & Peng (2008:102) allude to the fact that there are nine primary elements of speech in English bilingual dictionaries: noun (n.), verb (v.), adjective (adj.), adverb (adv.), conjunction (conj.), pronoun (pron.), preposition (prep.), determiner (det., including articles, art.), and interjection (interj.). The noun class incorporates numerals. The inflectional form occurs next if the headword is an irregular noun, verb, adjective, or adverb. The most significant component of the lemma article is the definition and illustrative sentences, which may include information about the headword's grammar, register, use, and so on.

Related to pronunciations, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:119) assert that pronunciation can be given in various ways, and the quantity of pronunciation help available in a dictionary entry varies. A standard approach to a word's sound form relies on its phonetic representation and stress pattern. Again, bilingual dictionaries employ a variety of approaches to pronunciation. This also relies on how the speakers (target users) from the linguistic community pronounce some of the headwords and translation equivalents. Furthermore, Gouws & Prinsloo (2006) elaborate further that some dictionaries include a thorough

phonetic transcription utilising symbols from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), whilst others provide merely an orthographic transcription, attempting to replicate the pronunciation of the word in the conventional writing system.

In the context of African bilingual dictionaries, Mafela (2014) contends that indigenous African languages' pronunciation of words and orthography differs from those used by languages such as English and French. It would be difficult for target users of the indigenous African language to understand the pronunciation of words and the orthography if this aspect is not explained in the users' style guide of the bilingual dictionary. For that reason, Yong & Peng (2008:102) mention that the presentation of the headword may conclude with information on the headword's etymology. However, it is vital to emphasise that only unabridged and highly academic bilingual dictionaries will likely provide etymological information. For this reason, the target user is motivated to know the language's orthography before they can start looking for words in the lexical entries. It is possible to find that not all letters of the alphabet are used in the language, whereas some headwords and translation equivalents use diacritics in other instances.

Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:119) allude to the fact that target users usually require orthographic assistance, and their bilingual dictionaries' consulting technique is limited to locating the headword and getting the relevant spelling information from the lemma sign. If the lexical item presented as a lemma contains spelling variations, the comment on the pattern can additionally allow further spelling instruction. Additionally, Fonetelle (2015:115) opines that the linguistic method complements the lexicographical approach by focusing on language concepts, principles, and structures, among other things. This method applies to all underlying characteristics of dictionaries, whether generic. Reviewers may look at grammar data (e.g., syntax, morphology, and orthography), pronunciation (in writing or audio files), synonyms, antonyms, hyperonyms, collocations, phrases, example sentences, language usage, and translation strategies, depending on the identified functions.

2.8.2. Translation equivalents and structural markers

Bilingual dictionary cannot be considered bilingual without translation equivalents. Also, it is important to elucidate on the contextual presentation of the translation equivalents. Ali,

Shunmugam, & Saleh (2021:777-778) postulate that the equivalent concept in translation has undergone several stages of diverse perspectives and approaches. At each level, the notion has frequently become considerably more complex and philosophical, to the point where some translation academics regard it as a vague term not viable in translation. When a linguistic unit in a target language virtually occupies the same location as the given linguistic unit in the source language, this is referred to as a source and target language correspondence. When the SL and TL units' function in the same context, they are said to be translationally equivalent. The meaning of a linguistic unit is defined not only by the linguistic context in which it is used but also by the pragmatic environment in which it is utilised.

Therefore, Ramusi (2020) asserts that the translation of headwords is the most important part of bilingual dictionaries. The presentation of translation equivalents determines the user-friendliness of the bilingual dictionary. It is why Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:12) concurs that the presentation of the headword and its translations are an essential component of the microstructure of a bilingual dictionary. The discovery of appropriate TL counterparts and their clear presentation are critical to the bilingual dictionary's success. A bilingual dictionary's main principle is deceptively simple: give counterparts for all senses of all headwords so that each equivalent has the same meaning as the sense it has been matched with.

However, Mothiba (2012:75) outlines that the most difficult task for lexicographers is to locate the accurate and user-friendly translation equivalents in a bilingual dictionary. This is due to zero equivalence caused by linguistic and cultural differences. However, spending time researching and being more cautious throughout the bilingual dictionary creation process of these dictionaries might result in good dictionaries. Unfortunately, putting this theory into action is sometimes incredibly difficult, if not impossible. Three natural language qualities: the ambiguity of meaning, polysemy, and a lack of one-to-one connection between various lexical systems. Therefore, when target users browse a bilingual dictionary, they frequently assume that the way translation equivalents are presented provides data that may be interpreted as the meaning of the source language item, represented by the lemma (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). Bilingual dictionary target users often

perceive the presentation of translation equivalents as the meaning of the source language word in the other language.

Additionally, if the presentation of translation equivalent requires improvement, this affects the presentation of other microstructural features that are attached to the translation equivalent itself, such as contextual guidance, which its presentation will require improvement as well. When a headword has different translation equivalents, then each sense must be separated. When the different senses belong to different word classes or subclass, they must be indicated before the concerned sense. Therefore, the presentation of translation equivalents with contextual guidance that are not contextually presented will mislead the target users (Shikesho,2019:111). Also, Imbajarwo (2008:5) confirms that translation equivalents have long been a common feature in bilingual dictionaries. In bilingual dictionaries, the comment on semantics should also provide a treatment procedure with all the polysemous senses of a lexical item in its scope.

About structural markers, polysemy is a word-specific feature, which implies that for a polysemous word (these translation equivalents cannot be used synonymously or interchangeably in a sentence within the target language.) in the source language, the target user will not necessarily find a target language translation equivalent with the same polysemous senses (Imbajarwo,2008:72). However, Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:12) argues that both vagueness and polysemy provide significant benefits to language users by allowing them to convey an infinite number of meanings using limited lexical resources. The same cannot be stated for their lexicographic consequences. Semantic ambiguity (indeterminacy) hampers determining the meanings of (decontextualised) lexical elements within each language. One cannot even match meanings interlingually for a bilingual dictionary unless such identification is completed.

Imbajarwo (2008:29) asserts that the presentation of structural indicators (markers) should be included in the bilingual dictionary's conceptualisation plan because of their important role in aiding the identification of search areas and the successful retrieval of information. Moreover, Ramusi (2020) concurs with Imbajarwo (2008:29) that bilingual dictionary compilers present haphazard structural markers, making the other microstructural aspects

poorly presented, such as contextual guidance. Furthermore, Mothiba (2012:77) mention that structural markers are not employed wisely or appropriately, and this impacts the target users' ability to distinguish between translation counterparts that are synonyms and those that are polysemous senses.

According to Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:15), early bilingual dictionaries made no distinction between equivalents, instead listing them all together, separated only by commas. Later, in somewhat more ambitious publications, a distinction was adopted between a comma separating interchangeable counterparts and a semicolon separating equivalents that were not interchangeable. Several bilingual dictionaries still carry on this tradition. The scarcity of circumstances in which an SL headword (or sense thereof) can be supplied with even a flawless TL equivalent should indicate that it is not a tradition worth maintaining. Therefore, Letsoalo (2012:39) expounds that in written language, commas (for punctuation marks) are used to provide readers a chance to catch their breaths and create meaning. This is in direct reference to sentence construction and other grammatical aspects. In bilingual dictionaries, the presentation of commas are used to separate synonymous senses and partial synonyms; they are called structural markers or indicators. Furthermore, Ramusi (2020) further provided an example of how structural markers are haphazardly presented: As presented in the bilingual dictionary:

headword → **mmila** : noun 3/4 (pl. mebila) 1 translation equivalent→ road

Contextual guidance→ Re botše gore go ile gwa direga eng ka nako ye Mpho a leka go tshela mmila. *Tell us what happened at the time Mpho tried to cross the road.*

Two translation equivalent→, footpath Contextual guidance→ Go be go na le mmila woo go bego go sepela diphoofolo. *There was a footpath on which wild animals walked.*

(Oxford Pukuntšu,139:2007)

Suggested presentation:

headword → **mmila**: pronunciation→/ mmila / Part of speech→ noun translation equivalent→ road, street Contextual guidance→ *Ke sepetše ka mmila wa R71 go tla Yunibesithing ya Limpopo.* (I used R71 road to get to the University of Limpopo.)

Therefore, in bilingual dictionaries, Imbayarwo (2008:13) states that it is important to discern the relationship between a translation equivalent and a paraphrase of meaning. This refers to self-explanatory translation equivalents. It is to be considered that the target users of bilingual dictionaries typically regard translation equivalents as the meaning of the source language word. The target users occasionally realise that the data on offer (the translation equivalent) is not a paraphrase of meaning or even a statement about meaning but rather a translation equivalent paradigm.

Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:17) further explains that when a lexical item presented as a TL lexicographic equivalent is unclear (due to polysemy, homonymy, or ambiguity), information should be provided to allow the target user to focus on the sense in which the equivalent is to be understood. This is especially crucial in L2-L1 bilingual dictionaries. As such, in L1-L2 bilingual dictionaries, the target user should be familiar with the meaning of the (local) headword, so that the problem should not occur. The same approaches used for sense and equivalent discrimination are often used to address equivalent ambiguity. As a result, grammar codes, use labels, and guide phrases with various cues (synonyms, collocates, etc.) can all be effective disambiguating techniques.

Translation equivalents which do not have any relations with other microstructural aspects, such as contextual guidance and lexical items, will not be useful to the target users (Ramusi,2020). Therefore, in a bilingual dictionary where the headword functions as the guiding element, the translation equivalents are presented as part of the treatment of the headword. Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:15) opines that a translational equivalent, on the other hand, offers a suitable translation when replaced for the SL headword in each context (not least because it has comparable combinatory features). Since there is no upper limit to the number of situations where a particular SL lexeme may appear, the number of potential TL translational equivalents is also large.

According to Mphasha (2013:185), many bilingual dictionaries only translate words from one language into another, with little regard for alternative contexts of the same terms. This hurts the cultural use of words. This occurs amongst numerous people, including Northern Sotho speakers. A bilingual dictionary can only provide a few translation equivalents per

sense, focusing on false friends useful in the most common circumstances in which the SL item appears. In such bilingual dictionaries, headword treatment prevails as the major addressing procedure, where all microstructural entries are directed to the lemma. There is a relation between the headword functioning as the treatment unit and the translation equivalent(s) from the source to the target language forms (Imbayarwo,2008:78-79).

2.8.3. The divergence between translation equivalents

The presentation of a single translation equivalent in a bilingual dictionary carries various relations with other translation equivalents or another headword presented in another section within the same bilingual dictionary. The target user is expected to be either conversant or have an idea of the linguistic structure of the TL to conceptualise the role of divergence in the microstructure of a bilingual dictionary. Divergence is defined by Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:156) as the one-to-many relationship between source and destination language forms. The translation equivalent paradigm will have several translation equivalents for a particular lemma. Divergence is commonly a relation that falls under the area of partial equivalence. Divergence has several subcategories that may be differentiated, namely lexical divergence and semantic divergence.

According to Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:156), lexical divergence occurs when a monosemous lexical item with many translation equivalents serves as a lemma sign. These equivalents are frequently synonyms in the target language, forming a partial equivalence connection. When these translation equivalents are absolute synonyms, they form a complete equivalence connection, as described in the prior paragraph. A comma is often employed as a non-typographical structural marker to separate these analogues to denote the lexical difference. Makwala (2020:6) also states that lexicographers must gather all necessary information on translation equivalents, determine if they are complete or partial synonyms, and determine in what context they may be utilised. As a result, the above example is an example of complete synonyms since the translation equivalents offered may be substituted in all instances. In Makwala's (2020) study on Northern Sotho-English divergence, the following example was presented under lexical divergence:

car – koloj, sefatanaga, mmotoro (Makwala, 2020:56)

Gouws Prinsloo (2005:157) also mention that semantic divergence is the most common occurrence of partial equivalence. It is used when the lemma sign denotes a polysemous lexical item. Polysemy is a linguistic phenomenon, and the chances of a single target language item having the same semantic load as the polysemous source language item are slim. Makwala (2020:65) further elaborates that when semantic divergence is used, structural markers have a role in the presentation of the translation equivalents. Northern Sotho-English lexicographers incorrectly employ a comma as a structural marker instead of a semicolon. The bilingual dictionary target user will select any translation equivalent and use it in any circumstance after seeing the comma separating the translation equivalents. In Makwala's (2020) study on Northern Sotho-English divergence, the following example was presented under semantic divergence:

baagi – builders; citizens (Makwala, 2020:60)

Furthermore, Makwala (2020:60) explains that using a semicolon above informs the bilingual dictionary target user that the translation equivalents 'builders and citizens' have several meanings. As a result, the lexicographer should give contextual guidance on utilising and even defining both translation equivalents. Additionally, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:157) mention that to address the confusion, the remark on semantics has a sub-comment on semantics for each of the polysemous senses, and a translation equivalent for each polysemous meaning of the source language form must be entered. This would suggest that for each translation equivalent, there should be contextual guidance to provide the translation context.

2.8.4. Contextual guidance

As mentioned in the preceding microstructure components, it is important that the target user of the bilingual dictionary who is not conversant with the TL knows how to distinguish translation equivalents that may be presented as either synonymous or polysemous senses. Furthermore, it is important for the target user to conceptualise also how the translation equivalents can be used as part of everyday speech, considering the issue of context. Imbayarwo (2008:74) defines contextual guidance as a scenario where guide words follow every translation equivalent. These words assist towards emphasising the

meaning or equivalence or show the bilingual dictionary target user how and in what context either the headword or translation equivalents can be used. Moreover, Letsoalo (2012:16) further explains that contextual guidance assists the bilingual dictionary target user understand the translation equivalents before selecting the most appropriate one. Contextual guidance operates conjunctively with structural markers to ensure a correct understanding of the entries in a bilingual dictionary.

Prinsloo (2020:589) opines that the lack of dictionaries for advice in "text production" scenarios is one of the key weaknesses in African language lexicography. Most bilingual dictionaries barely meet the demands of its target users for decoding or "on demand" use of bilingual dictionaries. So, for example, negation is a hard topic in Bantu languages; for Northern Sotho, Prinsloo (2020) distinguishes several negation methods, such as *ga*, *sa*, *se*, *ga se*, and *ka se*. These techniques are complex and incompatible. Most bilingual dictionaries still need to meet target users' most basic receptive needs, much alone providing direction on when to utilise which negation morpheme.

Justifiably, Imbayarwo (2008:29) quotes Gouws & Prinsloo (2005: 13) that the function of a bilingual dictionary should be communication orientated. When and if the function of the bilingual dictionary is text production, it is the lexicographer's responsibility to assist the target user in using the words presented by the contextual guidance and the translation equivalents in active communication. Hence, Mafela (2014) opines that the contemporary generation keeps turning to bilingual dictionaries to search for the meaning of idiomatic expressions such as proverbs, idioms, and riddles—causes for such results from the evolution and the change in languages and opportunities for language death. Limited indigenous languages of South Africa have dictionaries of idiomatic expressions such as proverbs and idioms. However, some general dictionaries do have proverbs, idioms, and riddles as part of the definition of lexical entries, but they are not entered as lexical entries. Dictionaries are developed for a certain target user group; hence, the information and presentation must be directed/aimed towards that group. Historically, bilingual dictionaries were frequently constructed without the lexicographers taking the time to investigate the intended users and their special needs (Potgieter,2012). Additionally, Ramusi (2020:8) states that contextual guidance is useless if it is beyond the target users' understanding.

This implies that if the translation equivalent and the contextual guidance do not correlate, they will not have any meaning or will not be user-friendly to the target user. It should be primarily noted that bilingual dictionaries aim at presenting the translation equivalents; the bilingual dictionaries barely expand the contextual guidance for the target users to understand the headword and its translation equivalents. Therefore, the dictionary does not provide adequate information about the concept.

Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:18) concurs with Ramusi (2020) that although bilingual dictionaries serve users of all levels of ability, the examples they provide cannot always be cited precisely as they occur in the corpus but must be carefully altered before being entered into the dictionary. An editorial intervention entails shortening sentences to make them more approachable and removing difficult vocabulary words, obscure cultural allusions, and other potentially distracting material. When examples are supposed to aid in encoding, as they usually are in bilingual lexicography (provided that the equivalents handle the decoding function), more than basic modification may be necessary; therefore, according to Potgieter (2012) it is critical that the example sentences chosen by the lexicographer to demonstrate the application of the lemma be used in a context that the dictionary user is familiar with and understands. As a result, the examples must relate to the learners' lives. If the context or application of the term is too foreign or the sample phrase is too complicated, it will serve as a hindrance rather than a benefit.

It is significant for a bilingual dictionary compiler that when considering the presentation of contextual guidance, they should also accommodate the cultural background of the languages presented in the bilingual dictionary. Hence, Mphasha (2013:185) mentions that bilingual dictionaries must identify the type and level of African culture. The living language conveys and supports culture, forming a tie between members of a certain group of people. A language's existence, prosperity, and expansion depend on its speakers. They also influence culture. It will live on and grow if Africans love and cultivate it through bilingual dictionaries and other reference books such as encyclopaedias. The inclusion of cultural usage of terms with the contextual guidance of bilingual dictionaries is an intellectual investment.

Contextual guidance alone cannot provide both verbal and nonverbal clarification surrounding the presentation both the headword and its translation equivalent. Considering contextual factors that surround the usage of the translation equivalent, it is important that non-verbal information to be presented to aid the presentation of contextual guidance. Gouws et al. (2014:31) allude to the fact that an element of these dictionaries that demonstrates a user-directed approach is the placement of little illustrations in the word list. The pictures are phased out to the left of the page and come before the lemma, which serves as the fundamental guiding feature of each article. It is because of the location is often macro-structural, the images can also be viewed as part of a two-headed lemma consisting of a picture and a word as a lemma sign. This location signifies that the images can be used as guiding elements by the target users. Additionally, Yong & Peng (2008:161) mentions that the level of pictorial inclusion in bilingual dictionaries varies according to type. Illustrations are seldom used in multilingual dictionaries. They occur only when verbal explanations look insufficient and incapable of conveying the meaning content of lexical elements involved with adequacy, clarity, and brevity. Pictorial presence is less prevalent in passive bilingual dictionaries than in inactive ones.

Ramusi (2020:13) explains that the presentation of pictorials illustrates the usage of the translation equivalents for the target user to comprehend and clearly describe what the lexical item looks like. The presentation of pictorials is also stated in the front matter of the bilingual dictionary as a indication of what the target user may expect in the central list of the bilingual dictionary. Furthermore, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:152) opines that pictorial images or ostensive definitions may also be useful in the defining process, especially when describing the meaning of a lemma using a descriptive explanation is difficult.

Additionally, Fonetelle (2015:332) asserts that the presentation of pictorials in bilingual dictionaries are frequently aimed at children, although adults may also use them. Both example sentences and graphical representations have been controversially debated in learner lexicography. For many years, the selection of sample sentences was hotly contested until all publishers eventually agreed on the same methodology. Furthermore, Gouws et al. (2014:31) mention that the elements in the default dictionary articles are motivated by the fact that young target users of these dictionaries need to utilise the

dictionary for text reception reasons to learn the meaning of a certain word that they have met in their syllabus. A brief paraphrase of the meaning in the primary target users' native language aids these users in retrieving the word's translation. The target users are able to also form sentences with a term later during their first school year and use the bilingual dictionary for text production purposes. Moreover, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:160) mentions that, headwords with zero equivalence may be perfect candidates to include pictorial illustrations if bilingual dictionaries employ pictorial illustrations as a form of microstructural entry. The adage "a picture is worth a thousand words" still holds, and to achieve a proper transfer of meaning of a source language word representing a concept unknown to speakers of the target language, the use of a pictorial illustration as a surrogate equivalent may be advantageous to the bilingual dictionary's target users.

2.8.5. Mediostructure (cross-referencing)

It is important that bilingual dictionary compilers should consider providing comprehensive headword retrieval information to the target users. By doing so, the bilingual dictionary will not only be promoting user-friendliness to the target user, but it will be considering the avoidance of unnecessary repetition of headwords. Yong & Peng (2008:100) mention that cross-references serve the purpose of conserving space, preventing needless duplication of information in multiple locations, and directing the user to where further relevant information is offered, assuring the greatest utility of the dictionary's space and content. Furthermore, Fonetelle (2015:293) asserts that the mediostructure of a bilingual dictionary is distinguished by a wide cross-referencing network in which each lexeme is connected to the appropriate item, allowing for quicker lexicographic data consultation. This general system aims to improve internal data access and does not replace morphologic, semantic, and pragmatic cross-references.

Yong & Peng (2008:100) also mention that cross-references in bilingual dictionaries should be organised consistently and unequivocally. They are often introduced using simple signs or symbols and connected to the conclusion of the lemma article or a relevant lemma definition. The forms they take may vary depending on lexicographical judgments made during bilingual dictionary creation, but whatever forms they take, they should be utilised consistently. For example, the same form and system should be assured while dealing with

the same contexts or circumstances. When cross-referencing, the usage of reference markers are functional supplements to the item; therefore, it is not possible to isolate them by means of the method of functional-positional segmentation. Items with reference markers are items giving cross-references which are always at least bi-functional. Their primary genuine function is determined by the class of items with the same general genuine purpose to which they belong. Moreover, Nkomo (2007:373) alludes that the lexicographer and the practice of dictionary making exist between two often opposing forces. On the one hand are the principles prerequisite for dictionary making and on the other hand is the society often unfamiliar with the principles. Playing a balancing role, the bilingual dictionary compilers must present information to this society within the confines of the dictionary type and size and the lexicographic methods and conventions to meet its reference needs and skills. To ensure the practical presentation of cross-references in bilingual dictionaries, it is important that a bilingual dictionary presents reference markers that would ensure that the target users would be able to comprehend the difference between the reference position and the reference address.

It is vital for the bilingual dictionary compiler to consider informing its target users about the relevance of presenting reference markers when implementing cross referencing in the central list of the bilingual dictionary. According to Nkomo (2007:374) when the compiler of the bilingual dictionary strives for the dictionary to be user-friendly, great care must be considered in the creation of a mediostucture. This concerns the presentation of reference markers and their purported functions. Reference markers are typographic and non-typographic cross-reference devices which guide the target user from a reference position to a reference address. These may be words like *SEE, ALSO, GO TO, CHECK, COMPARE* and many such ones in English, or symbols like an arrow pointing to another word which will be the reference address from the reference position. Additionally, Yong & Peng (2008:100) alludes that reference markers when cross-referencing is also made clear in certain bilingual dictionaries using lexicographical symbols such as asterisks (*), arrows (↑, →, ↗, ⇒), and equation marks (=). Symbols are favoured in dictionary-making because they conserve space and are easily recognised in the dictionary content. However, the usage of symbols should be limited, as their overuse in bilingual dictionaries tends to confuse target users.

According to Nkomo (2007:375) the communication of the presentation of the reference markers when cross-referencing needs to be explained in the front matter and their application to similar entries needs to be consistent with the explanation in the front matter. The bilingual dictionary compiler must be reliable, i.e., if a target user moves from one point to another as advised, the target user should in fact find clear or more explicit information at that point. Moreover, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:181) argue that the target user must locate further info at the cross-reference address. Otherwise, the use of cross-referencing is diminished. A cross-reference, or the position of a cross-reference item, merely informs the target user that this is the beginning of the information retrieval process. It starts a fresh dictionary consult procedure. The item in the cross-reference location has a lower usage frequency than the item in the cross-reference address.

Wiegand (2004:03) postulates that in the structural analysis of condensed or partially condensed bilingual dictionary articles, each textual reference position is in accordance with a microstructural reference position as excerpt from the concrete sequential order of the microstructure. Each item giving a reference, whether it is complete or reduced, is addressed twice. Firstly, it exhibits an article-internal relation address, which forms the item identifying the starting-point for the reference. Secondly, it is always mediostructurally addressed to a reference address; this reference address is designated with the item giving the reference address as a partial item of the item giving the reference (therefore in the reference position).

Modiba (2011:68-69) contends that cross-referencing in many Northern Sotho/English bilingual dictionaries has not been presented satisfactorily because the case as cross-referencing is not considered to be a vital item by many lexicographers, as synonyms are all given full lexicographic treatment. In contrast, this type of treatment should only be given to the most frequently used lexicon in the microstructure. Of which concurrently, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:181) assert that the construction of dictionaries is examined from a meta lexicographic standpoint to illustrate the application scope of a cross-referencing system. It is demonstrated how textual coherence, produced via the interplay of numerous structural components, is fostered using a cross-referencing system and enhanced by an innovative method of mediostructure-oriented lexicography.

2.8.7. Reversibility Principle and bidirectionality

To ensure the user-friendliness of the bilingual dictionary, it is important to establish the coordination (or relation) between headwords and translation equivalents in both X-Y and Y-X sections of the bilingual dictionary. Mothiba (2014:77) mentions that there is no comprehensive and dependable reversibility in bilingual dictionaries meant to be bidirectional, so it is difficult for target users to feel sure about the translation counterparts they discover in the same bilingual dictionaries. Furthermore, if one looks at the field of bilingual lexicography for the Bantu languages, one sees that the X-Y side of bidirectional bilingual dictionaries has so far always been compiled independently from the Y-X side. The *reversibility principle* – that is, the condition whereby all lexical items presented as lemma signs or translation equivalents in the X-Y section of the bilingual dictionary are respectively translation equivalents and lemma signs in the Y-X section of the bilingual dictionary (de Schryver, 2006:515). When targeting foreign language target users attempting to acquire a second language becomes increasingly difficult. More extensive, dependable, fully treated, and user-friendly bidirectional bilingual dictionaries are required in South Africa to attain and promote multilingualism.

As such, Veldi (2010:864) states that the introduction of bilingual dictionary compilation software has made technical reversing of a multilingual dictionary easier than ever before. Furthermore, bilingual lexicographers are frequently requested to create bilingual dictionaries that cover both sides of a language pair. The degree of reversibility in bilingual dictionaries varies widely, and only some of the presentation of both headwords and translation equivalents are worth reversing. While a specialised bilingual dictionary may be easily reversed, post-editing a generic dictionary is generally time-consuming. Simultaneously, the post-editing process of a generic dictionary is extremely satisfying. It will result in cross-fertilisation of the target and source dictionaries regarding listed meanings and entries and the treatment of synonyms.

However, Yong & Peng (2008:106) argue that when comparing structural characteristics of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries outside the dictionary content, the issue of bidirectionality and reversibility becomes instantly apparent. Bilingual dictionaries must coordinate between two languages and cater to the demands of native speakers of one or

both languages. A bilingual dictionary is considered monodirectional if it only has one section (X-Y section only) in which explanations follow the paradigmatic structure in the source language in the target language. It is intended to fulfil the needs of native speakers of one of the two languages engaged in the bilingual dictionary and, depending on the dictionary may perform either the encoding or decoding function.

Theoretically, Yong & Peng (2008:108) continue to argue that reversibility does not appear to be working with language bilingual dictionaries since no two languages in the world, even those of the same origin, have a one-to-one correspondence between lexical units and their meanings, let alone differences in cultural implications, even if such correspondence exists. That said, Mothiba (2012:20) mentions that a bilingual dictionary can be considered bidirectional if it consists of two parts, one running from the source language to the target language and the other in the reverse direction. The L1-L2 section of a bidirectional dictionary will be utilised as a reading dictionary (for decoding) for native L2 speakers and a writing dictionary (for encoding) for native L1 speakers. In the L2-L1 section, this will be reversed. The reversibility principle will be followed if the bilingual dictionary treats the two languages equally lexicographically. This means that everything on the right-hand side of the L1-L2 section must resurface on the left-hand side of the L2-L1 as far as the two lexicons' structures allow.

2.8.8. Lexicographic data boxes

According to Gouws & Prinsloo (2021:332), a lexicographic data box, or simply data box, is a data-carrying component of a bilingual dictionary's word list. It contains data presented, such as part of the treatment of a specific lemma that is the guiding element of the article in which the data box appears or that is close to the data box; also it carries the part of treatment of various headwords where the data box is an entry in an article or in a partial article stretch that accommodates one of the lemmata for which the treatment in the data box is relevant; and in a phased-in inner text in an article stretch.

Different macro-/macrostructures should allow lexicographers to provide microstructural materials that best suit their target users' needs and reference abilities. Gouws & Prinsloo (2010:501) mention that one of the most significant paradigm adjustments in modern

lexicography is recognising that not all articles in a particular lexicon must have the same structure. Once again, the user perspective is crucial to the planning and constructing bilingual dictionaries. This also relates to the distribution and presentation of data in any specific lexicon.

Taljad, Prinsloo, & Gouws (2014: 698) elucidate further that text boxes can only be considered a valuable lexicographic device in LSP dictionaries if the intended user's skills, needs, and knowledge, as well as the dictionary's function and real purpose, are considered. In the subject of LSP dictionaries, when deciding on the probable usage of text boxes in LSP dictionaries, one should negotiate subtypological variety based on target users. There are three distinct user groups: experts, semi-experts, and laypeople. Text boxes could be useful for target users new to a subject field and rely heavily on their LSP dictionary for guidance. As a result, text box assistance is especially necessary for users of school dictionaries.

Furthermore, Gouws & Prinsloo (2021:332) mention that lexicographic data boxes are prominent dictionary entries that should be used when it is necessary to draw the target user's attention to a non-standard type of data or to focus more than usual on a specific data item. As a result of the lexicographic techniques used in an extended compulsory microstructure, care should be taken to ensure that lexicographic data boxes are separate from the obligatory microstructure, losing their meaning and decreasing the emphasis on the data included in these boxes. Lexicographers should distinguish between employing data boxes and using other lexicographic techniques like a labelling system to direct the user's attention.

However, Taljad et.al. (2014: 697) outline those lexicographers for contemporary dictionaries frequently use lexicographic text boxes to display lexicographic data, especially when a stronger emphasis or additional data about a given item is required. Text boxes should be utilised more as a lexicographic device in normal dictionaries and even more so in LSP dictionaries. They should, however, not be employed haphazardly but rather by a well-planned framework. Looking at existing dictionaries, text boxes must be revised to ensure good data retrieval. Text boxes should be utilised to show data that needs to be

highlighted. Gouws & Prinsloo (2021:375) clarify that data boxes are commonly used in paper and electronic dictionaries to convey a variety of data that is not typically catered for by standard presentation procedures such as items providing the paraphrase of meaning (definitions), translation equivalents, examples of usage, pictorial illustrations, pronunciation guidance, and frequency indicators. When data entries are necessary to enrich the lexicographic display and treatment, data boxes are utilised — they add value to the default treatment. They often incorporate a variety of data kinds such as grammar, pronunciation, sense distinction, contrasting related words, application range constraints, register, pronunciation, etc.

Furthermore, Taljard et.al. (2014: 698) mention that microstructural elements and different indications used to identify article slots and item types are often included in the article structure. Text boxes are not among the dictionary article's default elements. They, like objects, can be functionally positionally segmented but as a different form of entry, usually as inserted inner text. They are normally immediate constituents of the article in this way. However, they could also be immediate constituents of a specific part of the article, such as the comment on semantics. They can be placed wherever the lexicographer considers necessary and cover any part of the article. They do not have to be addressed to a specific item in the article and can act as unaddressed entries.

According to Gouws & Prinsloo (2021:334), lexicographic data boxes have become more common in printed dictionaries, particularly learner's bilingual dictionaries, and electronic dictionaries, particularly those based on paper dictionaries, in recent decades. Although the quality of (learner's) bilingual dictionaries is constantly improving, owing to extensive research in the field of theoretical lexicography regarding this dictionary type, the competitive market and competition between publishing houses have also impacted changes in the structures and contents of dictionaries. Therefore, when deciding on the data types offered in text boxes for South African school learners' LSP dictionaries, care should be taken to leave the data that should form part of the default compulsory microstructure in text boxes (Taljard et.al., 2014: 703). Useful data on (regular) singular/plural forms, morphological derivations, and pronunciation, for example, would add

value to LSP dictionaries as good lexicographic products. Still, these data categories should instead constitute part of the mandatory microstructure.

Gouws & Prinsloo (2021:334-335) mention that the addressing structure and numerous addressing relations in bilingual dictionaries are vital for identifying the scope and target of each item in a dictionary entry. The relationship between form and information is analogous to the relationship between topic and comment. The addressing technique is the "method by which a form and information relating to that form are brought together." Each information is assigned to a specific form known as its address. Lexicographic data boxes are functional components of bilingual dictionaries and should not be used for lexicographic face-lifting. As part of the lexicographic treatment techniques, they are included in bilingual dictionaries. When allocating a lexicographic data box to a given search zone, the unique treatment contributed by the data box must be considered.

2.9. Conclusion

Chapter Two interrogated various scholarly contributions on the quality of a compiling a bilingual dictionary and the presentation of both the megastructure and mediostructure at different levels and spheres of the world. The researcher also unpacked the various scholarly contributions on the structure, the contents and what many scholars have researched about the compilation of the megastructure of a bilingual dictionary until reaching to mediostructure for a bilingual dictionary. It has outlined how some of these aspects have been overlooked and has provided examples in the form of extractions to validate the reality of the discussions. The subsequent Chapter Three focuses on the research methodology and the theoretical framework. Like any scholarly study, there should be different mechanisms and methods to be implemented for the study to be satisfactorily conducted. Furthermore, there should be a theoretical underpinning for conducting the study.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Introduction

For a study to be well conducted, there is a need to demarcate how the study will be conducted such that applicable and relevant research methods and study theories are adopted to validate if the study has any research ethical concerns. This chapter can also be perceived as the research plan of the entire study. In chapter three, the researcher discusses the research methodology aspects and the theoretical framework followed when the data was scrutinised. The researcher introduces the adopted research design, the sample, the data collection tool, and how the data was analysed. The chapter discusses and motivates the application of the identified theoretical framework and how the selected theory supports the study.

3.2. Research methodology

Igwenangu (2016:4) defines methodology as the systematic, theoretical scrutiny of the methods applied to a field of study. Methodology encompasses the theoretical analysis of methods and ideologies linked with a branch of knowledge. The term methodology can be defined as a set of systematic techniques used in research. The methodology is described as a guide for conducting research. The concept research methodology defines and analyses methods, with a clear emphasis on the limitations and resources, which clarifies their presuppositions and consequences, relating their capabilities to the research area at the frontiers of knowledge.

This study adopted the qualitative research paradigm due to the reason that the study is exclusively based on the structural analysis of the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. Qualitative research is an exceedingly subjective research discipline designed to assess beyond proportions to expand an understanding of feelings, impressions, and viewpoints (Goundar, 2012:9). Moreover, Kabir (2016:203) extends the definition by mentioning that qualitative data is mostly non-numerical and usually descriptive or nominal. This means the data collected is in the form of words and sentences. Often (not always), such data captures feelings, emotions, or subjective perceptions of a

scenario. Qualitative approaches always seek to address a program's 'how' and 'why' and tend to use unstructured data collection methods to explore the topic fully. Nassaji (2015:129) concurs with Kabir (2016) that qualitative research is more rounded and habitually encompasses a rich collection of data from various sources to obtain an unfathomable understanding of individual participants, including their opinions, perspectives, and attitudes. This often encompasses an inductive examination of the data collected to identify recurring themes, patterns, or concepts and then describe and interpret those categories of themes.

Furthermore, Asenahabi (2019:81) also explains that the qualitative research method values individuality, culture, and social justice, providing content and a context-rich breadth of information regardless of being subjective. Qualitative research generally observes (not regularly) a constructivist view of the world, one that advocates that reality is in the eye of the beholder, meaning that there is no single reality for a given phenomenon but numerous comparative dimensions of reality which can only be partially apprehended using subjective, naturalistic methods (Keilmann, Catadlo, & Seeley, 2012). The researcher selected the qualitative research method for it is in line with the objectives of the study which is to provide an analysis of different components of the megastructure (front matter, central list (with reversibility principle), and back matter) and the mediostructure (cross-referencing) in the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. Additionally, the study pays attention to grammatical and cross-cultural factors associated with the presentation of the megastructure and the mediostructure in the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. Consequently, these factors require a qualitative approach as they are content-based and provide a descriptive phenomenon to address the objectives the study wants to achieve.

Sapthami (2020:6) emphasises that qualitative data-collecting methods are important in impact evaluation because they provide information that may be used to understand the processes that lead to observable results and measure changes in people's perceptions of their well-being. Qualitative data is often non-numerical and descriptive or nominal. This indicates that the information gathered is in words and phrases. Such data frequently (but not always) conveys feelings, emotions, or subjective views of things. Therefore, qualitative

techniques attempt to address a programme's 'how' and 'why' and often employ unstructured data-gathering methods to examine the issue properly. Open-ended qualitative questions always help expand this type of research scope.

3.3. Research design

The researcher's concepts and principles are reflected in the study design. It assists in avoiding frustration by connecting the research through a systematic strategy that demonstrates how all the research endeavour's primary characteristics align with responding to the research questions (Asenahabi, 2019:87). Correspondingly, Jongbo (2014:88) asserted that social research requires a plan or framework before data collecting or analysis can begin. A research design is more than just a work plan (a work plan outlines what must be done to finish the project, but the work plan will emerge from the project's research design) since it ensures that the data amassed allows the investigator to answer the initial question as clearly as possible.

Additionally, Ansari, Rahim, Bhoje, & Bhosale (2022:1132) concur that after creating a research design, the process allows the researcher to make informed judgments during the investigation. It aids in identifying the key and insignificant tasks of the study endeavour. It makes research work more exciting and constructive by offering tiny information at each stage of the study process. Furthermore, Williams (2007:67) opines that the social phenomena being researched from the participant's point of view is one identifier of qualitative research. Several study designs employ qualitative research tools to shape the research strategy. As a result, the various methodologies significantly impact the study tactics investigated. The research designs to be utilised in the study are the explorative and descriptive research designs within the qualitative research method.

3.3.1. Explorative research design

According to Nyangiwe (2021:126), when there is minimal knowledge or information about the situation or when no information is accessible on how comparable problems or research topics have been addressed in the past, an exploratory research study is done. Its goal is to investigate the study issue at varied depths rather than to produce final and definitive solutions to the research questions.

However, Goundar (2012:28) highlights that exploratory research often depends on secondary research, such as reviewing available literature and data, or qualitative approaches, such as informal discussions with consumers, employees, management, or competitors, and more formal approaches through in-depth interviews, focus groups, projective methods, case studies or pilot studies. Additionally, the internet allows for more interactive research methods. The study is considered explorative as it discovers innovative measures to improve the megastructure and mediostructure within the selected Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries. Therefore, in the context of the study, the review of selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries sets the explorative ground and direction that the researcher should explore, which are the structure and content of bilingual dictionaries.

3.3.2. Descriptive research design

Ansari et al. (2022:1133) assert that descriptive research design is a research project that seeks information to characterise an item, situation, or population methodically—clearly, answering questions concerning what, when, where, and how a research problem helps rather than why. This strategy entails employing a new research method to explore the variables in the issue. Furthermore, Akhtar (2021:75) also alludes to the fact that descriptive research design identifies and acquires information on a certain topic, such as a community, group, or people. In other words, this form of the study describes social events, social structures, social circumstances, and so on. The observer observes and describes what the researcher has discovered.

Thakur (2021:3) asserts that the descriptive research design is a theory-based approach in which the researcher primarily articulates the study topic. It is used in case studies, naturalistic observations, surveys, and other similar situations. This strategy entails gathering data, analysing it, and presenting it. It enables the researcher to communicate the issue statement properly, allowing others to better comprehend the importance of this type of study. In the context of this study, the descriptive research design assists the researcher in providing an in-depth description of the existing research problem amongst the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. This enables the study to provide a clear demonstration (with illustrations) and relationships between the

presentation of both megastructural and mediostructure aspects in bilingual dictionaries and what corrective measures were designed to address the research problem with support from the existing literature to validate those corrective measures.

3.4. Sampling

Sampling is a procedure to select a sample from an individual or a large population group for a certain kind of research purpose (Bhardwaj, 2019). Sapthami (2020:22) also simplifies the definition of 'Sampling' as the name implies, and it is the process of sampling something. Therefore, a sample, in layman's words, may demonstrate the traits and attributes of the object of which it is a part. A sample, in other terms, is a portion of something that serves as a specimen or example of that object. Thus, 'sampling' may be defined as selecting a representative sample from a population to be investigated using a certain approach. However, sampling must be consistent with the aims and conventions characteristic in the use of either selected research method (Palinkas, Horwitz, Green, Wisdom, Duan, & Hoagwood, 2013:9).

The researcher adopted purposive sampling for the study. The reason for the selection of purposive sampling is that the study focuses on addressing issues on megastructure and mediostructure aspects within the selected bilingual dictionaries, as stated in the study's aim and objectives. Therefore, the purposiveness of the sample to be featured in the study is guided by the existing literature related to how both megastructure and mediostructure aspects can be contemporarily presented in bilingual dictionaries. Hence purposive sampling design is based on the researcher's judgment of what provides the best information to succeed in the objectives study (Etikan & Bala, 2017:215). Therefore, this sampling technique is relevant for the study because the researcher uses selected literal texts (i.e., dictionaries) as samples for data collection.

Purposive sampling is convenient in these instances (the study context) because it provides a wide range of non-probability sampling techniques for the researcher to draw on Sharma (2017:751). Purposive sampling is widely used in qualitative research to identify and select information-rich cases related to the phenomenon of interest (Palinkas et al., 2013:3). In the context of the study, the selected data (which is entirely secondary data) in

Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries can be considered as an information-rich sample that fulfils the intended purpose of the study. This is because the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries mentioned consist of different megastructural aspects that are presented differently. After all, the selected bilingual dictionaries were compiled using the traditional method of compiling dictionaries. As presented in Chapter Two, the figure below provides clarity on what megastructural features entail:

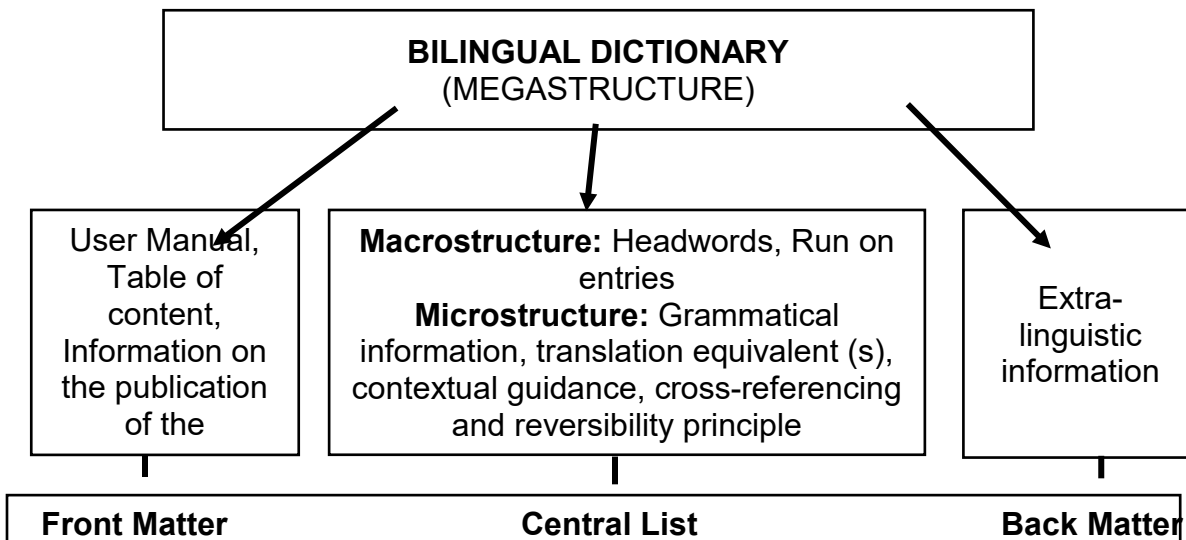


Fig. 2.1. Megastructure of a bilingual dictionary

Therefore, the researcher uses the megastructural and mediostructure features of the selected Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries. The titles of the selected Northern Sotho Kriel Popular Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionary (1994), Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004), and Oxford School Dictionary (Pukuntšu ya Sekolo) (2007). These megastructural and mediostructure features serve as different body parts of the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. However, acknowledging that there are other dictionaries for Northern Sotho which are produced by the National Lexicographic Unit (NLU) but are not part of the curriculum nor widely used than the ones featured in the study.

3.5. Data collection

Data collection is systematically gathering and measuring information on variables of interest that enables one to answer stated research questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes (Kabir, 2016:202). Furthermore, Saphthami (2020:5) defines data

collection as the systematic process of acquiring and measuring information on variables of interest to answer specified research questions, test hypotheses, and assess outcomes. Tools are the instruments used to acquire data in this manner. Data collection is a research component shared by all disciplines of study, including physical and social sciences, humanities, business, and so on. While procedures differ depending on the field, the focus on ensuring accurate and honest collecting remains constant. The purpose of any data collection is to capture high-quality evidence, which translates to rich data analysis and enables the construction of a persuasive and credible solution to the questions addressed. This study has used secondary data and will be extracted from the texts mentioned as samples.

Simister (2017:2) asserts that sometimes, information collected by other researchers, individuals, or organisations can be used for planning, monitoring, or evaluation for their purposes. This is known as secondary data. Udu, Chukwuemeka, and Oti (2018:54) define secondary data as data collected by a party, individuals, or entities not related to the research study but collected information for a specific purpose (not related to the current study conducted) and at a different time in the past. Secondary data is identified in terms of its internal or external source. Udu et al. (2018:54) mention the functions of secondary data: extracting relevant information from other sources, previous studies, and fact findings (identification of descriptive information to support the study). This study was guided by the two secondary data functions mentioned by Udu et al. (2018). The guidance is as follows:

Function	Implementation in the study
The extraction of relevant information from other sources, previous studies	The extraction of the megastructural features by the structure of the bilingual dictionary. This is because some bilingual dictionaries may not have the same structural content as the megastructural features, i.e., some bilingual dictionaries might not have the back or front matter.

Fact findings (identification of descriptive information to support the study).	Identifying specific features inconsistently (or not) presented in the bilingual dictionaries contributes to the megastructural features. i.e., usage of structural markers, reversibility principle, etc.
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Secondary data is a habitually valuable source of information that can enhance other forms of data collection (Simister, 2017:2). The megastructure features extracted from the Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries comprise the following: front matter (guiding material for the production and usage of the bilingual dictionary), central list (middle matter, consisting of the macrostructure and the microstructure), and the back matter (additional supporting material attached in the middle or at the back of the bilingual dictionaries, for the pedagogical needs of the target users).

3.6. Data analysis

Data analysis is stating facts and figures to address the research problem. The data analysis needs to address the research question. Another important component of data analysis in the study is the interpretation of the data, which is adapted from the data analysis and makes interpretations and draws conclusions (Ashirwadam, 2014:1). Furthermore, Lacey & Luff (2009:6) mention that the number of words generated by interviews or observational data must be characterised and summarised in qualitative data analysis. The inquiry may ask the researchers to look for connections between numerous themes found or to tie respondents' behaviour or thoughts to biographical variables such as age or gender.

The method of data analysis to be used in this study is content analysis. Graue (2015) defines content analysis as an approach to documents that emphasises the role of the investigator in constructing the meaning of and in texts. There is an emphasis on allowing categories to emerge out of data and on recognising the significance of understanding the meaning of the context in which an item being analysed (and the categories derived from it) appeared. Gheyle & Jacobs (2017:2) define content analysis (CA) as a strategy sense

of the (often unstructured) content of messages – be they texts, images, symbols, or audio data. Briefly, the role of content analysis is to attempt to determine the textual meaning. In qualitative research, the content analysis also observes semantic relationships rather than just the presence of words and the meaning behind texts.

Huma & Nayeem (2017:1) outline that there are two forms of content analysis:

Conceptual Analysis: It investigates the existence and frequency of concepts in human communication. Relational Analysis: It investigates the link between concepts in human communication. The researcher opted to utilise relational analysis. The reason for selecting this form of content analysis is that the study also investigates the linguistic relationship between the megastructural and mediostructure aspects. The study focuses on the contemporary relationship between the SL and the TL within the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. In addition, the researcher analyses the selected extracts from the already mentioned Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries using different categories related to the context of the study (i.e., context area of the extracted headwords and their presentation in the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries). However, this will be applied in the subsequent chapters.

3.6.1. Process of Content analysis in the study

The technique of conducting content analysis, as demonstrated by Huma & Nayeem (2017:2), will be implemented in this study. The following procedure will be contextualised by what the researcher intended to achieve with this study:

Process Criteria	How will it be implemented in the study
Identifying the research questions	This aspect has been covered in chapter 1.
Select your sample	Kriel Popular Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionary (1994), Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004), and Oxford School Dictionary

	(Pukuntšu) (2007). This aspect has been covered under sampling (3.3.1).
Skim the material selected through the procedure above and make a list of the main themes you plan to analyse:	The plan and the categorisation of how the data will be analysed have been mentioned below after discussing how the researcher used purposive sampling.
4. This would become your coding system or scheme.	This is covered by giving the mentioned Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries code names with the usage of their titles as abbreviations or acronyms: KPNSE: Kriel Popular Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionary (1994). PPNSD: Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) OSD: Oxford School Dictionary (Pukuntšu) (2007)
5. Keep in mind that the categories made during the preliminary study should not overlap each other. The categories or themes must be defined in an easily understandable way. In this regard, operational definitions are cardinal.	The categories are in line with responding to the research questions.
6. You can classify the content based on these themes or categories.	This depends on the type of headwords identified and their context or study area. E.g., Cultural, Scientific, etc.
7. If some content does not fit any categories but is related to the topic under study, you can	This aligns with the comparisons between the Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries and other

list a few new categories like miscellaneous or others and list the content accordingly.	advanced dictionaries. i.e., Oxford Afrikaans-English Bilingual Dictionary
8. After qualitative content analysis, you can quantify these themes simply by counting the frequencies. Hence, analysis of the content can be done in both qualitative as well as quantitative manners at the same time.	This does not apply; hence, the researcher has opted for rational analysis.

Neuendorf (2017) explains predictive content analysis as a type of content analysis that has as its primary goal the prediction of some outcome or effect of the messages under examination. By measuring key characteristics of messages, the researcher may aim to predict receiver or audience responses to the message. Additionally, Uwe (2014:174) explains that texts can be analysed through intertextual relationships, outlining the dimensions of similarity, comparison, contrast, and difference. Documents interchange, drift, and exchange because they can be used to decontextualise and recontextualise events.

Stuckey (2016:7) outlines that the second phase in data analysis is coding, arranging and classifying qualitative data. Some research methodologists argue that coding is only technical preparation for higher-level study thinking, yet coding involves analysis. Codes are typically used to extract and categorise data with comparable meanings, allowing the researcher to discover and cluster related segments rapidly. Coding might take hours, weeks, or even months, depending on the size of the information. Gheyle & Jacobs (2017:7) explains that coding unstructured texts into categories (inductively or deductively) is a laborious effort. Only this creation of categories alone merits extensive thought. The categories (and coding rules that put observations in them) should be specific and comprehensive: For every coded unit, there is a category. These categories should also be contradictory because they cannot intersect, not even to a small degree. The analysis will briefly outline the following aspects:

- a. The presentation of the front matter, central list, and back matter:

How different front matters are presented to envisage the structure of the bilingual dictionaries: The researcher analyses the different sets of front matters (which contain the compiler's profile) presented in each of the Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. The focus was to identify each front matter's gaps and assess the adequacy of the information presented in the front matter and the central list.

The relationship between the macrostructure and microstructure towards the presentation of lexical items: The researcher analyses how these Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries differ in the presentation of both macro and microstructural aspects.

How the linguistic information can aid the presentation of the lexical items: The researcher analyses the differences in the presentation of morpho-syntactic and pragmatic information in the Northern Sotho-English dictionaries and their relationship with the translation equivalents.

b. Presentation of lexical items and microstructural aspects:

The relationship of the lexical item with the translation equivalent: With the researcher being a native and fluent speaker of the language (Northern Sotho), the researcher identified the gaps between the relationship between the lexical item (the headword) and the translation equivalent (which applied in both X-Y and Y-X sections).

The role and the function of the different microstructural aspects of the lexical item: The researcher analysed the context in which the translation equivalents have been presented. The researcher also assessed the accuracy and relevancy of contextual guidance as a guiding tool for the target user to obtain more information about the translation equivalent.

c. The relationship between the translation equivalents and other microstructural aspects: The presentation style of the translation equivalents in X-Y and Y-X sections: The researcher analyses how the dictionaries differ in guiding the user on how the translation equivalents relate to other equivalents that can be in the same bilingual dictionary. I.e., the usage of the reversibility principle.

d. Assessing the relationship between the translation equivalents within the central list of the bilingual dictionaries: The researcher assesses the impact of the relationship between translation equivalents amongst the X-Y and Y-X sections of the bilingual dictionary (application of the reversibility principle). Furthermore, the researcher assesses how these selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries address issues with mediostructure aspects (cross-referencing).

3.7. Theoretical framework

Kivunja (2018:45) opines that a theory generally results from a lengthy study process that uses empirical data to establish statements based on deductive and inductive data analysis. The observations from the research yield results that converge on insights concerning correlations through time and based on explicitly stated assumptions, enabling the researcher to develop the essential ideas from which the abstract theory may be generalised. The emerging hypothesis offers an intellectual, research-based foundation for understanding, implementing, analysing, and inventing new technologies and methods for investigating links and solving issues in educational and social science settings. Therefore, Grant & Onsanloo (2014:12) define a theoretical framework as the foundation from which all information about the study is constructed (metaphorically and literally) for the study. It serves as the structure and support for the motivation for the study, the problem statement, the purpose, the significance, and the research questions. The theoretical framework provides a grounding base, or an anchor, for the literature review and, most importantly, the methods and analysis.

According to Ngulube, Mathipa, & Gumbo (2022:13), a researcher should discuss their theoretical framework, including how and why the theory was chosen, adopted, and employed. The justification for picking the theory should be linked to considering the theoretical framework's implications for the study. The researchers may also describe an alternate theoretical framework and show how the favoured one adds to research rigour. Huete-García (2023:278) mentions that modifying or adapting the structure of lexicographic products has always been one of the focal motivations of lexicographers to achieve the desired user-retrieved knowledge with each dictionary. According to the function theory, the core task of lexicography is the conception and production of high-quality dictionaries,

i.e., utility tools which can be quickly and easily consulted to meet specific types of punctual information needs, occur for specific types of users in specific types of social situations (Fuertes-Olivera & Tarp,2014:60). The theory of Lexicographic Functions which was first introduced by Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003) developed in the last decades a classification of four main lexicographical functions into which lexicographical products can be divided according to their purpose(s): communicative (translation, text production and reception), cognitive (usage of dialectical knowledge), operative (usage of mental activity towards acting in a certain manner) and interpretative (ability to understand certain non-linguistic signs).

Lexicography is constantly changing and adapting to satisfy new (user) needs in new situations of practical use. This justifies not only the versatility of dictionaries, but also the blurring of the line that separates them from manuals and handbooks, and the assimilation of manuals into dictionaries (Huete-García,2023:280). Therefore, Fuertes-Olivera & Tarp (2014:59) mention that the function theory, as described, is most useful above all when it comes to designing dictionary concepts and determining the specific data categories to be included in a specific dictionary project. However, it goes beyond abstract categorisation, being likewise concerned with giving content to these categories (communicative, cognitive, operative, and interpretive) and providing methods and specific guidance to select the required data and prepare this for the users of specific dictionaries.

Concerning the study, the theory promotes the usage and functionality of bilingual dictionaries to attend to the needs of its target users. The theory considers that target users of the bilingual dictionary have different needs and consult the bilingual dictionaries for various purposes. By doing so, bilingual dictionaries can be user-friendly as they would attend to the communicative, cognitive, operative, and interpretational functions, respectively. Therefore, the megastructure (front matter, central list, and back matter) and the mediostructure (cross-references) must meet the categories that form part of the function lexicographic theory. The application of the theory in the study is as follows:

Category	Application of the category in the study
<p>Communicative (translation, text production and reception) lexicographical functions are traditionally typologised and named following the basic target user situation (Olivera & Tarp,2014:63).</p>	<p>This category of the theory ensures that the megastructural aspects are presented following what the bilingual dictionary intends to fulfil. The study analyses the megastructure features to ensure that the provision of the front matter, guides the target user, and the presentation of macro-/microstructure and mediostructure that supports the target user with basic and relevant information about the bilingual dictionary.</p>
<p>cognitive (usage of dialectical knowledge) Terminological, linguistic, and grammatical information provided by a dictionary based on the target language (whether monolingual or bilingual “in the other direction”) (Olivera & Tarp,2014:71).</p>	<p>This category of the theory focuses on how the presentation of macro-/microstructure aspects are presented within the relevant context at the level of the target user’s understanding, with consideration of both SL and TL cultures. This will be done by providing references to specific supporting literature and resources that are relevant to the analysis.</p>
<p>Operative (using mental activity towards acting in a certain manner) the user needs advice and instructions to perform any mental or manual action. The action that the person wants to perform requires that the person should be provided with advice and instructions (Tarp, 2008: 185).</p>	<p>This category of the theory advocated the presentation of microstructural aspects that provide the target user with comprehensive information that is relevant to the usage of headwords.</p>
<p>Interpretative (ability to understand certain non-linguistic signs) interpretative situations are applicable when a potential target</p>	<p>The category of the theory presents the provision of non-verbal information that supports and provides variation in form concerning both macro-/microstructural aspects in the</p>

<p>user requires assistance to interpret a non-language sign of some kind about a concept (Agerbo,2017:3).</p>	<p>bilingual dictionary. The theory does not advocate for independence in this category.</p>
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The direct function of the theory in the study is to advocate for the lexicographic principle of user-friendliness in bilingual dictionaries, as these dictionaries have more functions apart from providing translation equivalents. According to Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:12), The way dictionaries are oriented towards the dictionary culture level of the intended users is referred to as user-friendliness. A broad language dictionary's target users are not scholars or students but ordinary speech community members who can be empowered by access to a dictionary. The ability of the target users to use the bilibual dictionary influences the formulation of any dictionary's model, and the secondary comprehensive lexicographic process must negotiate the proper relationship between user-friendliness and a dictionary culture to ensure that the lexicographic products to be published will empower the intended target users.

Furthermore, Khumalo (2009:21) asserts that there are two ways to look at user-friendliness. It might refer to the size and format of the dictionary's cover and the presentation of definitions and examples. For example, The *Isichazamazwi sesiNdebele* (ISN) is user-friendly since it is lightweight and easy to operate. It is medium and large enough to encompass a wide range of words. It features a big format cover. The text's typefaces and spacing fit gracefully and legibly inside its broader margins. The user can access information in the dictionary more easily because of the straightforward style and presentation.

3.8. Ethical considerations

According to Bartneck, Lütge, Wagner, & Welsh (2021:17), the concepts "ethics" and "morality" are sometimes used interchangeably. However, they have sometimes separated because morality refers to a complex system of laws, values, and norms that determine or are believed to determine people's conduct, whereas ethics refers to morality theory. It is

also possible to argue that ethics concerns principles, universal judgments, and standards more than subjective or personal judgments and values.

While secondary data analysis of quantitative data has become normal and promoted across fields, secondary data analysis of qualitative data has received greater criticism and concerns about potential methodological and ethical issues (Ruggiano & Perry, 2019). This is because, in certain disciplines, such as lexicography, it is still being investigated how researchers can incorporate qualitative approaches with the established research ethical components, given that most of the data is secondary. Juwel, Segufta, & Ali (2021:2-3) advocate that the researcher must follow research ethics to avoid fraud when performing and reporting study results. Research ethics also protects research participants from any potential damage. This contributes to the validity of any research.

According to Arifin (2018), in a qualitative study, ethical considerations have a particular quality due to the in-depth nature of the study process. Some of the standards researchers follow to protect the rights of study participants and establish a trusting connection between study participants and the investigator are referred to as research ethics (Juwel et al., 2021:2). As such, the study does not engage any animals, plant organisms, or human participants. The study has attained an ethics endorsement letter from the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Tripathy (2013:1478) asserts that permission for future use and analysis is indicated if the data is widely available online, in books, or in other public venues. However, the original data's ownership must be recognised. The study addressed this issue since, in the sample subsection of this chapter, the researcher specified the sources that comprise the secondary data used in the study. The publishing years of the Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries were listed. To conform to this ethical component, the researcher provided the names of the bilingual dictionaries and the years they were published in the subsequent chapters.

However, Tripathy (2013:1478) argues that there are undoubtedly additional difficulties concerning the data obtained for secondary analysis. The information gathered should be

appropriate and useful but not excessive. The original data was not gathered to address the current study topic via secondary data analysis. Thus, the data should be examined using criteria such as data collection process, accuracy, duration, goal, and substance. Juwel et al. (2021:6) assert that maintaining credibility and public confidence is also ensured by adhering to ethical norms in research. In research, ethical considerations should be considered throughout the study design phase. As a result, addressing ethical concerns and obstacles coincides with the research approach to maximise the impact.

3.9. Conclusion

The chapter has outlined the research method and the processes related to data collection, documentation, and analysis to be presented, analysed, and discussed in Chapter Four. The chapter motivated and discussed applying the referential theory of meaning in the study context. The chapter expanded the research methodology by outlining the research design, sample, and data collection method used in the study. With the data collected and the ethical concerns addressed, Chapter Four is the first of the two chapters that present how the data was collected, presented, and analysed, applying the mentioned research methodology in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter is the first chapter which analyses the data amassed from the bilingual dictionaries mentioned in chapter three. To reflect on the previous chapter, this study uses qualitative research method. Therefore, Ngulube (2015:3) mentioned that data analysis in qualitative research provides naturally appearing information and assists in answering why and how questions while documenting the interventions of the researcher during the whole research process. The chapter focuses on the presentation of the megastructure aspects in the selected bilingual dictionaries. Chapter Four focuses on meeting the first two objectives of the study. It provides an analysis of the megastructure features as identified from the bilingual dictionaries and it also provides an analysis of both the macro- and microstructural features in terms of context and cotext.

4.2. Evaluation of the megastructural features in the selected bilingual dictionaries

It should be noted by the target users that the megastructure of the bilingual dictionary is the dictionary structure itself. Before embarking on the analysis of various megastructures, it is best to recap the literature discussed in Chapter Two about the megastructure. The following analysis evaluates how bilingual dictionaries present their megastructure. It focuses on the inadequacies that are presented in these bilingual dictionaries and how can they be best presented to promote user-friendliness. It is also important to note that the formation of clear and consistent guidelines for the megastructure and medio-structure of a bilingual dictionary entry, as well as adherence to these principles, determines the success of any dictionary development (Koeva & Blagoeva, 2013:59-60).

The megastructural aspects to be evaluated are the presentation of the front matter, central list (macro-/microstructure), and the back matter. The importance of analysing the megastructural aspects is to ensure that the communicative function (text production, translation and reception) is implemented as the theory of Lexicographic Functions states. To provide an analysis, the communicative category in the megastructures is identified as lexicographical functions that are traditionally typologised and named following the basic target user situation (Olivera & Tarp,2014:63). Therefore, in the analysis of the

megastructure aspects towards the three selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries, the study identifies what has been presented with support of relevant literature towards fulfilling the communicative category of the theory of Lexicographic Functions . Yong & Peng (2008:5) assert that when examining the megastructural level, the entire dictionary appears to be built in the same manner as any other text. The front matter, which serves as an introduction, comes first. This is followed by the bilingual dictionary's body (i.e., dictionary text), which tells the main story. The back matter follows the body part and concludes the bilingual dictionary with supplementary material to the main story.

4.2.1. Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

4.2.1.1. Front matter

- a. **Publishers:** The first page of the front matter of the bilingual dictionary mentions the publishing company, which is important to be listed in the front matter. A target user familiar with different publishing houses might be attracted to consult the dictionary because he/she has an idea of what to expect from that publishing house because of its reputation. The names of such publishing houses could indicate the authority such a bilingual dictionary has (Hlongwane,2021:149). The compilers and publishers of the bilingual dictionary have succeeded with indicating the year and the edition number which the dictionary was produces, which is the year 1994.
- b. **Preface/information about the publishers:** The second page of the front matter serves as a preface of the bilingual dictionary. The preface reveals that the bilingual dictionary was compiled by a combination of a minister of religion and a linguist. The very same minister of religion and the linguist are not the native speakers of Northern Sotho. However, they are equipped with the necessary grammatical information (possibly English and Afrikaans) that can be used to identify possible headwords to be presented in the bilingual dictionary. It then makes it questionable how some of the translation equivalents were collected and identified. Furthermore, if they had an assistance of a Northern Sotho speaker or consulted member of a particular Northern Sotho community why was the individual or the community not mentioned. This means that the presentation of the headwords and translation equivalents can be directly

influenced by the same minister of religion's beliefs and linguistic inclinations, who are the sole compilers of the bilingual dictionary.

- c. **Age group of the target users:** The preface mentions the educational level of the target users that the dictionary is meant for, which is school learners. However, it did not mention which phases (foundation, intermediate, senior or Further Education and Training) or standards (at the time when it was published). It therefore makes it difficult to identify which target users in the education industry was the dictionary aimed at. One other aspect that can be questioned is the function of the dictionary for translation purposes. Therefore, it is important for the dictionary to indicate the target users' grades is meant for.
- d. **How to use:** Letsoalo (2012:35) explains that the front matter is a section in the dictionary where lexicographers should explain, describe, and let the target user know what to expect and how everything is presented in the dictionary. This includes the following aspects: treating zero-equivalents, reversibility principle, paraphrasing, transliterating, contextual guidance, and even structural markers should be explained in the front matter. The bilingual dictionary compilers did not provide any information guiding the target users on how to use it. The section in the bilingual dictionary does not provide the description of key elements used in the bilingual dictionaries. These key elements include structural markers, parts of speech and context words. From the short preface, the bilingual dictionary starts with X-Y section of the dictionary using the language combination indicators "N. SOTHO – ENGLISH" which at the beginning of the Y-X section of the dictionary has the language combination indicators "ENGLISH – N. SOTHO".

4.2.1.2. Central list:

The Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) commences with Northern Sotho – English headwords.

Macrostructure:

For a novice bilingual dictionary target user, the macrostructure of the dictionary can be easily regarded as the microstructure of the bilingual dictionary. This is due to the lack of spacing which makes the macrostructure to overlap into the microstructure. Further clarity will be provided below.

- a. **Presentation of headwords:** The presentation of headwords is well structured as it follows the A-Z alphabets in both structures of the bilingual dictionary. Fonetelle (2015:48) explains that in a straight-alphabetical macrostructure, all the headwords are presented in vertical order, and the typical access will proceed downwards, starting at the top of each page. Pages 3-173 cater for the X-Y section, which are Northern Sotho headwords that have English translations. Then pages 177-334 cater for the Y-X section of the bilingual dictionary which consists of headwords that are presented in English and translated into Northern Sotho. The Kriel Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) has added headwords that start with The Northern Sotho diacritics of **tš** and **š**, examples of such headwords are:

Headwords that start with š

šoka, shock, twist

(1994:151)

šwalalanya, scatter, disperse, destroy

(1994:152)

Headwords that start with tš

tše, them, these

(1994:165)

tšhokolete, chocolate

(1994:168)

According to Prinsloo (2020:588) lexicographers should offer consumers lexicographic inclusivity and display the information so that users can locate and comprehend what they are searching for in the dictionary. From the presentation of the macrostructure above, what can be identified is that the way the macrostructure and the microstructure has been separated (or clustered) can be questionable. The separation or the clustering of the macrostructure and the microstructure has been presented using a comma.

Additionally, the presentation of translation equivalents has been separated by the same comma. It then makes the presentation of the headwords in the bilingual dictionary to appear as if it does not have a macrostructure. In principle, the comma is used only in the microstructure as a structural marker for synonymous senses (or translation equivalents that can be used interchangeably). Mothiba (2014:77) that structural markers are not employed wisely or appropriately, and this impacts users' ability to distinguish between translation counterparts that are synonyms and those that are polysemous senses. The bilingual dictionary should have used normal spacing to separate the macrostructure and microstructure.

- b. **Run-on entries:** Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) does not present any run-on entries. It makes it difficult for the target users to identify which section of the dictionary they are in, also for one as a target user, they would have to page through the bilingual dictionary carefully to locate a particular headword.

Microstructure:

- a. **Parts of speech:** The bilingual dictionary did not present parts of speech that can be attached to the headwords presented in the dictionary. Parts of speech are only presented to translation equivalents that share different context with the headword. According to Matlala (2018), that additional information such as the culture, background, and grammatical information of the word should at least be provided in our bilingual dictionaries, and that should be the lexicologists', lexicographers', and translators' priority. However, the case is different when coming to the rest of the headwords presented in the bilingual dictionary as they only consist of presentations of headwords and translation equivalents.
- b. **Phonetic transcription and pronunciations:** Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:119) assert that pronunciation can be given in various ways, and the quantity of pronunciation help available in a dictionary entry varies. A standard approach to a word's sound form relies on its phonetic representation and stress pattern. Therefore, there are no phonetic transcriptions and pronunciations attached to the headwords presented in the bilingual dictionary.

- c. **Contextual guidance:** Prinsloo (2020:589) opines that the lack of dictionaries for advice in "text production" scenarios is one of the key weaknesses in African language lexicography. Most dictionaries barely meet the demands of users for decoding or "on demand" use of dictionaries. The bilingual dictionary does not present contextual guidance attached to the headwords and translation equivalents presented. Imbayarwo (2008:29) quotes Gouws & Prinsloo (2005: 13) that the function of a dictionary should be communication orientated. When and if the function of the dictionary is text production, it is the lexicographer's responsibility to assist the target user in using the words presented by the contextual guidance and the translation equivalents in active communication.
- d. **Cross-references:** The bilingual dictionary entails limited presentations of cross-references presented in the dictionary. These cross-references only use the word 'see' (not written in capital letters) which the actual word is used in English monolingual dictionaries for cross-references. The presentation of the cross-reference does not economise the space used in the bilingual dictionary; it is presented for referral purposes. An example of cross-referencing is as follows:

lebatl, door; see lematl
(1994:67)

From the presentation above, it can be identified that the compilers should have decided to present the translation equivalent under one headword. Initially, between headword *lebatl* and reference address *lematl*, it is just a matter of how one as a Northern Sotho speaker pronounces it. Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:181) mentions that the target user must locate further info at the cross-reference address. Otherwise, the use of cross-referencing is diminished. A cross-reference, or the position of a cross-reference item, merely informs the user that this is the beginning of the information retrieval process. It starts a fresh dictionary consultation procedure. Therefore, due to the incorrect usage of structural markers and considering that the dictionary was traditionally compiled, the target user might perceive the presentation differently. This example

proposes two situations that can be tested if they do exist: It first proposes that apart from the translation equivalent 'door' the headword *lemati* is both the translation equivalent 'door' and another translation equivalent.

- It can also propose that under *lemati* as a headword, there could be the translation equivalent 'door' alone or it could simply be presented as 'see *lebati*'

Below is an extract to validate the possibilities of one of the mentioned scenarios:

lemati, door

(1994: 72)

From the presentation above, the second setup applies to the presentation of the headword. Therefore, it defies the whole purpose of cross-referencing, as the first scenario could have been applicable in this case. As such, the cross-referencing presentation used for the headword was not properly followed.

- e. **Application of the reversibility principle:** Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) consists of both X-Y (Northern Sotho – English) and Y-X (English – Northern Sotho) sections. Mothiba (2014:20) mentions that a bilingual dictionary can be considered bidirectional if it consists of two parts, one running from the source language to the target language and the other in the reverse direction. The L1-L2 section of a bidirectional dictionary will be utilised as a reading dictionary (for decoding) for native L2 speakers and a writing dictionary (for encoding) for native L1 speakers. As such, it can be concluded without saying that the dictionary is a bilingual bidirectional dictionary. Therefore, the application of reversibility principle is expected to be applied in this case. However, the scenario seems to be different from the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) as there is an inadequate application of the reversibility principle. An example of such is as follows:

Extracted from the X-Y (Northern Sotho – English) section:

Presentation in the X-Y section Northern Sotho - English	Presentation in the Y-X section English – Northern Sotho
---	---

hlahlawe , noisy person, excited person; speak noisily (1994:38)	Not presented
katišani , divisor (1994:51)	divisor , karodi (1994:217) The translation equivalent ' <i>katišani</i> ' was not included in the Y section.
lengamu , groin (1994:73)	Not presented.
makota , mortuary (1994:83)	mortuary , Dakota (1994:265)
Mogokotlou , Pietermaritzburg (1994:97)	Not presented.

Table 4.2.1.1: Presentation of reversibility principle in Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary 2004 (Northern Sotho-English).

Extracted from the Y-X (English – Northern Sotho section):

Presentation in the Y-X section English – Northern Sotho	Presentation in the X-Y section Northern Sotho - English
disjoin , lokolla, kopolla (1994: 216)	lokolla , untie, deliver, analyse (1994: 78) 'disjoin' was not presented as a translation equivalent of the headword <i>lokolla</i> . <i>kopolla</i> was not presented in the X-Y section of the dictionary.
emetic , sehlatšišo (1994:221)	sehlatšišo , emetic (1994:141)
fluffy , sekafofa (1994:230)	Not presented.
importer , motlišintle	motlišintle , importer

(1994:245)	(1994: 112)
maraud , thopa, hlakola (1994:260)	hlakola , rob, wipe (1994:38) 'maraud' was not presented as a translation equivalent for the headword <i>hlakola</i> . The word <i>thopa</i> was not presented in the X-Y section of the dictionary.

Table 4.2.1.2: Presentation of reversibility principle in Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary 2004 (English-Northern Sotho).

From the examples provided above, there is no consistency (or inadequate application of the reversibility principle) between the X-Y and the Y-Y sections of the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994). Some of the presentations are made available, but they do not match with the headwords and translation equivalents as presented in the X-Y section. The situation remains the same in the Y-X section of the bilingual dictionary as there is no correlation between the sections of the dictionary. Therefore, the compiler failed to implement the reversibility principle in the bilingual dictionary.

4.2.1.3. Back matter:

The Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) bilingual dictionary did not present any back matter. This remains questionable as the bilingual dictionary in its preface mentioned that it was compiled to assist school learners. Furthermore, there are no extra-linguistic or grammatical information that has been presented. Gouws (2004:74) mentions that where front matter texts have a limited occurrence in dictionaries, back matter texts are employed even less frequently. This is also the situation in bilingual dictionaries. Many bilingual dictionaries have been compiled without a prior consideration of the function of the dictionary or a knowledge of the use of outer texts. Since the bilingual dictionary does not have a consistent

presentation in parts of speech, it should have presented some of the Northern Sotho grammatical information.

4.2.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

4.2.2.1. Front Matter

a. Publishers' information: The presentation of the publishers' information is the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary. The first page of the cover of the bilingual dictionary displays the names of the dictionary compilers and the company responsible for publishing. However, the bilingual dictionary compilers have provided rather upscaled credit to themselves when they mentioned that: "Extensively revised by", it is generally acceptable for a dictionary to elucidate that information. This is because it provides an impression that the target user that the bilingual dictionary is of good quality. It can be perceived as general information about the dictionary. The Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) is perceived to be an upgrade of Kriel's 1994 Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary. On the second page of the front matter, appears the publication details. It appears that the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) is the "Third impression -2004" which means that the bilingual dictionary was produced in 2004.

b. Preface or information about the compilers: This section of the bilingual dictionary only focuses on the actual compiler, which was the late Dr TJ Kriel in 1971. This implies that the first edition of the bilingual dictionary was in 1971 and more publications and editions of this bilingual dictionary were produced before 2004. The information about the dictionary remains inadequate as there is no information about the bilingual dictionary project itself and the intention to compile the dictionary was not mentioned in this section.

Furthermore, the preface appears to be more than just an acknowledgement of what is expected to be an introduction to the bilingual dictionary. The presented preface is mentioned to have been written in 1996, by one of the dictionary compilers. The question remains to why a preface was written in 1996 is applicable in the 2004 edition of the bilingual dictionary.

The preface appears to be specifically a disclaimer as well, that they assure the target users that they have done satisfactory work on compiling the bilingual dictionary. They assure the target users of the following aspect to have been attended to before publishing: all grammatical rules for both languages to have been applied all in the bilingual dictionary, and the megastructural features well presented. Furthermore, they assure that the presentation of headwords and translation equivalents are the ones that are contemporarily used at the time (2004) by the Northern Sotho-speaking communities.

- c. Age group of the target users:** The Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) did not provide the intended age of the target users or the educational level that the bilingual dictionary is aimed at. The bilingual dictionary's target group remains questionable as it does not mention anything about its intended target users. Furthermore, the preface of the dictionary is expected to present the intended function, educational level, and information about who are its target users.
- d. How to use:** The information encrypted on the second page of the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) focusses only on the syntactic presentation of the headwords and the translation equivalents. It focuses on how the target user can get to pronounce some of the headwords. Also, the information presented on this page, only provides information on what the Northern Sotho phonetic-vowel structure appears like.

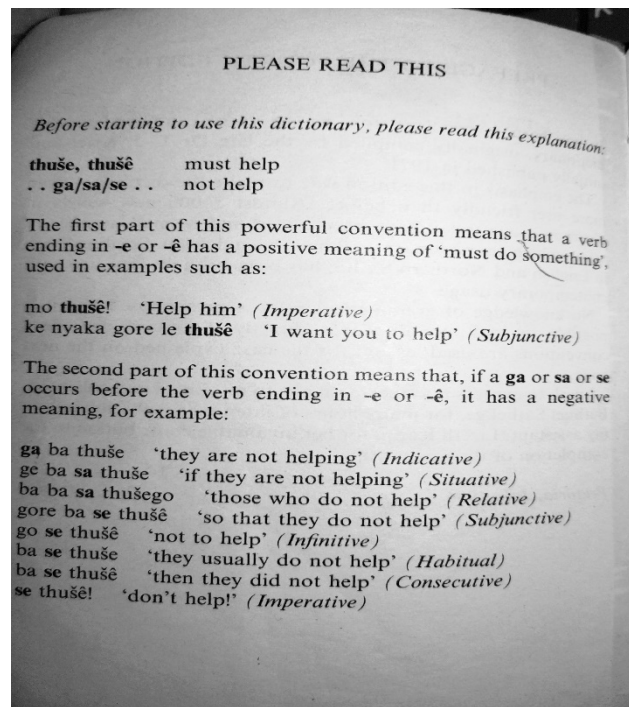


Fig. 4.1. How to use the dictionary. Source: *Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary* (2004).

For example, considering at the extracted how-to-use guide in the *Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary* (2004) above, it presents how some of the headwords may appear as homophones but are homographs. The Northern Sotho vowel structure consists of the following phonetic vowels:

Common and acceptable writing	International Phonetic Association	Ziervogel, et al
/a/	[a]	[a]
/ê/	[ɿ]	[e]
/e/	[ε]	[ɛ]
/i/	[ɪ]	[i]
/ô/	[]	[o]
/o/	[ɔ]	[ɔ]
/u/	[u]	[u]

Table 4.2.2.1. Northern Sotho and IPA vowels. Source: Melao ya Mongwalo le Mopeleto ya Sesotho sa Leboa 2019 (2020:12)

To provide more clarity, the How to use section of the bilingual dictionary provides clarity on how some headwords can be confused to homonyms whereas others are phonetically different.

The subsequent page following the presented extracted page above, indicates the language combination of the X – Y section being Northern Sotho – English. The same has been presented for the Y -X section where it states English – Northern Sotho.

- e. **Back matter:** The Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) did not present the back matter. From the last presentation in the Y-X section (English – Northern Sotho) within the Z- alphabetic section, there are two extra blank pages which could have been used for the back matter.

4.2.2.2. Central list

The central list of the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) commences with the Northern Sotho-English terms.

Macrostructure:

- a. **Presentation of headwords:** Same as Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994), the headwords in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) are presented alphabetically starting from A to Z in both X-Y and the Y-X sections of the dictionary. The Northern Sotho-English section (X-Y) has included the headwords to be presented alphabetically from pages 3-177 of the bilingual dictionary, also the headwords in the English-Northern Sotho section (Y-X) are presented alphabetically. The presentation of the headwords in the X-Y section has made it possible to accommodate Northern Sotho headwords that start with special diacritics. For example:

Words that start with š:

šia: leave behind, outrun, fear (2004:151) – first headword

šwalane: twilight, dusk (2004:153) – last headword

Words that start with tš:

tšhetše: was poured (2004:171) – the first headword

tšhwaana: white female animal; injection (2004:172) – last headword

- b. Run-on entries:** the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary does not have any run-on entries.

Microstructure:

- a. **Parts of speech:** the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) has no parts of speech that are attached to the headwords and translation equivalents in both the X-Y (Northern Sotho – English) and Y-X (English – Northern Sotho) sections of the dictionary. However, only proper nouns (n) as parts of speech that have been presented in the bilingual dictionary. In support, Mufwene (1998) mentions that bilingual dictionaries include the most common names (native and non-native) because they are also lexical units/ linguistic signs, and provide, among other things, linguistic information about them that can be identified as one type within the parts of speech. Therefore, have been presented using a capital letter whereas other headwords are presented with small letters.
- b. **Phonetic transcription and pronunciations:** The Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) have no phonological transcriptions that are attached to the headwords in both the X-Y and Y-X sections of the dictionary. However, headwords and translation equivalents presented in Northern Sotho have been presented using the phonetic vowel structure. This is to ensure that the target user can pronounce the headwords, or the translation equivalents presented in Northern Sotho adequately. More especially to headwords that appear to be homophones with different translation equivalences.
- c. **Contextual guidance:** There is no contextual guidance presented in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004). However, one may argue that some translation equivalents are provided with the context in which they are used. This has been applied to both the X-Y (Northern Sotho – English) and Y-X (English – Northern Sotho) sections of the bilingual dictionary. The following are extracted from the bilingual dictionary with translation equivalents that are coupled with their context:

Extracted from the X-Y section:

diketo: five-stones (a game)

(2004:20)

The phrase provided in the parenthesis has been presented to emphasise the meaning (not as to how it can be used in a sentence) that apart from five stones being involved in the concept. The main idea is that *diketo* is a game. However, the elaboration provided in the parenthesis, does not actually provide the way the five stones are involved in the game. Furthermore, it can be argued that the elaboration does not provide guidance on to how the game is being played, but it provides the main function of the concept *diketo*.

dikhanakhana: chilli (cayenne) pepper

(2004:21)

The word presented in the parenthesis was to specify what type of pepper the concept *dikhanakhana* accommodates. In this presentation, it can be argued that the word cayenne in the parenthesis should have been transliterated as the headword *dikhanakhana* specifically refers to cayenne pepper and no other types of peppers.

hlapiša: wash (someone else)

(2004:41)

The phrase presented in the parenthesis was to provide or extend the translation equivalent as a complete sentence. The clarification provided in the parenthesis is incomplete. The concept *hlapiša*, is an act of bathing or washing someone else's object.

lenala: nail (of the finger or toe)

(2004:73)

The phrase presented in the parenthesis was to provide specifications on where *lenala* can be located or identified. However, it can be argued that the headword does not require any clarifications and it is general knowledge that a nail can be found either on the fingers or at the toes. In the case of an animal, it can be clarified that the headword *lenala* can be used to as a translation equivalent for claw.

mobotse: beautiful (ones)

(2004:80)

The adjective provided in the parenthesis was to clarify the meaning and the referent of the headword. However, it can be argued that the translation equivalent does not have to be presented with the word *ones* in the parenthesis. Also, the presentation of the headword *mobotse* is only applied in a singular context, therefore it should have been presented as beautiful one.

Extracted from the Y-X section:

authentic: *ya (nnete) kgonthe*

(2004:189)

The concept provided in the parenthesis is there to extend the meaning of the translation equivalent. This means the concept can mean both *ya nnete* or *ya kgonthe*. Therefore, only one of the translation equivalents should have been presented as *nnete* and *kgonthe* can be used interchangeably.

comprehensible: *kwagala(go), kwešišega*

(2004:205)

The morpheme in the parenthesis (-go), is to extend the pronunciation and meaning of the translation equivalent. However, the morpheme *go-* should have been presented as a suffix of the translation equivalent *kwagala*. Therefore, the presentation would have been *kwagala(-go)*. This is because the usage of the translation equivalent, especially in relation to the headword the morpheme *-go* serves as a suffix.

flaunt: (i) *kgantšha*

(2004:233)

The morpheme in the parenthesis (*i-*), emphasises the translation equivalent's possessiveness. It means that the act of *kgantšha* is being done by the very same individual who knows that they are doing it themselves. Therefore, it can be argued that the headword should be combined with the morpheme *i-* to become *ikgantšha*, it will then become a direct translation of the headword flaunt.

handwriting: *mongwalo (ka seatla)*

(2004:241)

The phrase provided in the parenthesis (*ka seatla*) is to provide clarity on the type of *mongwalo* being referred to.

jackass: tonki ya (poo)
(2004:253)

The word presented in the parenthesis (*poo*) is used to provide the differences between genders. In this case, the concept *poo* means male.

Therefore, it can be proven that the presentations provided in the parenthesis of each headword provided in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) are not contextual guidance but are just mere extensions of the translation equivalents (contextual functions). The intention is to provide good pronunciation and meaningful translation equivalents.

d. **Cross-references:** there are no cross-references that are attached to the headwords in both the X-Y and Y-X sections of the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004).

e. **Application of the reversibility principle:** Although the preface or the front matter of the bilingual dictionary did not provide any information on the applicability of the reversibility principle, the bilingual dictionary is divided into two sections: X-Y (Northern Sotho to English) and Y-X (English to Northern Sotho). Therefore, it is expected that the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) is a bidirectional bilingual dictionary. Bilingual dictionaries must coordinate between two languages and cater to the demands of native speakers of one or both languages (Yong & Peng, 2008). The bilingual dictionary may be perceived to be bidirectional, but same as Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) the reversibility principle was not followed. The following are examples of a not well followed and a well-followed reversibility principle:

Extracted from X-Y section (Northern Sotho-English) :

Presentation in the X section Northern Sotho – English	Reversibility in the Y section English - Northern Sotho
<p>kgofa: a tick; shovel away; drive away (2004:58)</p>	<p>tick: <u>kgofa</u>, patšane (2004:319)</p> <p>shovel (away): headwords and translation not presented in the bilingual dictionary.</p>

	<p>drive: gapa, otlela, tsamaisa; <i>away</i> ~ rakediša, raka, koba; <i>n.</i> mokgothana</p> <p>The translation equivalent <i>kgofa</i> was not included as part of the translation equivalents.</p>
<p>mabarebare: talk, hearsay, rumours (2004:80)</p>	<p>talk: bolela, polelo, bega,boledišana; poledišano; active person ~ mmolabodi (2004:317)</p> <p>The translation equivalent <i>mabarebare</i> was not presented for the headword 'talk'.</p> <p>hearsay: <u>mabarebare</u>, pudi ya tsela (2004:242)</p> <p>rumours: pudiyatsela, <u>mabarebare</u> (2004:298)</p>
<p>madiba: fountain, wells (2004:80)</p>	<p>fountain: sediba, methopo (2004:234)</p> <p>well: <u>sediba</u>, petse; <i>v.</i> iketlie,lokile; <i>be</i> ~phela gabotse; <i>wish</i>~ lakaletša mahlogonolo; <i>very</i>~ gabotsebotse (2004:331)</p>
<p>tharamologo: elasticity (2004:158)</p>	<p>elastic: rekere, raramologa;</p> <p>elasticity: <u>tharamologo</u> (2004:223)</p>
<p>twetšiswikiri: diabetes (2004:175)</p>	<p>diabetes: taepisi,twetšiswikiri (2004:217)</p>

Table 4.2.2.2: Presentation of reversibility principle in Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary 2004 (Northern Sotho-English).

Extracted from Y-X section (English- Northern Sotho) :

Presentation in the Y-X English-Northern Sotho	Reversibility in the X-Y Northern Sotho-English
<p>dizziness: samadikwe, matladika (2004:220)</p>	<p>samadikwe: dizziness, giddiness (2004:138)</p>
<p>fang: sepolai, lerofa</p>	<p><i>Sepolai</i> is not presented in this section</p>

(2004:229)	lerofa: claw, paw (2004:75)
latrine: boithomelo (2004: 256)	boithomelo: toilet (2004:12)
lush: beine, botagwa (2004:260)	beine: wine (2004:9) botagwa: drunkenness (2004:16)
obtrude: itsenya, tshwenya (2004:272)	itsenya: cause oneself to enter, intrude (2004:50) tshwenya: worry, vex, trouble, annoy, pester (2004:172)

Table 4.2.2.3: Presentation of reversibility principle in Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary 2004 (English-Northern Sotho).

What can be identified from the extractions is that the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) does not follow the reversibility principle. The bilingual dictionary is expected to be bidirectional but there is no accuracy in the location of some of the headwords and the translation equivalents.

4.2.2.3. Back matter

The Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) does not have any evidence of the back matter presented.

4.2.3. Oxford Pukuntšū ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

4.2.3.1. Front matter

- a. **Publishers:** The Oxford Pukuntšū ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) from its cover page and the first pages differs in the sense that the cover page does not specifically mention that it is a Northern Sotho – English bilingual bidirectional dictionary, only that appears on the subsequent page of the dictionary. It presented the list of people who were involved in both the compilation, publication and the editorial team which addresses them as the “DICTIONARY DEVELOPMENT TEAM”. Furthermore, there is

an inaccuracy in terms of the presentation of the language combination in the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) . The presentation is as follows:

Extracted presentation:

Sesotho sa Leboa le Seisimane

Northern Sotho and English

(2007: I)

The presentation used a conjunction in which lexicographically can be perceived that the bilingual dictionary has a combination of English (A- language) and Northern Sotho (B – language) versus another unknown language (C- language). In addition, Kosch (2013:613) mentions that the title of the dictionary is formulated differently on the outside cover 1 and the first title page 2, which leaves one a little at a loss as to the correct way of referencing the dictionary. Therefore, it basically means that a target user who is not conversant with a bilingual dictionary structure and Northern Sotho, would assume that it is a bilingual dictionary with two sections, one for Northern Sotho and another one for English.

Suggested presentation:

Sesotho sa Leboa–Seisimane

English-Northern Sotho

- b. **Preface/information about the publishers:** On the second page, the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) presented its publication information and some of the acknowledgements made by the publisher.
- c. **Age group of the target users:** On the third page, it is presented that the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has been published or made available to assist in speaking and writing Northern Sotho from a learner’s perspective. However, it does not specify learners beginning from which grade to which grade or which phases.
- d. **How to use:** The Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007), has provided the guiding information which is expected to be in the front matter. To provide clarity

and practicality, they extracted some of the presentations from the central list of the bilingual dictionary and made some guiding illustrations on how to identify some of the bilingual dictionary features. Unfortunately (and understandably so) the readability of this section had to be compromised by small print to fit in all the features. This might not be received well by a target user who is in a hurry to have their look-up query answered and does not have time to first study the small print in the diagrams (Kosch, 2013:613). Furthermore, the bilingual dictionary mentions that it has been compiled to meet the requirements of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS), at its inception at the time preceding the Outcome-based Education (OBE) curriculum. The following aspects were covered in the front matter:

Sections of the bilingual dictionary: The bilingual dictionary provides the target users with the information that they should refer to the top of the page, next to the page number to see which section of the dictionary are they on in terms of language combinations.

Parts of speech and verb suffixes: Mindful that the dictionary is aimed at school learners, the compilers do not confront the user unnecessarily with linguistic technicalities or lexicographic terms. (Kosch,2013:612). The bilingual dictionary indicates that in the microstructure, the target users will be able to identify the parts of speech and verb suffixes. However, the presentation of the parts of speech in the Northern Sotho-English section are presented in English, whereas they should be presented in Northern Sotho as it is the X-Y section of the bilingual dictionary.

Translation equivalents: The bilingual dictionary indicates that the translation equivalents are presented after the parts of speech and are presented in italics.

Contextual guidance: The bilingual dictionary indicates that it provides contextual guidance in a form of sentences.

- e. Table of contents: The table of contents in the Oxford Pukuntšú ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has been presented. The illustration and analysis are as follows:

Diteng		III	Contents	
Dika tša pukuntšu	IV	VI	Dictionary features	
Matseno	VIII	X	Introduction	
Sesotho sa Leboa–Seisimane A–Z			Northern Sotho–English A–Z	
Karolo ya go ithuta (e latela letlakala la 254)	S1		Study section (follows page 254)	
Mešongwana ya pukuntšu	S2	S4	Dictionary activities	
E-meile ya semmušo	S7		A formal email	
Lengwalo la semmušo	S8	S9	A formal letter	
Lengwalo la segwera	S10	S11	An informal (friendly) letter	
Melaetša ya elektroniki	S12		Electronic messages	
(<i>Madiri a go se be a tlwaelo a Seisimane</i>)		S13	Irregular verb forms in English	
Popopolelo ye khutswane ya Sesotho sa Leboa	S14	S20	Northern Sotho mini-grammar	
(<i>Kwagatšo ya Sesotho sa Leboa</i>)		S24	Northern Sotho pronunciation	
(<i>Kgatholo ya Sesotho sa Leboa</i>)		S26	Northern Sotho punctuation	
(<i>Mopeleto wa Sesotho sa Leboa</i>)		S26	Northern Sotho spelling	
(<i>Kgatholo ya Seisimane</i>)		S27	English punctuation	
(<i>Mopeleto wa Seisimane</i>)		S28	English spelling	
Seisimane–Sesotho sa Leboa A–Z			English–Northern Sotho A–Z	
Karolo ya boikgakollo (e latela letlakala la 552)	R1		Reference section (follows page 552)	
Diruiwa	R2		Domestic animals	
Diphoofolo tša lešoka	R3		Wild animals	
Diphedi tše nnyane le diphoofolo tša ka lewatleng	R4		Small creatures and sea animals	
Dienywa le merogo	R5		Fruit and vegetables	
Mmele wa motho	R6		The human body	
Dipapadi	R7		Sport	
Mmepe wa Afrika-Borwa	R8		Map of South Africa	
Dipolelo tša Afrika-Borwa le dikgato tša thuto	R9		South African languages and phases of education	
Tshedimošo ya mohola	R10		Useful information	
Dinomoro	R12		Numbers	
Boima le dikelo	R14		Weights and measurements	
Dikarabo	R16		Answers	

Fig.4.2. Table of content in the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007).
Source: Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007:III)

The table of content has indicated some misrepresentation of information not considering intertextuality between the languages. Most of the information that has been presented in Northern Sotho has been italicised, in a section where Northern Sotho itself is supposed to be the SL (source language). Furthermore, the presentation of some of the items have been presented in brackets, which in principle are meant to provide clarity, not as an actual item in the table of contents. From the extract above, some of the examples of headings that have been presented in brackets are:

(Madiri a go se be a tlwaelo a Seisimane) – Irregular verb forms in English
(2007: III)

The reason for the above example to be presented in brackets is to indicate that the information in the section is only presented in English only and the translation of the heading is only presented in the table of content. That can be identified as the page allocated for the heading is on the Northern Sotho - English side of the table of content. That means the content is only presented monolingually using English.

(Kwagatšo ya Sesotho sa Leboa) – Pronunciation in Northern Sotho
(2007: III)

(Kgathollo ya Sesotho sa Leboa) – Northern Sotho punctuation
(2007: III)

(Mopeleto wa Sesotho sa Leboa) – Northern Sotho spelling
(2007: III)

(Kgathollo ya Seisimane) – English punctuation
(2007: III)

(Mopeleto wa Seisimane) – English spelling
(2007: III)

The compilers of the bilingual dictionary used the presentation to contradict the intention of using brackets when presenting information in the table of content. The information is meant for Northern Sotho, but it is presented in English. That can be identified as the content is presented in the Northern Sotho – English section in the table of content. When locating the content (Which has been discussed in the front matter of the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007).

However, when checking at the English side, there is hardly an item that has been presented in brackets, which means that the headings provided on the English side of the dictionary are true and correct. Whereas the headings provided in the Northern Sotho section either remain unsure.

The presented table of content consists of spelling issues that would make the target user to question the credibility of the bilingual dictionary. Some of the headings have made use of words that are not used in Northern Sotho, but in the neighbouring languages to it such as Setswana and Sesotho. From the extract above, the examples of a heading with spelling errors are:

E-meile ya semmušo – A formal email
(2007: III)

The presentation of the above example in the table of content questions the way some of the concepts are spelt. The word *e-maile* is a borrowed term from the word email in English. However, the compilers did not get to note how vowels influence each other when a word is borrowed from another language into Northern Sotho. We need to start from the word mail, which can be transliterated to *meili*, this is due to the phonetic sound -ei- in the Northern Sotho vowel structure that influences the vowel that would follow the consonant which should be -i. Therefore, the word should have been *e-meili*.

Furthermore, it can be easily identified by a native speaker that some of the presentations in the listed headings did not use the correct Northern Sotho translation equivalents. It also becomes a contextual issue as some of the words used to present as headings are not found in the dictionary. If some of the headwords featured in this page are not presented, it brings an issue of inconsistency in the selection of words used. How will the target user be guided on identifying or validifying if the translation equivalents provided in this page are true and accurate? The following examples are categorised as follows:

Headings with wrong usage of Northern Sotho translation equivalents:

Karolo ya go ithuta (e latela letlakala la 254) – Study section (follows page 254)
(2007: III)

The presentation of the above heading in the bilingual dictionary was presented in in two different motions. In English, the heading study section can be regarded as a concept,

which the meaning does not require distortion. However, the translation in Northern Sotho can be regarded as a word-for-word translation of the heading. The presentation *Karolo ya go ithuta* is a literal translation which can be back translated to as section for studying. The heading Study section should have been presented as *Karolothuto* (karolo-thuto) in Northern Sotho, which is a concept referring to study section.

Popopolelo ye khutshwane ya Sesotho sa Leboa – Northern Sotho mini-grammar
(2007: III)

The presentation of the above heading in the bilingual dictionary pertains an incorrect translation equivalent in Northern Sotho. The concept *popopolelo*, refers or can be translated to as grammar, which makes sense. However, when referring to something small to accommodate the concept mini- (which refers to something small or limited), the word *kopana* can be used as it is an acceptable term to use when referring to something of a smaller size. Therefore, the presentation of the heading in Northern Sotho can be *Popopolelo ye kopana* or *Popopolelo-kopana*.

Kgatholo ya Sesotho sa Leboa – Northern Sotho punctuation
(2007: III)

Kgatholo ya Seisimane – English punctuation
(2007: III)

Similarly, as in the previous presentation the compilers of the bilingual dictionary have again used an incorrect translation equivalent or in this case, a non-existing word in Northern Sotho. The use of the word *kgatholo* does not relate in any case to punctuation or punctuation marks. The section is meant to educate the target users on punctuation marks and their usage in Northern Sotho. Therefore, the translation of punctuation marks is *maswaodikga*. With that being said, the section can be named *Maswaodikga a Sesotho sa Leboa*, same applies to the subsequent presentation *Maswaodikga a Seisimane*.

Tshedimoso ya mohola – Useful information
(2007: III)

The presentation of the above heading in the table of content questions the issue of context. In principle, being useful is something that one possesses and the same goes to the type

of information that one would need. Therefore, the presentation of the heading should have been *Tshedimošo yeo e nago le mohola*. This would provide an accurate description of what the target user could use from the bilingual dictionary.

Headings with the headwords not presented in the bilingual dictionary:

Kgatholo (2007: III), khutshwane (2007: III), E-meile (2007: III)

4.2.3.2. Central List

Macrostructure:

- a. **Presentation of headwords:** The headwords in the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) are presented alphabetically (A-Z). The Northern Sotho-English section (X-Y) has included the headwords to be presented alphabetically from pages 1-254 of the bilingual dictionary, also the headwords in the English-Northern Sotho section (Y-X) are presented alphabetically ranging from 255-552. The presentation of the headwords in the X-Y section has made it possible to accommodate Northern Sotho headwords that start with special diacritics. For example

Words that start with š:

šia: *verb.* be afraid. O se ke wa šia go laodišetša maphodisa tšohle. *Don't be afraid to explain everything to the police.* (2007:213) – first headword

šwahla: *verb.* breakthrough. Dikgomo di ile tša šwahla legora tša tsena ka tšhemong. *The cows broke through the fence and went to the ploughed field.* (2007:216) – last headword

Words that start with tš:

tšago: *possessive cl.* your. Dikgogo tšago di ja dibjalo ka tša ka. *Your chickens are eating my plants.* (2007:237) – the first headword

tšwile: correct spelling = Tšwele² (2007:249) – last headword

- b. Presentation of run-on entries

The following extraction is an example of how run-on entries are presented in the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007):

baka la **mogofe**. *Mokgaetši ran into problems because of a gang.*

mogoga noun 3/4 (pl. **megoga**) ■ animal slaughtered at a funeral; funeral beast
♦ Bakgalabje ba be ba hloname ba eja **mogoga**. *The old men were dejectedly eating the meat of the funeral beast.*

mogokgo /mogôkgô/ noun 3/4 (pl. **megokgo**) ■ teardrop; tear ♦ Phumola **megokgo** ya gago o theeletše seo ke tlo go botšago. *Wipe your tears and listen to what I am going to tell you.*

mogolle noun 1/2 (pl. **bagolle**) ■ older sister/brother ♦ Ga o kwe ge ke re **mogolle** o be a diretšwe monyanya. *Don't you hear when I say that a wedding feast was held for my older sister?*

mogolo¹ ** /mogôlô/ noun 3/4 (pl. **megolo**) ■ salary ♦ **Mogolo** wa gagwe wa kgwedi ke bokae? *How much is her salary per month?*

mogolo² ** /mogôlô/ noun 3/4 (pl. **megolo**) ■ throat ♦ **Mogolo** wa ka o bohloko. *My throat is sore.*

► **mogolong** /mogôlông/ (pl. **megolong**) ■ in the throat

mogolo³ * noun 1/2 (pl. **bagolo**) ■ older sister/brother ♦ Ge mma wa ka a re soletše dijo, go thoma **mogolo** wa ka go kgetha. *When my mother served us food, my older brother was the first one to choose.*

mogolo⁴ * adjective cl. 1, cl. 3

◇ **yo mogolo** cl. 1 1 ■ big (person) 2 ■ old; senior; superior ♦ Ke kgopetše go bona **yo mogolo** wa feme ya bona. *I asked to see a senior in the company.* ♦ Naa o nagana gore **yo mogolo** wa rena o tla ntumelela ke tšhaiša ka pela lehono? *Do you think our superior will allow me to knock off early today?*

◇ **wo mogolo** cl. 3 ■ large; big ♦ Mošomo wo dirwago ke banna ba ke **wo mogolo**. *The job done by these men was a big one.*

mogologolo * noun 1/2 (pl. **bagologolo**) ■ ancestor ♦ Mo ke mo **bagologolo** ba gešo ba boloketšwego gona, gomme le nna ke tla rata go bolokwa le bona. *This is where my ancestors have been buried and I would also like to be buried with them.*

mogolwagwe noun 1/2 (pl. **bagolwagwe**) ■ her/his older sister/brother ♦ **Mogolwagwe** ke yena a mo nyaketšego mošomo. *His older brother is the one who looked for a job for him.*

mogoma noun 3/4 (pl. **megoma**) ■ hoe
♦ Monna o hlagola ka **mogoma**. *The man is weeding with a hoe.*

mogongwe /môgongwê/ conjunction
■ perhaps; maybe; possibly ♦ Madimetša šo o etla, **mogongwe** a ka re tlela le taba ya nnete. *There comes Madimetša, perhaps he will tell us the truth.*

mogopo noun 3/4 (pl. **megopo**) ■ wooden bowl ♦ Mosadi o ka mokutwaneng; o hlatswa **mogopo** wa bogobe. *The woman is in the kitchen; she is washing a wooden bowl for porridge.*

mogopolo ** /mogopolô/ noun 3/4 (pl. **megopolo**) 1 ■ idea; thought ♦ Malose o na le **mogopolo** wa go thoma kgwebo ka tšhelete yeo a e thopilego. *Malose has an idea of starting a business with the money he won.* 2 ■ opinion

► **mogopolong** /mogopolông/ (pl. **megopolong**) ■ in thought; in the mind

mogwera *** /mogwêra/ noun 1/2 (pl. **bagwera**) ■ friend ♦ Ke tla ya le **mogwera** wa ka sekolong gosasa. *I will go to school with my friend tomorrow.*

mogweragwe noun 1/2 (pl. **bagweragwe**) ■ her/his friend
♦ Seswantšho seo se be se mo gopotša **mogweragwe**. *That picture reminded him of his friend.*

mogwera noun 1/2 (pl. **bagwerake**) ■ my friend ♦ Lehono ke felegetša **mogwera** toropong. *Today I am accompanying my friend to town.*

mohla¹ *** noun 3/4 (pl. **mehla**) ■ time; occasion ♦ Tšohle di na le **mohla** wa tšona. *Everything has its own time.*

◇ **ka mehla** adverbial phrase ■ always

◇ **mehla le mehla** ■ always ♦ **Mehla le mehla** o be a boela gae go tlo bega tšeo monna wa gagwe a mo dirago tšona. *She always returned home to report what her husband was doing to her.*

► **mohlang** (pl. **mehlang**) ■ at the time; during the occasion; on occasion ♦ Ruri motho yo mobjalo o a hlokwa **mehlang** ye. *Really, that kind of person is not found in these times.*

mohla² ** conjunction ■ while ♦ Ba kwane gore Lesibana a tle a fete moo **mohla** a boela gae. *They agreed that Lesibana must pass by there while on his way home.*

Fig.4.3. Presentation of run-on entries in the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007: III)

The extraction above indicates [mogoga-mohla] as the run-on entries for the specific section and page. It presents the headwords using the symbol → to indicate that the headwords on the page start with the headword *mogoga* and ends with the headword with *mohla*.

Microstructure

- a. **Parts of speech:** there are parts of speech presented alongside the headwords of the bilingual dictionary. This has been applied in both the X-Y and Y-X sections of the dictionary. However, these parts of speech are not presented in the language in which the headwords are presented. This is evident and can be found in the X-Y section of the dictionary. For example:

Extracted presentation:

lebenkele: *noun* 5/6. (*pl. mabenkele*) shop; store. Sekolo sa rena se agilwe kgauswi le lebenkele. (*Our school is built next to the shop.*)

(2007:105)

Suggested presentation:

lebenkele: *lei*. 5/6. (*pl. mabenkele*) shop; store. Sekolo sa rena se agilwe kgauswi le lebenkele. (*Our school is built next to the shop.*)

The Northern Sotho translation equivalent for the word noun is *leina*. Since the word *leina* is long, it is relevant to use the abbreviation *lei*.

Since the above-extracted presentation is in the X-Y (Northern Sotho – English) section of the dictionary, the presentation of the part of speech should have been presented in the source language (Northern Sotho) as well.

- b. **Phonetic transcription and pronunciations:** The Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) does not have phonological transcriptions and but has pronunciations that are attached to the headwords in both the X-Y and Y-X sections of the bilingual dictionary. Instead of phonetic transcriptions, the compilers of Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) have opted for what they call 'pronunciation fields' as a guide to correct pronunciation. This term is self-explanatory and thus easily understood by the learner. The pronunciation field slot is only filled in cases where mid-low vowels are involved (marked by means of a circumflex), which are pronounced differently to their unmarked mid-high counterparts (Kosch, 2013:3).

- c. **Contextual guidance:** The Oxford Pukuntšú ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has contextual guidance presented. The presentation of contextual guidance has been applied in both the X-Y and Y-X sections of the bilingual dictionary. The contextual guidance is only presented in a form of sentences, as there are no illustrations or pictorials presented. Unlike the parts of speech, the presentation of contextual guidance has been presented with the preference of the language used on the macrostructure of the bilingual dictionary sections. It means that since the X-Y section structure is Northern Sotho – English, the contextual guidance would be first presented in Northern Sotho and the relevant translation would follow in English. For example:

kgapa: *noun 9/10 (pl. dikgapa)* ram. Masilo o ruile dikgomo le kgapa e tee. (*Masilo breeds cattle and has one ram.*)

(2007: 87)

Therefore, the same scenario would apply in the Y-X section of the bilingual dictionary. The presentation would use the language presented in the macrostructure of the dictionary section (English – Northern Sotho). Therefore, the contextual guidance would be in English, followed by a Northern Sotho translation. For example:

ram: *noun (pl. rams)* kgapa. Masilo breeds cattle and has one ram. (*Masilo o ruile dikgomo le kgapa e tee.*)

(2007:463)

- d. **Cross-referencing:** The compilers were compelled to enter many nouns in their singular as well as plural forms as separate lemmas, because their inclusion was dictated by frequency of occurrence in the corpus. This "double listing" obviously takes up extra space, but the problem is addressed by means of cross-referencing and by only supplying an example sentence under one of the forms, usually the most frequently occurring lemma (Kosh,2013:620). There is evidence of cross-referencing that has been presented in the Oxford Pukuntšú ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007). Most presentations are in the alphabetic sections where items

are presented as plural, and they are cross-referenced to the singular headword. For example:

bareki: (*pl.*) *noun* 1/2. see sg. MOREKI
(2007:12)

The problem with the above presentation is that it does not follow the source language of the headword. The presentation should have used the word, BONA/SEE to accommodate both the X-Y sections for the bilingual dictionary. However, there is no cross-referencing that has been presented to accommodate synonymous senses.

- e. **Reversibility principle:** The Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) is a bidirectional bilingual dictionary. The bilingual dictionary has more but not enough evidence of reversibility principle. Mothiba (2014:20) mentions that a bilingual dictionary can be considered bidirectional if it consists of two parts, one running from the source language to the target language and the other in the reverse direction. The L1-L2 section of a bidirectional dictionary will be utilised as a reading dictionary (for decoding) for native L2 speakers and a writing dictionary (for encoding) for native L1 speakers. In the L2-L1 section, this will be reversed. The reversibility principle will be followed if this dictionary treats the two languages equally lexicographically. Therefore, the aspect of reversibility principle has been covered but it was not fully met as there are some of the presentations that are presented in the X-Y section as headwords but are not presented in the Y-X (English – Northern Sotho) section of the bilingual dictionary as translation equivalents.

Extracted from X-Y section (Northern Sotho – English) :

Presentation in the X section Northern Sotho - English	Reversibility in the Y section English - Northern Sotho
<p>seruiwa: <i>noun</i> 7/8 (<i>pl.diruiwa</i>) domestic animal. Naa o fepa diruiwa tša gago ka eng? (<i>What do you feed your domestic animals?</i>) (2007:209)</p>	<p>domestic: <i>adjective.</i> ¹segae. There are domestic flights between Port Elizabeth and Johannesburg every day. (<i>Go na le difofane tša segae magareng ga Port Elizabeth le Gauteng letšatši le lengwe le lengwe.</i>)</p>

	<p>² ka lapeng. A domestic worker. (<i>Mošomedi wa ka lapeng.</i>) Dogs and cats are domestic animals. (<i>Dimpša le dikatse ke diruiwa tša ka lapeng.</i>) (2007:332)</p> <p>The bilingual dictionary did not provide a translation equivalent of domestic animals, but it provided a classification of the type of animals that are categorised as domestic animals.</p>
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Table 4.2.3.1: Presentation of reversibility principle in Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) (Northern Sotho-English).

Extracted from Y-X (English – Northern Sotho) section:

Presentation in the Y-X English-Northern Sotho	Reversibility in the X-Y Northern Sotho - English
<p>domestic: <i>adjective.</i> ¹segae. There are domestic flights between Port Elizabeth and Johannesburg every day. (<i>Go na le difofane tša segae magareng ga Port Elizabeth le Gauteng letšatši le lengwe le lengwe.</i>)</p> <p>² ka lapeng. A domestic worker. (<i>Mošomedi wa ka lapeng.</i>) Dogs and cats are domestic animals. (<i>Dimpša le dikatse ke diruiwa tša ka lapeng.</i>) (2007:332)</p>	<p>segae: <i>noun</i> 7/-. local; civil. Bolaodi bja segae bo ka ipeela ditefelo. (<i>Local management can arrange its own payment.</i>) (2007: 201)</p> <p>lapeng: (<i>pl. malapeng</i>) ¹in the family. Sesi wa ka ke motho wa mathomo wa go reka sefatanaga sa ka lapeng. (<i>My sister is the first person in the family to buy a car.</i>)</p> <p>²in the yard. O hweditše batho ba bantši ba dutši ka lapeng, a ba dumediša. (<i>He found many people sitting in the yard and greeted them.</i>) (2007:102)</p> <p>The presentation on the headword <i>seruiwa</i>, which is translated to domestic animals wasweret presented in the Y-X section. In this case there was no reversibility implemented.</p>

<p>apartheid: noun (no plural) kgethologanyo. During the years of apartheid in South Africa, people could not live where they wanted to live. (<i>Mengwageng ya kgethologanyo mo Afrika-Borwa, batho ba be ba sa kgone go dula moo ba bego ba nyaka go dula gona.</i>) (2007:256)</p>	<p>kgethologanyo: noun 9/-. discrimination. Sekolo sa le na se na le kgethologanyo ye kgolo. (<i>In your school there is serious discrimination.</i>) (2007:89) The was no reversibility implemented in this case also, there was a mispresentation of translation equivalents. As a result, there is no reversibility implemented between the two presentations.</p>
<p>airport: noun (pl. airports) boemafofane. The aeroplane landed at the airport. (<i>Sefofane se kotame boemafofane</i>) (2007:261)</p>	<p>Not presented.</p>

Table 4.2.3.2: Presentation of reversibility principle in Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) (English-Northern Sotho).

What can be identified from the extractions is that the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) does not fully follow the reversibility principle. However, it can be applauded that most of the translations presented in the X-Y (Northern Sotho – English) section does appear in the Y-X (English – Northern Sotho).

4.2.3.3. Back matter

The Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) consists of a ‘rich’ back matter which can be beneficial to the target user. Kosch (2013:613) mentions that the back matter of Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) comprises a reference section of 16 pages (marked as R1-R16). It includes images and names of animals, fruits and vegetables, the human body and sport. Furthermore, the provinces and official languages of South Africa, terminology pertaining to the school curriculum, numbers, weights and measurements all constitute very useful information for school learners. The back matter has been separated into two sections, one being presented between the X-Y and the Y-X section and the other one at the back of the bilingual dictionary:

Central back-matter

The central back matter of the dictionary (placed at the centre of the dictionary) consists of notes and guidelines that are meant to be a language resource text that is in line with the curriculum. Therefore, the dictionary compilers added some of the basic writing information that Northern Sotho learners (target users) can get to comprehend and use them in their language subjects and assist in translanguaging some of the subjects that they would be doing at school. The information is as follows:

- a. **Activities of the bilingual dictionary:** In this section the compilers have presented the target users with the list of functions that the bilingual dictionary itself could be of assistance in. The activities presented are to be perceived by the target user as the function of the bilingual dictionary. Alphabetical sorting, Location of words and verbs, Identification of translation equivalents, and has a practice quiz attached to these functions.
- b. **Writing an email:** In this section, the bilingual dictionary compilers have added some few extracts of how to write a formal and an informal email, with some illustrations on how they differ.
- c. **Writing a formal and an informal letter:** In this section, the bilingual dictionary compilers have extracted two different letters, one being a formal letter and the other one being an informal one, which can be considered as a friendly letter. These extracts are both presented in Northern Sotho and in English, with illustrative directions.
- d. **Short Message Service (SMS) language:** In this section, the bilingual dictionary compilers have added information on how to type an SMS and explained what some of the emoticons mean.
- e. **List of irregular forms:** This section in most monolingual English dictionaries, is expected by the target users to be at the initial back matter of the dictionary. However, the presentation of these verbs in the bilingual dictionary are not presented in Northern Sotho, but in English only.
- f. **Understanding Northern Sotho grammar:** in this section, the bilingual dictionary compilers have added some linguistic notes (information) for Northern

Sotho. These notes consist of morphological, syntactical, and phonological rules of Northern Sotho. It later attends to the issues of spelling, moreover on the usage of *ga-* as a locative. It then concludes by covering English punctuation marks and their functions in grammar.

Main back matter

This section of the back matter has been portrayed as additional linguistic, demographic, and mathematical information which are in support of the curriculum that the bilingual dictionary is covering. This section has also been separated in accordance with sections. The sections are as following:

- a. **Distinguishing the difference between aquatic, wild and domestic animals:** in this section, the bilingual dictionary compilers have added some pictorials of animals. The first page of this section consists of domestic animals and the second page consists of wild animals. On the third page, is the differentiation between small animals (amphibians and crustaceans) and aquatic animals. These animals have been labelled with their English and Northern Sotho names.
- b. **Distinguishing between food types:** in this section, the bilingual dictionary compilers have provided pictorials consisting of different foods. These foods are categorised as fruits whereas some of them are categorised as vegetables. However, they are all combined in one page. Like the animals, they have also been given English and Northern Sotho names.
- c. **Geographic and demographic information:** in this section, the bilingual dictionary compilers have covered information on South African geographic and demographic information. The first page of this section consists of the South African map with the list of provinces and their English and Northern Sotho names. The second page of this section, the page consists of the list of the official languages and the education phases in South Africa.
- d. **Mathematical information:** this section of the bilingual dictionary consists of numbers and measurement units. The units in the section are presented numerically, and in words, both in English and Northern Sotho.

4.3. Evaluating the presentation of macrostructural and microstructural aspects, with observation to cotext and context.

As mentioned in the theoretical framework, it is important to consider the cognitive and the operative needs of the target user and to ensure that the bilingual dictionary is user-friendly for its target users. Fuertes-Olivera & Tarp (2014:71) describes the cognitive category that it consists of terminological, linguistic, and grammatical information provided by a dictionary based on the target language (whether monolingual or bilingual “in the other direction”). Therefore, in a cognitive category, it is important to note that the function of the bilingual dictionary is to provide the linguistic environment (cotext) of the presented headwords and how it can be used grammatically.

Whereas in an operative category it is important for a bilingual dictionary to consider the environmental needs (context) of the target user to ensure that they can use their preferred presented macro-/microstructure and mediostructure aspects accurately. According to Tarp (2008: 185), the user needs advice and instructions to perform any kind of mental or manual action. The action that the person wants to perform requires that the person should be provided with advice and instructions. Before presenting the analysis of the data in accordance with the heading above, it is important to know the difference between cotext and context:

- Cotext: refers to the linguistic environment in which a word is used. This is usually demonstrated with illustrative example material such as collocations and example phrases and sentences. Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:139) elaborate those illustrative examples, presented as cotext entries, are provided to demonstrate how these translation equivalents are typically used. Within the same sub comment on semantics, the cotext entries are presented as immediate neighbours of the translation equivalents.
- Context: refers to the actual or physical environment in which a word is used. According to Yong & Peng (2008:9-10), several issues will be raised and evaluated based on the context in which the dictionary-making process is carried out. How, for example, the field will be specified and delimited; what subject matter will it cover; what vocabulary will be covered; what format the bilingual dictionary will take; how the data will be organised; what code(s), and how many, will be used to encode and

transmit data; what method will it use to transmit it; and who the target audience will be.

4.3.1. Run-on entries

Meiner (2012) explains that all dictionaries use running heads (run-on entries) for the user's better orientation within the dictionary. These are the words (or three or more initial characters of the words, depending on the length of the dictionary) located on the upper part of the pages. The run-on entries can be located on the left page (or in the left corner of a page) using the first word/phrase/lemma on this page; the running head on the right page (or in the right corner of a page) uses the last word/phrase/lemma on that page. The running heads are usually presented in bold or bigger font sizes than the headwords.

4.3.1.1. Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

The Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) does not have run-on entries. That said, the bilingual dictionary does not provide guidance to the target users on where and on which page to find the specific translation equivalents. Furthermore, the only reflecting information that is there is only the page numbers. If there were run-on entries presented in the bilingual dictionary, they are expected to be presented beside the page numbers. The following suggested presentation will illustrate how the run-on entries should have been presented.

Extraction from the X-Y section (Northern Sotho – English):

hlankiša , enslave.	hlatlegelang! beware!
hlano , five.	hlatloga , ascend, rise.
hlanoga , be turned inside out, change one's mind.	hlatlola , relieve, raise, ascend.
hlanogela , turn against.	hlatlologa , move in order of succession.
hlanogetše , turned away from, rejected.	hlatlologanya , remove one thing off another.
hlanola , turn inside out, alter.	hlatloša , raise.
hlanoša , cause to turn inside out.	hlatša , vomit, eject, reject.
hlantha , roam about.	hlatša , bring forth young (a sow or cat).
hlanya , be mad.	hlatsa , testify, give evidence.
hlaola , select, distinguish, separate.	hlatse , witness.
hlaologanya , understand, differentiate.	hlatseta , give evidence.
hlaološa , dilute, add to, explain.	hlatsetša , give evidence in favour of.
hlapa , wash the body, bathe, menstruate.	hlatšiša , cause to vomit.
hlapaola , curse, swear at.	hlatswa , wash anything except the body; – dinoka , purify a woman that gives birth to girls only; – dirope , concubine.
hlapetša , care for, look after, herd; – ditše , cared for.	hlatswadiatla , commission.
hlaphoga , get well, get clear.	hlatswana , small fish.
hlaphola , batter, pound, splash.	hlatswega , washable.
hlaphu , splash.	hlatswetša , wash for/in.
hlapi , fish.	hlaya , lack, n., drawer.
hlaphuhla , shamble.	hle , please, do!
hlapi-jeli , jelly-fish.	hlegere, senya – , do by trial and error, experiment.
hlapiša , wash (someone else).	hlehla , walk alongside.
hlapologa , urinate, melt.	hleka , spoil, pamper, respect.
hlaputla , lap up.	hlekesetša , pamper, fondle, handle carefully.
hlarakana , make a rattling noise.	hleng , next to.
hlarakanya , cause a rattling noise.	hleng! if you please! upon my word!
hlaramolla , flutter, flap, display.	hlepha , become loose, become slack.
hlarolla , ravel out.	hlephiša , slacken.
hlarologa , stand on end.	hloba , pluck off.
hlasa , chase away.	hlobaela , be sleepless.
hlasea , assault, raid, attack; – na , attack each other.	hlobactša , hinder, worry.
hlasima , teem with, abound.	hlobega , become plucked.
hlaswa , abhor, become tasteless, renounce; – itše , rejected.	hlobodiša , cause to undress, deprive of.
hlatha , chop off, understand.	hloboga , despair.
hlathi , unbroken boiled grain.	hlobola , undress, strip.
hlatholla , explain, interpret.	hlodi = thodi , spy.
hlatlagana , be in layers.	hlodia , annoy, howl.
hlatlama , follow, succeed.	
hlatlea , put a pot on the fire.	
hlatlega , be put on the fire.	

Fig. 4.4. An extracted page from the Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) without in the X-Y Section run-on entry. Source: Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994:39)

The run-on entry to be presented on this page should be the headwords [**hlankiša** – **hlodia**]. The reason for such a presentation is that the headwords are located at each end of the page. Additionally, it is an indication that the headwords located on the page start from the headword **hlankiša**, because there are other headwords that are before and after the extracted page that begins with *h-*. Therefore, the following illustration suggests how the run-on entry should be presented:

<p>hlankiša, enslave. hlano, five. hlanoga, be turned inside out, change one's mind. hlanogela, turn against. hlanogetše, turned away from, rejected. hlanola, turn inside out, alter. hlanoša, cause to turn inside out. hlantha, roam about. hlanya, be mad. hlaola, select, distinguish, separate. hlaologanya, understand, differentiate. hlaološa, dilute, add to, explain. hlapa, wash the body, bathe, menstruate. hlapaola, curse, swear at. hlapetša, care for, look after, herd; – ditše, cared for. hlapogaga, get well, get clear. hlaphola, batter, pound, splash. hlaphu, splash. hlapi, fish. hlaphuhla, shamble. hlapi-jeli, jelly-fish. hlapiša, wash (someone else). hlapologa, urinate, melt. hlaputla, lap up. hlarakana, make a rattling noise. hlarakanya, cause a rattling noise. hlaramolla, flutter, flap, display. hlarolla, ravel out. hlarologa, stand on end. hlasa, chase away. hlasela, assault, raid, attack; – na, attack each other. hlasima, teem with, abound. hlaswa, abhor, become tasteless, renounce; – itše, rejected. hlatha, chop off, understand. hlathi, unbroken boiled grain. hlatholla, explain, interpret. hlatlagana, be in layers. hlatlama, follow, succeed. hlatlea, put a pot on the fire. hlatlega, be put on the fire.</p>	<p>hlatlegelang! beware! hlatloga, ascend, rise. hlatlola, relieve, raise, ascend. hlatlologa, move in order of succession. hlatlologanya, remove one thing off another. hlatloša, raise. hlatša, vomit, eject, reject. hlatša, bring forth young (a sow or cat). hlatša, testify, give evidence. hlatse, witness. hlatsetša, give evidence. hlatsetša, give evidence in favour of. hlatšiša, cause to vomit. hlatšwa, wash anything except the body; – dinoka, purify a woman that gives birth to girls only; – dirope, concubine. hlatswadiatla, commission. hlatswana, small fish. hlatswega, washable. hlatswetša, wash for/in. hlaya, lack, n., drawer. hle, please, do! hlegere, senya –, do by trial and error, experiment. hlehla, walk alongside. hleka, spoil, pamper, respect. hlekesetša, pamper, fondle, handle carefully. hleng, next to. hleng! if you please! upon my word! hlepha, become loose, become slack. hlephiša, slacken. hloba, pluck off. hlobaela, be sleepless. hlobactša, hinder, worry. hlobega, become plucked. hlobodiša, cause to undress, deprive of. hloboga, despair. hlobola, undress, strip. hlodi = tihodi, spy. hlochia, annoy, howl.</p>
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Fig. 4.5. A suggested presentation of the run-on entry in the X-Y section from extracted page from the Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) without run-on entry. Source: Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994:39)

From the suggested presentation, the presentation of the run-on entries in the X - Y (Northern Sotho – English) section of the Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) should be presented based on the cotextual functions of the bilingual dictionary, which is the first and the last headword presented in the bilingual dictionary. The usage of the run-on entry [**hlankiša – hlodia**] will enable the target user to comprehend that the headwords presented in this page and section, ranges between the above presented run-on entry.

<p>coldness, botšididi. colic, kgadikego; have –, gadikega. collaborate, dirišana. collapse, wa, phohlela, burama, phuhlama. collar, kholoro, sekgapa; swara (ka molala). collar-bone, kgetlane. colleague, mošomi-ka-nna. collect, kgobokanya, bokanya, koleka. collection, kgobokanyo, sehlopha, koleke. college, kholetšha, lekgotla. collide, thulana. colliery, malahleng. collision, thulano. colloquial, sekamehla, segae. colon, khutlwana, kgorwana, lelakgolo. colonel, kolonele, koronele. colonise, hloma koloni. colonist, mokoloni. colony, koloni. colour, mmala, many colours, mebalabala. Coloured (person), Wammala; – s., Bammala. colour-fast, mmala o sa galogeng. colouring, sefammala. colour scheme, thulaganyomebala. colt, pešana, petšhana e tona. column, kholomo. columnist, mongwalakholomong. comb, sekamo, kamo; v., kama. combat, lwantšha; n., ntwā, tḥabano. combination, kopanyo, tḥakanyo. combine, kopanya, hlakanya. combustible, tšhumeḡa, tuka (go). combustion, tšhumo, go tuka. come, tla; – back, boa; – back home, goroga; – near, batamela; – from, out, tšwa; – to pass, diragala. comedy, (papadi ya) metlae. comeliness, botse. comely, botse; – woman, lehlagamonna.</p>	<p>comer, motli, mofihli. comet, naledi ya mosela, khomete. comfort, n., khomotšo, boiketlo, matshedišo, v.t., homotša, tshediša, sediša. comfortable, sa boiketlo comforter, mohomotši, motshediši, mosediši. comic, segišang, segišago. coming, go tla. comma, feelwane, fegelwana. command, n., taolo, v., laola. commandant, molaodi, komotanta, – -general, komotantatona. commandeer, epa dira, rapa dira. commander, molaodi. commandment, molao. commando, sera. commemorate, bina, gopola. commence, thoma. commend, tumiša, laeletša, neela; – oneself, ikgafela. comment, swayaswaya, phara dipataka; n., tshwayoḥshwayo. commerce, papatšo, kgwebo. commercial, (traveller), mmapatši. commission, tshwaetšo, morokotšo. commissioner, komsasa; – of oaths, moeniši. commit, neela, dira. committee, komiti. commodity, phahlo. common, ya ka mehla. – wealth, kgweranaditšhaba. commotion, khuduego, moferefere. communal, kopanelo, mmogo. communicate, neelana, bega. communication, tsebišano, kominikasi. communion, kopano, Selalelo se se Kgethwa. communism, bokominisi. communist, mokominisi. community, setšhaba, morafe. compact, kgohlaganego, teteaneng. companion, mogwera, thaka; monkane; motswalle; – ship,</p>
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Fig. 4.6. An extracted page from the Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) without in the X-Y Section run-on entry. Source: Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994:201)

The run-on entry to be presented on this page should be the headwords [**coldness – companion**]. The run-on entry guides the target user that the list of headwords that are presented on the page in the bilingual dictionary. Therefore, the following illustration suggests how the run-on entry should be presented:

coldness – companion

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<p>coldness, botšididi. colic, kgadikego; have –, gadikega. collaborate, dirišana. collapse, wa, phohlela, burama, phuhlama. collar, kholoro, sekgapa; swara (ka molala). collar-bone, kgetlane. colleague, mošomi-ka-nna. collect, kgobokanya, bokanya, koleka. collection, kgobokanyo, sehlopha, koleke. college, kholetšha, lekgotla. collide, thulana. colliery, malahleng. collision, thulano. colloquial, sekamehla, segae. colon, khutlwana, kgorwana, lelagolo. colonel, kolonele, koronele. colonise, hloma koloni. colonist, mokoloni. colony, koloni. colour, mmala, many colours, mebalabala. Coloured (person), Wammala; – s., Bammala. colour-fast, mmala o sa galogeng. colouring, sefammala. colour scheme, thulaganyomebala. colt, pešana, petšhana e tona. column, kholomo. columnist, mongwalakholomong. comb, sekamo, kamo; v., kama. combat, lwantšha; n., ntwana, tšhabano. combination, kopanyo, tšhakanyo. combine, kopanya, hlakanya. combustible, tšhumega, tuka (go). combustion, tšhumo, go tuka. come, tla; – back, boa; – back home, goroga; – near, batamela; – from, out, tšwa; – to pass, diragala. comedy, (papadi ya) metlae. comeliness, botse. comely, botse; – woman, lehlagamonna.</p>	<p>comer, motli, mofihli. comet, naleli ya mosela, khomete. comfort, n., khomotšo, boiketlo, matschedišo, v.t., homotša, tshediša, sediša. comfortable, sa boiketlo comforter, mohomotši, motshediši, mosediši. comic, segišang, segišago. coming, go tla. comma, feelwane, fegelwana. command, n., taolo, v., laola. commandant, molaodi, komotanta, – general, komotantatona. commandeer, epa dira, rapa dira. commander, molaodi. commandment, molao. commando, sera. commemorate, bina, gopola. commence, thoma. commend, tumiša, laeletša, neela; – oneself, ikgafela. comment, swayaswaya, phara dipataka; n., tshwayotshwayo. commerce, papatšo, kgwebo. commercial, (traveller), mmapatši. commission, tshwaetšo, morokotšo. commissioner, komsasa; – of oaths, moeniši. commit, neela, dira. committee, komiti. commodity, phahlo. common, ya ka mehla, – wealth, kgweranaditšhaba. commotion, khuduego, moferefere. communal, kopanelo, mmogo. communicate, neelana, bega. communication, tsebišano, kominikasi. communion, kopano, Selalelo se se Kgethwa. communism, bokominisi. communist, mokominisi. community, setšhaba, morafe. compact, kgohlaganego, teteaneng. companion, mogwera, thaka; monkane; motswalle; – ship,</p>
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[Pictures - ramusimakwetsa@gmail.com - Gmail - Google]

Fig. 4.7. A suggested presentation of the run-on entry in the Y-X section from extracted page from the Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) without run-on entry.

Source: Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994:201)

From the suggested presentation, the presentation of the run-on entries in the Y – X (Northern Sotho – English) section of the Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) can be presented based on the cotextual functions of the bilingual dictionary. The using the run-on entry [**coldness – companion**] will enable the target user to comprehend that the headwords presented in this page and section, ranges between the above presented run-on entry.

The suggested extractions have indicated that run-on entries in the Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) were supposed to be presented cotextually, meaning that they were supposed to be presented in accordance with the syntactic presentation. However, with the bilingual dictionary having two divided sections of the macrostructure, it can be that the presented run-on entries should either move to the top of each division to indicate cotextual relation with the rest of the macrostructure.

4.3.1.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) does not have run-on entries. However, the following are the suggested presentations that are expected to be presented in the bilingual dictionary. The following are the extracted sections where the run-on entries can be presented:

Extraction from the X-Y sections (Northern Sotho – English):

57

kgarebê virgin, maiden	kgêiga tear
kgarebjana young virgin, maiden	kgêila tear
kgarêng on the crown	kgêkê concubine, mistress, paramour
kgariêtsa rouse, incite, instigate	kgêkêtle cut unevenly
kgaritša scratch, sharpen	kgêkga walk hurriedly
kgarô coil, tress	kgêloga turn aside, backslide
kgaroga be startled	kgêlogô breaking away from, heresy
kgaruma growl	kgêlola turn from
kgaruru unrest, quarrel	kgêloša mislead, avert
kgasô broadcasting	kgêma bite off
kgatêlêlô accent, pressure	kgêmêtha bite off, cut off, smite
kgatêlôpele a step ahead, prosperity	kgêphola break off a piece
kgatha break up new soil, crush, chop off twigs	kgêra nibble, gnaw
kgathala be weary, careless	kgêramatona hermaphrodite
kgathale, kgathalê : ..ga/sa/se..~ not weary/careless	kgeregêla flock towards
kgathe whereas	kgêrêhlwa worn-out and useless thing
kgathiša to tame/break in	kgêrêkgêtsa cackle
kgathola experience; hurry; take a draught, breathe in cold air, rest; punctuate	kgêrêša demolish
kgathotše experienced, hurried	kgêroga chip off
kgathwa be breaking up new soil	kgêru kernel, nutshell, nut, chip
kgati cane, skipping rope; tia ~ skip	kgêsa turn back, catch red-handed, throng
kgatikanya brandish, slash, wield	kgêtha choose, elect, pick, ~go who chooses/elects/picks
kgatišô printing	kgêthe, kgethê must choose/elect; ..ga/sa/se..~ not choose/elect
kgatla sheath, handle of a knife; strike, stone; complaint, grievance	kgêthêgô consecration, holiness
kgatlamêtsa push in	kgêthêla pele predestine
kgatlampana be in progress	kgêthêlwa be chosen for
kgatô step, footprint	kgêthilê chose, elected, picked, ~go who chose/elected/picked
kgatogô a stepping-off	kgêthilwê was chosen/elected/picked, ~go who was chosen/elected/picked
kgatsêlê beestings	kgêthô choice, election
kgausi near	kgêtholla be partial
kgaugêlô pity, mercy	kgêthollô ya mmala colour bar
kgauswana near by	kgêthologanyô separation, differentiation
kgauswane vicinity	kgêthwa be chosen/elected/picked
kgauswi near	kgêthwe, kgêthwê must be chosen/elected; ..ga/sa/se..~ not be chosen/elected
kgauswinyana nearby	kgêtlane collarbone
kgêba belch, break a wind	kgêtloga fall off, chip off
kgêbe, kgêbê must belch; ..ga/sa/se..~ not belch	kgêtsana little bag
kgêbilê belched, broke a wind	kgêtsi bag, knapsack
kgegeô irony	
kgêhlênkê a tinkling sound	

Fig. 4.8. An extracted page from the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) without in the X-Y Section run-on entry. Source: Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004:57)

The above extracted presentation indicates that there are no run-on entries in the X-Y (Northern Sotho – English) section. This would confuse the target user as they would spend a lengthy duration looking for a particular headword and its translation equivalents. Also, the presentation of the headwords in this page of the bilingual dictionary indicate that they change as the presentation continues from the left side division to the right-side division. The presentation of the headwords starts with *kga-* and at the very bottom of the left division of the same page headwords that starts with *kge-* are presented. The target user would not know where the presented headwords that starts with *kge-* begin as there is no run-on entry that indicates the section of the page in the bilingual dictionary.

The presented run-on entry on this page should be **[kgarebe – kgets]** because the headwords are presented on each end of the page within the bilingual dictionary itself. Therefore, the target user will know that the presented headwords of this page range from the headwords **[kgarebe – kgets]**. Therefore, the illustration below indicates where should the run-on entries be placed:

kgarebe – kgetsi

57

kgarebê virgin, maiden	kgêiga tear
kgarebjana young virgin, maiden	kgêila tear
kgarêng on the crown	kgêkê concubine, mistress, paramour
kgariêtsa rouse, incite, instigate	kgêkêtle cut unevenly
kgaritsa scratch, sharpen	kgêkga walk hurriedly
kgarô coil, tress	kgêloga turn aside, backslide
kgaroga be startled	kgêlogô breaking away from, heresy
kgaruma growl	kgêlola turn from
kgaruru unrest, quarrel	kgêloša mislead, avert
kgašô broadcasting	kgêma bite off
kgatêlêlo accent, pressure	kgêmêtha bite off, cut off, smite
kgatêlôpele a step ahead, prosperity	kgêphola break off a piece
kgatha break up new soil, crush, chop off twigs	kgêra nibble, gnaw
kgathala be weary, careless	kgêramatona hermaphrodite
kgathale, kgathalê : ..ga/sa/se..~ not weary/careless	kgeregêla flock towards
kgathe whereas	kgêrêhlwa worn-out and useless thing
kgathiša to tame/break in	kgêrêkgêtsa cackle
kgathola experience; hurry; take a draught, breathe in cold air, rest; punctuate	kgêrêša demolish
kgathotše experienced, hurried	kgêroga chip off
kgathwa be breaking up new soil	kgêru kernel, nutshell, nut, chip
kgati cane, skipping rope; tia ~ skip	kgêsa turn back, catch red-handed, throng
kgatikanya brandish, slash, wield	kgêtha choose, elect, pick, ~go who chooses/elects/picks
kgatišô printing	kgêthe, kgethê must choose/elect; ..ga/ sa/se..~ not choose/elect
kgatla sheath, handle of a knife; strike, stone; complaint, grievance	kgêthêgô consecration, holiness
kgatlamêtsa push in	kgêthêla pele predestine
kgatlampana be in progress	kgêthêlwa be chosen for
kgatô step, footprint	kgêthilê chose, elected, picked, ~go who chose/elected/picked
kgatogô a stepping-off	kgêthilwê was chosen/elected/picked, ~go who was chosen/elected/picked
kgatsêlê beestings	kgêthô choice, election
kgaufsi near	kgêtholla be partial
kgaugêlô pity, mercy	kgêthollô ya mmala colour bar
kgauswana near by	kgêthologanyô separation, differentiation
kgauswane vicinity	kgêthwa be chosen/elected/picked
kgauswi near	kgêthwe, kgêthwê must be chosen/ elected; ..ga/sa/se..~ not be chosen/ elected
kgauswinyana nearby	kgêtlane collarbone
kgêba belch, break a wind	kgêtloga fall off, chip off
kgêbe, kgêbê must belch; ..ga/sa/se..~ not belch	kgêtsana little bag
kgêbilê belched, broke a wind	kgêtsi bag, knapsack
kgegeô irony	
kgêhlênkê a tinkling sound	

Fig. 4.9. A suggested presentation of the run-on entry in the X-Y section (Northern Sotho – English) from extracted page from the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) with a run-on entry. Source: Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004:57)

Extraction from the Y-X sections (Northern Sotho – English):

chronologically ka tatêlanô,
 tlhatlamanô
chrysalis mokone
chuck fôša, lahla
chuckle sêga
chum mogwêra, monkane
chunk segoba
church kêrêkê
church council lekgotla la kêrêkê; ~
 district sedika
church member sethò sa kêrêkê
churchwarden moletšatšhipi,
 moletakêrêkê
churn kara, fêhla
cigar sikara
cigarette sekêrêtê, sikarêtê; ~s
 disekêrêtê
cinder legala, mošidi, melôra
cinderella mmamelôra
cinema paesekôpô
circle sedikô, ntikodiko, sedikadikwê
circuit tikologô; ~ **court**
 kgotlatshepedi
circular sêkhulare,
 lengwalôphatlalatšwa
circulate dikološa, pôtološa
circulation tikologô, tikološô
circumcise bolotša, rupiša, wêšša, rupa
circumcision lebollô
circumference sedika
circumflex kapi
circumscribe laodiša, bea mellwane
circumspect tsarogilêgo, bohlale
circumspection tsarôgô, bohlale
circumstance boêmô, lebaka, maêmô
circumstantial ya sewêlô, êkêlêšago,
 ôkêšago, laêtšago
circumvent fora, hlalefêšša
circus sôrôkisi, serekisi
cistern tanka, thini
citizen moikarabêdi, moagi
citizenship boikarabêdi, thutaboagi
city motse, motsemogolo, tôrôpô
civil segaê, selegaê, hlômphêgago; ~
 servant mohlanka wa mmušô
civilisation tlhabologô

civilise hlabologa; ~ed hlabologilêng
claim baka, bakiša, ikabêšše, sêka;
n., mmakô, klêimê
claimant mmedi, mmaki, mosêki
clamber namêla ka thata, namêla ka
 maoto le diatla
clammy bošidi
clamour mokgôši, mogoô, goêlêšša
clamp sepatišô, sepatišêššô, sekurufi
clan lešika, lelokô, mohlôbô
clang tsirima, tsidima, lla
clap ôpa (magôswi)
clarification tlhalošô, tlhathollô
clarify hlaloša, hlatholla
clarinet klarinêtê
clash thulana; *n.*, thulanô
clasp kgwaçšša, ngamêla, hupara,
 tatagana; *n.*, sekgôgê
class legôrô, mphato, sehlôpha, klase;
 ~room klasekamore
classic klasiki
classify hlôpha
classification tlhôphô
classroom klasekamore
clatter thanya
clause thabe, temana, lefokwana
clave kgêtlane
claw monôtlô, monatla, leroo, borofa,
 nkgwai; *v.*, swara, ngapa; ~ **hammer**
 notwanamanakana
clay letsopa
clay pot moêta, nkgô
clean hlwêkilêgo, thakgafêšše, hlwêkiša
cleanliness tlhwêkô, bothakga
cleanness tlhwêkô, bothakga
cleanse hlwêkiša, thakgafatša, hlatswa
cleansing tlhwêkišô, tlhapišô,
 thakgafatšô
clear selegô, sêkilêgo, pêpênêng,
 kwagalago, molalêng
clear têkolla, kgola, tloša; ~ **the table**
 têkolla
clearly gabotse
clearness tlhwêkô, go kwagala
cleave beka, pharola, fatola, aroganya;
 ~ **to** kgomarêla

Fig. 4.10. An extracted page from the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) without in the Y-X section (English-Northern Sotho) run-on entry. Source: Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004:202)

From the above extracted presentation, it can be easily identified that there is no run-on entry. Noticing that the presented headwords range from *ch-* to *cl-*. In between that range, there are many changes that are included in the presentation such as headwords ranging from *ci-*. The target user would not know where to locate such headwords.

The expected run-on entry on this extracted presentation is [**chronologically – cleave**]. The function of this run-on entry would be to guide the target user to know

which alphabetical sections they are paging in terms of locating the headwords. The following is the suggested presentation of the run-on entry for the page extracted from the bilingual dictionary:

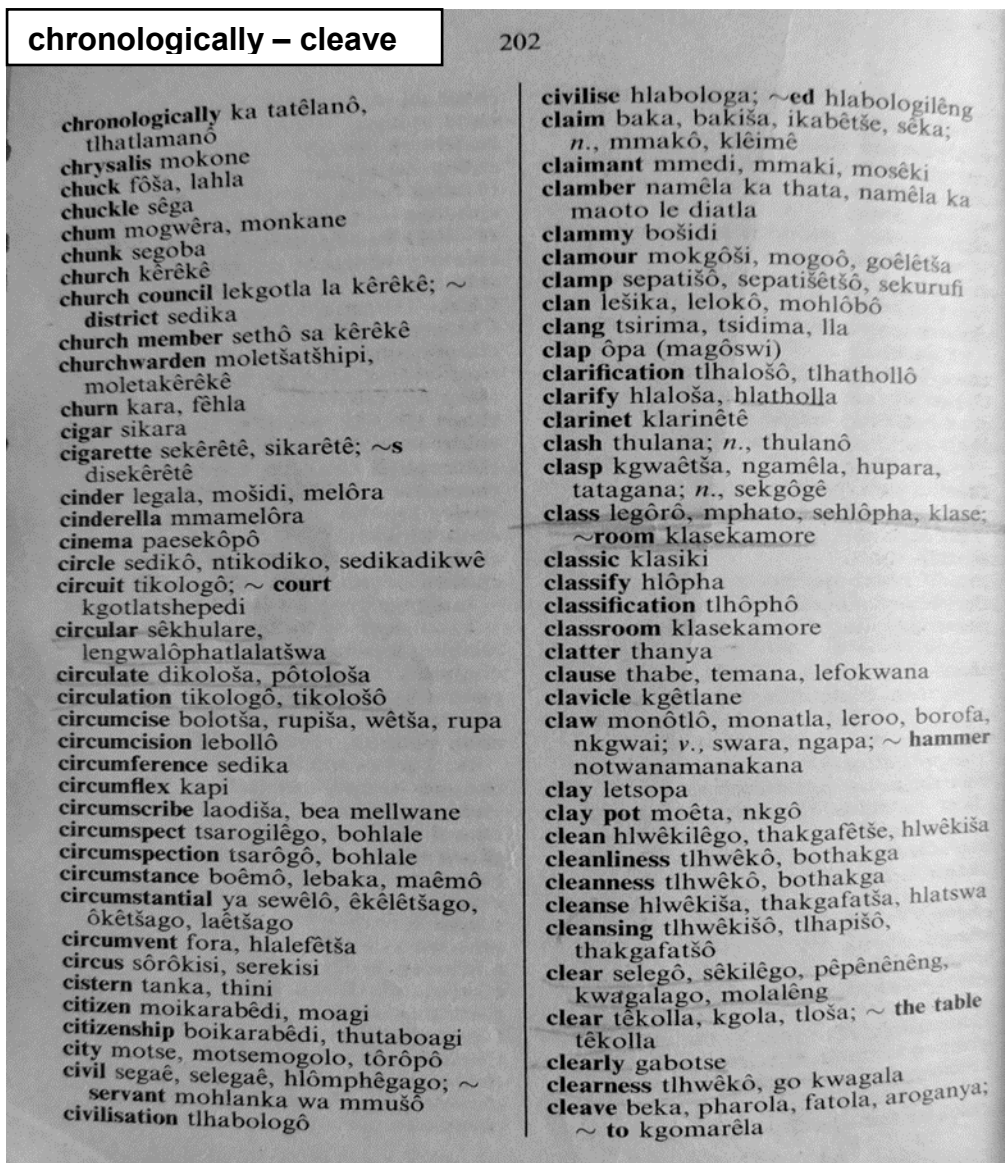


Fig. 4.11. A suggested presentation of the run-on entry in the Y-X section (English- Northern Sotho) from extracted page from the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) with a run-on entry. Source: Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004:202)

Therefore, the suggested presentations are suggested considering the context of the presentation of the headwords in the bilingual dictionary. Looking at the structure of the page of the extracted pages, one may argue that the run-on entries are fair enough if they focused on the first headwords presented in the two segments of the page. That would not be a stressful activity for a target user to locate some of the

headwords which would lead to the dictionary being considered not user-friendly. As such the suggested run-on entries in the bilingual dictionary should be cotedexted as the presentation of the headwords is alphabetical.

4.3.1.3. Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

As mentioned from the previous section, the OPSSD (2007) does have run-on entries presented. The presentation of the run-on entry accommodates the first and the last headword within that page. However, the presentation of the run-on entries on the first page of each alphabetical section are omitted. The bilingual dictionary only focuses on presenting the language combinations and the page number on the first page and run-on entries are presented on the subsequent pages. The presentation of the run-on entries follows the first-last headword rule. An example of such a scenario is as follows:

First page

Aa

a¹ *** subject concord 1 (cl. 1) ■ she/he • Ge mosetsana a aloga, o tsena bokgarebeng. > Ge a aloga, o tsena bokgarebeng. When a girl returns from initiation school, she enters the stage of puberty. > When she returns from initiation school, she enters the stage of puberty. 2 (cl. 6) ■ they • Masogana a gorogile maabane go tšwa moepong. > A gorogile maabane go tšwa moepong. The young men arrived yesterday from the mine. > They arrived yesterday from the mine.

◇ **ga se a** [+ VERB] 1 (cl. 1) ■ she/he did not • Monna ga se a tliša dijo tša bana mafelelong a kgwedi ye. > Ga se a tliša dijo tša bana mafelelong a kgwedi ye. The man did not bring food for the children this month-end. > He did not bring food for the children this month-end. 2 (cl. 6) ■ they did not • Maswika ga se a wa go tšwa thabeng. > Ga se a wa go tšwa thabeng. The rocks did not fall from the mountain. > They did not fall from the mountain.

Subject concords of noun classes, here a, are not translated when they appear together with the subject in the sentence.

a² *** object concord cl. 6 ■ them • Basadi ba buna mabele. Basadi ba a buna. The women harvest meales. > The women harvest them.

a³ *** possessive concord cl. 6 ■ of • Mmušo o swanetše go thuša maloko a SANDF le ba malapa a bona. The government must help the members of the SANDF and their families.

a⁴ *** demonstrative pos. 1 cl. 6 ■ these (ones) • Magapu a ke a rena. These watermelons are ours.

This demonstrative indicates that the speaker and the addressee are close to each other, and the objects that are referred to are near them.

a⁵ *** present tense morpheme ■ (indicates that an action or state has not yet been completed) • Baithuti ka moka ba a lwala. All the students are ill.

The morpheme a appears only in the positive form of present tense verbs in the indicative mood.

a⁶ *** question particle ■ (marks rhetorical questions) • A ba go thušitše ka tšhelete? Did they really help you with money?

The question particle a is placed at the beginning of a sentence.

a⁷ *** hortative particle ■ (marks a request) • A re naganeng ka sereto. Let's think about a poem.

a⁸ *** past tense morpheme ■ (indicates that an action or state has already been completed) • Go laetša gore ba ba mo dirilego tšeo ke baithuti, gomme ga ba a phetha modiro wa bona. It is clear that whoever did this to her are students and that they did not finish their work.

The past tense marker a appears in one of the negative forms of past tense verbs in the indicative mood.

aba verb 1 ■ share • O be a sa rate go aba mahumo a gagwe go bona. He didn't want to share his wealth with them. 2 ■ distribute • A re ka aba naga bjang go boradipolasa? How can we distribute land to farmers?

abela /abèla/ verb + applicative (el)

© ABA 1 ■ share with • Yena o tlo bona gore a ka ba abela bjang seo a nago naso. He will see how he can share what he has with them.

2 ■ distribute amongst • Abela bašomi mešomo, ba šome. Distribute the work amongst the workers and let them start working.

abelana /abèlana/ verb + applicative (el)

+ reciprocal (an) © ABA 1 ■ share amongst one another • Bana ba ile ba abelana tšhelete yeo tatagobona a ba tlogeletšego yona ge a hlokofoala. The children shared the money, which their father left when he died, amongst themselves. 2 ■ distribute amongst one another

abelwa /abèlwa/ verb + applicative (el)

+ passive (w) © ABA 1 ■ be shared 2 ■ be distributed • Dipotfolio tša Kabinete di swanetše go abelwa ka tshwanelo diphathi

Fig. 4.12. An extracted page from the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) in the X-Y Section (Northern Sotho-English) without a run-on entry. Source: Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007:1)

Subsequent page

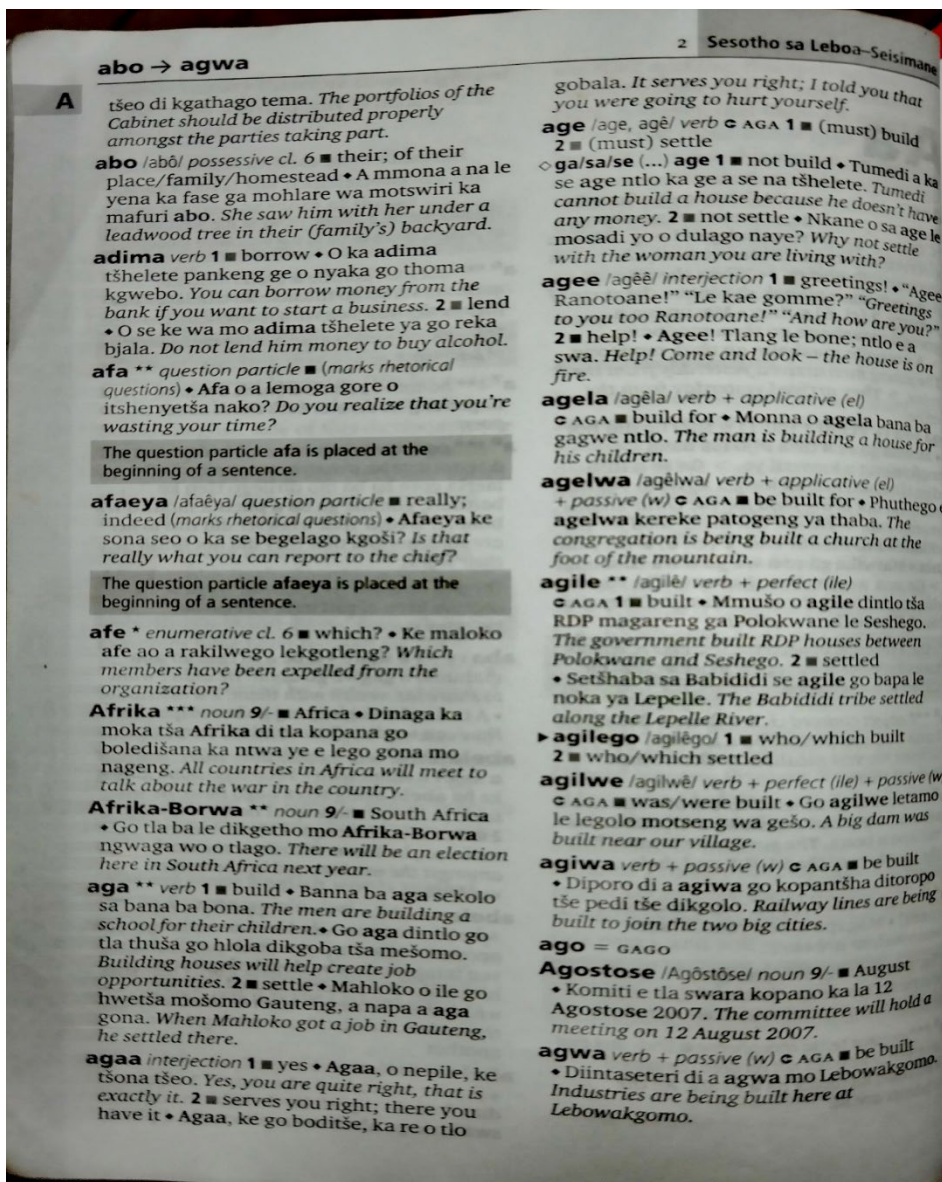


Fig. 4.13. An extracted page from the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) in the X-Y Section (Northern Sotho-English) with a run-on entry. Source: Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007:2)

From the two extracted presentations, what can be identified is that the bilingual dictionary at the beginning of each alphabetical entry, it does not present the run-on entry but only the language combination. However, the situation changes when it comes to the subsequent page of the same alphabetical section of the bilingual dictionary.

There are two issues that can be identified, that being the main run-on entry, which is located at the top of the page, and the second being the alphabetical section label where the presentation of the headwords is located in. This alphabetical section label assists the target user to notice the section in which the headwords are presented. It is then after locating the alphabetical section, the target user can now refer to the run-on entries to locate a particular headword that they would be looking for. Therefore, the bilingual dictionary has made good use of cotexting the run-on entries by using the first and the last presented headword in the page.

From the first extracted presentation, the run-on entry which could have been presented is **[a – abelana]**. It would indicate that the presentation of the headwords ranges from **[a – abelana]**. It indicates the contextual relation between the presented headwords within the extracted presentation. This would guide the target user to notice that the A section of the X – Y section of the bilingual dictionary begins with headwords between **[a – abelana]**.

Extracted presentation:

abo → agwa

(2007:2)

From the subsequent extracted presentation, the run-on entry has been presented and now the target user will be able to comprehend and locate the headwords presented in the page. The bilingual dictionary has presented the run-on entry using → as an indicator to the target user to comprehend that the headwords presented in the page ranges from [abo – agwa].

4.3.2. Presentation of headwords

The main intention of a bilingual dictionary is to ensure that what is presented as a headword does have a translation equivalent that is meaningful and relevant to the headword. According to Imbayarwo (2008:43) the headword sign hosted in the macrostructure is accompanied by several microstructural entries that are presented as part of the lexicographic treatment. With that said, it is expected by the target user that the presentation of headwords be presented contextually, however not forgetting that they should be presented alphabetically.

4.3.2.1. Kriel Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

The following are the extractions of the issues associated with the presentation of headwords and their suggested presentations in the Kriel Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

Extracted presentation:

gantši, often, frequently

gantšintši, very often

(1994:34)

The extracted presentation above has been cotexted, due to the extension of the word which stands as a suffix *-ntši*. Furthermore, even if it has been cotexted, the presentation of the headword *gantši* should have been combined with headword *gantšintši* as both the headword and the translation equivalents share the same context. It is because it can be concluded that the two presentations are of the same context and share the same contextual meaning in terms of their translation equivalents (as they can be used synonymously). The headword *gantšintši* (very often) is normally used for emphasis purposes for the headword *gantši* (often). However, it must be noted that the presentation of frequently as a translation equivalent was incorrect. The translation of the word frequently is *kgafetša*. The suggested presentation can present *gantšintši* as additional information of the headword of *gantši*:

Suggested presentation:

gantši, often, (-ntši) very often

The suggested presentation of the headword *gantši* includes the presentation of the second presentation under one headword. It is indicated that when attaching the suffix, the meaning changes (syntactic meaning) but the contextual meaning remains the same.

Extracted presentation:

amogela, receive, accept

amogelwa, be received, be accepted

(1994:4)

The extracted presentation has also been cotexted as the presentation of the two headwords can be presented under a single headword. With the change in the suffix,

the syntactic meaning of the word differs. However, the contextual presentation of the headwords remains the same as they are also guided by the translation equivalents. The suffix *-wa*, does not change the meaning and the context of the word from its original. Therefore, the following suggested presentation will indicate how the headword should have been presented:

Suggested presentation:

amogela: accept, receive (**-wa**) be accepted, be received

The presentation above, indicates the contextualisation of the headword. However, also the syntactic meaning of the headword has also been included in the presentation using the suffix **-wa**.

4.3.2.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

The following are the extractions of the issues associated with the presentation of headwords and the suggested presentations in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004):

Extracted presentation:

ahlama: open (mouth)

ahlame: opened (mouth)

(2004:3)

The presentation above was cotexted, this is because the two headwords are morphologically different. The headword *ahlama* is the present tense of the headword *ahlame*, and the headword *ahlame* is the past tense of the headword *ahlama*. The same qualities are presented in the translation equivalents, which still indicates that the translation equivalents are the same but due to tense they are different. It would have been relevant for the headword *ahlame* to be presented as a sub-headword of the headword *ahlama*. Therefore, they would be headwords that are of one context. The suggested presentation would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

ahlama: open, *ahlame* (*t*) opened (mouth)

The presentation above illustrates the connection between the two words *ahlama* and *ahlame* as they are to be used in the same context but differ syntactically.

Extracted presentation:

dumela (!) good morning/ afternoon/ evening etc.; agree, believe, admit

dumelang: good morning/afternoon/evening etc.

(2004:25)

The presented headwords have been cotextually presented as they appear to be syntactically different. However, the two headwords share the same context as they both can be used as a greeting. As such, the only difference is that the headword *dumelang* has the suffix *-ng*, which does not change or make any difference from the headword *dumela*. The suggested presentation can be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

dumela: agree, believe, admit; **(-ng!)** good morning/afternoon/evening etc.

The presentation above accommodates the presentation of both *dumela* and *dumelang* under one presented headword. It is an indication of how headwords should be presented, with direct reference to context.

4.3.2.3. Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

The following are the extractions of the issues associated with the presentation of headwords and the suggested presentations in the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

Extracted presentation:

otla: *verb.* punish. Morutiši o otlela bašemanyana ba go seleka sekolong. (*The teacher punishes the naughty boys at school.*)

otlela: *verb.* drive. ke go tshela molao go otlela sefatanaga o nwele madila. (*It is against the law to drive after you have been drinking.*)

otlwa: *verb.* be punished. Motho ge a dirile molato o a otlwa. (*If a person has committed a crime, he is punished.*)

(2007:177)

The above-extracted presentation is an example of how the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) presents headwords in relation to cotext and not prioritising context. Cotextually, the presentation is correct, the headword *otlela* should be in between the headwords *otla* and *otlwa*. However, the headwords *otla* and *otlwa* share a contextual relationship. They should form one presentation and

otlwa be added as a sub-headword of the headword *otla*. Apart from the contextual relations the translation equivalents indicate that the two headwords *otla* and *otlwa* are related in terms of tenses. The headword *otlwa* is the past tense of the headword *otlwa*. Therefore, it can be indicated with a usage of a suffix that they are contextually related due to tense. It is then the headword *otlela* can follow.

Suggested presentation:

otla: *verb.* punish. Morutiši o otlā bašemanyana ba go seleka sekolong. (*The teacher punishes the naughty boys at school.*) **I-wa:** *verb.* be punished. *Motho ge a dirile molato o a otlwa.* (*If a person has committed a crime, he is punished.*)

otlela: *verb.* drive. ke go tshela molao go otlela sefatanaga o nwele madila. (*It is against the law to drive after you have been drinking.*)

Microstructural Aspects

4.3.3. Parts of speech

According to Prinsloo (2020:587), African language lexicographers function as middlemen between user expectations and complex grammatical systems. It is not stated that African languages are the only ones having complex grammatical systems; rather, the lexicographer should be well-versed in the main grammatical systems of the language(s) under consideration. Each headword belongs to a specific part of speech that belongs to a particular language. The extractions will present how the bilingual dictionaries present the headwords with the parts of speech. The three Northern Sotho – English bilingual dictionaries: Kriel’s Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994), Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) and Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) presents the headwords in English within both X - Y (Northern Sotho – English) and Y - X (English – Northern Sotho) sections of the bilingual dictionary. The suggested presentations will then consist of the parts of speech presented in the source language of the section.

Northern Sotho parts of speech with the abbreviations	English parts of speech with the abbreviations
leina (lei)	noun (n)
lediri (led)	verb (v)
lehlaodi (hlao)	adjective (adj)
lehlathi (hlath)	adverb (adv)
lekopanyi (lek)	conjunction (conj)
lešala (leš)	pronoun (pron)

Table 4.3.3.1: Suggested presentation on the parts of speech between in the Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries.

4.3.3.1. Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

There are no parts of speech included in the presentation the headwords within the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994). The only section where parts of speech are included it is when a headword which is presented as a noun has the possibilities to be presented as an adjective or a verb. This makes the presentation of the translation equivalents to be questionable in terms of their contextual meaning. The following are some of the extracted presentations of the headwords with the suggested presentations:

Extracted presentation:

basokologi, converts
(1994:7)

Suggested presentation:

basokologi: (*lei*) – (*go sokologa*) converts

The headword *basokologi*, is derived from the verb '*go sokologa*' which means to repent. However, to the context of the headword, *basokologi* refers to people who have either repented or converted. As a result, it then becomes a noun. However, the presentation of the headword should present the part of speech and where the word is rooted from.

Extracted presentation:

eletšega, advisable
(1994:29)

Suggested presentation:

eletšega: (*hlao*) – (*eletša*) advisable

The headword *eletšega* is derived from the verb *eletša*, which means to advise. However, due to the contextualisation of the word to become a descriptive, it then becomes *eletšega* which is an adjective. Therefore, it is important to present how the context of the headword was developed from which part of speech.

Extracted presentation:

gamela, squeeze-out
(1994:34)

Suggested presentation:

gamela (*led*) – (*go gama*) squeeze-out

The headword *gamela*, is derived from the verb *go gama*, which means to milk out. Therefore, the word has the same context and a slightly different syntactic meaning, especially with the suffix *-ela*.

Extracted presentation:

itshelela, cross over
(1994:48)

Suggested presentation:

itshelela: (*led*) – (*tshela*) skip (yourself)

The headword *itshelela* is derived from the verb *go tshela*, which might often be mistaken for the number six which is translated to as *tshela*. However, the translation equivalent and the context used to present the headword is incorrect. The translation equivalent of the headword *itshela* in this context is to skip yourself (in the process of counting). The headword *itshelela* remains a verb because of the prefix *i-* and does not change its context.

Extracted presentation:

mabothata, hardships, difficulty, adversity, problems
(1994: 80)

Suggested presentation:

mabothata: (*lei*) – (*bothata*) problems, hardships, difficulty, adversity

The headword *mabothata* is derived from the noun *bothatha*, which still refers to the translation equivalents: problems, hardships, difficulty, or adversity. The

headword *mabothata* remains a noun and the contexts of the translation equivalents also remains the same even though it has added the prefix *mabo-*.

4.3.3.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

The parts of speech presentations in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) are not evident. There are no parts of speech that are attached to the headwords presented in the bilingual dictionary. For example, the following are the extracted presentations and the suggested presentations:

Extracted presentation:

mafetwa: old maids, spinsters
(2004:81)

Suggested presentation:

mafetwa: (*lei*) old maids, spinsters

The headword *mafetwa* is the plural form of the word *lefetwa*. Which still shares the same translation equivalents and context. Therefore, it makes it a noun, to be exact a common noun.

Extracted presentation:

metsaneng: in the small villages
(2004:93)

Suggested presentation:

metsaneng: (*hlath*) – (*metse*) in the small villages

The headword *metsaneng*, is derived from the common noun *metse* (which is the plural form of the word *motse*.) as a diminutive, meaning houses or villages. However, due to the combination of the suffix *-ng*, it changes its morphological meaning but not the contextual meaning. The headword *metsaneng* no longer becomes a common noun, but it becomes an adjective (of which can be considered as a locative). Therefore, the context does not allow the presentation of the headword *metse* to add the suffix *-ng* to make it one presentation. The words *metse* and *metseng* do not share any contextual and contextual relations. It is then that the presentation of the headword *metseng* can be presented independently.

Extracted presentation:

nyelela: vanish, disappear

(2004:122)

Suggested presentation:

nyelela: (*led*) – (*go nyelela*) vanish, disappear

The headword *nyelela* alone cannot be accepted or used as a verb without the prefix *go-*. The headword without the prefix *go-* does not have any contextual relation to the translation equivalents. Therefore, headword *nyelela* is a verb, and therefore it should have the prefix *go-* to support that *nyelela* is a verb.

Extracted presentation:

pitšopalo: numeration

(2004:131)

Suggested presentation

pitšopalo: (*lei*) numeration

The headword *pitšopalo* is derived from two parts of speech which is: *pitšo-* (noun) (meaning to call for something) and *-palo* (noun) (meaning number). In full expansion of the headword or analysing it cotextually, the headword is *pitšo ya palo*, which still does refer to numeration. Therefore, to contextualise it and to make it a term, it was combined to become *pitšopalo*.

Extracted presentation:

ritetše: smoothened, ironed, plastered

(2004:136)

Suggested presentation:

ritetše: (*led*) – (*go rita*) smoothened, ironed, plastered

The headword *ritetše*, is derived from the verb *go rita* (meaning to smoothen). Therefore, *ritetše* is the past tense of *go rita* and remains a verb. To indicate the context in which the headword *rita* can be used, it should be highlighted from which verb was the headword derived.

4.3.3.3. Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

In the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007), parts of speech have been presented. The presentation has been implemented in both sections of the bilingual dictionary. However, there are certain inconsistencies around the language used to present the parts of speech. In the X-Y section of the bilingual dictionary the

parts of speech may be expected to be presented in Northern Sotho. However, in the Y-X section of the bilingual dictionary, the presentation of the parts of speech are expected to be presented in English. It depends on the target language used in the microstructure of the bilingual dictionary. The following are the extractions which could have been presented in Northern Sotho:

Extracted presentation:

boetapele: *noun* 14. leadership. Gore o tla šomiša bjang boetapele bja gagwe, go tla tšwa go setšhaba. (*How he will use his leadership will be determined by the community.*)

(2007:19)

The headword *boetapele* is a noun which is derived from the verb phrase *eta pele* which is translated to as to lead. It then changed into a noun but as *moetapele*, which is translated to a leader. Therefore, from the conversion of the verb phrase into a noun, it has also become a concept. It is the reason why the headword *boetapele*, which is translated to as leadership came into existence. With the headword presented in the X-Y section, the part of speech needs to be presented and translated from English to Northern Sotho.

Suggested presentation:

boetapele: (*lei* 14). leadership. Gore o tla šomiša bjang boetapele bja gagwe, go tla tšwa go setšhaba. (*How he will use his leadership will be determined by the community.*)

Extracted presentation:

galefa: *verb*. become angry; become aggressive. Batswadi ba rile go kwa seo ba galefa wo šoro. (*On hearing that, the parents became very angry.*)

(2007: 57)

The headword *galefa* is a verb. With the headword presented in the X-Y section, the part of speech needs to be translated and presented in Northern Sotho.

Suggested presentation:

galefa: (*led*). become angry; become aggressive. Batswadi ba rile go kwa seo ba galefa wo šoro. (*On hearing that, the parents became very angry.*)

Extracted presentation:

leboelela: *adverb.* repeatedly. O be a šišinya hlogo leboelela, a sa kgolwe seo a se bonago. (*She shook her head repeatedly, not believing what she is seeing.*)

(2007:106)

The headword *leboelela* is an adverb. It is derived from the verb *boelela*, which can be translated to return or repeat. It is then that the verb was converted into an adverb. However, one may argue that the headword *leboelela* is derived from the verb *boa*. The question would be that the word *boa* does not relate to the word repeat. With the headword presented in the X-Y section, the part of speech needs to be translated and presented in Northern Sotho.

Suggested presentation:

leboelela: (hlath). repeatedly. O be a šišinya hlogo leboelela, a sa kgolwe seo a se bonago. (*She shook her head repeatedly, not believing what she is seeing.*)

Extracted presentation:

ka baka la: *conjunction.* because (of). O be a ekwa bohloko kudu pelong ya gagwe ka baka la mathata ao a hlotšwego ke yena. (*He felt very sorry in his heart because of the problems that were caused by him.*)

(2007:81)

Due to the differences between the usage of spoken and written languages, the headword *ka baka la* is not presented in full. The compilers used the contextual meaning instead of the cotextual meaning. In full the headword is *ka lebaka la*. However, due to the longevity of the word *lebaka* and for it to fit as a conjunction, the compilers had to use the spoken form rather than the written form. With the headword presented in the X-Y section, the part of speech needs to be translated and presented in Northern Sotho.

Suggested presentation:

ka baka la: (*lek*) because (of). O be a ekwa bohloko kudu pelong ya gagwe ka baka la mathata ao a hlotšwego ke yena. (*He felt very sorry in his heart because of the problems that were caused by him.*)

4.3.4. Translation equivalents and structural markers

It is important for translation equivalents to expedite the issue of context over cotext as target users would often refer to the very first translation equivalent that they come across. Shikesho (2019:111) mentions that when a headword has different translations, then each sense must be separated. When the different senses belong to different word classes or subclass, they must be indicated before the concerned sense. Therefore, headwords that are presented with incorrect translation equivalents, affects the contextual guidance which misleads the target users. That makes the issue of contextualisation of translation equivalents a priority.

4.3.4.1. Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

The Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) is presented as a bilingual bidirectional dictionary, and it is expected to have translation equivalents that are presented in a context that the target user will be able to comprehend. However, that appeared not to be the case, as the translation equivalents are not contextually presented. The presentation of the translation equivalents from the headword are separated by a comma, meaning that one can consider the headwords and the translation equivalents as synonymous senses. The following are the extracted presentation from the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994):

Extracted presentation:

lekgarebe, virgn, maid
(1994:91)

The headword *lekgarebe* has only one translation equivalent, which is a virgin. The headword was cotexted because a maid can be classified as a young girl (maiden), who would be assumably be single and does not have any children. However contextually the translation for the word maid is *mošomi (wa ka ngwakong)*. Also, the presentation of the translation equivalents, are presented as synonymous senses, and they are not even of the same context. The presentation of the headword would be as follows:

lekgarebe: (*lei*) - (*makgarebe*) virgin
mošomi: (*lei*) – (*wa ka ngwakong*) maid

Extracted presentation:

eletša, remind, advise

(1994:29)

The headword *eletša* has only one translation equivalent which is to advise. The headword word *eletša* is derived from the noun *keletšo*, meaning advice. The translation equivalent for the word remind is *gopotša*. The two translation equivalents do not share any contextual or cotextual relations. It can be concluded that the translation equivalent remind was misrepresented. The suggested presentation will be as follows:

eletša: (led) to advise

gopotša: (led) to remind

Extracted presentation:

hlala, divorce, forsake

(1994:38)

The headwords *hlala*, can only be used when referring to the translation equivalent divorce. That is the only translation equivalent. The translation equivalent divorce should have also been presented as a verb, because if the presentation was on divorce as a noun, it should have been *tlhalo*. Therefore, it was contextually and cotextually well presented. The translation equivalent for the word forsake is *lahla*. However, it should be noted that *lahla* in this context is used polysemously the cotextual meaning of *lahla* as to throw away. The suggested presentation is as follows:

hlala: (led) divorce

tlhalo: (lei) divorce

lahla (led) to throw away; forsake

Extracted presentation:

hlapologa, urinate, melt

(1994:39)

The headword for the headword *hlapologa*, refers to the word urinate. Therefore, the context of the headword was considered as it was the first translation equivalent to be presented. They are presented as synonymous senses, yet they do not share the same context, meaning and syntactical presentation. However, the translation

equivalent melt was incorrectly presented. The correct translation for the word melt is *tologa*. Therefore, the suggested presentation would be as follows:

hlapologa (*led*) urinate

tologa (*led*) melt

Extracted presentation:

namela, mount, ride, climb

(1994:116)

The presented headword *namela* only means to climb. This headword is a verb that can only be done by living things. However, the correct translation equivalent was cotexted as it was the last translation equivalent to be presented. The translation equivalent for the word mount can be easily mistaken for the headword *namela* because the actual translation equivalent is *nametša*, which is to mount or when objects have been placed on something higher. Also, the word *nametša* accommodates both living and non-living things. Therefore, the suggested presentation would be as follows:

namela: (*led.*) climb

nametša: (*led*) mount

4.3.4.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

As the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) is a bilingual dictionary, it is evident that is a dictionary consisting of two languages interchangeably. As such the two languages are Northern Sotho and English. The bilingual dictionary has not prioritised the importance of presenting translation equivalents in accordance with context instead of cotext. The following extractions with the suggested presentations are evidence of the claim:

Extracted presentation

bafahloši: lecturers, teachers

(2004:6)

The headword *bafahloši* is the plural form of *mofahloši*, which means lecturer. The translation equivalent is derived from the verb go *fahloša*, meaning to lecture. As such, the translation equivalents have been classified as synonymous senses it is

because the contextual relations are the same. However, the context of the two translation equivalents is different. That is because the translation equivalent teacher does not refer to the headword *bafahloši*.

The correct translation equivalent for the word teacher is *morutiši*. This is because the word is derived from the verb *go ruta*, meaning to teach. Therefore, the person who does that action is a teacher who is translated to as *morutiši*. These two translations are words that are directly related to an act of educating. However, the other one lectures, and the other one teaches.

Suggested presentations

bafahloši: (*lei*) – (*sing. mofahloši*) lecturers

barutiši: (*lei*) – (*sing. morutiši*) teachers

Extracted presentation:

diswantšho: images, statues, pictures, photographs
(2004:26)

The headword *diswantšho* is a plural form of the word *seswantšho*, meaning a picture. Therefore, all the translation equivalents presented in the above presentation are correct and can be used interchangeably apart from one translation equivalent, a statue.

The word statue has its translation equivalent: *sehlwaseeme* (*pl. dihlwadieme*). Therefore, the translation equivalent statues should have not been included in the presentation. Additionally, the presentation of translation equivalents was not presented in accordance with the context, meaning that the translation equivalents: pictures and photographs should have been presented first.

Suggested presentation:

diswantšho: (*lei*) – (*sing. seswantšho*) pictures, photographs, images

dihlwadieme: (*lei*) – (*sing. sehlwaseeme*) statues

Extracted presentation:

hlogwana: small head; item, knob, subheading
(2004:41)

The translation equivalents provided for the headword *hlogwana* are incorrect. *Hlogwana* is a Northern Sotho culture-bound concept for an illness that affects

babies after birth. When the illness to ensure that the bones within the skull of the baby connect and become stronger. Normally the child would have a sinking and soft spot right in the middle of the head, and sometimes to the forehead. Also, when the baby is suffering from this illness, the stools normally would have a mucus-like substance.

In a worst-case scenario, the baby would have squint eyes, which could lead to death. For the baby to get better or to avoid the baby suffering from the illness, a ritual must be done called “*go alafa hlogwana*”. As such the translation equivalent should be a disease that affects the baby’s head after birth. Therefore, the translation equivalent for the small head is *hlogo ye nnyane*, which one could mistakenly mistranslate it as *hlogwana*.

The translation equivalent for the word item is *selo*, which can be the translation equivalent for the word thing. It does not have any contextual or syntactic relation with *hlogwana*. For the translation equivalent for the word knob is *mokgoko*, which is a translation equivalent for the word handle (for the door). For a subheading, the translation equivalent is *hlogwana-tabá*.

Suggested presentations:

hlogwana: (*lei*) a disease that affects the baby’s head after birth.

hlogwana-tabá: (*lei*) subheadings

mokgoko: (*lei*) – (*pl. mekgoko*) knob

selo: (*lei*) (*pl. dilo*) item, thing

Extracted presentation:

kgeke: concubine, mistress, paramour

(2004:57)

The translation equivalents that are provided for the headword *kgeke* are all incorrect. The correct translation equivalent for *kgeke* is a beautiful young lady. The translation equivalent for the words: concubine, mistress and paramour are *motlabo*. of which in the current days the word *motlabo* has been replaced with the word *nyatsi*, meaning the one who disrespects (the marriage). As such, *motlabo* and *kgeke* are not contextually related.

Suggested presentation:

kgeke: (*lei*) a beautiful young lady.

motlabo (nyatsi): (*lei*) – (*metlabo*) concubine, paramour

4.3.4.3. Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

The Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) is a bilingual dictionary which is bidirectional. Therefore, one can imply that the translation equivalents presented in the dictionary have paid attention to equalising the need for context and cotext. However, that is not the case with the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) as it has done the opposite in some of the presentations. Some of the translation equivalents are contextually presented, whereas some are cotextually presented. The following are the extracted presentations and suggested presentations of how they can be presented.

Extracted presentation:

galefa: *verb.* become angry; become aggressive. Batswadi ba rile go kwa seo ba galefa wo šoro. (*On hearing that, the parents became very angry.*)

(2007: 57)

The headword *galefa*, only accommodates the state of being aggressive. The headword *galefa*, has the sense of the word *bogale*, meaning to be powerful. The state of being powerful can be associated with an aggressive person. Therefore, the translation equivalent for the headword *galefa* is to become aggressive.

The translation equivalent for becoming angry is *go befelwa*. It is derived from the word *go befa*, which means to be ugly. Furthermore, when a person is angry, their faces change and appear to be ugly manner. The presentation of *befelwa* as a headword has been presented in the dictionary and it is translated to as being angry, which is correct.

befelwa: *verb.* become angry. Mmagwe ge a e kwa tseo, a befelwa. (*When her mother heard the news, she became angry.*)

Suggested presentation:

galefa: *verb.* become aggressive. Khomotjo o ile a galefa ge a boa kgorong ya tsheko. (*Khomotjo became aggressive when she came back from court.*)

Extracted presentation:

boetše: verb. went back to; returned to. Malose ga a sa dula le rena, o boetše gagabo.
(*Malose is no longer staying with us; he went back to his home.*)

(2007:19)

In the above presentation, the translations for the headword are both correct. However, they are not presented in accordance with the context of the headword itself. The headword *boetše*, is derived from the verb *boa*, which is translated to come back or return. Contextually, the headword *boetše* has a relation to returning than going back. Therefore, the translation equivalent returned should have been presented first. Furthermore, the structural marker presented is accurate as they are not used interchangeably as it depends on the context of the sentence.

Suggested presentation:

boetše: verb. returned to; went back to. Malose ga a sa dula le rena, o boetše gagabo.
(*Malose is no longer staying with us; he went back to his home.*)

Extracted presentation:

bomenetša: noun 14. crime; dishonesty; corruption. Re nyaka batho ba go thibela bomenetša mo nageng. (*We want people to prevent crime in this country.*)

(2007:25)

The headword *bomenetša* has only one translation equivalent, which is corruption. The correct translation equivalent for the word crime is *bosenyi*. However, the word *bosenyi* is translated to vandalism and crime, of which the headword only refers to crime.

bosenyi: noun 14. vandalism; crime. Mahodu a dira bosenyi bjo bogolo mo nageng.
(*Thieves are responsible for a lot of vandalism in this country.*)

(2007:29)

The translation equivalent for the headword dishonesty is *boradia*. Furthermore, the headword *boradia* is presented in the bilingual dictionary as dishonesty and cunning. However, the translation equivalent for the word cunning is *mahlajana*.

boradia: noun 14. dishonesty; cunning. Morago ga go lokollwa kgolegong, o ile a no tšwelapele ka boradia. (*After being released from prison, he continued with his dishonesty.*)

Suggested presentation:

bomenetša: lei. 14. corruption. Maloko a komiti ya khuduthamaga mmasepaleng wa Lekwa-Teemane ba ikanne go lwantšha bomenetša. (*Executive committee members of the Lekwa-Teemane municipality have vowed to fight against corruption.*)

Extracted presentation:

kapa: noun 9/-. Cape Town. Mma wa ka o šoma Kapa beke ye ka moka. (*My mother is working in Cape Town for the week.*)

(2007: 83)

The translation equivalent from the headword *kapa* is the Cape. It does not state which side of the Cape it refers to. When the word *Kapa* is used, it could refer to the coast of the Eastern Cape, Western Cape, and Northern Cape provinces in South Africa. However, the correct Northern Sotho translation equivalent for Cape Town is *Motse-Kapa*.

Suggested presentation:

kapa: lei. 9/-. the Cape. Ke be ke rata go ka tšea leeto go ya Kapa. (*I would like to take a trip to the Cape*)

Motse – Kapa: lei. 1. Cape Town. Palamente ya bosetšhaba Afrika – Borwa e hwetšagala Motse – Kapa. (*The parliament of South Africa is found at Cape Town.*)

Extracted presentation:

moruti: noun 1/2 (*pl. baruti*) priest; pastor. Moruti o rerile sebaka se se telele kerekeng lehono. (*The pastor preached for a very long time at church today.*)

(2007:156)

In Northern Sotho, the headword *moruti* is used interchangeably to refer to a priest or a pastor. Therefore, the structural marker for the headword has been wrongfully presented. However, it depends on some of the Northern Sotho translations for specific denominations. For example, the Anglicans and the Roman Catholics using Northern Sotho as a language for fellowship use the word *mopresita*, which refers to a priest. However, that cannot be used to refer to a pastor (only for Anglicans and Roman Catholics) but they both perform the same function.

Suggested presentation:

moruti: lei 1/2 (*pl. baruti*) priest, pastor; mopresita. Moruti o rerile sebaka se se telele kerekeng lehono. (*The priest preached for a very long time at church today.*)

4.3.5. Contextual guidance as sentences

The target user should at least be provided with the necessary information on how the translation equivalent should be used. Imbayarwo (2008:74) explains that contextual guidance is when guide words follow every translation equivalent. These words assist towards emphasising the meaning or equivalence or show the dictionary user how and in what context the lemma can be used. That can be in a form of illustrations, sentences or even pictures, that is the reason why we have contextual guidance in the bilingual dictionary.

4.3.5.1. Kriel Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

The Kriel Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) does not have contextual guidance in either of the sections of the bilingual dictionary. This questions the quality of translation equivalents presented in the bilingual dictionary. Furthermore, the target users will not know if the translation equivalents are presented in accordance with context or cotext. The following presentations are the comparisons between the extracted and the suggested presentations:

Extracted presentation:

šarakana, mixed, confused

(1994:138)

The presented translation equivalents 'mixed, confused' are not well presented and are not of the same context. Additionally, they are not synonymous senses. As such the translation equivalent for the headword *šarakana* is confused which can be polysemously with the stake of being unpredictably sick. However, the translation equivalent for the word mixed is *hlakahlakana*. Therefore, the suggested presentation of the headwords *šarakana* and *hlakahlakana* would be as follows:

šarakana (šarakantšhitše): (*led*) confused; unpredictably or suddenly sick. Mosima o ile a **šarakantšhitše** morago ga go kwa lehu la tatagwe. (*Mosima suddenly got sick after he learned about her father's death.*)

hlakahlakana (hlakahlantše): (*led*) mixed. Lesibana o **hlakahlantše** dipuku tša baithuti. (*Lesibana mixed the learners' books*)

Extracted presentation:

sedupe, sedupi, diviner, magician

(1994:139)

The presented translation equivalents 'diviner, magician' are not contextually related, and they are not to be used either synonymously or polysemously. The translation equivalents also do not share any cotextual relations. The translation equivalent for the headword *sedupe* is *diviner*, which is the only equivalent. The translation equivalent for the word *magician* is *ramaselamose* (which is derived from the word *maselamose*, meaning magic). The suggested presentation of the headword *sedupe* and *ramaselamose* would be as follows:

sedupe: (*lei*) – diviner. Kgoši ile ya bitša **sedupe** gore se utolle gore lehodu ke

mang. (*The king called the **diviner** to reveal who is the thief.*)

ramaselamose: (*lei*) (*pl. boramaselamose*) - magician (male). Mmanthona o rata go bogela mananeo a **boramaselamose** thelebišeneng. (*Mmanthona likes to watch **magician** shows on the television.*)

Extracted presentation:

thetšo, deceit, fraud

(1994:158)

The headword *thetšo* has only one translation equivalent, which is *deceit*. The word *fraud* and *deceit* are not contextually or cotextually related. Furthermore, the presentation of the structural markers is incorrect as they are portrayed as synonymous senses. This means that the translation equivalents can be used interchangeably, and that would make the translation lose its context as *deceit* and *fraud* are two different things. The correct translation equivalent for the word *fraud*

is *bomenetša*. Therefore, the suggested presentation of the headword *thetšo* and *bomenetša* would be as follows:

thetšo: (*hla*) deceit. Kgobokoane o ile a tšweletša **thetšo** ya gagwe go

badudi ba Sekakene. (*Kgobokoane once showed his **deceit** to the Sekakene residents.*)

bomenetša: (*hla*) fraud. Mmasepala wa Lepelle-Nkumpi o tsebega ka go kgona go lwantšha **bomenetša**. (*Lepelle-Nkumpi municipality is best known for fighting **fraud**.*)

Extracted presentation:

kubu, hippopotamus, sjambok

(1994:94)

The headword *kubu*, can be used polysemously with the translation equivalents hippopotamus and a sjambok. However, they do not share the same contextual relation as they share their cotextual relations. The presented structural marker was not well presented as *kubu* refers to an animal or a weapon. The difference is the context of how the headword has been used. The suggested presentation of the headword *kubu* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

kubu (*lei*) – (*dikubu*) ¹hippopotamus. Haenertsburg e tsebega ka go ba le **dikubu**.

(Haenertsburg is known to have **hippopotamuses**.)

(*lei*) ²sjambok. Banna ba motse ba mmethile ka **dikubu**. (The village men beaten him up with **sjamboks**.)

Extracted presentation:

lebollo, circumcision, initiation

(1994:67)

The headword *lebollo* has one translation equivalent which is circumcision. However, the presentation assumes that it has a contextual meaning and synonymous function to the translation equivalent initiation. In an actual sense, they partially share the contextual meaning because circumcision is part of what happens at an initiation or initiation school. The translation equivalent for initiation is *koma*. Therefore, the suggested presentation of the headwords *lebollo* and *koma* would be as follows:

lebollo (*lei*) circumcision. Bookelo bja Botlokwa bo aba ditirelo go tša *lebollo* magareng ga tše dingwe. (*Botlokwa hospital offers services on **circumcision** amongst others.*)

koma (*lei*) initiation, initiation school. Ka setšo, tšeo di diregago **komeng** e ba khupamarama. (*Culturally, what happens at the **initiation school** remains top secret.*)

4.3.5.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

The Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) does not have any evidence of contextual guidance. In the previous section, it was identified that indications that might appear to be contextual guidance are not. Therefore, this section provides a suggestion of how the contextual guidance should appear as sentences:

Extracted presentation:

maditsela: representative, negotiator

(2004:81)

The presented translation equivalents ‘representative, negotiator’ cannot be used synonymously as they do not share the same translation equivalent and are not of the same context. The translation equivalent for representative is *moemedi*. Therefore, the translation equivalent for the headword *maditsela* is a negotiator. The suggested presentation of the headwords *moemedi* and *maditsela* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

maditsela: (*lei*) negotiator. Kgošana Mangosuthu Buthelezi ke **maditsela** ditherišanong tša mmušo le bogoši bja Zulu. (*Prince Mangosuthu Buthelezi is the **negotiator** in the discussions between the government and the Zulu kingdom.*)

moemedi: (*lei*) *representative*. Zenzile ke **moemedi** wa baithuti ba thuto ya godimo go tša temo profenseng ya Free State. (*Zenzile is the **representative** for students in higher education agriculture in the Free State province.*)

Extracted presentation:

mešito: tramping, footsteps
(2004:92)

The presented translation equivalents ‘tramping, footsteps’ cannot be used synonymously but they share the same context. The context of the headword *mešito* was not considered when presenting the translation equivalents. However, they both share the same headword, which is *mešito*. The suggested presentation of the headword *mešito* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

mešito: (*led*) – (*mošito*) ¹footsteps. Ke kwele ka **mešito** gore ke Ngk. Mokoena-Molepo yoo a tlogo. (*I heard with the **footsteps** that it is Dr Mokoena-Molepo who is coming.*)

² (*led*) tramping. **Mešito** ya ba Sesole sa Bosetšhaba sa Afrika-Borwa ile ya tšhoša badudi ba Morebeng. (*The **trampling** sounds made by the South African National Defence Force shocked the residents of Morebeng.*)

Extracted presentation:

morati: lover, fan
(2004:108)

The presented translation equivalents ‘lover, fan’ have been presented in accordance with the context of the headword *morati*. However, only one equivalent is incorrect. The headword *morati* is derived from the verb *rata*, meaning to love. This means that the word fan is not the translation equivalent of *morati*. The translation of the word fan is *molatedi*, which can be used interchangeably with the word follower. The suggested presentation of the headwords *morati* and *molatedi* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

morati: (*lei*) – (*rata*) lover. Mokgaetji o boletše maabane gore ke **morati** wa dipukuntšu. (*Mokgaetji told us yesterday that she is a **lover** of dictionaries.*)

molatedi: (*lei*) follower. Bakeresete ke **balatedi** ba Modimo le Jesu Kriste. (*Christians are the **followers** of God and Jesus Christ.*)

Extracted presentation:

phaga: wild cat, skin cap
(2004:126)

There are only two translations that the headword *phaga* can be used. The first one is a wild cat and the second one is a wild person with the qualities of a wild cat. This means that they have the same contextual meaning but cannot be cotedexted. Therefore, the skin cap does not fit as the translation equivalent for the headword *phaga*. There is no actual translation equivalent for skin cap. The suggested presentation of the headword *phaga* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

phaga: (*lei*) ¹wild cat, ²wild person

¹**Phaga** e hwetšagala thabeng. (*A **wild cat** is found in the mountain.*) ²Malekhina o itshwara bjalo ka **phaga**. (*Malekhina is behaving like a **wild cat**.*)

Extracted presentation:

Sethosa: Xhosa language, customs etc.
(2004:150)

The presented translation equivalents 'Xhosa language, customs etc.' can be used interchangeably in as they share the same cotext. However, they cannot be used interchangeably as they do not have the same context. The headword *Sethosa* simply refers to the Xhosa culture or customs. The second translation equivalent can refer to IsiXhosa, which is the language spoken by the Xhosa people. The suggested presentation of the headword *Sethosa* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

Sethosa: (*lei*) ¹Xhosa culture

Mmetli o boile a anegela phuthego ka setšo sa **Sethosa**. (*Mmetli came back and narrated to the congregation about the **Xhosa culture**.*)

²IsiXhosa (language)

Julia o bolela Sesotho sa Leboa, Seisimane le **Sethosa**. (*Julia speak Northern Sotho, English and **IsiXhosa**.*)

4.3.5.3. Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

The Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has contextual guidance presented in the microstructure of the bilingual dictionary. The contextual guidance

is presented in both the SL and the TL. However, the incorrect presentation of translation equivalents, negatively affects how the contextual guidance is presented. The following are the extracted headwords and their suggested presentations.

Extracted presentation:

bosenyi: *noun* 14. vandalism; crime. Mahodu a dira bosenyi bjo bogolo mo nageng. (*Thieves are responsible for a lot of vandalism in this country.*)

(2007:29)

The contextual guidance of the headword *bosenyi* is incorrectly presented because it does not share a contextual relationship with the inflicted translation equivalent, which is vandalism. The headword *bosenyi* is associated with the translation equivalent crime. Additionally, the contextual guidance is presented in the above, would only be relevant for the translation equivalent crime. The correct translation for the word vandalism is *tshenyo (ya ka boomo)*. Therefore, the presented translation equivalent in the contextual guidance above, should be replaced by the translation equivalent crime. The suggested presentation of the headwords *bosenyi* and *tshenyo* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

bosenyi: (*lei*). crime. Mahodu a dira **bosenyi** bjo bogolo mo nageng. (*Thieves are responsible for a lot of **crime** in this country.*)

tshenyo (ya ka boomo): (*hlaol*) vandalism. Ka nako ya ditšhupetšo, go hlolega melato e mentši ya **tshenyo ya ka boomo**. (*There are many cases of **vandalism** occurring during protests.*)

Extracted presentation:

hlaola: *verb*. select; distinguish. O be a ka se kgone go hlaola yo a phalago yo mongwe. (*You wouldn't be able to distinguish which one is better than the other.*)

(2007: 67)

The contextual guidance presented for the headword *hlaola*, in this extraction is well presented but for the wrong translation equivalent and context. Contextually, the translation equivalent for the headword *hlaola* is distinguish. Furthermore, the contextual guidance is presented for the headword 'select' and its translation equivalent is *kgetha*, which can be synonymously used with the translation equivalent 'choose'. In this case, the contextual guidance is misleading because of

the incorrect presentation of the contextual guidance. The suggested presentation of the headwords *hlaola* and *kgetha* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

hlaola: (*led*). distinguish. O ka kgona go **hlaola** phapano magareng ga Batlokwa le Bahananwa? (*Are you able to **distinguish** the difference between Batlokwa and Bahananwa?*)

kgetha: (*led*). select, choose. O be a ka se kgone go **kgetha** yo a phalago yo mongwe. (*You wouldn't be able to **select** which one is better than the other.*)

Extracted presentation:

kamogelo: *noun* 9/10. (*pl. dikamogelo*) ¹reception. O be a tlogetše dinotlelo tša lebati la hotele go kamogelo ya bona. (*He left the hotel keys at reception.*)

² welcome. Taamane o be a filwe kamogelo ye botse gabo mogwera wa gagwe. (*Taamane was given a warm welcome at her friend's home.*)

(2007:82)

The contextual guidance for the translation equivalent reception does not share or have a contextual relation with the headword *kamogelo*. This is because the word reception was incompletely presented as a translation equivalent, and the complete translation equivalent is *lefelong la kamogelo*. Therefore, it was not supposed to be the first translation equivalent to be presented. The headword *kamogelo* refers to welcome. Therefore, the translation equivalent 'welcome' and its contextual guidance are correct, and they should have been presented first than the translation equivalent 'reception'. The suggested presentation of the headword *kamogelo* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

kamogelo: (*lei*) (*pl. dikamogelo*) ¹welcome. Taamane o be a filwe **kamogelo** ye botse gabo mogwera wa gagwe. (*Taamane was given a warm **welcome** at her friend's home.*)

² (*lefelong la kamogelo*). reception. Tebogo o tlogetše senotlelo sa phapoši ya gagwe **lefelong la kamogelo** hoteleng. (*Tebogo left the keys of her room at the hotel **reception**.*)

Extracted presentation:

lenyatšo: *noun* 5/-. contempt; disrespect. Ba ga Matuba ka tšhemong ya ka? Ke lenyatšo la mohuta mang lona le? (*Matuba's people in my field? What kind of disrespect is this?*)
(2007: 115)

The headword *lenyatšo* has only one translation equivalent, which is contempt. However, the contextual guidance for the headword *lenyatšo* was based on the second translation equivalent, which is disrespect. The translation equivalent for the word disrespect is *telelo*. As such, the contextual guidance was poorly presented as it should have focused on providing contextual guidance on the word contempt. The suggested presentation of the headwords *lenyatšo* and *telelo* would be as follows:

Suggested presentations:

lenyatšo: (*lei*). contempt. Mantlhwa o ile a fetola Matome ka **lenyatšo**. (*Mantlhwa responded to Matome with contempt.*)

telela: (*led*). disrespect. Baagišani ba MmaTebogo ba fela ba **telela** Makoma. (*MmaTebogo's neighbours often disrespect Makoma.*)

Extracted presentation:

moruti: *noun* 1/2 (*pl. baruti*) priest; pastor. Moruti o rerile sebaka se se telele ka kerekeng lehono. (*The pastor preached for a very long time at church today.*)
(2007:156)

The contextual guidance presented in the extracted presentation of the headword *moruti* is correct. However, due to the structural marker presented it can be misleading that the translation equivalents 'priest; pastor' cannot be used interchangeably. Of which it is incorrect. It depends on the context of the denomination within the Christian religion. Therefore, the translation equivalents must be separated by a comma as they can be used interchangeably. The suggested presentation of the headword *moruti* would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

moruti: (*lei*) (*pl. baruti*) priest, pastor. **Moruti** o rerile sebaka se se telele ka kerekeng lehono. (*The pastor preached for a very long time at church today.*)

4.3.6. Contextual guidance as pictures or Illustrations

For the target users to gain more understanding of the relationship between the headword, the translation equivalent, its function, and the context, they need to refer to the pictorials and illustrations. Ramusi (2020:13) explains that pictorials to illustrate lexical things help the target user comprehend and clearly describe what the lexical item looks like. The pictorials and how they are presented are also stated in the front matter of the dictionary as a hint of what the target user may expect. Furthermore, Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:152) opines that pictorial images or ostensive definitions may also be useful in the defining process, especially when describing the meaning of a lemma using a descriptive explanation is difficult. With that said, it can be considered that the usage of pictorials enhances the target user's understanding and ability to interpret the headword on how to use it in the target language both verbal and non-verbal.

4.3.6.1. Kriel Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

As it was mentioned in the previous section, the Kriel Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) does not have contextual guidance. As such, the user-friendliness of the bilingual dictionary can be questioned. The following are the suggestions that depict how the bilingual dictionary is expected to present contextual guidance with pictorials or illustrations.

Extracted presentation:

haka, clasp, hook

(1994:37)

The headword *haka* is used interchangeably for both translation equivalents hook and clasp. However, when observing issues of context, the headword *haka* is ideally translated as to hook. It originates from the Afrikaans word *haak*, which still means to hook. Hooking and clasping are perceived as one activity in Northern Sotho. In an actual situation, clasping and hooking are two different sets of activities. The act of hooking includes the activity of interlocking something on an object that can hook another piece of an object or fragment. Whereas clasping involves the activity of tightening two parts of clothing or objects together using a clasp. What makes them to share the same context is that that hooking involves loose interlocking and

clasping involves tight interlocking. To distinguish the differences, an illustrative pictorial is required as contextual guidance.

Suggested presentation:

haka: (*led*) ¹hook

Go na le **haka** ya go fega dikobo ka phapošing ya borobalelo. (*There is a hanger that **hooks** in the bedroom.*)

hook



Source: piqsels (02.12.2022)

Fig 4.11. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *haka*.

²clasp

Jase ya ka e **haka** godimo fela. (*My jacket **clasps** at the top only.*)

Considering the issue of space, only one pictorial would be relevant for the suggested presentation of the headword *haka*. The subsequent translation equivalent clasp, the target user would be guided by the sentence attached to the presentation. From the pictorial above, there are two hooking activities. The first one is that the piece of clothing is hooked on the wall. The second one is that another piece of clothing on the hanger is hooked to the same set of hooks on the wall. However, they are loosely interlocked. The presentation needed a pictorial as it brings a different interpretation to the concept of hooking in Northern Sotho as the word was borrowed from Afrikaans.

Extracted presentation:

falala, overflow, emigrate

(1994:30)

The headword *falala*, can be used in two contexts when translating overflow or emigrate. They cannot be used interchangeably, and they do not share any contextual relations, but they share the same cotextual relations. This means that the target user or the speaker would be guided by the rest of the sentence to know which translation equivalent of the headword *falala* is being used. Using contextual guidance can be able to distinguish the context in which the headword can be used.

Suggested presentation:

falala: (*led*) ¹overflow

Tanka ya meetse e a **falala**. (*The tank is **overflowing**.*)

overflow

²emigrate

Badudi ba motse ba ile ba **falalela** nageng yeo ba agišanego le bona. (*The villagers **emigrated** to the neighbouring country.*)

emigrate



Source: The Hill (02.12.2022) Fig 4.14. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *falala*².

From the presentation of the context for using the headword *falala*, the translation equivalent emigrates and the pictorial above is that, incorporates the mass movement of people who are seeking refuge from one place to the other. The presentation of the translation equivalent emigrate requires a pictorial. This is

because most target users might confuse it to the concept *huduga* which is translated to migration. The process of emigrating between places is translated to as *go falala*. However, when coming to the first translation equivalent which is overflow, it does not require pictorial considering that the headword *falala* in its context is directly linked to anything liquid that is in a position of overflowing. Furthermore, its presentation can easily guide the target user even if the presentation of the contextual guidance is in sentence form. This is in consideration to the issue of space in the bilingual dictionary.

Extracted presentation:

lefofa, feather, quill
(1994:68)

The headword *lefofa*, can be used to refer to the translation equivalents feather or a quill. However, in the target language, English they are not used synonymously. In Northern Sotho, there is no distinction between the translation equivalents feather and a quill, they are both translated to as *lefofa*. It is for this reason that the headword *lefofa* originates from the verb *fofa*. *Lefofa* is regarded as something from a bird that helps it to fly. Therefore, it is important that the contextual guidance uses a pictorial or an illustration to indicate the difference between the two within the context of the target language. The suggested presentation would be as follows:

Suggested presentation:

lefofa: (lei) – (mafofa) feather; quill.

Kgogo e na le **mafofa** a maso. (*The chicken has black **feathers**.*)

Lefofa e be e le se sengwe sa di dirišwa tša go ngwala. (***Quills** were one of the writing instruments.*)

feather



Source: Istock (02.12.2022)

quill



Source: dreamstime.com (02.12.2022)

Fig 4.15. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *lefofa*.

From the presentation the two pictorials, in Northern Sotho, there is no difference between the translation equivalents feather and quill. Therefore, to indicate the sameness, the two pictorials and the translation of the contextual guidance presented in sentences it indicates the differences.

Extracted presentation:

panya, blink, twinkle

(1994:124)

The translation equivalents for the headword *panya* can be partially used interchangeably. The reason is that the headword *panya* can refer to both translation equivalents blink or a wink that one does with the eyes. However, the headword *panya* can also refer to twinkling objects or substances. Therefore, the context in which the headword *panya* requires a pictorial or an illustrative depiction of how it can be used. Furthermore, in Northern Sotho, it would depend on the context of the sentence rather than in the target language, where the context of the word is important.

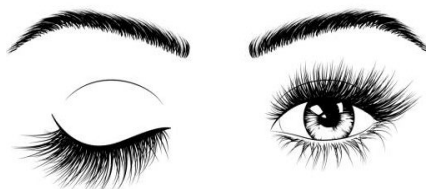
Suggested presentation:

panya: (*led*) blink; twinkle

Dikeledi o **panya** mahlo ge a lla. (Dikeledi **blinks** her eyes when crying.)

Dinaledi di **panya** bošegogare. (The stars **twinkle** at midnight.)

blink



Source: iStock photo (02.12.2022)

twinkle



Source: template.net (02.12.2022)

Fig 4.15. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *panya*.

From the pictorials presented above, it can be included that the two translation equivalents blink and twinkle do not share the same contextual function, but they share the same cotextual function. It would depend on the context in which the target user or the speaker is in. That is because the action of blinking and twinkling in Northern Sotho is considered the same function. However, with different contexts as the objects involved are different and are not contextually related.

Extracted presentation:

phaphamala, float, drift

(1994:127)

In Northern Sotho, the headword *phaphamala*, can be used interchangeably as presented by the translation equivalents float and drift. This means that the two translation equivalents share the same cotext relation but differ in context. This means that, it depends on the context of the sentence as used by the target user or the speaker. The headword *phaphamala* can refer to the act of floating, as well as the act of drifting. In relation to the translation equivalent float, the contextual guidance presented in sentence form is self-explanatory and can easily be conceptualised by the target user. However, when the target user makes use of the headword *phaphamala*, they would have to be specific as to which object is involved in the act. Therefore, the items are related in context but differ in and cotext.

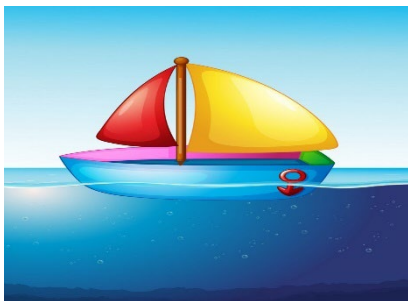
Suggested presentation:

phaphamala (*led*) float; drift

Bana ba **phaphamala** ge ba rutha ka nokeng. (*The children **float** when they swim in the river.*)

Leselawatle le swanetše go **phaphamala** godimo ga meetse. (*A boat should **drift** on water.*)

drift



Source: vectorstock (02.12.2022)

Fig 4.16. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *phaphamala*.

4.3.6.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

The Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) does not have any evidence of contextual guidance in it. This is the same situation as the Kriel's Popular Northern

Sotho Dictionary (1994). The following are the suggestions of how the bilingual dictionary should have presented contextual guidance with pictorials or illustrations.

Extracted presentation:

ngwako: house, homestead

(2004:116)

The headword *ngwako* is used as a general term to refer to either the translation equivalent house (which can be translated as *ntlo*), or the translation equivalent homestead (which can be translated as *lapa*). The problem emerges with the translation of the headword *ngwako* as a homestead because a homestead includes the whole yard and the house itself. However, it needs to be distinguished as what the headword *ngwako* can refer to. To do that, a pictorial contextual guidance is required to distinguish what the headword *ngwako* can accommodate.

When using the headword *ngwako*, it is important to indicate which translation equivalent does one refer to. As such, what can be identified from the translation equivalents and the pictorials is that both translation equivalents house and homestead are cotextually related but are not contextually related. That is because when one uses either of the translation equivalents the sentence itself would be self-explanatory as to which translation equivalent does one refer to.

Suggested presentation:

ngwako: (*lei*)¹ house

Ngwako wa Mahlako o hwetšagala gaMothiba. (*Mahlako's house is located at gaMothiba.*)

house, household



Fig 4.17. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *ngwako*. Source: bria.com (02.12.2022)

² homestead

Ngwako wa ba ga-Makhafola, o na le mathudi a mabotse (*The Makhafola homestead has a beautiful veranda.*)



Fig 4.18. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *ngwako*. Source: Polokwane Observer and Polokwane Review (02.12.2022)

Extracted presentation:

motšhitšhi: swarm, a swarm of bees, insects
(2006:112)

The headword *motšhitšhi*, can be used interchangeably to refer to a swarm or a swarm of bees or any other insects. This means that the presentation of the translation equivalents swarm, a swarm of bees and insects share the same context and context, regardless on the type of insect they refer to. However, the most common scenario where the headword *motšhitšhi* is when referring to a swarm of bees.

Pictorial contextual guidance is required to present how the headword can be used in its related contexts. Therefore, the presentation does not require many pictorials as one pictorial with one contextual guidance in a sentence form can be sufficient to provide support in relation to the translation equivalent. The way the contextual guidance is presented in can be used interchangeably as per each of the translation equivalents.

Suggested presentation:

motšhitšhi: (*lei*) swarm of bees, insects

Malekhina o bone **motšhitšhi** wa dinose mohlareng wa morula. (*Malekhina saw a **swarm of bees** on a marula tree.*)

swarm:



Source: West Bend News (02.12.2022)

Fig 4.19. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *motšhitšhi*.

Extracted presentation:

mohlobo: race, clan, tribe
(2004:100)

The headword *mohlobo*, can be used to refer to either race, behaviour, clan, or tribe. This means that the translation equivalents ‘race, clan, tribe’ can be used interchangeably. Additionally, the headword *mohlobo* can be applied to differentiate aspects such as character, breed and originality in animals as well. However before considering that, it is important that before selecting either of the translation equivalents, one as a target user must consider the context of the sentence.

This can be distinguished by firstly categorising if the usage of the headword *mohlobo* refers to humans or animals, then they can consider the actual reference if it is about any of the presented translated translation equivalents. The restriction of usage comes to the translation equivalent of race, some use the word *mmala*, which means colour. This context may sound discriminative. Regardless of space issues in the bilingual dictionary, the pictorial illustration of the presentation of the headword *mohlobo* for animals is a requirement to be presented. The contextual guidance for the headword *mohlobo* in reference to humans can be self-explanatory in a sentence form.

Suggested presentation:

mohlobo: (*lei*) – (*pl. mehlobo/bahlobo*) ¹race/breed

Phorofentsheng ya Kapa-Bodikela e na le **mehlobo** ye mentši ya dinku. (*Western Cape Province has different **breeds** of sheep.*)

breeds

van Rooy ram



Damara



Source: farmers weekly (04.12.2022)

Fig 4.20. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *mohlobo* (race/breed).

² clan, tribe

Badudi ba Munnik, go la Limpopo ke **bahlobo** mang? (*The residents of Munnik in Limpopo belong to which **clan**?*)

Extracted presentation:

letlapa: flat stone, flagstone, slate, chalkboard

(2004:77)

The headword *letlapa* can refer to either a flat type of stone or a chalkboard. However, contextually they cannot be used interchangeably. This is because they are two different sets of objects, and they have different functions. Therefore, they should be considered polysemous senses so that the pictorial contextual guidance can present the distinction between the two different translation equivalents. It would require for the target user to distinguish the difference by looking at the translation equivalents and the pictorial. That would guide the target user to identify which translation equivalent to select. However, not translation equivalents would require pictorial presentation of the contextual guidance. The presentation of the headword *letlapa* as the translation equivalent flat stone, is self-explanatory as it would not require any pictorial presentation.

Suggested presentation:

letlapa: (*lei*) – (*matlapa*) ¹chalkboard

Morutši o ruta bana go bala **letlapeng**. (*The educator is teaching learners how to read from the **chalkboard**.*)

Chalkboard



Source: iStock photos (04.12.2022)

Fig 4.21. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *letlapa*.

² flat stone

Mohuta wo wa **letlapa**, ke wa go dira leswika la segopotšo. (*This type of flat stone is used to make **tombstones**.*)

Extracted presentation:

lengwalo: letter (document), -ng in the letter
(2004:74)

The translation equivalents presented for the headword *lengwalo*, can be used interchangeably with each other which means that they are synonymous senses (related in cotext). However, the issue of context is important as there should be a distinction of how they both function, and to which extend can they be used synonymously. The translation equivalent letter in this context, refers to any type of a letter directed to a specific individual, which can also refer to a biblical scripture. However, *-ng* refers to ‘in the letter’, which is commonly used to refer to biblical scriptures.

The issue is that it would require for the target user to know which of the translation equivalents is relevant for their context. This is because the context of both translation equivalents can be considered figurative and would require both pictorials and contextual guidance in a form of sentences to bring an understanding. However, that can apply to only to the translation equivalent ‘letter (document)’ as the contextual guidance for the translation equivalent ‘in the scripture’ is self-explanatory in sentence form.

Suggested presentation:

lengwalo: (*lei*) – (*mangwalo*) letter (document)

Kgabo o ngwaletše modulasetulo wa lekgotla **lengwalo** la dingongorego. (*Kgabo wrote a letter of complaint to the chairperson of the council.*)

letter



Source: dreamstime.com (04.12.2022)

Fig 4.22. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword lengwalo¹.

² -ng: in/from the letter (scripture)

Moruti Mohapi o rerile go tšwa **lengwalong** la Jesaya 24. (*Reverend Mohapi preached from the scripture, Isaiah 24.*)

4.3.6.3. Oxford Pukuntšhu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

The Oxford Pukuntšhu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has contextual guidance presented in the bilingual dictionary, but the presentation is only in sentence format. Therefore, it becomes difficult for some of the headwords to be well conceptualised as some of the translation equivalents are separated by structural markers but there are no pictorials or illustrations to indicate the distinction and contextual relations between the two or more translation equivalents.

Extracted presentation:

ntepa: *noun* 9/10 (*pl. dintepa*) traditional skirt. Matšatši a bohono ga go sa na na mosadi wa go tšwara **ntepa**. (*These days there is no longer a woman who puts on a traditional skirt.*)

(2007:111)

In these modern times where the contemporary Northern Sotho (and people who would want to learn the Northern Sotho language and culture) target users do not

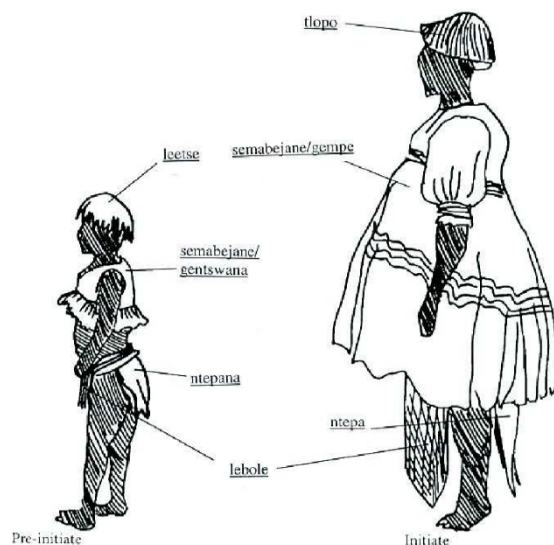
have any idea of the type of clothing used back in the olden days. The bilingual dictionary should have provided pictorial presentations of the differences between the type of clothing used between men and women then and now. The intention of doing such is to preserve the culture that is deeply associated with the language itself. Also, the target users need to know that the type of clothing between an initiate and a non-initiate. Therefore, it will be a way of ensuring that the bilingual dictionary sustains the culture of the target users.

The presentation of the headword *ntepa*, requires a pictorial and contextual guidance in sentence form, this is for the target user to understand the cultural history of the language. Additionally, it is important that the target users have a clear description of the items associated with the cultural headword *ntepa*. It is important to mention that the presented contextual guidance in sentence form is contextually correct but would require a pictorial. Therefore, the presentation of the translation equivalent 'traditional skirt' and its contextual guidance (both in sentence and pictorial form) are important to be presented to give the target user a clear picture about the Northern Sotho culture.

Suggested presentation:

ntepa: (*lei*) (*pl. dintepa*) traditional skirt. Matšatši a bohono ga go sa na mosadi wa go tšwara **ntepa**. (*These days there is no longer a woman who puts on a **traditional skirt**.)*

Traditional skirts for Northern Sotho women:



Source: James (1996:35) (04.12.2022)

Fig 4.24. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *ntepa*.

Extracted presentation:

motsotso: *noun* 3/4 (*pl.metsotso*) minute. E tla go tšea **metsotoso** ye mekae gore o fetše go e lokiša? (*How many **minutes** will it take you to finish repairing it?*)

(2007:160)

The bilingual dictionary compilers did not manage to distinguish the difference between minutes from the clock and minutes taken from a meeting. In Northern Sotho, they both use the same headword which is *metsotso*. There should be a distinction between the two using both sentences and pictorials.

Suggested presentation:

motsotso: (*lei*) (*metsotso*) ¹minute (time). E tla go tšea metsotso ye mekae gore o fetše go e lokiša? (*How many minutes will it take you to finish repairing it?*)

¹ minutes (meeting). Metsotso ya kopano yeo e fetilego e be e ngwalwa ke Morongwa. (*Morongwa was the one taking the minutes of the previous meeting.*)

minutes (meeting)



source: dreamstime.com (04.12.2022)

Fig 4.26. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *motsotso*².

From the suggested presentation, it can be easily identified that the translation equivalents minutes (time) and minutes (documents) are not contextually related but are cotextually related. The issue is that it would require for the target user to know which of the translation equivalents can they select. This is because the context of both translation equivalents is hidden and would require both pictorials and contextual guidance in a form of sentences to bring an understanding.

Extracted presentation:

namune: *noun 9/10 (pl.dinamune)* orange. Ke duma ge nka be ke na le namune goba apola, goba panana fela ke tla di tšea kae? (*I wish I had an orange, an apple, or a banana, but where will I get one?*)

(2007:164)

The presentation of translation equivalent 'orange' and the contextual guidance are inadequately presented. The fruit orange and the colour orange share the same translation equivalent which is *namune*. Therefore, there should be a distinction in terms of translation equivalents and contextual guidance. Furthermore, to provide further clarity that the headword is used as a colour and as a fruit, there should be pictorials to support the presentation. It can be concluded that the translation equivalents, the colour orange, and an orange are contextually and cotextually related.

It requires the target user to establish whether they would want to know about the fruit or the colour orange. This is a situation of which one came first, the colour or the fruit? Therefore, if we were to conceptualise that the bilingual dictionary had colourful pictorials, the pictorial would be based on the colour orange. Furthermore, taking advantage that the bilingual dictionary itself has different types of fruits illustrated in its back matter, it will not be necessary having a pictorial of an orange (fruit) and considering the sentence form of the contextual guidance is self-explanatory about an orange as a fruit.

Suggested presentation:

namune: (*lei*) (*dinamune*) ¹orange (fruit). Ke duma ge nka be ke na le **namune** goba apola, goba panana, fela ke tla di tšea kae? (*I wish I had an **orange**, an apple or a banana, but where will I get one?*)

² *namune* (colour). Ngwako wa Selaelo o pentilwe ka mmala wa **namune**. (*Selaelo's house is painted with an **orange** colour.*)

House painted in orange.



source: stock.adobe.com (04.12.2022)

Fig 4.28. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *namune*².

Extracted presentation:

fetetša: *verb.* infect; pass on to (*said of a disease*) Bao ba nago le twatši ye ba fetetša ba bangwe kante le go lemoga seo. (*Those who have this virus pass it on to others without realising it.*)

(2007:51)

From the above-extracted presentation of the headword *fetetša*, there is information in the contextual guidance that is missing or not well contextualised. The headword *fetetša* has two translation equivalents 'infect; pass on to' which do not share any contextual relations. Both translation equivalents are correct however, the second translation equivalent pass on to (*said of a disease*), was incorrectly presented. In relation to the infection of a disease is covered by the first translation equivalent which is infect.

The act of passing on to does not involve diseases, but it involves passing on objects from one person to the other, especially when it comes as an instruction. Therefore, the contextual guidance presented has used an incorrect translation equivalent. The translation equivalents pass on to and infect are not contextually related but are cotextually related. The target user would then have to refer to the sentence and the pictorials to understand and to distinguish which one to use in which context and to understand the cotext of the translation equivalents to the sentence.

Suggested presentation:

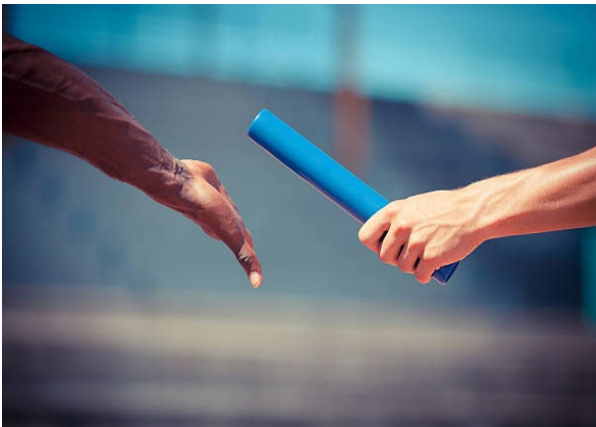
fetetša: *(led)*. ¹infect (*said of a disease*) Bao ba nago le twatši ye ba **fetetša** ba bangwe kante le go lemoga seo. (*Those who have this virus **infect** others without realising it.*)
infect



Source: istockphotos.com (04.12.2022)

Fig 4.28. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword fetetša¹.

²pass on to. Mo lebelong la neeletšano, baraloki ba **fetetšana** ka kota. (*In a relay race, the players **pass on** the baton to each other.*)
pass on to



Source: istockphotos.com (04.12.2022)

Fig 4.29. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword fetetša².

Extracted presentation:

legaga: *noun 5/6 (pl.magaga)* ¹clif. Re fetile **legaga** le legolo ge re eya Mpumalanga. (*We passed a big **cliff** when we were going to Mpumalanga.*)

² cave. Ga ba ka ba tšea magato a makae pele ga ge ba ka thibelwa ke **legaga** le le ahlamego bjalo ka lefotwana. (*They had not taken many steps before they were stopped by a cave yawning like a chick.*)

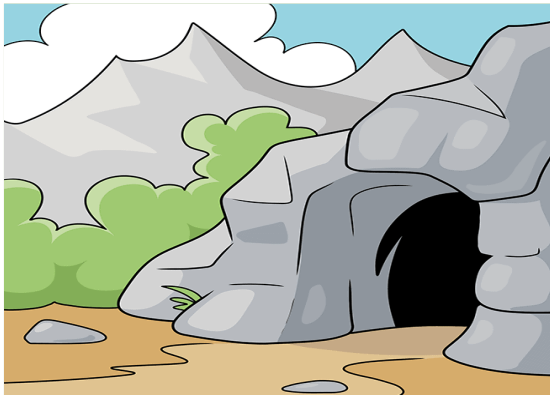
(2007:108)

From the extracted presentation of the headword *legaga*, the presentation of the translation equivalent ‘cave and cliff’ and their contextual guidance in sentence form are correct. However, the contextual guidance for the translation equivalent cave, was not well presented and the contextual meaning of the sentence does not relate to the translation equivalent. Furthermore, in terms of context, the presentation of the two translation equivalents ‘cave and cliff’ should have been done in an opposite manner, meaning that the presentation should have started with the presentation of the translation equivalent cave and ended with cliff.

Suggested presentation:

legaga: (*lei*) (*magaga*) ¹ cave. Matome o bone legaga thabeng tša Rantlhokana. (*Matome saw a cave at the Rantlhokana mountains.*)

cave



source: easydrawingguides.com

Fig 4.28. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword *legaga*¹.

² cliff. Re fetile legaga le legolo ge re eya Mpumalanga. (*We passed a big cliff when we were going to Mpumalanga.*)

cliff



source: freepic.com (04.12.2022)

Fig 4.28. Contextual guidance in illustration form for the headword legaga².

4.5. Conclusion

Chapter For has effectively met the first two objectives of the study and mentioned in the introduction of the chapter itself. This chapter provided an analysis of the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries in terms of evaluation the megastructural features. It has also evaluated the macro- and microstructural features based on meeting context and cotext. This chapter has made use of extracted presentations of form the selected bilingual dictionaries and provided the suggested presentations. The subsequent Chapter Five is then based on the provision of an on-depth evaluation on the presentation and the usage of cross-referencing and the reversibility principle and lexicographic data boxes.

CHAPTER 5: DATA INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1. Introduction

As mentioned in the preceding Chapters Three and Four, the analysis of data and interpretation has been separated into two chapters. The preceding Chapter Four intended to meet the first two research objectives. To reflect on the preceding chapter, Chapter Four covered the evaluation of the megastructure features and analysed the macro-/microstructural features concerning context and cotext. Chapter Five can be perceived as an extension of the preceding Chapter Four. The chapter is the second and last chapter, entailing the presentation of data and interpretation. It focuses on the presentation of mediostructure, application of the reversibility principle and the presentation of lexicographic data boxes in the selected Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries. The chapter extracted the presentation from the selected bilingual dictionaries and developed suggested presentations.

5.2. Assessing the method of cross-referencing presentation in the selected Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries

In bilingual dictionaries, cross-referencing is only used for synonyms to avoid repeating and duplicating definitions or translation equivalents. According to Modiba (2011:1-2), synonyms are classified into partial and complete synonyms. Partial synonyms are words that cannot be replaced in many situations. Complete synonyms, on the other hand, are words that can be used interchangeably in a variety of contexts. The relevance and the importance of analysing the mediostructure is to attend to the operative category of the function theory. The operative category of the function theory includes using mental activity (towards acting in a certain manner) that the target user needs advice and instructions to perform any mental or manual action. The action that the person wants to perform requires that the person should be provided with advice and instructions (Tarp, 2008: 185).

The mediostructure, that is the system of cross-referencing, is a lexicographic device used to establish relations among different components of the bilingual dictionary (Gouws & Prinsloo, 1998). Cross-referencing is used to economise space issues in the bilingual dictionary and to avoid unnecessary repetition of headwords and translation equivalents.

However, Nkomo, Nosilela & Gambushe (2022:169) assert that it is apparent that the mediostructure is as complex as the network of relationships that it ideally seeks to re-establish in a dictionary in view of relationships that exist in linguistic and knowledge structures. These relationships transcend the macrostructure and the microstructure. Therefore, the presentation of headwords and translation equivalents in the megastructure is misrepresented towards ensuring that cross-referencing is implemented. The following are the analytics of how the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries present cross-referencing.

5.2.1. Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

The Kriel's - Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) is a published bidirectional bilingual dictionary. In Chapter 4, it was mentioned that the bilingual dictionary was intended for young Northern Sotho scholars who are trying to comprehend English and to introduce new Northern Sotho words to their vocabulary. This was intended to assist the target users in understanding and the ability to explain concepts that are used in other subjects in Northern Sotho. As mentioned before, the dictionary is bilingual, and some concepts in English are used as a collective term in Northern Sotho. That is where cross-referencing comes in, with the exercise of referring the target user to the most used headword, where they can locate the translation equivalent. This becomes a problem when some of those translation equivalents are repeatedly presented. The following are the extracted presentations and the suggested presentations for each.

5.2.1.1. X- Section (Northern Sotho – English)

Extracted presentations:

akgofa, make haste, hurry, hasten

(1994:3)

phakiša, make haste, hurry

(1994: 127)

The above presentation is not well presented. These two headwords in Northern Sotho are considered synonymous senses. As such, treating synonymous senses as headwords should be referenced to one frequently used headword. Therefore, there is no textual cohesion between the two presentations. The difference can be identified from the headword *akgofa*.

The headword has one extra translation equivalent, which can also be applicable to be presented under the headword *phakiša*. It can then be realised that both headwords are synonymously used. Gouws & Prinsloo (1998:2) allude that the dictionary employs the mediostructure to refer the target user to external addresses which are linked with the lemma sign of the reference position article in relations such as synonymy, oppositeness of meaning, hyponymy, dialectal stylistic, chronolectic and other forms of variation, etc. Therefore, considering both presented headwords, '*akgofa* and *phakiša*' are synonyms, it is important to select the headword that can be the reference position and the other can be considered as the reference address. The headword *phakiša* is the most frequently used in spoken and written form. It should then be given comprehensive treatment rather than the headword *akgofa*.

Suggested presentation

akgofa: SEE/BONA **phakiša**

phakiša: (hlath) make haste, hurry, hasten

Extracted presentations:

beka, marry

(1994:8)

nyala, marry, give the dowry; **nyalwa**, get married (*of a girl*), **nyetšwe**, married

(1994:121)

From the extracted presentation, the headword *beka* is used sparingly as the headword *nyala*. The word *nyala* originates from the word *lenyalo*, which can be used polysemously to refer to a wedding or marriage. Therefore, *nyala* should be given a comprehensive treatment rather than the headword *beka* as it should only cross-reference to *nyala*. *Beka* is a Northern Sotho cultural term to refer to a process of the groom's family paying dowry or what in Northern Sotho is called *go ntšha magadi* (paying of the dowry). However, the term can only be used after the dowry process. Items with reference markers are items giving cross-references which are always at least bi-functional. Their primary genuine function is determined by the class of items with the same general genuine purpose to which they belong (Wiegand,2004:205). Therefore, in a contemporary sense, the headword *beka* can be used interchangeably with the headword *nyala* (meaning that they are

synonyms). This is because the end process of the groom's family paying dowry and taking the bride falls under one umbrella term: *nyala*.

Furthermore, we live in a modern society where societies are expected not to impose any form of discrimination based on sexual orientation. This is to educate the target users about the existence of same-sex marriages. The bilingual dictionary does not have to reveal in which context *nyalwa* can be used. Therefore, *nyalwa* should not be reliant on one gender.

Suggested presentations:

beka: SEE/BONA *nyala*.

nyala: (led) marry, give the dowry.

2 (hlao) **nyalwa**, get married

3 **nyetšwe**, married

Extracted presentations:

babapadi, players

(1994:5)

baraloki, players

(1994:7)

The headwords from the extracted presentation are used interchangeably, it same applies to the manner of usage in the target language. The headword *baraloki* originates from the word *raloka*, meaning play (a game or sport). However, in drama and arts, the headword *baraloki* originates from the word *thaloko*, meaning a stage play. The same issue applies to the headword *babapadi*. The headword originates from *bapala*, meaning play (a game or sport). In drama and arts, the headword *babapadi* originates from the word *papadi*, which can be used interchangeably in a stage play or game.

However, when getting to the headword contextually, the headword *baraloki* is frequently used, especially in written form. Both headwords *baraloki* and *babapadi* should have another translation equivalent, which can further indicate the relation between the two headwords. Their primary genuine function is determined by the class of items with the same general genuine purpose to which they belong (Wiegand,2004:205). Therefore, the presentation the two headwords *baraloki* and *babapadi* are synonyms, with the same translation equivalent, as a result they share the same general purpose.

The translation equivalent that can be used is characters, or the translation equivalent players can be clarified by indicating the context in which players can be used. It can refer to game players, characters and people who like to play. The headword *babapadi* should become the reference position, whereas the headword *baraloki* should be given reference address.

Suggested presentations:

babapadi: SEE/BONA **baraloki**

baraloki: (*lei*) (*bot. moraloki*) players (stage characters)
(sports and games)

Extracted presentations:

gagola, tear, rend
(1994:33)
kgeila, tear
(1994:55)

The extracted headwords can be used interchangeably in Northern Sotho, as they share the same translation equivalent: tear. Therefore, the headword *gagola* is used more frequently and should be treated comprehensively. Whereas the headword *kgeila* should be a cross-reference. However, it can be argued that the two headwords are used for two different substances and context. The headword *kgeila*, can be argued that it is only used when tearing papers and when someone tears other substances, the headword *gagola* is used. The headword *kgeila* is an informal word originating from an onomatopoeic expression of tearing a paper, which is (*kgerr!*). Northern Sotho speakers only sometimes use it because some use the word *tlerola* instead of *kgeila*. *Tlerola* is also an onomatopoeic expression of tearing papers and other substances (*tlerrr!*). Therefore, the headword *gagola* is Northern Sotho's grammatically accepted and universal term to refer to the action of tearing or rending.

Suggested presentations:

gagola: (*led*) tear, rend

kgeila: SEE/BONA **gagola**

Extracted presentations:

leaparankwe, chief

(1994:67)

kgoši, di – magoši, chief, king

(1994:58)

The extracted presentation could have been better presented. The headword *leaparankwe* can be translated literally as *the one who wears the tiger's skin*. It is culturally significant that the people who wear such skins are chiefs and kings. Therefore, the term figuratively refers to a chief. However, the headword *kgoši* refers to a chief or a king. Unlike English, the headword word *Kgoši* does not define the type of a leader the person is, either a chief or a king; the word *kgoši* is used. The headword *kgoši* is used more frequently than the headword *leaparankwe*. The headword *kgoši* should be given a comprehensive treatment (reference position) then the headword *leaparankwe* should be cross-referenced (reference address).

Suggested presentations:

kgosi: (*lei*) (*pl. dikgoši/magoši*) chief, king

leaparankwe: SEE/BONA **kgoši**

Extracted presentations:

Lamodimo, Sunday

(1994:66)

Lamorena, Sunday

(1994:66)

The above-extracted presentation needs to be correctly presented as well. Firstly, there is a spelling issue because Modimo refers to God and should have an upper-case M-. The same issue applies to the headword *Lamorena*, as Morena refers to the Lord Jesus Christ or God in this case. Secondly, the presentation of both headwords is located on the same page. Lastly, they both refer to the same translation equivalent: Sunday. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. Therefore, the headword *LaMorena* should be given a comprehensive treatment because of the frequency of usage, and the headword *LaModimo* should be the cross-reference.

Suggested presentations:

LaModimo: *SEE/BONA LaMorena*

LaMorena: (lei) Sunday

Extracted presentations:

madireng, news

(1994:80)

mehlamo (mehlamu), news

(1994:89)

The scenario of the above presentation is similar to the previous presentation of the headwords LaMorena and LaModimo. The extracted headwords can be used interchangeably in Northern Sotho, as they share the same translation equivalent: news. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. Therefore, the headword *madireng* is used more frequently, even in written and spoken form, and should be given comprehensive treatment. At the same time, the headword *mehlamo* should be a cross-reference as it is used socially and carries less weight than the headword *madireng*.

Suggested presentations:

madireng: (lei) news

mehlamo (mehlamu): *SEE/BONA madireng*

Extracted presentations:

dikhuru, knees

(1994: 21)

khuru, knee

(1994:61)

matolo, knees

(1994:88)

The headwords from the above-extracted presentation share the same translation equivalent: a knee. The issue of the presentation of the headwords *khuru* and *dikhuru* is a matter of singular and plural. The headword, *dikhuru*, should be given a comprehensive presentation indicating that *dikhuru* is the plural word. Also, *matolo* is figuratively used in

Northern Sotho. Therefore, both headwords *matolo* and *dikhuru* should be cross-referenced to the headword *khuru*.

Suggested presentations:

dikhuru: *SEE/BONA khuru*

khuru: *(lei) (pl. dikhuru) knee*

matolo: *SEE/BONA khuru*

5.2.1.2. Y Section (English – Northern Sotho)

Extracted presentations

adulterer, seotswa

(1994: 179)

adulteress, seotswa

(1994: 179)

The above-extracted presentation is headwords with the same morphological root and translation equivalent. The difference is the issue that the suffixes are the ones that determine the gender of the headwords. In Northern Sotho, no translation equivalent for the headword *adulterer* can be differentiated by gender. However, the headword ‘*adulterer*’ must be given comprehensive treatment as it is more popularly used than an *adulteress*. Then, the headword ‘*adulteresses*’ should be cross-referenced. It is important that the target user should find more information at the reference address, otherwise the value of cross-referencing is devalued (Gouws & Pronslou, 1998).

Suggested presentations:

adulterer: *(lei) (pl. adulterers) (female. adulteress) seotswa*

adulteress: *BONA/SEE adulterer*

Extracted presentations:

antagonism, lehloyo

(1994:182)

hate, hloya, ila; lehloyo

(1994:239)

The above-extracted presentation is not acceptable by the target user. The presentation shares the same translation equivalent; in Northern Sotho, they are used in a similar context, meaning they can be used interchangeably. Therefore, the headword ‘*hate*’ should

be given comprehensive treatment as it has other translation equivalents related to the main translation equivalent that the two headwords share. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. As such, the headword antagonism should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

antagonism: BONA/SEE hate

hate: (*lei*) hloya, ila; lehloyo

Extracted presentations:

belief, tumelo

(1994:181)

faith, tumelo; **lack of** – bohlayatumelo

(1994:226)

The above-extracted presentation can confuse the target user because ‘belief’ and ‘faith’ are used interchangeably in Northern Sotho. That is the reason why these two headwords share the same translation equivalent. However, one may argue about the context of the translation equivalent. This is because, in English, both ‘belief’ and ‘faith’ are two different concepts. Belief refers to one having to belong to a particular religion. Faith is about hoping for something to occur, and the situation can be unpredictable. That is why the headword ‘faith’ should be comprehensively presented needs, and the headword ‘belief’ will be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

belief: BONA/SEE **faith**

faith: (*lei*) ¹tumelo (*situation*); **lack of** – bohlayatumelo

²tumelo (*religion*)

Extracted presentations:

happen, diragala, hlagelwa; **ed-** diregile

(1994:239)

occur, diragala

(1994:270)

From the above-extracted presentation, the two headwords ‘happen’ and ‘occur’ share the same translation equivalent and in Northern Sotho, they can be used interchangeably.

However, the headword 'happen' would be the first translation equivalent considered when discussing *diragala*. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. Therefore, it should be given a comprehensive presentation and the headword 'occur' should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentation:

happen: (led) ¹diragala, hlagelwa

² -ed: diregile

occur: BONA/SEE happen

Extracted presentations:

intimidation, tšhošetša

(1994:250)

threat, tšhošetšo

(1994:317)

From the above-extracted presentations, grammatically, one may argue that there is no need for cross-referencing. However, when one considers the context of the translation equivalents and how they are used in Northern Sotho, one can conclude that there is a need for contextual guidance. Both headwords 'intimidation' and 'threat' share the same translation equivalent; the only difference is that the translation equivalent *tšhošetša* is a verb and *tšhošetšo* is an adverb. Therefore, the headword 'threat' should be given a comprehensive presentation of both translation equivalents separated by a comma to show that they can be used synonymously. As a result, intimidation should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

intimidation: BONA/SEE threat

threat: (led) tšhošetša, (*hlath.*) tšhošetšo

Extracted presentations:

chief, n. kgoši, adj. kgolo, golo

(1994:198)

king, kgoši

(1994:253)

From the above-extracted presentations, the headwords ‘king’ and ‘chief’ share the same translation equivalent, *kgoši*. However, due to the seniority and the context in which the translation equivalent has been used in Northern Sotho, the headword ‘king’ should be given comprehensive treatment. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. Therefore, the headword ‘chief’ should be cross-referenced. However, not all the translation equivalents under the headword ‘chief’ align with the headword ‘king’. These adjectives can be considered suffixes to classify people according to their position.

Suggested presentations:

chief, ¹*BONA/SEE king*

² (*hla*) *kgolo, golo*

king: (*lei*) (*pl. kings*) *kgoši*

Extracted presentations:

latrine, *boithomelo*

(1994:254)

toilet, *boithomelo, toilete*

(1994:319)

From the above-extracted presentation, the headwords ‘latrine’ and ‘toilet’ share the same translation equivalent: *boithomelo*. However, in spoken form, the headword ‘toilet’ has been used more frequently than the headword ‘latrine’. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. Therefore, the headword ‘toilet’ should be given a comprehensive presentation, and the headword *latrine* should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

latrine: *BONA/SEE toilet*

toilet: (*lei*) (*pl. toilets*) *boithomelo, toilete*

Extracted presentations:

death, *lehu*

(1994:210)

mortality, lehu

(1994:265)

From the above-extracted presentations, the headwords 'death' and 'mortality' share the same translation equivalent and can be used interchangeably. However, the headword 'mortality' is not frequently used more than 'death'. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. Therefore, the headword 'mortality' should be cross-referenced, and the headword death is given a comprehensive presentation.

Suggested presentations:

death: (*lei*) (*pl. deaths*) lehu

mortality: *BONA/SEE death*

5.2.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

5.2.2.1. X- Section (Northern Sotho – English)

The PPDS (2004) is a published bidirectional bilingual dictionary. The bilingual dictionary intends to provide language and translation support to learners, students, and language practitioners in Northern Sotho. The problem in the bilingual dictionary emerges when some of those translation equivalents are repeatedly presented but with a different headword. Some of these headwords vary by singular and plural forms and synonyms. The following are the extracted presentations and the suggested presentations for each.

Extracted presentations:

nnako: refuse

(2004:118)

nnang: to say no, to refuse

(2004:118)

The above-extracted presentations are on the same page and share the same translation equivalent. However, the presentation of the headword *nnako* needs to be more adequately presented as it should have included the translation equivalent no. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. The headword *nnako* has been used more frequently than the

headword *nnang* and should be given comprehensive treatment. Then, the headword *nnang* should be cross-referenced to the headword *nnako*.

Suggested presentations:

nnako: (*led*) no, refuse

nnang: *SEE/BONA nnako*

Extracted presentations:

atmosphere: atmosphere

(2004:5)

lefaufau: atmosphere, -ng in the atmosphere

(2004:69)

From the extracted presentations above, the headwords *atmosphere* and *lefaufau* presentations can be presented as one. In principle, the bilingual dictionary is not supposed to encourage the usage of borrowed words. However, allowing transliteration, the headword *atmosphere* should be cross-referenced as the translation equivalent for the headword 'atmosphere' is available being the headword *lefaufau*. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. Therefore, the headword *lefaufau* should be given comprehensive treatment as the main headword.

Suggested presentations:

atmosphere: *SEE/BONA lefaufau*

lefaufau: (*lei*) atmosphere, -ng in the atmosphere

Extracted presentations:

Babaso: Africans, black

(2004:5)

Baswana: Africans

(2004:8)

The above-extracted presentations of the headwords *Babaso* and *Baswana* share the same translation equivalents, and they can be used interchangeably. However, *Baswana* is often used figurative material such as Northern Sotho poetry and literature material. The

headword *Babaso* is used more frequently than the headword *Baswana*, it should then be given comprehensive treatment. Whereas the headword *Baswana* should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

Babaso: (*lei*) Africans; black people

Baswana: *SEE/BONA Babaso*

Extracted presentations:

madira: soldiers, the army

(2004:81)

sera: troop, army

(2004:148)

From the above-extracted presentations, the headwords are both in the plural (*madira*) and singular form (*sera*). Furthermore, from the translation equivalents, it can be identified that there is a difference in terms of plural and singular forms. However, the headword *sera*, is not used frequently to refer to the presented translation equivalents and as such, it should be cross-referenced. The headword *Madira* is used frequently, and it should be given comprehensive treatment.

Suggested presentation:

madira: (*lei*) (*sg. sera*) soldiers, the army

sera: *SEE/BONA madira*

Extracted presentations:

borifi: letter

(2004: 16)

lengwalo: letter (document, -ng in the letter

(2004:74)

The above-extracted presentation of the headwords *borifi* and *lengwalo* shares the same translation equivalent letter, and they can be used interchangeably. It is by principle that a bilingual dictionary should not encourage the usage of borrowed words. This is because the headword *borifi* originates from the Afrikaans word *brief*, which means a letter. The existence of the headword was influenced by the usage of Afrikaans as an official language during the days of the apartheid regime.

Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. Therefore, in these current times, in Northern Sotho, the headword *borifi* is not used more often than the headword *lengwalo*. *the headword lengwalo* has the most frequency in terms of usage than the headword *borifi*. It should then be given comprehensive treatment and the headword *borifi* should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

borifi: SEE/BONA **lengwalo**

lengwalo: (*lei*) (*pl. mangwalo*) letter (document), **-ng** in the letter

Extracted presentations:

Basotho: Sotho people
(2004:08)

Mosotho: a Sotho person
(2004:110)

The headwords from the above-extracted presentation the headwords *Basotho* and *Mosotho* share the same translation equivalent, which is a Sotho person or people. The issue with the presentation of the headwords *Basotho* and *Mosotho* is a matter of singular and plural. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. The headword *Mosotho* should be given a comprehensive presentation with an indication of the headword *Basotho* being the plural word. Therefore, the headword *Basotho* should be cross-referenced to *Mosotho*.

Suggested presentations:

Basotho: SEE/BONA **Mosotho**

Mosotho: (*lei*) (*pl. Basotho*) a Sotho person

5.2.2.2. Y- Section (English – Northern Sotho)

Extracted presentations:

attain: rua, bona, fihlela, hwetša

(2004:189)

get: bona, rua

(2004:237)

The above-extracted presentation of the headwords ‘attain’ and ‘get’ share the same translation equivalents *bona* and *rua*, and they can be used interchangeably. In these current times, in Northern Sotho when translating the words *rua*, *bona*, *fihlela*, and *hwetša*, the headword ‘attain’ is not used more often than the headword ‘get’. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. The headword ‘get’ has the most frequency in terms of usage than the headword ‘attain’. It should then be given comprehensive treatment and the headword ‘attain’ should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

attain: SEE/BONA get

get: (*verb*) bona, rua, fihlela, hwetša

Extracted presentations:

attest: hlatsela, paka

(2004:189)

witness: hlatse, paki, bohlatse, v. hlatsela

(2004:333)

From the above-extracted presentation, the headwords ‘attest’ and ‘witness’ share the same translation equivalents which are *hlatsela* and *paka*. However, the headword ‘witness’ has been used more frequently than the headword ‘attest’. The headword ‘attest’ is often used in a special scenario where the person confirms that a particular occurrence is true. This is because, in Northern Sotho, there is no difference between the two

headwords, they are the same. Therefore, the headword 'witness' should be given a comprehensive presentation and the headword 'attest' should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

attest: *SEE/BONA witness*

witness: (*noun*) (*pl. witnesses*) hlatse, paki, bohlatse, v. hlatsela

Extracted presentations:

baptize: kolobetša

(2004:191)

christen: kolobetša

(2004:201)

The extracted headwords 'baptize' and 'christen' can be used interchangeably in Northern Sotho, as they share the same translation equivalent which is *kolobetša*. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. Therefore, the headword 'baptize' is used more frequently and it should be given comprehensive treatment. Whereas the headword 'christen' should be a cross-reference.

Suggested presentations:

baptize: (*verb*) kolobetša

christen: *SEE/BONA baptize*

Extracted presentations:

principal: hlogo, khumopolokwa; golo

(2004:286)

rector: hlogo

(2004:293)

From the above-extracted presentation, the headwords 'principal' and 'rector' share the same translation equivalent which is *hlogo*. However, the headword 'principal' has been used more frequently than the headword 'rector'. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. The headword 'rector' is often used in a special scenario where the position of

that person is a 'rector'. Therefore, the headword 'principal' should be given a comprehensive presentation and the headword 'rector' should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

principal: (*noun*) (*pl. principals*) hlogo, khumopolokwa; golo

rector: SEE/BONA principal

Extracted presentations:

fugitive: motšhabi, mofaladi

(2004:235)

refugee: motšhabi, motšhabeledi, mofaladi

(2004:293)

From the above-extracted presentation, the headwords 'fugitive' and 'refugee' share the same translation equivalents which are *motšhabi* and *mofaladi*. However, the headword 'refugee' has been used more frequently than the headword 'fugitive'. Therefore, the headword 'refugee' should be given a comprehensive presentation and the headword 'fugitive' should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

fugitive: SEE/BONA **refugee**

refugee: (*noun*) (*pl. refugees*) motšhabi, motšhabeledi, mofaladi

Extracted presentations:

clergyman: moruti

(2004:203)

pastor: modiši, moruti

(2004:277)

The extracted headwords 'clergyman' and 'pastor' can be used interchangeably in Northern Sotho, as they share the same translation equivalent which is *moruti*. Therefore, the headword 'pastor' is used more frequently, and it should be given comprehensive treatment. Whereas the headword 'clergyman' should be a cross-reference.

Suggested presentations:

clergyman: SEE/BONA **pastor**

pastor: (*noun*) (*pl. pastors*) modiši, moruti

Extracted presentations:

decease: n. lehu, mohu; v. hwa, hlokafala

(2004:214)

die: hwa, hlokafala

(2004:217)

From the above-extracted presentations, the headwords 'decease' and 'die' are grammatically one may argue that there is no need for cross-referencing. However, when considering at the context of the translation equivalents and how is it used in Northern Sotho, one can conclude that there is a need for contextual guidance. The headword 'die' in Northern Sotho, is used in the context of humans, animals, and plants. However, the headword 'decease' is only used in the case of humans. Therefore, the headword 'die' should be given a comprehensive presentation and the headword 'decease' should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

decease: *SEE/BONA die*

die: ¹ (*verb*) hwa, hlokafala

² (*noun*) lehu, mohu

Extracted presentations:

dwarf: kgopana, mponepone

(2004:222)

midget: selabe, kgopana, mponepone

(2004:265)

From the above-extracted presentations, the two headwords 'dwarf' and 'midget' share the same translation equivalent and can be used interchangeably. However, the headword 'midget' is not frequently used more than the headword 'dwarf'. Therefore, the headword 'midget' should be cross-referenced, and the headword 'dwarf' given a comprehensive presentation.

Suggested presentations:

dwarf: (*noun*) kgopana, mponepone

midget: *SEE/BONA dwarf*

Extracted presentations:

famine: tlala

(2004:229)

hunger: tlala

(2004:245)

The extracted headwords 'famine' and 'hunger' can be used interchangeably in Northern Sotho, as they share the same translation equivalent which is *tlala*. Therefore, the headword hunger is used more frequently, and it should be given comprehensive treatment. Whereas the headword famine should be a cross-reference.

Suggested presentations:

famine: *SEE/BONA* **hunger**

hunger: (*noun*) tlala

Extracted presentations:

evidence: bohlatse, tšhupo, bopaki

(2004:227)

proof: tšhupo, bopaki

(2007:287)

From the above-extracted presentations, the two headwords 'evidence' and 'proof' share the same translation equivalent and can be used interchangeably. However, the headword 'proof' is not frequently used more than the headword 'evidence'. Therefore, the headword 'proof' should be cross-referenced, and the headword 'evidence' is given a comprehensive presentation.

Suggested presentations:

evidence: (*noun*) bohlatse, tšhupo, bopaki

proof: *SEE/BONA* **proof**

5.2.3. Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

The OPSS (2007) is a published bidirectional bilingual dictionary. The intention of the bilingual dictionary is to assist learners, students, and language practitioners with Northern Sotho. The bilingual dictionary presents headwords, parts of speech, and translation equivalents with contextual guidance. The problem in the bilingual dictionary emerges when some of those translation equivalents are repeatedly presented, but with a different

headword and contextual guidance. Some of the work already undertaken in relation to cross-referencing is that the presentation of cross-referencing is only done using singular and plural forms only, using only SEE as the cross-referencing tool (reference marker). The following are the extracted presentations and the suggested presentations for each.

5.2.3.1. X- section (Northern Sotho – English)

Extracted presentations:

alafa: *verb.* cure; treat (*medically*). Mošomo wa ngaka ke go alafa balwetši. (*A doctor's job is to treat patients.*)

(2007:4)

oka: *verb.* nurse a sick person. Mahlomola o ile a oka mmatswalagwe go fihlela a hlokafala. (*Mahlomola nursed her mother-in-law until she passed away.*)

(2007:176)

In the above-extracted presentations, the headwords *alafa* and *oka* partially share the same translation equivalents. In most cases, in Northern Sotho, the headwords *alafa* and *oka* can be used interchangeably as they are used in the health context. Wiegand (2004:205) explains that headwords (with the same translation equivalent) giving the paraphrase of the meaning/an item giving the cross-reference and the paraphrase of the meaning should be cross-referenced. However, in this case, both headwords can be given comprehensive treatment with cross references.

Suggested presentations:

alafa: *verb.* cure; treat, *SEE/BONA oka* (*medically*). Mošomo wa ngaka ke go alafa balwetši. (*A doctor's job is to treat patients.*)

oka: *verb.* nurse a sick person, *SEE/BONA alafa*. Mahlomola o ile a oka mmatswalagwe go fihlela a hlokafala. (*Mahlomola nursed her mother-in-law until she passed away.*)

Extracted presentations:

bjala¹: *noun (pl. mabjala)* beer; alcohol. E sa le a go nwa bjala le go goga motsosko a s ana le mengwaga e lesomenne. (*He started drinking beer and smoking cigarettes when he was 14 years old.*)

(2007:16)

madila: *noun.* beer; alcohol; spirit. O tla swarwa ge o ka otlela o nwele madila. (*You will be arrested if you drive after having a drunk beer.*)

(2007:127)

The above-extracted presentations the headwords *bjala*¹ and *madila* share the same translation equivalents. However, the headword *bjala*¹ is normally perceived to be a translation equivalent to beer. The headword *madila* covers any alcoholic substance and has more frequency of usage in grammar than the headword *bjala*. Gouws & Prinsloo (1998:2) allude that the dictionary employs the mediostructure to refer the target user to external addresses which are linked with the lemma sign of the reference position article in relations such as synonymy, oppositeness of meaning, hyponymy, dialectal stylistic, chronolectic and other forms of variation, etc.. The headword *bjala* should be cross-referenced and the headword *madila* should be given comprehensive treatment.

Suggested presentations:

bjala¹: SEE/BONA **madila**

madila: *noun.* beer; alcohol; spirit. O tla swarwa ge o ka otlela o nwele madila. (*You will be arrested if you drive after having a drunk beer.*)

Extracted presentations:

elelwa: *verb.* remember. Ba rile ba le tseleng Javas a elelwa gore o tlogetše mokotla wa gagwe kua ba bego ba dutše. (*While they were on the way, Javas remembered that he had left his bag where they were sitting.*)

(2007:45)

gopola: *verb.* remember; think; recall. Tšatši le lengwe o tla gopola mantšu a ka. (*One day you will remember my words.*)

(2007:63)

In the above-extracted presentations, the headwords *elelwa* and *gopola* can be used interchangeably. They both share the same translation equivalent. However, the headword *gopola* has more frequency in usage than the headword *elelwa*. Therefore, the headword *gopola* should be given comprehensive treatment and the headword *elelwa* should be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

elelwa: SEE/BONA **gopola**

gopola: verb. remember; think; recall. Tšatši le lengwe o tla gopola mantšu a ka. (*One day you will remember my words.*)

Extracted presentations:

fenya: verb. 1. defeat. Re tla fenyana mo ntweng ye. (*We will defeat them in this fight.*)

2. overcome. O re rutile gore re ka fenyana bjang bosenyi re le setšhaba.

(*He taught us how to overcome crime as a community.*)

(2007:51)

hlola³: 1. defeat 2. overcome. Ke a dumela gore ke tlo hlola meleko yohle. (*I believe that I will overcome all temptations.*)

(2007:71)

The above-extracted presented headwords *fenya* and *hlola³* share the same translation equivalents that can be used interchangeably. These headwords are used in the same context, but the headword *fenya* has been used more frequently and should be given comprehensive treatment. The headword *hlola³* is labelled the 3rd in the list of presentations with the same spelling.

Suggested presentation:

fenya: verb. 1. defeat. Re tla fenyana mo ntweng ye. (*We will defeat them in this fight.*)

2. overcome. O re rutile gore re ka fenyana bjang bosenyi re le setšhaba.

(*He taught us how to overcome crime as a community.*)

hlola³: SEE/BONA **fenya**

Extracted presentations:

Lamorena: noun. (**pl. Malamorena**) Sunday. Ke tla ya kerekeng ka Lamorena le lengwe le lengwe.

(*I will go to church every Sunday.*)

(2007:102)

Sontaga: noun. (**pl. Disontaga**) Sunday. Malesela o ya kerekeng Sontaga se sengwe le sa sengwe. (*Malesela goes to church every Sunday.*)

(2007:215)

In terms of the frequency of usage, the headword *Sontaga* is contemporarily being used than the headword *LaMorena*. Also, it should be noted that the headword *Sontaga* is a

borrowed word from Afrikaans which is *Sondag*. The headword *LaMorena* came into existence because of the activity that is being done on that day (which is people going to their different places of worship) and based on scripture quotations that it is the Lord's Day to rest. The headword *LaMorena* is not used as frequently as compared to the headword *Sontaga* is being used and it should be cross-referenced and the headword *Sontaga* to be given comprehensive treatment.

Suggested presentation:

Lamorena: *SEE/BONA Sontaga*

Sontaga: *noun. (pl. Disontaga)* Sunday. Malesela o ya kerekeng Sontaga se sengwe le sa sengwe. (*Malesela goes to church every Sunday.*)

Extracted presentations:

legadima: *noun. (pl. magadima)* lightning. Batho ka moka ba ile ba kitimela ka dintlong gobane pula e be e na ka magadima. (*All the people ran into their houses because the rain was falling and there was lightning.*)

(2007:108)

tladi: *noun. (pl. ditladi)* lightning. Ka Sesotho ge go bolelwa ka tladi go bolelwa ka lehu. (*In the Sesotho culture, when lightning is spoken about, it means death.*)

(2007:231)

What can be identified from the extracted presentation above is that both headwords *legadima* and *tladi* can be used interchangeably. Therefore, the headword *tladi* should be cross-referenced as it is not used as frequently as how the headword *legadima* is used. The headword *legadima* should be given comprehensive treatment as it has more frequency of usage and has more translation equivalents than the headword *tladi*.

Suggested presentations:

legadima: *noun. (pl. magadima)* lightning. Batho ka moka ba ile ba kitimela ka dintlong gobane pula e be e na ka magadima. (*All the people ran into their houses because the rain was falling and there was lightning.*)

tladi: *SEE/BONA legadima*

Extracted presentations:

lenaba: *noun. (pl. manaba)* enemy. O be a ka se nthuše ka gobane ke lenaba la ka. (*He couldn't help me because he is my enemy.*)

(2007:114)

sera: *noun.* – **compare pl. dira.** enemy. Le a bona gore monna yo o iphetotše sera sa rena? (*Do you see that this man has made himself our enemy.*)

(2007: 208)

dira²: *noun.* (**sing. sera.**) enemy; army. A wetša Faraoh le dira tša gagwe lewatleng. (*He drove Pharaoh and his army into the sea.*)

(2007:38)

From the above-extracted presented headwords *lenaba*, *sera* and *dira²*, there are three issues that can be identified. The first one is that the headword *sera* should have been given comprehensive treatment, and the headword *dira²* should have been its cross reference. The reason for such presentation is that the headword *dira²* is the plural form of the headword *sera*. The second one is that the contextual guidance between the three presentations are all discussing one translation equivalent and the sentences are in the same context with different meanings.

The third and last issue is that if the bilingual dictionary is intended to assist school learners with grammar, the contextual guidance on the headword *lenaba* should have not included a contraction as in academic writing, contractions are not allowed. In reference to what Gouws & Prinsloo (1998:2) alludes, the dictionary employs the mediostructure to refer the target user to external addresses which are linked with the lemma sign of the reference position article in relations such as synonymy, oppositeness of meaning, hyponymy, dialectal stylistic, chronolectic and other forms of variation, etc. The headword *lenaba* has more frequency in terms of usage than the headword *sera*. Therefore, the headword *dira²* should cross-reference to the headword *sera*, and *sera* as headword should cross-reference to the headword *lenaba*. The headword *lenaba* should be given comprehensive treatment.

Suggested presentation:

lenaba: *noun.* (**pl. manaba**) enemy. O be a ka se nthuše ka gobane ke lenaba la ka. (*He could not help me because he is my enemy.*)

sera: SEE/BONA *lenaba*

dira²: SEE/BONA *sera*

Extracted presentations:

khupamarama: *noun* (*pl. dikhupamarama*) top secret. Nka se le botše ka gore ke khupamarama. (*I will not tell you because it is top secret.*)

(2007:94)

sephiri: *noun*. (*pl. diphiri*) secret. O se ke wa utolla sephiri se go motho. (*Do not reveal this secret to anyone.*)

(2007: 208)

What can be identified from the extracted presentation above is that both headwords *khupamarama* and *sephiri* can be used interchangeably. Therefore, the headword *khupamarama* should be cross-referenced as it is not used as frequently as how the headword *sephiri* is used. The headword *sephiri* should be given comprehensive treatment as it has more frequency of usage and has more translation equivalents than the headword *khupamarama*.

Suggested presentations:

khupamarama: *SEE/BONA sephiri*

sephiri: *noun*. (*pl. diphiri*) secret. O se ke wa utolla sephiri se go motho. (*Do not reveal this secret to anyone.*)

Extracted presentations:

anega²: *verb*. hang (*something wet*); hang out to dry. Ba ile ba anega diaparo tša bona gore di ome. (*They hung their clothes so that they can get dry.*)

(2007:5)

fega¹: *verb*. hang up

(2007:49)

In the above-extracted presentations, the headwords *anega²* and *fega¹* partially share the same translation equivalents. In most cases, in Northern Sotho, the headwords *anega²* and *fega¹* can be used interchangeably as they are used in the domestic household context. However, in this case, both headwords *anega²* and *fega¹* can be given comprehensive treatment with cross references.

Suggested presentations:

anega²: *verb*. hang (*something wet*); hang out to dry, *SEE/BONA fega¹*. Ba ile ba anega diaparo tša bona gore di ome. (*They hung their clothes so that they can get dry.*)

fega¹: *verb*. hang up, *SEE/BONA anega*

5.2.3.2. Y Section (English – Northern Sotho)

Extracted presentations:

alcohol: *noun (no plural)* bjala; madila; alkoholo. There is alcohol in beer and wine. (*Go na le alkoholo ga gare ga piri le beine*)

(2007:261)

spirits²: *noun. (pl. spirits)* madila

(2007:498)

From the above-extracted presentations, the headwords ‘alcohol’ and ‘spirits²’ share the same translation equivalents. However, the headword ‘spirits²’ is a collective term that is normally perceived to be a translation equivalent to whiskey and other heavy beverages with high alcohol volumes. The headword ‘alcohol’ covers any alcoholic substance and has more frequency of usage in grammar than the headword ‘spirits²’. The headword ‘spirits²’ should be cross-referenced, and the headword ‘alcohol’ should be given comprehensive treatment.

Suggested presentations:

alcohol: *noun (no plural)* bjala; madila; alkoholo. There is alcohol in beer and wine. (*Go na le alkoholo ga gare ga piri le beine*)

spirits²: *BONA/SEE alcohol*

Extracted presentations:

authority: *noun. (pl. authorities)* 1. taolo 2. bolaodi 3. borena. If you are challenging my authority, you must tell me, so that I know. (*Ge e le gore o mpakiša borena, o mpotse ke tsebe.*)

(2007:271)

control: *noun, verb* ¹ *noun. (pl. controls)* taolo. All the farmers have control over their land and the people who live on their land. (*Balemi ka moka ba na le taolo ya naga ya bona, le batho bao ba dulago nageng ya bona.*)

²*verb. (Controls, controlling, controlled)* laola. How can we control and take care of our environment? (*Na re ka laola le go hlokomela bjang tikologo ya rena?*)

(2007:310)

In the above-extracted presentations, the headwords ‘authority’ and ‘control’ partially share the same translation equivalents. In most cases, in Northern Sotho context, the headwords ‘authority’ and ‘control’ can be used interchangeably as they are used in the leadership

context. However, in this case, both headwords ‘authority’ and ‘control’ can be given comprehensive treatment with cross references.

Suggested presentations:

authority: noun. (**pl. authorities**) 1. taolo, SEE/BONA **control**. 2. bolaodi 3. borena. If you are challenging my authority, you must tell me, so that I know. (*Ge e le gore o mpakiša borena, o mpotse ke tsebe.*)

control: noun, verb ¹ noun. (**pl. controls**) taolo, SEE/BONA **authority**. All the farmers have control over their land and the people who live on their land. (*Balemi ka moka ba na le taolo ya naga ya bona, le batho bao ba dulago nageng ya bona.*)

²verb. (**Controls, controlling, controlled**) laola. How can we control and take care of our environment? (*Na re ka laola le go hlokomela bjang tikologo ya rena?*)

Extracted presentations:

award: noun (**pl. awards**) sefoka. We won an award for singing in London yesterday. (Re thopile sefoka ka go opela maabane kua London.)

(2007:272)

prize: noun. (**pl. prizes**) sefoka

(2007:455)

What can be identified from the extracted presentation above is that both headwords ‘award’ and ‘prize’ can be used interchangeably. Therefore, the headword ‘prize’ should be cross-referenced as it is not used as frequently as how the headword ‘award’ is used. The headword ‘award’ should be given comprehensive treatment as it has more frequency of usage than the headword ‘prize’.

Suggested presentations:

Award: noun (**pl. awards**) sefoka. We won an award for singing in London yesterday. (Re thopile sefoka ka go opela maabane kua London.)

prize: SEE/BONA **award**

Extracted presentations:

baby: noun. (**pl. babies**) lesea. She gave birth to a baby boy last night. (O belege lesea la mošemane maabane bošego.)

(2007:273)

infant: noun. (**pl. infants**) lesea

(2007:386)

In the above-extracted presentations, the headwords 'baby' and 'infant' share the same translation equivalent *lesea* but have different contexts in terms of the age of the child. In most cases, in Northern Sotho, the headwords 'baby' and 'infant' can be used interchangeably (regardless of age) as they are used in the health context. However, in this case, the headword 'baby' should be given comprehensive treatment as it has more frequency of usage than the headword 'infant', which must be cross-referenced.

Suggested presentations:

baby: *noun. (pl. babies)* lesea. She gave birth to a baby boy last night. (O belege lesea la mošemane maabane bošego.)

infant: SEE/BONA **baby**

Extracted presentations:

beach: *noun. (pl. beaches)* lebopo; mohlaba. I like to lie on the beach in the sun. (*Ke rata go patlama lebopong la lewatle letšatšing.*)

(2007:275)

coast: *noun. (pl. coasts)* lebopo. South Africa has a rich coastline. (*Afrika-Borwa e na le lebopo la go huma.*)

(2007:301)

What can be identified from the extracted presentation above is that both headwords 'beach' and 'coast' can be used interchangeably. Therefore, the headword 'coast' should be cross-referenced as it is not used as frequently as how the headword 'beach' is used. The headword 'beach' should be given comprehensive treatment as it has more frequency of usage than the headword 'coast'.

Suggested presentations:

beach: *noun. (pl. beaches)* lebopo; mohlaba. I like to lie on the beach in the sun. (*Ke rata go patlama lebopong la lewatle letšatšing.*)

coast: SEE/BONA **beach**

Extracted presentations:

buy: *verb (buys, buying, bought)* reka. I am going to buy bread (*Ke ya go reka borotho*)

(2007:287)

purchase: *verb. noun.* ¹*verb (purchases, purchasing, purchased)* reka. The business will purchase new computers next year. (*Kgwebo e tla reka dikhomphuthara tše dimpsa ngwaga o tlogo.*)

²*noun (pl. purchases)* theko. I am pleased with the purchases. (*Ke thabišitšwe ke ditheko.*)
(2007:459)

In the above-extracted presentations, the headwords ‘buy’ and ‘purchase’ partially share the same translation equivalents. In most cases, in the Northern Sotho context, the headwords ‘buy’ and ‘purchase’ can be used interchangeably as they are used in the business and economics context. However, in this case, both headwords ‘buy and ‘purchase’ can be given comprehensive treatment with cross references.

Suggested presentations:

buy: *verb (buys, buying, bought)* reka; *SEE/BONA purchase*. I am going to buy bread (*Ke ya go reka borotho*)

purchase: *verb. noun.* ¹*verb (purchases, purchasing, purchased)* reka; *SEE/BONA buy*. The business will purchase new computers next year. (*Kgwebo e tla reka dikhomphuthara tše dimpsa ngwaga o tlogo.*)

²*noun (pl. purchases)* theko. I am pleased with the purchases. (*Ke thabišitšwe ke ditheko.*)

Extracted presentations:

captain: *noun. (pl. captains)* moetapele. Malosi is the captain of the school soccer team. (*Malosi ke moetapele wa sehlopha sa kgwele ya maoto ya sekolo.*)
(2007:291)

leader: *noun. (pl. leaders)* moetapele; ketapele; thwadi. I have been chosen to be the leader of our school choir. (*ke kgethilwe go ba moetapele wa khwaere ya rena ya sekolo.*)
(2007:399)

What can be identified from the extracted presentation above is that both headwords ‘captain’ and ‘leader’ can be used interchangeably. Therefore, the headword ‘captain’ should be cross-referenced as it is not used as frequently as how the headword ‘leader’ is used. The headword ‘leader’ should be given comprehensive treatment as it has more frequency of usage than the headword ‘captain’.

Suggested presentation:

captain: *SEE/BONA leader*

leader: *noun. (pl. leaders)* moetapele; ketapele; thwadi. I have been chosen to be the leader of our school choir. (*Ke kgethilwe go ba moetapele wa khwaere ya rena ya sekolo.*)

Extracted presentations:

coach: *verb. (coaches, coaching, coached)* hlahla Thellenyane was selected to coach the school soccer team. **(Thellenyane o kgethilwe go hlahla sehlopha sa kgwele ya maoto sa sekolo.)**
(2007:301)

guide: *noun. verb. 1.¹noun (pl. guides)* tlhahlo. This book is a guide to the birds of South Africa.
(*Puku ye ke tlhahlo ka ga dinonyana tša Afrika-Borwa*)

2. *noun.* mohlahli. The tour group had a good guide. (*Sehlopha sa baeti se bile le mohlahli yo mobotse.*)

²*verb. (guides, guiding, guided)* hlahla. We were guided through the high mountains. (*Re ile ra hlahlwa go ya dithabeng tše ditelele.*)

(2007:371)

From the extracted presentation above, what can be identified is that both headwords 'coach' and 'guide' can be used interchangeably. Therefore, the headword 'coach' should be cross-referenced as it is not used as frequently as how the headword 'guide' is used. The headword 'guide' should be given comprehensive treatment as it has more frequency of usage than the headword 'coach'.

Suggested presentations:

coach: *SEE/BONA guide*

guide: *noun. verb. 1.¹noun (pl. guides)* tlhahlo. This book is a guide to the birds of South Africa.
(*Puku ye ke tlhahlo ka ga dinonyana tša Afrika-Borwa*)

2. *noun.* mohlahli. The tour group had a good guide. (*Sehlopha sa baeti se bile le mohlahli yo mobotse.*)

²*verb. (guides, guiding, guided)* hlahla. We were guided through the high mountains. (*Re ile ra hlahlwa go ya dithabeng tše ditelele.*)

Extracted presentations:

contest: *noun. (pl. contests)* phenkgišano; phadišano. It was good to contest between two chess players. (*E be e le phenkgišano ye botse magareng ga baraloki ba babedi ba tšhese.*)

(2007:309)

competition: ¹*noun. (no plural)* phadišano. Competition between businesses usually benefits the consumer and makes goods cheaper or better value for money. (*Phadišano magareng ga dikgwebo gantši e hola bareki gomme e dira gore diphahlo di rekege ka tšhelete ya tlase.*)

²*noun (pl. competitions)* phadišano. Rules for entering the competition can be found in Mr Leswika's office. (*Melawana ya mabapi le go tsenela phadišano le diforomo tša gona di ka hwetšwa ka kantorong ya Mna. Leswika.*)

(2007:305)

What can be identified from the extracted presentation above is that both headwords 'contest' and 'competition' share the same translation equivalents but in different contexts. Therefore, the headword 'contest' should be cross-referenced as it is not used as frequently as how the headword 'competition' is used. Furthermore, the presented translation equivalent *phenkgišano* for the headword 'contest' has its own translation equivalent in English 'challenge'. The headword 'competition' should be given comprehensive treatment. This is because in Northern Sotho the headword 'competition' has more frequency of usage than the headword 'contest'.

Suggested presentations:

contest: *SEE/BONA competition*

competition: ¹*noun. (no plural)* phadišano. Competition between businesses usually benefits the consumer and makes goods cheaper or better value for money. (*Phadišano magareng ga dikgwebo gantši e hola bareki gomme e dira gore diphahlo di rekege ka tšhelete ya tlase.*)

²*noun (pl. competitions)* phadišano. Rules for entering the competition can be found in Mr Leswika's office. (*Melawana ya mabapi le go tsenela phadišano le diforomo tša gona di ka hwetšwa ka kantorong ya Mna. Leswika.*)

Extracted presentations:

corridor: *noun. (pl. corridors)* phasetše. Don't run in the corridor! (*O se ke wa kitima phasetšeng!*)
(2007: 312)

passage: *noun (pl. passages)* phasetše. The room is at the end of the passage. (*Phapoši e mafelelong a phasetše.*)
(2007:440)

In the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that both headwords 'corridor' and 'passage' can be used interchangeably. Therefore, the headword 'corridor' should be cross-referenced as the translation equivalent presented for the headword 'passage'. Also, the headword 'corridor' it is not used as frequently as how the headword 'passage' is used. It should be noted that the bilingual dictionary is intended to assist school children with grammar, and the contextual guidance on the headword 'corridor' should have not included

a contraction (even if the sentence is presented as a spoken form) as in academic writing, contractions are not allowed.

Suggested presentations:

corridor: *SEE/BONA passage*

passage: *noun (pl. passages) phasetše. The room is at the end of the passage. (Phapoši e mafelelong a phasetše.)*

5.3. Assessing the method of presenting the reversibility principle in the selected Northern Sotho – English bilingual dictionaries

Mothiba (2012:1) asserts that various strategies are used to compile user-friendly dictionaries during the process of compiling a bilingual dictionary. Some of the strategies employed in the process include using a definition and examples in the case of zero-equivalence; using commas and semi-colons to separate synonyms and polysemous sense. In a nutshell, reversibility is to ensure the intertextuality of headwords and translation equivalents between the X-Y and Y-X sections, respectively. For example, a translation equivalent in the XY section must be located as a headword in the Y-X section, and vice versa. The analysis on the application of the reversibility principle, focuses on the implementation of both communicative (translation, text production and reception aspects) and the operative categories (action that the person wants to perform requires that the person should be provided with advice and instructions (Tarp, 2008: 185) of the function theory.

To ensure that the translation equivalents are correct, a bilingual bidirectional dictionary is expected to apply the Reversibility Principle. The principle enables the target users of the bilingual dictionary conversant with both languages (first or second) to determine whether the translation equivalent they are looking for is correct or not. A bilingual dictionary article should assist the target users understand translation equivalents and make it simple for them to test translation equivalents by translating them to the original source language. Prinsloo & de Schryver (2002:164) assert that although the formulation of the reversibility principle only deals with translation equivalents with a lemmatic address, the principle must be interpreted as also referring to translation equivalents with a non-lemmatic address (other microstructure features), provided that the address has lexical item status. The

following are the analysed presentations in the selected Northern Sotho – English bilingual dictionaries:

5.3.1. Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

KPNSD (1994) is a bilingual bidirectional dictionary, to demonstrate relations between the X-Y and Y-X sections expected of it to implement the reversibility principle. The bilingual dictionary has attempted to comply with the reversibility principle, but there were some inadequacies. Issues that can be identified with the bilingual dictionary are that in most cases the headwords are presented in both X – Y sections but with different translation equivalents. Whereas in some cases, the translation equivalents presented in the X section are not presented in the Y section as headwords. While looking at the presentations, there is no contextual guidance to inform the target user on how the translations are different and how they can be used. The following are the extracted and suggested presentations.

5.3.1.1. X-Y Section (Northern Sotho – English)

Extracted presentations:

X- Section

leope, ditch

(1994:73)

↓ Y- Section

ditch, lengope, mokero

(1994:217)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that in the Y section *leope* (which is a headword in the X section) is not presented as a translation equivalent for the headword 'ditch' in the Y section. Therefore, there is no reversibility implemented for the above presentation. Furthermore, looking back at the X section the word 'ditch' is presented as a translation equivalent for the headword *leope*. There is also a need for contextual guidance in terms of the translation equivalents differences, especially for the headword 'ditch' in the Y section.

Suggested presentations:

X- Section

leope: (*lei*) ditch; donga. Tumelo o wetše ka leopeng kua sethokgweng a kitimela Matome. (*Tumelo fell into a ditch in the forest while running to Matome.*)

↓ Y- Section

ditch: (*noun*) lengope, leope; mokero. *Sewela fell into a ditch in the forest while looking for firewood. (Sewela o wetše ka leopeng kua sethokgweng a nyaka dikgong.)*

Extracted presentations:

X- Section

lesenke, galvanized iron

(1994:75)

↓ Y- Section

galvanized iron (no presentation)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword 'galvanize', a sub headword 'galvanized iron' would be presented. However, that was not the case, the headword 'galvanize' is not presented as well. Therefore, there would not be any headword that will be associated with 'galvanized iron'. Target users that are not conversant to Northern Sotho, would not know the function of the headword *lesenke* and what is it used for. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent 'galvanised iron' would be used.

Suggested presentations:

X- Section

lesenke (lei) galvanized iron. *Baagi ba šomišitše lesenke go rulela ntlo ya gabo Mosibudi. (The builders used galvanized iron to roof Mosibudi's house.)*

galvanized iron

↓ Y- Section

galvanized iron: (*noun*) lesenke. *The builders used galvanized iron to roof Mosima's house. (Baagi ba šomišitše lesenke go rulela ntlo ya gabo Mosima.)*

Extracted presentations:

X- Section

mohlomaredi, persecutor

(1994:99)

↓ Y- Section

persecutor (no presentation)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword *mohlomaredi* in the X section has a translation equivalent 'prosecutor', which is derived from the headword 'persecution' in the Y section.

persecution: tlhomaro, tlaišo

(1994:277)

With that being mentioned, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword 'persecution' in the Y section, a sub headword or a full headword 'persecutor' would be presented next. However, that was not the case. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent 'persecutor' would be used in the X section.

Suggested presentations:

X- Section

mohlomaredi: (*lei*) persecutor. Mabore o rata go itira mohlomaredi mo motseng. (*Mabore likes to be a persecutor in the village.*)

↓ Y- Section

persecutor: (*noun*) mohlomaredi. Mabore likes to be a persecutor in the village. (*Mabore o rata go itira mohlomaredi mo motseng.*)

Extracted presentations:

X- Section

šapharega, be poor

(1994: 138)

↓ Y- Section

poor, humanegileng, n. bahloki

(1994:281)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword *šapharega* in the X section, has a translation equivalent 'be poor' which is derived from the headword 'poor' in the X section.

poor, humanegileng, n. bahloki

(1994:281)

With that being mentioned, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword 'poor', a sub headword or a full headword 'be poor' would be

presented next. However, that was not the case. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used.

Suggested presentations:

↓ X- Section

šapharega: (*hlao*) be poor. Badudi ba ikgethetše go šapharega, morago ga gore ba utswetšwe mašemo le maruo a bona. (*The villagers decided to be poor after their land and animals were stolen.*)

↓ Y- Section

poor (be): (*adj.*) šapharega. The villagers decided to be poor after their land and animals were stolen. (*Badudi ba ikgethetše go šapharega, morago ga gore ba utswetšwe mašemo le maruo a bona.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

letlepetlepe, idiot, fool

(1994:77)

↓ Y- Section

fool, n. setlaela, lešilo; v. fora, thetša

(1994: 230)

idiot, sethotho, lešilo

(1994:243)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword *letlepetlepe* has a translation equivalent that was not presented in either of the presentations in the Y section: headwords ‘fool’ and ‘idiot’. With that being mentioned, it could have been expected by the target user that both presentations in the Y section would have *letlepetlepe* as a translation equivalent. However, that was not the case. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used.

Suggested presentation:

↓ X- Section

letlepetlepe: (*lei*) (*pl.matlepetlepe*) idiot, fool. O rogile batho a re ke matlepetlepe. (*He insulted people that they are idiots*)

↓ Y- Section

fool: 1. (noun) (*pl.fools*) setlaela, lešilo; letlepetlepe. He insulted people that they are fools. (*O rogile batho a re ke matlepetlepe.*)

2. (verb) fora, thešša. Mmabatho o fora Makgomo mabapi le senamelwa sa lenyalong. (*Mmabatho fools Makgomo about the transport to the wedding.*)

idiot: (*noun*) (*pl. idiots*) sethotho, lešilo; letlepetlepe. He insulted people that they are idiots. (*O rogile batho a re ke matlepetlepe.*)

5.3.1.2. Y-X Section (English – Northern Sotho)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

haberdashery, nalete le garane

(1994:238)

↓ X- Section

nalete, needle

(1994:115)

garane, thread, cotton

(1994:34)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword ‘haberdashery’ was not presented as a translation equivalent in either of the presentations in the X section: headwords *nalete* and *garane*. With that being mentioned, it could have been expected by the target user that both presentations in the X section would have the headword ‘haberdashery’ as a translation equivalent. In another scenario, a sub headword could have been presented to accommodate ‘haberdashery’ as a translation equivalent. For example, in the case of the headword *nalete* the presentation would also add a sub-headword (le *garane*). The same applies to the headword *garane*, as it would add (le *nalete*). For more clarity, pictorials would have been presented as well. However, that was not the case. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used.

Suggested presentations:

↓ Y- Section

haberdashery: (*noun*) *nalete le garane*. We use haberdashery for sewing purposes only. (*Re šomiša nalete le garane mabakeng a go roka fela*)

↓ X- Section

nalete: (*lei*) needle. (**le garane**) haberdashery. *Re šomiša nalete le garane mabakeng a go roka fela*. (*We use haberdashery for sewing purposes only.*)

garane: (*lei*) thread; cotton ;(**le nalete**) haberdashery. *Re šomiša nalete le garane mabakeng a go roka fela*. (*We use haberdashery for sewing purposes only.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

donga, lengope, leope

(1994:218)

↓ X- Section

leope, ditch

(1994:73)

lengope, ditch, donga

(1994:73)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword *letlepetlepe* was not presented in one of the presentations as a translation equivalent in the X section: headword *lengope*. With that being mentioned, it could have been expected by the target user that the presentation of the headword *leope* in the X section, would have 'donga' as a translation equivalent. However, that was not the case. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance (with pictorials) that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent 'donga' would be used or even looks like.

Suggested presentations:

↓ Y- Section

donga: (*noun*) *lengope, leope* .*Sewela fell into a donga in the forest while looking for firewood.*(*Sewela o wetše ka leopeng kua sethokgweng a nyaka dikgong.*)

↓ X- Section

leope: (*lei*) ditch; donga. *Sewela o wetše ka leopeng kua sethokgweng a nyaka dikgong.* (*Sewela fell into a donga in the forest while looking for firewood.*)

lengope (*lei*) ditch; donga Sewela o wetše ka lengopeng kua sethokgweng a nyaka dikgong.
(*Sewela fell into a donga in the forest while looking for firewood.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

executive, phethago, - council. khuduthamaga
(1994:225)

↓ X- Section

phethago (no presentation)

khuduthamaga, executive
(1994:90)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword 'executive' has a translation equivalent *phethago*, which is derived from the headword *pheta*.

phetha: finish, accomplish, complete, decide, perform
(1994:128)

With that being mentioned, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword *phetha*, a sub headword or a full headword *phethago* would be presented next. In another scenario, the presentation of the headword *phetha*, would include (-go) as a sub headword to accommodate the translation equivalent *phethago*. However, that was not the case. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent *phethago* would be used in a sentence.

Suggested presentations:

↓ Y- Section

executive: (*noun*) phethago, (**council**.) khuduthamaga. This is the executive committee responsible for the rules of the organization. (*Le ke lekgotla leo le phethago molaotheo wa mokgahlo.*)

↓ X- Section

phetha: (*led*) finish, accomplish, complete, decide, perform. Ke tlo phetha modiro wa gago gabotse. (*I will finish your function very well.*) (*hlath.*) (**-go**) phethago. Le ke lekgotla leo le phethago molaotheo wa mokgahlo. (*This is the executive committee responsible for the rules of the organization.*)

or

phethago: (*hlath.*) executive. Le ke lekgotla leo le phethago molaotheo wa mokgahlo. (*This is the executive committee responsible for the rules of the organization.*)

khuduthamaga: executive (council). Khuduthamaga ya mmasepala e bile le kopano lehono. (*The municipal executive council had a meeting today.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

electoral officer, mokgethiši, mohlankedi wa kgetho

(1994:221)

↓ X- Section

mokgethiši (no presentation)

mohlankedi, official, civil servant

(1994:99)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword 'electoral officer' was not presented in either of the headwords *mokgethiši* or *mohlankedi* in the X section. Also, the translation equivalent *mokgethiši* was not presented as a headword in the X section in the bilingual dictionary. It was only a related headword *mohlankedi* which was presented in the bilingual dictionary, but the headword 'electoral officer' in the Y section was not presented as a translation equivalent in the X section.

mohlankedi, official, civil servant

(1994:99)

With that being mentioned, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword *mohlankedi*, a sub headword or a full headword *mohlankedi wa kgetho* would be presented next. In another scenario, the presentation of the headword *mohlankedi*, would include (*wa kgetho*) as a subheadword to accommodate *mohlankedi wa kgetho*. However, that was not the case. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used in a sentence.

Suggested presentations:

↓ Y- Section

electoral officer (noun) mokgethiši, (adj) mohlankedi wa kgetho. Mosibudi works as an electoral officer. (Mosibudi o šoma bjalo ka mohlankedi wa kgetho)

↓ X- Section

mokgethiši: (*lei*) (*pl. bakgethiši*) Mosibudi ke mokgethiši. (*Mosibudi is an electoral officer.*)

mohlankedi: (*pl. bahlankedi*) (*lei*) official, civil servant Ntebo ke mohlankedi mo kopanong ya motse. (*Ntebo is an official at the community meeting.*). (hlae) (**wa kgetho**) Mosibudi o šoma bjalo ka mohlankedi wa kgetho. (*Mosibudi works as an electoral officer.*)

or

mohlankedi (wa kgetho): (*hlae*) Mosibudi o šoma bjalo ka mohlankedi wa kgetho. (*Mosibudi works as an electoral officer.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

zenith, ntlha ya godimo

(1994:334)

↓ X- Section

ntlha, end, point, primary

(1994:120)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword 'zenith' in the Y section was not presented in one of the translation equivalents in the X section for the headword *ntlha*. With that being mentioned, it could have been expected by the target user that the presentation of the headword *ntlha* in the X section, would have 'zenith' as a translation equivalent. Also, if the translation equivalent 'zenith', would have to be presented as a sub headword (*ya godimo*) of the headword *ntlha*. However, that was not the case. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance (with pictorials) that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used.

Suggested presentations:

↓ Y- Section

zenith: (lei) ntlha ya godimo. The building at New York has a zenith. (*Moago wa kua New York o na le ntlha ya godimo.*)

↓ X- Section

ntlha: (lei) (*pl. dintlha*) end, point, primary. Sehlopha sa rena s ammino se thophile ntle e tee fela. (*Our music team only scored one point.*) (**e godimo**) zenith. Moago wa kua New York o na le ntlha ya godimo. (*The building at New York has a zenith.*)

5.3.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

PPNSD (2004) being a bilingual bidirectional dictionary, is expected of it to implement the reversibility principle. However, that is not the case. Issues that can be identified with the dictionary are that in most cases the headwords are presented in both X – Y sections but with different translation equivalents. Whereas in some cases, the translation equivalents presented in the X section are not presented in the Y section as headwords. While looking at the presentations, there is no contextual guidance to inform the target user on how the translations are different and how they can be used. The following are the extracted and suggested presentations.

5.3.2.1. X-Y Section (Northern Sotho – English)

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

akalala: soar, hover

(2004:3)

↓ Y- Section

soar (Not presented)

hover: phupha, okaokela, akalala

(2004:245)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword *akalala* in the X section has two translation equivalents which are ‘soar’ and ‘hover’. However, when going to the Y section of the bilingual dictionary, it can be identified that there is no ‘soar’ as a headword, but only the headword ‘hover’. Furthermore, the headword *akalala* is more closely related to the headword ‘soar’ than to ‘hover’. Also, there is no contextual guidance or relevant structural marker in the X section, that would provide the target user with the necessary clarity between the two translation equivalents.

Suggested presentations:

↓ X- Section

akalala: (led) soar; hover. Lenong la Thabo le ile ya **akalalela** marung. (*Thabo’s eagle soared to the clouds*). Sefofane sa boemafofane bja King Phalo se ile sa **akalala** pele ge se ka theoga. (*The plane from King Phalo airport hovered before it could land.*)

↓ Y- Section

soar: (verb) akalala. Thabo’s eagle soared to the clouds. (*Lenong la Thabo le ile ya akalalela marung*)

hover: (verb) phupha, okaokela, akalala. *The plane from King Phalo airport **hovered** before it could land. (Sefofane sa boemafofane bja King Phalo se ile sa **akalala** pele ge se ka theoga)*

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

atlafala: become prosperous

(2004:5)

↓ Y- Section

prosperous (not presented)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword *atlafala* in the X section has a translation equivalent 'become prosperous' which is derived from the headword 'prosper' in the Y section.

prosper: tšwelela pele, atlega, naba, šegofala

(2004:288)

With that being mentioned, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword 'prosper' in the Y section, a sub headword or a full headword 'prosperous' would be presented next. However, that was not the case. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used.

Suggested presentations:

↓ X- Section

atlafala: (*hlao*) become prosperous. *Tshepo o ile a atlafala mo dithutong tša gagwe tša masters. (Tshepo became prosperous in her master's studies.)*

↓ Y- Section

prosperous: (*adj.*) **become** - atlafala, atlafetše. *Tshepo became prosperous with her master's studies. (Tshepo o atlafetše dithutong tša gagwe tša masters.)*

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

baditi: initiation school teachers

(2004:10)

↓ Y- Section

initiation school teachers (not presented)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword 'initiation school' in the Y section, a sub headword 'teacher' would be presented next. However, that was not the case. There is no headword for 'initiation school teachers' in the Y section. The only related presentation is the headword 'initiate'.

initiate: thoma, wetša, kgakola, bolla
(2004:250)

This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used.

Suggested presentations:

↓ X- Section

baditi: (*lei*) (*pl. moditi*) initiation school teachers. Baditi ba ile ba begela kgoši ka seo se hlagilego molotong. (*The initiation school teachers reported to the king about what happened at the initiation.*)

↓ Y- Section

initiation school (*noun*) – **school**. koma; - **teachers**. baditi. The royal initiation school started yesterday. (*Koma ya ka mošate e thomile maabane.*); The initiation school teachers reported to the king about what happened at the initiation. (*Baditi ba ile ba begela kgoši ka seo se hlagilego molotong.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

beka: marry
(2004:9)

↓ Y- Section

marry: nyala, tšea; **cause to** – nyadiša; **has – ied** nyetše
(2004:262)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword 'marry' in the Y section would include the headword *beka* as one of the translation equivalents. There is no translation equivalent *beka*, which can be used interchangeably with the translation equivalents *nyala* and *tšea*. There is also no contextual guidance to guide the user on how to use the translation equivalents.

Suggested presentation:

↓ X- Section

beka: (led) marry. Mokoena o tla beka Mantoa ka Mokibelo wo o tlogo. (*Mokoena will marry Mantoa next week Saturday.*)

↓ Y- Section

marry: nyala, beka, tšea; **cause to** – nyadiša; **has – ied** nyetše. Mokoena will marry Mantoa next week Saturday. (Mokoena o nyala Mantoa ka Mokibelo wo o tlogo.)

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

kgeregela: flock towards

(2004:57)

↓ Y- Section

flock: n. mohlape; v. kgobokana

(2004:232)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword *kgeregela* in the X section has a translation equivalent 'flock towards'. However, when going to the Y section of the bilingual dictionary, it can be identified that the headword 'flock (towards)' as a headword, is not presented but only the headword 'flock'. Furthermore, the translation equivalent *kgeregela* is more closely related to the headword 'flock' than the translation equivalent *kgobokana*. Also, there is no contextual guidance or relevant structural marker that would provide the target user with the necessary clarity between the two.

Suggested presentations:

↓ X- Section

kgeregela: (led) flock towards. Setšhaba sa motse wa Sekakene se ile sa kgeregela fao kotsi e hlagilego gona. (*The community of Sekakene flocked towards the accident scene.*)

↓ Y- Section

flock: ¹(noun). mohlape. Masedi's flock was lost. (*Mohlape wa Masedi o be o timetše.*)

²(verb). – **towards** kgeregela, kgobokana. The community of Sekakene flocked towards the accident scene. (*Setšhaba sa motse wa Sekakene se ile sa kgeregela fao kotsi e hlagilego gona.*)

5.3.2.2. Y-X Section (English → Northern Sotho)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

decamp: ngwega, khuduga
(2004:214)

↓ X- Section

ngwega (no presentation)

khuduga: move, migrate
(2007:61)

From the above-extracted presentation, what can be identified is that the headword 'decamp' in the Y section has two translation equivalents which are *ngwega* and *khuduga*. However, when going to the X section of the bilingual dictionary, it can be identified that there is no *ngwega* presented as a headword, only the headword *khuduga* has been presented. Furthermore, the translation equivalent *khuduga* is more closely related to the headword 'decamp' than the translation equivalent *ngwega*. Also, there is no contextual guidance or relevant structural marker that would provide the target user with the necessary clarity between the two.

Suggested presentation:

↓ Y- Section

decamp: (*verb*) ngwega; khuduga. Batlokwa people decided to decamp from their land in the 1970s. (*Batlokwa ba ile ba khuduga nageng ya bona mengwageng ya 1970.*)

↓ X- Section

ngwega: (*verb*) decamp. Lethabo o ile a ngwega motseng wa gabo. (*Lethabo decamped from her village.*)

khuduga: (*verb*) move, migrate, decamp. Batlokwa ba ile ba khuduga nageng ya bona mengwageng ya 1970. (*Batlokwa people decided to decamp from their land in the 1970s.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

cornflower: letšobakorong
(2004: 209)

↓ X- Section

letšobakorong (*no presentation*)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword *letšoba in the X section*, a sub headword *letšobakorong* would be presented next. However, that was not the case. There is only one headword for *letšoba*, which can be partially related to *letšobakorong* which was not presented the headword in the X section.

letšoba: flower

(2004:78)

This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance or pictorial that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used or looks like.

Suggested presentations:

↓ Y- Section

cornflower: (noun) *letšobakorong*. *Northern Cape province has too many cornflower farms.*
(*Profense ya Kapa-Lebowa e na le mašemo a letšobakorong a mantši.*)

↓ X- Section

letšobakorong: (lei) *cornflower*. *Profense ya Kapa-Lebowa e na le mašemo a letšobakorong a mantši.* (*Northern Cape province has too many cornflower farms.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

circular: *sekhulare, lengwalophatlalatša*

(2007:202)

↓ X- Section

sekhulare: *circular*

lengwalophatlalatša (no presentation)

(2004:144)

From the above-extracted presentations, there are some inaccuracies as the presentation for the headword 'circular' in the Y section should have had first presented the translation equivalent *lengwalophatlalatša* then *sekhulare*. Also in the X section, there is no headword *lengwalophatlalatša* presented as a headword as it should have been presented as a sub-headword the headword *lengwalo*.

lengwalo: *letter (document), -ng in the letter*

(2004:74)

This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used.

Suggested presentations:

↓ Y- Section

circular: (*noun*) (*pl. circulars*) lengwalophatlalatša, sekhulare. Tšitšila received a circular from the office of the Pietersburg circuit manager. (*Tšitšila o ile a amogela lengwalophatlalatša go tšwa kantorong ya molaodi wa sedikothuto sa Pietersburg.*)

↓ X- Section

sekhulare: (*lei*) (*pl. disekhulare*) circular. Tšitšila o ile a amogela sekhulare go tšwa kantorong ya molaodi wa sedikothuto sa Pietersburg. (*Tšitšila received a circular from the office of the Pietersburg circuit manager.*)

lengwalophatlalatša : (*lei*) (*pl. mangwalophatlalatša*) circular. Tšitšila o ile a amogela lengwalophatlalatša go tšwa kantorong ya molaodi wa sedikothuto sa Pietersburg. (*Tšitšila received a circular from the office of the Pietersburg circuit manager.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

bigamist: nyetše segadikane
(2004:193)

↓ X- Section

nyetše segadikane (not presented)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword *nyetše* in the X section, a sub headword *nyetše (segadikane)* would be presented next. However, that was not the case. There is only one headword *nyetše*, which can be partially related to the headword *nyetše (segadikane)*, which was not presented in the X section.

nyetše: married
(2004:122)

This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used.

Suggested presentations:

↓ Y- Section

bigamist: (noun) nyetše segadikane. Masilo got arrested as he committed bigamy. (Masilo o ila a swrarwa ka ge a nyetše segadikane.)

↓ X- Section

nyetše (segadikane): (lei) bigamy. Masilo o ila a swrarwa ka ge a nyetše segadikane. (Masilo got arrested as he committed bigamy.)

Extracted presentations:

↓ Y- Section

replacement: peobakeng
(2004:295)

↓ X- Section

peobakeng (no presentation)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword *peo* in the X section, a sub headword *peobakeng* would be presented next. However, that was not the case. There is no headword which can be partially or fully related to the headword *peo*.

peo: placing, putting, coronation
(2004:126)

This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Also, there is no contextual guidance that would provide the target user with how the translation equivalent would be used.

Suggested presentations:

↓ Y- Section

replacement: (noun) peobakeng. Mohlatlego is the replacement for Nakedi who the acting school principal was. (*Mohlatlego ke yena peobakeng ya Nakedi yoo e bego e le hlogo ya sekolo ya motšwagoswere.*)

↓ X- Section

peobakeng: (lei) replacement. Mohlatlego ke yena peobakeng ya Nakedi yoo e bego e le hlogo ya sekolo ya motšwagoswere. (*Mohlatlego is the replacement for Nakedi who the acting school principal was.*)

5.3.3. Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

OPSSD (2007) is a bilingual bidirectional dictionary, to demonstrate intertextuality between the X-Y and Y-X sections expected of it to implement the reversibility principle. The dictionary has attempted to comply with the reversibility principle, but there were some inadequacies. The positive aspect of the dictionary is that most of the translation equivalents presented in the X-Y section are presented accurately.

However, the problem existed because of the contextual guidance. Whereas the Y-X section of the dictionary has imbalances with the presentation of headwords. Some of the important headwords that were expected to be presented in Northern Sotho as headwords are not presented. Additionally, there is no correlation between contextual guidance as some of the sentences are not clear enough for the target used to comprehend. In some cases, it is evident that there are pictorials required.

5.3.3.1. X-Y Section (Northern Sotho – English)

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

aloga: verb. 1. return from initiation school. Ge a aloga, o fiwa leina le lengwe gape. (*On returning from the initiation school he is given a new name.*)

2. *graduate.* Sehlopheng seo go na le lephodisa leo le sa tšwago go aloga sekolong sa bophodisa. (*Among that group, there is one police officer who has just graduated from the police college.*)

(2007:4)

↓ Y- Section

return from initiation school (no presentation)

graduate: verb. aloga. Amongst that group, there is one police officer who has just graduated from the police college. (*Sehlopheng seo go na le lephodisa leo le sa tšwago go aloga sekolong sa bophodisa.*)

(2007:368)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword 'return' in the Y section, a sub headword '(from initiation school)' would be presented next. However, that was not the case. One can argue that the expected headword '(from initiation school)' which can be partially or fully related to the headword is return:

return: *verb.* (**returns, returning, returned**) boa; buša; bušetša; boela morago. (**return again**) boelela. Masebitsi returned to the kitchen to get food for the visitors. (*Masebitsi o ile a boelela ka moraleng go tšeela baeng dijo.*) (**return repeatedly**) boa mmoetšane. (**return to**) boela (2007:472)

In relation to the above-extracted presentation, the headword ‘return (from initiation school)’ will not be part of the presentation in the Y section. This is due to contextual reasons. However, the headword return can have **return 1 and 2** to ensure that both translation equivalents do not seem too confusing for the target user. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. The presentation of headword graduate is well presented in the Y section, and the context of the contextual guidance is clear.

Suggested presentations:

↓ X- Section

aloga: (*led*). 1. return from initiation school. Ge a aloga, o fiwa leina le lengwe gape. (*On returning from the initiation school he is given a new name.*)

2. *graduate*. Sehlopheng seo go na le lephodisa leo le sa tšwago go aloga sekolong sa bophodisa. (*Among that group, there is one police officer who has just graduated from the police college.*)

↓ Y- Section

return: *verb.* 1. (**returns, returning, returned**) boa; buša; bušetša; boela morago. (**return again**) boelela. Mmasebitsi returned to the kitchen to get food for the visitors. (*Mmasebitsi o ile a boelela ka moraleng go tšeela baeng dijo.*) (**return repeatedly**) boa mmoetšane. (**return to**) boela

2. (**return from initiation school**) aloga. On returning from the initiation school he is given a new name. (*Ge a aloga, o fiwa leina le lengwe gape.*)

graduate: *verb.* aloga. Amongst that group, there is one police officer who has just graduated from the police college. (*Sehlopheng seo go na le lephodisa leo le sa tšwago go aloga sekolong sa bophodisa.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

bjaneng: *noun.* in childhood. Bjaneng bja gagwe o be a ehlwa a e kwa ka ga madimo majabatho. (*In his childhood, he used to hear about ogres who ate people.*)

(2007:17)

↓ Y- Section

childhood (no presentation)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword 'child' in the Y section, a sub headword 'childhood' would be presented next. However, that was not the case. There is only one headword 'child', which can be partially related to the expected headword 'childhood'.

child: *noun. (pl. children)* ngwana. What can I do if my child has not been accepted at school?
(*Naa nka dira eng ge ngwana wa ka a sa amogelwa sekolong?*)
(2007:296)

This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Argumentatively, the expected headword 'childhood' in the Y section will have to be a separate presentation that has a contextual guidance presented is not related to the headword 'child'. This is because even the context of usage does not relate at all.

Suggested presentation:

↓ X- Section

bjaneng: (*lei*). in childhood. Bjaneng bja gagwe o be a ehlwa a e kwa ka ga madimo majabatho.
(*In his childhood, he used to hear about ogres who ate people.*)

↓ Y- Section

childhood: (*noun*) bjaneng. In his childhood, he used to hear about ogres who ate people. (*Bjaneng bja gagwe o be a ehlwa a e kwa ka ga madimo majabatho.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

ditlalemeso: *noun.* morning news. Bohle re letetše ditlalemeso ka tlhologelo, re nyaka go kwa tšeo di letšego di direga. (*We are all patiently waiting for the morning news; we want to hear what happened last night.*)

(2007:41)

↓ Y- Section

morning news (no presentation)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword 'morning' in the Y section, a sub headword 'morning news' would be presented next. However, that was not the case. The headword

'morning' is the only presented headword which is partially or fully related to the expected headword 'morning news'.

morning: (*noun*) (*pl. mornings*) moso; moswana

early in the morning: ka masa

early morning: masa

in the morning: ka moswana. As the sun rose in the morning, they arrived at the court. (*E rile letšatši ge le hlaba e sa le ka moswana, ba ikgaša kgorong ya tsheko.*)

in the morning (s): mesong

(2007:418)

It is evident from the above-extracted presentation that the headword 'morning news' will be able to be a sub headword of the headword 'morning'. That is because as the context of the headword 'morning news' will be different from the other translation equivalents attached to the headword 'morning' in the Y section. Therefore, a new headword 'morning news' will be required, with its contextual guidance. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle.

Suggested presentations:

↓ X- Section

ditlalemeso: (*lei*). morning news. Bohle re letetše ditlalemeso ka tlhologelo, re nyaka go kwa tšeo di letšego di direga. (*We are all patiently waiting for the morning news; we want to hear what happened last night.*)

↓ Y- Section

morning news: (*noun*) ditlalemeso. We are all patiently waiting for the morning news; we want to hear what happened last night. (*Bohle re letetše ditlalemeso ka tlhologelo, re nyaka go kwa tšeo di letšego di direga.*)

Extracted presentations:

↓ X- Section

ikgonere: *verb.* be poor. Morutiši Tladi o ikgonere, o ka re motho ga a šome. (*Teacher Tladi is poor as if he is not working.*)

(2007:75)

↓ Y- Section

poor¹: *adjective.* 1. go diila; go hloka. The poorest people do not have food and no shelter. (*Batho ba go dila ga ba na dijo le magae.*)

2. mpe. Poor work. (*Mošomo wo mobe.*)

(2007:449)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword *poor*¹, a sub headword *childhood* would be presented next. However, that was not the case. There is only one headword for (be) *poor*, which can be partially related to the headword.

poor¹: *adjective*. 1. go diila; go hloka. The poorest people do not have food and no shelter. (*Batho ba go dila ga ba na dijo le magae.*)

2. mpe. Poor work. (*Mošomo wo mobe.*)

(2007:449)

With the above presentation, the headword (be) *poor* should be presented after the contextual guidance on the translation equivalent *go dila*. The reason is that they share the same context, but the meaning is different. Initially, the translation equivalent *ikgonere* is normally used figuratively rather than literally. This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle.

Suggested presentation:

ikgonere: *verb*. be poor. Morutiši Tladi o ikgonere, o ka re motho ga a šome. (*Teacher Tladi is poor as if he is not working.*)

↓ Y- Section

poor¹: *adjective*. 1. go diila; go hloka. The poorest people do not have food and no shelter. (*Batho ba go dila ga ba na dijo le magae.*); *verb*. (**be poor**) kgonere. Teacher Tladi is poor as if he is not working. (*Morutiši Tladi o ikgonere, o ka re motho ga a šome.*)

2. mpe. Poor work. (*Mošomo wo mobe.*)

5.3.3.2. Y-X Section (English – Northern Sotho)

Extracted presentations:

biology: *noun*. payolotši; thutaphedi. My mother teaches biology. (*Mma o ruta payolotši.*)

(2007:279)

↓ X- Section

payolotši (no presentation)

thutaphedi (no presentation)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that since the dictionary is meant to cover the educational aspects of the curriculum, there would be presentations of subjects that are taught. It is important that subjects that are

offered in the curriculum, have both the readily available name in English and a translated one in an African Language. Since this Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) is bilingual, it is important that the presentation of the translation equivalents begins with the African name then a borrowed name can follow. In this case, it would be relevant that the presentation starts with the translation equivalent *thutaphedi* then followed by *payolotši*.

Suggested presentations:

biology: *noun.* thutaphedi, payolotši. My mother teaches biology. (*Mma o ruta payolotši.*)

↓ X- Section

payolotši: (*lei*) biology. Mma o ruta payolotši. (*My mother teaches biology.*)

thutaphedi: (*lei*) biology. Thutaphedi ke engwe ya dithuto tšeo ke di ratago. (*Biology is one of my favorite subjects.*)

Extracted presentations:

academic: *adjective.* thuto. You need a good academic record to study at a university. (*O nyakega pego ye botse ya thuto gore o ye go ithuta yunibesithi.*)
(2007:256)

↓ X- Section

thuto: *noun.* (***pl. dithuto***) 1. lesson. Morutiši Kibi o tseba tsefišetša bana thuto (*Teacher Kibi knows how to make a lesson enjoyable for learners.*)

2. study. Kgokolo o tšwetša dithuto tša gagwe tša borutiši pele. (*Kgokolo I furthering his teaching studies.*)

3. education. Mang le mang o na le tokelo ya thuto. (*Everybody has a right to education.*)
(2007:228)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword *thuto* 2 (especially after the translation equivalent study), a structural marker would be presented to accommodate academic as a translation equivalent. Furthermore, it should have added contextual guidance to indicate the contextual relation between the translation equivalents study and academic. However, that was not the case. There is only one translation equivalent study, which can be partially related to the headword. This makes it impossible to ensure that reversibility principle is in place.

Suggested presentations:

academic: (*adj.*) thuto. You need a good academic record to study at a university. (*O nyakega pego ye botse ya thuto gore o ye go ithuta yunibesithi.*)
(2007:256)

↓ X- Section

thuto: (*lei*) (***pl. dithuto***) 1. lesson. Morutiši Kibi o tseba tsefišetša bana thuto (*Teacher Kibi knows how to make a lesson enjoyable for learners.*)

2. study; (*hlao*). academic. Kgokolo o tšwetša dithuto tša gagwe tša borutiši pele. (*Kgokolo is furthering his teaching studies.*). O nyakega pego ye botse ya thuto gore o ye go ithuta yunibesithi. (*You need a good academic record to study at a university.*)

3. education. Mang le mang o na le tokelo ya thuto. (*Everybody has a right to education.*)

Extracted presentations:

biography: *noun.* (***pl. biographies***) Compare AUTOBIOGRAPHY. taodišophelo. Have you read the biography of Sol Plaatjie? (*A o badile taodišophelo ya Sol Plaatjie?*)
(2007:279)

↓ X- Section

taodišophelo (no presentation)

From the above-extracted presentations, it could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword *taodišo*, a sub headword *taodišophelo* would be presented next. However, that was not the case. There is only one headword for *taodišo*, which can be partially related to the headword.

taodišo: *noun.* (***pl. ditaodišo***) essay. Ngwala taodišo ya matlakala a mabedi o re botše ka sekolo sa lena. (*Write an essay of two pages and tell us about your school.*)
(2007:220)

This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Argumentatively, the headword *taodišophelo* will have to be a separate presentation as the contextual guidance presented is not related to the headword *taodišo*. This is because these are two different types of texts that are partly related but not to be considered the same.

Suggested presentations:

biography: *noun.* (***pl. biographies***) Compare AUTOBIOGRAPHY. taodišophelo. Have you read the biography of Sol Plaatjie? (*A o badile taodišophelo ya Sol Plaatjie?*)

↓ X- Section

taodišophelo: (*lei*) (*pl. ditaodišophelo*) biography. A o badile taodišophelo ya Sol Plaatjie? (*Have you read the biography of Sol Plaatjie?*)

Extracted presentations:

cable: *noun. (pl. cables).* mogala; kheipolo. They pulled the car out of the water with a cable. (*Ba ntšhitše koloi ka meetseng ka mogala.*)

(2007:289)

↓ X- Section

mogala: *noun (pl. megala)* telephone; phone. Mogwera wa ka o ile a nteletša go ntsebiša gore o a nyalwa. (*My friend called me by telephone to inform me that she was getting married.*) (**leletša mogala**) make a phone call.

(2007:144)

kheipolo (no presentation)

From the above-extracted presentations, there is one aspect which should be identified before discussing the reversibility principle in the presentation. The first aspect is that the translation equivalent *mogala*, does not refer to a cable but to a cord. Therefore, it should not have been featured in this scenario. However, the contextual guidance is correct only without using the translation equivalent *mogala*. A headword such as cable is a foreign object in Northern Sotho. Therefore, *kheipolo* is the only translation equivalent. The presentation of the translation equivalent *mogala*, was to indicate how the reversibility principle for the headword cable got lost in the process. The headword *kheipolo* should be presented with the contextual guidance used for the headword *mogala* (from cable as a translation equivalent, not as a headword.) as it is best to fit for the headword *kheipolo*, not the headword *mogala*. Furthermore, contextual guidance should add pictorials distinguishing the two headwords, *mogala* and *kheipolo*.

Suggested presentation:

cable: *noun. (pl. cables).* kheipolo. They pulled the car out of the water with a cable. (*Ba ntšhitše koloi ka meetseng ka kheipolo.*)

↓ X- Section

mogala: *noun* (**pl. megala**) telephone; phone; cord. Mogwera wa ka o ile a nteletša go ntsebiša gore o a nyalwa. (*My friend called me by telephone to inform me that she was getting married.*)
(leletša mogala) make a phone call.

kheipolo: (*lei*) (**pl.dikheipolo**) cable. Ba ntšhitše koloi ka meetseng ka kheipolo (*They pulled the car out of the water with a cable*)

Extracted presentations:

candidate: *noun*. (**pl. candidates**) mohlalobiwa; nkgetheng. Who are the presidential candidates? (*Ke bomang e lego bonkgetheng ba setulo sa bopresidente?*). All of the grade 12 learners are examination candidates this year. (*Baithuti ka moka ba mphato wa 12 ke bahlahlobiwa lenyaga.*)

(2007:290)

↓ X- Section

nkgetheng (no presentation)

mohlalobiwa (no presentation)

From the above-extracted presentations, both translation equivalents were not presented as headwords in the X section of the bilingual dictionary. The headword candidate has made it available that there should be an availability of headwords to be presented as it also provided contextual guidance to show the difference between the two translation equivalents. Firstly, for the translation equivalent *nkgetheng*, there is no related headword in the dictionary where it could possibly be presented as a subheadword. This means that the headword *nkgetheng* must be presented as a headword on its own with the same contextual guidance provided under candidate.

It could have been expected by the target user that after the presentation of the headword *mohlalobi*, a sub headword *mohlalobiwa* would be presented next. However, that was not the case. There is only one headword for *mohlalobiwa*, which can be partially related to the headword.

mohlalobi: *noun*. (**pl. bahlahlobi**) 1. inspector. O se ke wa lebal gore mohlalobi wa sekolo wa tla beke ye e tlogo. (*Do not forget that the school inspector is coming next week*) 2. examiner. Mohlahlobi wa papiri ya histori ke Profesa Mafela. (*The examiner for the history paper is Prof Mafela.*)

(2007:146)

This makes it one of the inadequate presentations of the reversibility principle. Argumentatively, the headword *mohlahobiwa* will have to be a separate presentation as the translation equivalent and contextual guidance presented are not related to the headword *mohlahlobi*. This is because these are two different types of texts that are partly related but not to be considered the same.

Suggested presentation:

candidate: *noun. (pl. candidates)* mohlahlobiwa; nkgetheng. Who are the presidential candidates? (*Ke bomang e lego bonkgetheng ba setulo sa bopresidente?*). All the grade 12 learners are examination candidates this year. (*Baithuti ka moka ba mphato wa 12 ke bahlahlobiwa lenyaga.*)

↓ X- Section

nkgetheng (*lei*) (*pl. bonkgetheng*) candidates. *Ke bomang e lego bonkgetheng ba setulo sa bopresidente? (Who are the presidential candidates?)*

mohlahlobiwa: (*lei*) (*pl. bahlahlobiwa*) candidates. *Baithuti ka moka ba mphato wa 12 ke bahlahlobiwa lenyaga. (All of the grade 12 learners are examination candidates this year.)*

5.4. Lexicographic data boxes

It must be noted that the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) and the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) does not pertain any lexicographic data boxes. Therefore, in this section the analysis will only focus on Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007).

5.4.1. Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

In the front matter of the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) the presentation of lexicographic data boxes is called usage notes. The lexicographic data boxes are presented in one language (English) regardless the section where each lexicographic data box has been presented. When considering the communicative aspect of the theory of Lexicographic Functions , these lexicographic data boxes can be categorised into 4 aspects: spelling and grammar, context and pronunciation, register, and relations.

a. Spelling and grammar

In this aspect, the presentation of lexicographic data boxes guide the target user of the bilingual dictionary on how a headword can be used in its grammar, parts of speech conversion, and spelling.

a ka: *possessive construction cl.6.* my; of mine. mahlo **a ka** ke a magolo. (*My eyes are big.*)

This construction consists of the possessive concord **a** of class 6, and the possessive pronoun **ka** of the first person singular. It is often misspelled as **aka**.

(2007:3)

The bilingual dictionary has succeeded in presenting the above extracted lexicographic data box. However, the presentation should have considered the presentation of other examples of possessive construction. That would avoid the issue of repetition of other possessive constructions.

Babaso: adjective cl.2: Black people. **Babaso** ba go lekana 10 000 ba tsena dikolo tša bošego mo Soweto, Alexandra le Hosteleng ya Denver kua Gauteng. (*Approximately 10,000 Black people attend night school in Soweto, Alexandra and the Denver Hostel in Johannesburg.*)

The word **Babaso** represents an unusual spelling of an adjective which is written as two words.

(2007:8)

The above lexicographic data box was well presented but needed to be completed. The aspect of how the headword can be mistakenly misspelt needs to be considered.

mma: noun 1a/2b (pl. bomma): (my) mother. Mma o nthekeše diaparo tša marega. (*My mother bought me winter clothes.*)

The plural form **bomma** is also used as a term for respect.

(2007:138)

b. Context and pronunciation

In this section, the presentation of the lexicographic data box in the bilingual dictionary refers to it as an extension of the contextual guidance as the lexicographic boxes

provide the differentiations and clarifications between pronunciations and how contextual guidance relates to both headword and the translation equivalents.

bjalobjalo: (abbreviated form **bj.bj**): and so on; et cetera. Diruiwa ke dinku, dipere, dikgomo, dikolobe, bjalobjalo. (*Domestic animals include sheep, horses, cattles, pigs, et cetera.*)

(2007:17)

bj.bj: adverb. abbreviation of BJALOBJALO: etc. Sekolo se se tsebilwe ka dihlahlobo tša sona, mekgwa ya bana ba sona, bj.bj. This school is known for its exams, the behaviour of its learners, etc.

The abbreviation **bj.bj** is used only in writing and is always pronounced as bjalobjalo.

(2007:17)

kang: with what? how? O tla nkiša kang ka gore le paesekela ga o nayo? (How will you take me since you do not even have a bicycle?)

The abbreviation **bj.bj** is used only in writing and is always pronounced as bjalobjalo.

(2007:83)

c. Register

In this section, the presentation of lexicographic databoxes in the bilingual dictionary refers to the presentation of headwords that are linked to the register of either the SL in the XY-section or the SL in the YX section of the bilingual dictionary. It consists of the question particles, demonstratives, and offensives.

bomang pl. noun 1a/2b (sing. mang) 1. who? Batho bale ke bomang? (*Who are those people.*) 2. whose? Ditonki tšeo e be le tša bomang? (*Whose donkeys, are they?*)

The noun **bomang** is used mostly as a question word.

mašeleng pl. noun 9/6 (sing. šeleng) money. Re ka dira mašeleng a mantši ka tša boeti. (*We can make a lot of money from tourism.*)

The literal meaning of the word **mašeleng** is shillings, referring to the old monetary unit in South Africa. A shilling was worth 10 cents. Nowadays it is often used with the general meaning of money, or cents.

(2007:133)

naa question particle (marks interrogative sentences) Naa mongmošomo wa gago o dula kae? (Where does your boss live?)

The question particle **naa** can be added either at the beginning or at the end of the sentence to change a statement into a question.

(2007:163)

Leburu noun 5/6 (pl. Maburu) Afrikaner (*White Afrikaans-speaking person*) Ke kwele ka ga Leburu la go rekiša dipere tša gagwe ka moka. (*I heard of an Afrikaner who is selling all his horses.*)

The use of the word **Leburu** may be considered offensive.

(2007:106)

d. Relations

In this section, the presentation of lexicographic data boxes in the bilingual dictionary refers to the semantic, pragmatic, and social relations between the headwords and the translation equivalents in the SL culture in both XY- section and the YX-section of the bilingual dictionary. This includes relationships between different roles, and semantic relations.

thai¹ noun 9/10 (pl. dithai) riddle. Koko o re botša dithai ka mehla pele re robala. (My grandmother always asks us riddles before we go to sleep.)

The word **thai!** is also used to introduce a riddle when it is asked.

(2007: 223)

tate noun 1a/2b (pl.botate) father. Ke rata go thuša tate ka go mo dišetša dikgomo go fihlela a fola. (*I would like to help my father by hearing his cows until he gets well.*)

The plural form **botate** is also used as a term of respect.

(2007:220)

sehlare noun 7/8 (pl. dihlare) 1 medicine. O swanetše go nwa dihlare. (You must complete your course of medicine so that you can get better. 2. tree. Diphoofole ga di je makala a sehlare. (Wild animals do not eat the leaves of this tree.)

The noun **sehlare** is sometimes found without the prefix se-, thus as **hlare**.

(2007:207)

5.5. Conclusion

Chapter Five was the second and last chapter which analysed the data collected from the selected Northern Sotho – English bilingual dictionaries mentioned in Chapter Three. The chapter focused on meeting the third and last objective of the study. It has provided an assessment of the selected bilingual dictionaries towards the implementation of cross-referencing and the application of the reversibility principle and a touch on lexicographic boxes as a support component to the mediostucture. With the data analysed and interpreted, the study required to be concluded. The subsequent Chapter Six, is the conclusion of the study, meaning that the findings and the overall conclusion with the recommendations of the study and how can the study be utilised for future bilingual dictionary projects will be covered in the chapter.

CHAPTER SIX: FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

A study must be concluded to meet the research aim and objectives. Furthermore, it must recommend how the study can be used for future references, as mentioned in the significance of the study in Chapter One. This is the concluding chapter that outlines the preceding chapters' summary. The chapter further presents the findings of the study in detail. Furthermore, Chapter Six provides a comparative summary of findings between the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries towards meeting the study objectives. The chapter continues with a provision of recommendations that can be considered for ensuring that the presentation of the megastructure and mediostructure are presented appropriately and accurate. The chapter then concludes by outlining contributions that the study be considered and featured for and a conclusion.

6.2. Summary of Chapters

Chapter 1: General Introduction

The chapter introduced the topic and the magnitude of the problem. Furthermore, the chapter provided an in-depth background of the study (from the global and African to the local contexts) and what the researcher expected to achieve after the study. Chapter 1 also mentioned the aim of the study and its objectives. It explored a set of key questions that the study was able to address. Additionally, this chapter presented the scope of the study itself. The chapter concluded by outlining the significance of the study together with its limitations and delimitations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter two provided what other researchers and scholars have contributed to the school of thought and current discourse regarding the research topic. It identified and discussed (in-depth) the work or research that could have been conducted by scholars from global (International), African and local perspectives. Furthermore, the chapter then focused on the studies conducted by researchers and scholars about the analysis and presentation of both megastructure (macro- and microstructure) and mediostructure features in the selected bilingual dictionaries.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology and Theoretical Framework

Chapter three discussed the research methodology adopted when conducting the study and its significance. The chapter discussed the sampling technique adopted for the study. It further discussed how data will be collected and presented from the selected bilingual dictionaries. The chapter has also identified and discussed the theory in line with the study and how it has been featured in the study.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis: Analysis and Evaluation of the Megastructure, Macrostructure and Microstructure aspects

This chapter was the first part of the discussion of the data amassed. Chapter four focused on achieving the first two research objectives related to the megastructure of the three Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. The chapter touched on the analysis of the presented megastructure aspects in the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries, comparing the presentation of the front matter components that contain a brief information about the compilers of the bilingual dictionaries. The chapter analysed the macro- and microstructure components in reference to cotext and context.

Chapter 5: Data Analysis: Examining Cross-Referencing, Reversibility Principle and Lexicographic data boxes

This chapter was the second and last part of the discussion of the data collected. The chapter discussed the presentation of the mediostructure (cross-referencing), application of the Reversibility principle and the insertion and categorisation of Lexicographic data boxes in the abovementioned bilingual dictionaries. Chapter five with the aid of relevant literature, has managed to provide suggested presentation of how mediostructure can be implemented in bilingual dictionaries. Furthermore, the study also provided suggested presentations from the extracted ones towards ensuring that reversibility principle has been implemented in the bilingual dictionaries, with supportive microstructure components.

Chapter 6: Findings, Recommendations and Conclusions

This chapter was the last chapter of the study. Chapter six commenced with a summary of all the chapters of the study and what they entailed. With the support of relevant literature, the study outlined its findings and their effect on prospective the target users of the bilingual dictionaries. The chapter recommended how the existing problem should be addressed with innovative measures that align with the study's level. Then, the study is concluded on how it was initiated and its process to its completion.

6.3. Findings

The study focused on the analysis of the presentation of the megastructure and mediostructure aspects for the following Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries: Kriel’s Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994), Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) and Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007). The study unpacked the megastructure features of these bilingual dictionaries and then analysed the context and cotext features of the macro and microstructures of the selected bilingual dictionaries. Lastly, the study analysed the presentation of the mediostructure, the application of the reversibility principle and the presentation of the lexicographic data boxes. The researcher has analysed and interpreted the data collected in cognisance of the selected theory, the theory of Lexicographic Functions .

Mphasha (2013:184) asserts that contemporarily, trustworthy dictionaries are compiled by qualified employees, researchers, linguists, professional editors, and other competent individuals. The most important aspect, however, is to design the entire lexicographic process well before the compilation of a dictionary and ensure that all activities and details relevant to the planned dictionary have been adequately identified and addressed in formulating this lexicographic process. Therefore, prior engaging on the study’s findings, it is important that the study presents that the bilingual dictionaries used for the study were traditionally compiled. Furthermore, it would be of great benefit that the study presents the profiles of the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionary compilers. The following table presents the bilingual dictionary compilers profile:

Bilingual dictionary	Year of publication	Name and synopsis of the bilingual dictionary compilers	Native language of the compiler
Kriel’s Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary	1994	Dr TJ Kriel – A priest that was a missionary and was able to preach in Northern Sotho to the GaMphalele communities in Limpopo, South Africa. First edition in 1971	Afrikaans, English, and Northern Sotho
Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary	2004	Prof DJ Prinsloo and Dr BP Sathekge – African languages and Lexicography researchers	English, Afrikaans, and Northern Sotho
Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo	2007	Prof Gilles-Maurice de Schryver – Lexicographer researcher from Belgium and	English, and Northern Sotho

(School Dictionary)		Ms Mamokgabo Mogodi – Northern Sotho linguist	
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Table. 6.1.1 Compilers' Profile of the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. From the analysis and the interpretation of the data collected, the following were the findings of the study:

6.3.1. Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994)

6.3.1.1. Evaluation of the megastructural features:

a. Frontmatter

It is important that a bilingual dictionary presents a comprehensive front matter that would be a source of guidance to its prospective target users. The compilers of the bilingual dictionary have failed to meet the requirement on presenting a comprehensive front matter. According to Vrbinc & Vrbinc (2012:271) the title page, the copyright page and imprint, acknowledgements, the foreword or preface, the table of contents, the list of contributors, the list of abbreviations, labels, and codes used in the text and illustrations, the pronunciation key, the user's guide, and dictionary grammar are all examples of front matter. It may also provide articles on certain parts of language, such as language history, a feature that is heavily dependent on the market to which it is targeted. However, the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) has not presented any central list (macro/microstructure) information in the user-guide section. Furthermore, the presented target user guide needs to mention the functions of the bilingual dictionary and whether it is bilingual, monodirectional or bidirectional. It is a need that the front matter of the bilingual dictionary provides the target user with an 'expectation' of that they are bound to come across and how to use the bilingual dictionary.

There needs to be more guidance on how to use the bilingual dictionary, which tools were presented, and their function. In consideration to what Gouws (2011:31) states is that the intended target user's lexicographical demands and abilities must be determined before compiling any bilingual dictionary. The bilingual dictionary compilers have made little effort in providing guidance on how to use or expect in the bilingual dictionary. The desired target user profile should determine the macrostructural selection, the microstructural treatment of lemmas, and the addressing. Therefore, confusing issue about the Kriel's Popular

Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994), is that the target user guide mentions that the bilingual dictionary is meant for school learners (without mentioning which standards, grades, or phases). Furthermore, the user guide needs to mention how the bilingual dictionary will be incorporated into the teaching and learning process.

Lastly from the front matter, when considering the above-presented compiler's profile, the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) compilers are not native speakers of Northern Sotho. The compiler was a missionary that spoke and later had knowledge of the Northern Sotho orthography. The bilingual dictionary does not mention any Northern Sotho-speaking individual who assisted in the bilingual dictionary compilation process.

b. Central list

It is important to note that the macrostructure presentation of run-on entries is often ignored, and they are important to assist the target user with navigating the range of headwords presented in the bilingual dictionary. Meiner (2012) explains that all dictionaries use running heads (run-on entries) for the target user's better orientation within the dictionary itself. These are the words (or three or more initial characters of the words, depending on the length of the dictionary) located on the upper part of the pages. Therefore, are no run-on entries presented in the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994). This does not appear in a positive perspective on the compilers of the bilingual dictionary as they failed in presenting run-on entries. This makes it difficult for the prospective target user to identify the alphabetic sections of the bilingual dictionary. Also, the bilingual dictionary does not provide language combination indicators for the target user to understand which section they are perusing when looking for a particular headword.

When presenting a range of headwords, it is important that the bilingual dictionary compilers to consider niching the headwords. According to Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:65) mentions that the purpose of niching denotes a rigorous alphabetical grouping of headwords that may or may not be semantically linked. Niching denotes a grouping that defies strict alphabetical ordering norms to display morpho-semantic relationships between words. A straight alphabetical arrangement necessitates less effort from the target user. An ordering that allows for the inclusion of nested and niched clusters contributes to textual condensing. Therefore, in the X-Y section (Northern Sotho-English) of the Kriel's Popular Northern

Sotho Dictionary (1994) contains misrepresentations of headwords. The headwords at the beginning follow the alphabetical system for presenting headwords. However, there are a few distortions between headwords that starts with *s-* and *t-*. The headwords beginning with *s-* are mixed with headwords beginning with *š*, and headwords beginning with *ts-* are mixed with headwords beginning with *tš-*. Therefore, this confuses the retrieval process of headwords by the prospective target user.

The presentation of headwords is important as they assist the target user in determining which word, they will be looking for together with its translation equivalents. Furthermore, there needs to be a proper presentation of the macro-/microstructure of the bilingual dictionary. Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:12) concurs that the presentation of the headword and its translations are an essential component of the microstructure of a bilingual dictionary. The discovery of appropriate TL counterparts and their clear presentation are critical to the bilingual dictionary's success. A bilingual dictionary's main principle is deceptively simple: give counterparts for all senses of all headwords so that each equivalent has the same meaning as the sense it has been matched with. In the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) the presentation of both headwords and translation equivalents are separated by a comma. Therefore, the presentation will require clarification as to whether the target user should consider the headword as a list of the translation equivalents or whether the presentation forms part of the bolded headword. Moreover, Adamska-Sałaciak (2013:15) mentions that early bilingual dictionaries made no distinction between equivalents, instead listing them all together, separated only by commas. Later, in somewhat more ambitious publications, a distinction was adopted between a comma separating interchangeable counterparts and a semicolon separating equivalents that were not interchangeable. Several bilingual dictionaries still carry on this tradition.

Structural markers are poorly presented in Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994). The compilers have used the comma and the semi-colon haphazardly. When a headword has different translation equivalents, then each sense must be separated. When the different senses belong to different word classes or subclass, they must be indicated before the concerned sense. Therefore, the presentation of translation equivalents with contextual guidance that are not contextually presented will mislead the target users

(Shikesho,2019:111). It then brings confusion as to some translation equivalents that are not expected to be treated as synonymous senses but are separated by a comma. The same applies to translation equivalents that are not synonymous but separated by a comma.

The parts of speech are only presented based on differentiating translation equivalents (not all) as to how they can be featured as different parts of speech. According to Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:119) target users usually require orthographic assistance, and their bilingual dictionaries' consulting technique is limited to locating the headword and getting the relevant spelling information from the lemma sign. Therefore, if the lexical item presented as a lemma contains spelling variations, the comment on the pattern can additionally allow further spelling instruction. However, these parts of speech in the X-Y section of the dictionary are presented in English than in Northern Sotho.

Contextual guidance is the fundamental microstructure aspect that guides the prospective target user on how to use the translation equivalent. Letsoalo (2012:16) alludes that the presentation of contextual guidance assists the bilingual dictionary target user understand the translation equivalents before selecting the most appropriate one. Contextual guidance operates conjunctively with structural markers to ensure a correct understanding of the entries in a bilingual dictionary. Therefore, the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) does not have contextual guidance.

c. Back matter

has no back matter.

6.3.1.2. Evaluation of the macro-/microstructural features of context and context:

Considering that the presentation of the macro-/microstructure in the bilingual dictionary requires the consideration of both linguistic (cotext) and the physical (contextual) environments, it is important that the bilingual dictionary accommodates both environments to ensure clarity on how to use the translation equivalent amongst other microstructure aspects. Shikesho (2019:111) postulates that the presentation of translation equivalent requires improvement, this affects other microstructural features that are attached to the translation equivalent itself, such as contextual guidance, which its presentation will require

improvement as well. Due to the improper presentation of structural markers, the presentation of headwords and translation equivalents is not contextualised in the Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994). Therefore, that results in the target users selecting translation equivalents haphazardly without being guided on the context of the translation equivalent itself. Furthermore, the inadequacies in presenting the parts of speech make the contextualisation difficult to comprehend, as the absence of the parts of speech does not indicate the relationship between the translation equivalent and the headword.

6.3.1.3. Inaccuracy on presentation of mediostructure and application of the reversibility principle:

In consideration of economising space and ensuring that there is no repetition of headwords, it is important to implement cross-referencing in the microstructure of the bilingual dictionary. Yong & Peng (2008:100) mention that cross-references serve the purpose of conserving space, preventing needless duplication of information in multiple locations, and directing the user to where further relevant information is offered, assuring the greatest utility of the dictionary's space and content. The bilingual dictionary does not have any cross-references in place. Therefore, this makes Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) have an unnecessary and extended presentation of headwords and translation equivalents that can be considered a repetition. For example, plural and singular headwords are given full comprehensive treatment.

With the application of the reversibility principle, there is relatively low evidence of this. Most headwords and translation equivalents expected to apply the reversibility principle either need to be presented in either of the sections or are just one of the listed translation equivalents. Mothiba (2014:77) asserts that if one looks at the field of bilingual lexicography for the Bantu languages, one sees that the X-Y side of bidirectional bilingual dictionaries has so far always been compiled independently from the Y-X side. This is due to the need for more intertextuality between the presentation of headwords and translation equivalents in the bilingual dictionaries' X-Y and Y-X sections.

6.3.2. Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004)

6.3.2.1. Evaluation of the megastructural features:

a. Frontmatter

It is important that the front matter guides and informs the target user about the bilingual dictionary project itself, this would increase the chances of the target user being reliant on the bilingual dictionary for reference purposes. With what has been found by the study, there is inadequate information presented in the front matter of the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) about its compilation project, apart from the fact that the bilingual dictionary was set to improve Kriel's 1976 dictionary (Not to be confused with the 1994 edition.) It is for the same reason Yong & Peng (2008:87) mentions that modern bilingual dictionaries intend to perform many more roles than their predecessors. As a result, there is a growing recognition of the significance of training the intended user on making the greatest and most complete use of the dictionary information and functionalities given.

Gouws et al. (2014:8) mention that the front matter section discusses the individual contents of the bilingual dictionary, not just the basic list, and example pages from the various texts are used to show and explain the contribution and purpose of these documents. This explanation is given in two languages: the target language of the bilingual dictionary and English. As the first bilingual dictionary that many target users encounter, they must receive proper advice. The presented how-to-use guide of the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) has very limited information about the bilingual dictionaries macro-/microstructural features that are already presented within the central list itself, such as parts of speech (n., v., adj., etc.), Contextual words (not to be confused with contextual guidance), and the presentation of structural markers. It entails guidance for what the target user can expect in the Y-X section more than what the target user can expect in the X-Y section. However, when providing the information, it is only presented in English, and there is no Northern Sotho translation.

b. Central list

Run-on entries guide the target user towards ensuring that they locate the headword that they will be looking for in the bilingual dictionary. According to Fonetelle (2015:48) the presentation of run-on entries assists especially the knowledgeable bilingual dictionary target user as part of the rapid access structure of the bilingual dictionary. There are no run-on entries are presented in both the X-Y and Y-X sections of the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004).

The presentation of the headwords in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) follows the general alphabetic system. Moreover, Adamska-Salaciak (2013:4) mentions that the organisation of bilingual dictionaries is primarily semasiological, based on the (written) form of the headword. As a result, the arrangement of items in languages with alphabetical writing systems follows the sequence of the alphabet. Each entry is organised around a specific lexical item (the headword) and provides the meanings (senses) the lexical item can represent. Most people envision this type of reference book when considering bilingual dictionaries. However, some alphabetic sections were distorted, as some headwords that start with special diacritics (*š-* and *tš-*) are mixed in the normal flow of headwords that start with either s- or t-.

The parts of speech are not presented in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) to provide information about the headword but the translation equivalents. According to Mafela (2014), indigenous African languages' pronunciation of words and orthography differs from those used by languages such as English and French. It would be difficult for target users of the indigenous African language to understand the pronunciation of words and the orthography if this aspect is not explained in the users' style guide of the bilingual dictionary. Furthermore, most of the headwords in the bilingual dictionary are not allocated parts of speech.

There is an improper presentation of the structural markers in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004). Imbayarwo (2008:29) asserts that structural indicators (markers) should be included in the bilingual dictionary's conceptualisation plan because of their important role in aiding the identification of search areas and the successful retrieval of information. This is evident failure to present structural markers as a comma and not a semi-colon separates some headwords not used synonymously. Also, some of the translation equivalents that are used synonymously are separated with a semi-colon.

There are contextual words presented in Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) which cannot be considered contextual guidance. These contextual words are presented at some presentations but only to a selected few. Hence Prinsloo (2020:589) opines that the lack in dictionaries for advice in "text production" scenarios is one of the key

weaknesses in African language lexicography. Most bilingual dictionaries barely meet the demands of its target users for decoding or "on demand" use of bilingual dictionaries.

c. Back matter

The Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) has no back matter.

6.3.2.2. Evaluation of the macro-/microstructural features of context and cotext:

Gouws (2011:34) indicates that one of the primary goals of a learner's dictionary is to assist the target user achieve a specific level of communicative proficiency. By developing a well-motivated macrostructure, the lexicographer understands that the target user should be able to discover the most common words in the target language. Yet, communication competence is based on much more than a good lemma choice. The presentation of headwords and translation equivalents must be contextualised according to their physical and linguistic environment. This practice has distorted the meaning in the presentation of some translation equivalents, as they do not share syntactic (cotext) and semantic (context) relations with the headwords. This applies to both the X-Y and the Y-X sections of the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004).

Without contextual guidance, it can be considered challenging to establish the relation between the headword and the translation equivalents. According to Imbayarwo (2008:74) the presentation of contextual guidance can be perceived as a scenario where guide words follow every translation equivalent. These words assist towards emphasising the meaning or equivalence or show the bilingual dictionary target user how and in what context either the headword or translation equivalents can be used. Therefore, the already presented contextual words in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) which pose as contextual guidance, do not provide the relation but distinguish the grammatical differences only to selected headwords.

6.3.2.3. Inaccuracy on the presentation of the mediostructure and the application of the reversibility principle:

Cross-referencing is not presented in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004). This has resulted in a repetition of translation equivalents. According to Nkomo (2007:374) when the compiler of the bilingual dictionary strives for the dictionary to be user-

friendly, great care must be considered in the creation of a mediostructure. This concerns the presentation of reference markers and their purported functions. The study has identified this occurrence that the headwords that are presented in the plural form and the headwords that can be considered synonymous senses or contextually related are the biggest contributors to this form of repetition. Some of these repetitions still need to present contextual words.

The reversibility principle has yet to be implemented in the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004). Bilingual dictionaries must coordinate between two languages and cater to the demands of native speakers of one or both languages (Yong & Peng, 2008:106). Most headwords are presented in the X-Y (Northern Sotho-English) section as translation equivalents but need to be presented as headwords in the Y-X (English-Northern Sotho) section of the bilingual dictionary. This results in difficulty in finding or locating corresponding headwords and translation equivalents. For example, the reversibility principle still needs to be implemented on translation equivalents and Northern Sotho headwords. Especially concepts that are two or three words that make up a single translation equivalent when combined.

6.3.3. Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007)

6.3.3.1. Evaluation of the megastructural features:

a. Frontmatter

The Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has about 14 pages (including the table of contents), which can be considered the front matter of the bilingual dictionary. Contemporary title pages of bilingual dictionaries often include merely the book's title, author(s), publisher, and, in some cases, publication date. Consequently, there subsists no standard procedure for arranging functional text parts. It follows that if functional text parts of the front matter are arbitrary, then the front matter of different bilingual dictionaries may host different text types according to the genuine purpose of the bilingual dictionary (Imbayerwo, 2008:32). Some illustrations guide the target users in identifying specific dictionary features extracted from the X-Y and Y-X sections of the bilingual dictionary. Some features identified and discussed are language combinations, run-on entries, parts

of speech, plural and singular forms, translation equivalents and contextual guidance. However, it does not provide any information about the functions of the structural markers. Furthermore, the bilingual dictionary entails a guide that is meant for the prospective target users. This guide (which has been presented in both Northern Sotho and English) has provided the information in full that the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) is meant for school learners and aims to be used as a resource for the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) which ended in 2013.

b. Central list

The Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has both macrostructural features that are well presented, which are the headwords and the run-on entries. Prinsloo (2020:588) mentions that lexicographers should offer the target users lexicographic inclusivity and display the information so that they can locate and comprehend what they are searching for in the bilingual dictionary. It is important for a bilingual dictionary to indicate or provide directive in relation to the alphabetical range of headwords. However, the run-on entries are not presented on the first page of each alphabetical section. This has been applied in the bilingual dictionary's X-Y and Y-X sections. Therefore, when coming to the presentation of headwords, the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has also mixed the presentation of headwords with special diacritics in the X-Y section with the normal headwords that follow the normal alphabetic system. (*s*- with *š*- and *t*- with *tš*-).

The parts of speech have been presented well in the bilingual dictionary; however, they have yet to be presented by the language used to present the headword in the section. Gouws & Prinsloo (2005:119) allude to the fact that target users usually require orthographic assistance, and their bilingual dictionaries' consulting technique is limited to locating the headword and getting the relevant spelling information from the lemma sign. If the lexical item presented as a lemma contains spelling variations, the comment on the pattern can additionally allow further spelling instruction. For instance, the parts of speech presented in the X-Y sections of the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) are expected to be presented in Northern Sotho, unlike in the Y-X section, where the translation equivalents are expected to be presented in English. The issue is that the parts

of speech in the bilingual dictionary, regardless of the section, have been presented in English.

The bilingual dictionary compilers have successfully managed to present both translation equivalents and structural markers. Moreover, Ramusi (2020) asserts that the presentation of translation of headwords is the most important part of bilingual dictionaries. The presentation of translation equivalents determines the user-friendliness of the bilingual dictionary. However, the presentation of structural markers in the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) remains an ongoing issue as a semi-colon separates some translation equivalents, whereas they share the same contextual meaning. Furthermore, when coming to the presentation of contextual guidance, the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has contextual guidance presented for every translation equivalent attached to its relevant headword.

b. Back matter

The bilingual dictionary is divided into two back matters: the central back matter and the main back matter.

The central back matter pertains to the general information that the target user can expect to be presented in the back matter of a monolingual dictionary. The information presented has its table of contents with the following topics: functions of a dictionary, how to compose a formal letter and email, composing an informal letter, examples of irregular verbs, Northern Sotho pronunciation, punctuation, spelling, and lastly, English punctuation and spelling. The information presented in this section is expected to be presented at the beginning of the main back matter. Lexicographically, the issue of the central back matter does not exist. Some sections entail quizzes within that central back matter, and Northern Sotho notes are presumably presented to validate the grammar issue.

The main back matter, named the reference section, consists of the information meant to meet the basic educational needs of the target user. The section pertains to demographic, mathematical, geographic, agricultural, and basic biological information. This information has been presented in both illustrations and pictorials. The section ends with the quizzes' answers presented in the central back matter.

It was good intention that the information presented in the central back matter should have been presented on the space in which the main back matter is presented. The information in the main back matter should have formed part of the contextual guidance in the central list. Some contextual guidance requires such pictorials to clarify and understand the target users.

Some information presented in the central back matter can be considered a repetition or continuation of what was presented in the front matter. Such information is the functions and use of the Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007). This information has been over-emphasised in this bilingual dictionary. Therefore, there was no need for a central back matter.

6.3.1.2. Evaluation of the macro-/microstructural features of context and cotext:

The presentation of run-on entries that are headwords presented as expressions could be better presented. A headword presented with an expression loses its meaning and relationship with its translation equivalents if not presented with the relevant punctuation mark.

The bilingual dictionary has successfully attempted to address issues of context and cotext. About cotext, there are parts of speech for every headword presented, and the dictionary has managed to present how the different translation equivalents can be changed into other parts of speech. Furthermore, the parts of speech are only presented in English for both the X-Y and Y-X sections of the bilingual dictionary. At the same time, there are notes about the different parts of speech in Northern Sotho translated into English. The notes also entail how to identify them.

Some of the presentations of headwords and translation equivalents require derivations to make the target user understand the reason behind the presentation of the headword and translation equivalents. It also amplifies the context and cotextual relationships between the presentations.

The bilingual dictionary has contextual guidance presented in both English and Northern Sotho. However, the contextual guidance is presented as sentences and some require pictorials, and some of this contextual guidance does not correlate in both X-Y and Y-X sections. This is due to the misrepresentation of translation equivalents and some of the sentences needing to be more in context. Contextual guidance should be presented as simple sentences, and some of these sentences are excessively long.

6.3.1.3. Inaccuracy on cross-referencing and reversibility principles:

The Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007) has evidence of cross-reference, especially in the plural section. According to Yong & Peng (2008:100), the presentation of cross-references serves the purpose of conserving space, preventing needless duplication of information in multiple locations, and directing the user to where further relevant information is offered, assuring the greatest utility of the dictionary's space and content. For example, the b-, d-, and m- alphabetic sections include most cross-referenced plural presentations.

Furthermore, the singular presentations of the headwords are given comprehensive treatment. The cross-references in the bilingual dictionary are only presented in the plural and singular forms. Still, no cross-references are based on the context of either the headword or the translation equivalents. This results in multiple presentations of headwords that are given a similar comprehensive treatment. The reference marker used for cross-referencing has been used without considering the target user's language, which is Northern Sotho. The bilingual dictionary uses the word SEE, which could have been fairly applied in the Y-X section of the bilingual dictionary. The word which could have been used for the cross-referencing presentation in the X-Y section of the dictionary should be BONA. The bilingual dictionary has evidence of implementing the reversibility principle. Mothiba (2014:20) mentions that a bilingual dictionary can be considered bidirectional if it consists of two parts, one running from the source language to the target language and the other in the reverse direction. However, the presentation does not cover certain headwords and translation equivalents of specific scientific, biological, and writing categories.

6.3.4 Summary of Findings

The following grid presents the summary of the findings of the study:

Findings criteria 1	Evaluation of the structure and design of the megastructural features		
Bilingual Dictionary	Kriel (1994)	Pharos (2004)	Oxford (2007)
1. The Front matter, central list, and back matter of the bilingual dictionary have been presented.	Yes, but there is no comprehensive front and back matter.	Yes, but there is no comprehensive front and back matter.	Yes, but there needs to be more information on the front and back matters.
2. Presentation of the macrostructural features.	Yes, but there are no run-on entries and the spacing between the headword and the translation equivalents is separated by a comma. There is a misrepresentation of headwords in the X-Y section, starting with s- and š, t- and tš-.	Yes, but there are no run-on entries to guide the target user about the alphabetic presentation of the headwords. There is a misrepresentation of headwords in the X-Y section, starting with s- and š, t- and tš-.	Yes, but no run-on entries are presented on the first page of each alphabetic section. There is a misrepresentation of headwords in the X-Y section, starting with s- and š, t- and tš-.
2. Presentation of the microstructural features.	No, only translation equivalents. Parts of speech, plural and singular forms and contextual guidance are not presented. Improper usage of structural markers	No, only translation equivalents. Parts of speech, plural and singular forms and contextual guidance are not presented. Improper usage of structural markers	Yes, Parts of speech, plural and singular forms, translation equivalents and contextual guidance are presented. Contextual guidance requires pictorials and illustrations. Improper usage of structural markers

Findings criteria 2	Evaluation of the macro-/microstructural features of cotext and context		
Bilingual Dictionary	Kriel (1994)	Pharos (2004)	Oxford (2007)

1. Presentation of headwords with expressions	The dictionary has headwords presented as expressions, with the relevant punctuation mark indicating the context.	The dictionary has headwords presented as expressions, with the relevant punctuation mark indicating the context.	There is the presentation of headwords that are expressions but do not have the relevant punctuation marks to indicate or be considered expressions. The punctuation mark only appears in the presented contextual guidance.
2. Presentation of the parts of speech and derivations to outline the context.	Parts of speech are only presented for specific translation equivalents and not for headwords.	Parts of speech are only presented for a specific translation equivalent, not headwords.	Parts of speech are presented for headwords and translation equivalents to show context.
2. Presentation of the translation equivalents with relevant structural markers to outline the context.	A comma was presented mostly as a structural marker, and then a semi-colon was least presented. This has been applied to polysemous senses as well.	There is a haphazard presentation of structural markers, and they need to outline the context for each translation equivalent.	Structural markers need to be more adequately presented. No contextual relations are outlined for the translation equivalents, especially with synonymous senses.
Presentation of the contextual guidance to outline the context of the translation equivalent.	No contextual guidance was presented	No contextual guidance was presented.	Contextual guidance is presented, but it does not outline the contextual relation between the headword and the translation equivalents.

Findings criteria 3	Implementation and presentation of cross-referencing and reversibility principle.		
Bilingual Dictionary	Kriel (1994)	Pharos (2004)	Oxford (2007)
1. Presentation of cross-referencing	No cross-referencing was presented.	No cross-referencing was presented.	Cross-referencing presented. However, the presentation only applied to plural and singular concepts.

2. Presented word to indicate cross-referencing	No cross-referencing was presented.	No cross-referencing was presented.	Cross-referencing is presented, with only one English word used to indicate cross-referencing in both the X-Y and Y-X sections, which is SEE. There is no Northern Sotho word to indicate cross-referencing.
2. Usage of the reversibility principle	There is a partial implementation of the reversibility principle. Most translation equivalents presented in the Y-X section as headwords should be presented in the X-Y section as translation equivalents.	There is a partial implementation of the reversibility principle. Most translation equivalents presented in the Y-X section as headwords should be presented in the X-Y section as translation equivalents.	There is a partial implementation of the reversibility principle. Most translation equivalents presented in the Y-X section under specific themes, such as technology, health and science, should be presented as headwords in the X-Y section.

Table 6.1.2 The findings criterion of the study.

From the findings of the study, the following can be identified:

Considering that the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries were traditionally compiled and aimed at a particular range of target users, which are school learners. From the compilers' profile, it can be identified that majority of the bilingual dictionary compilers are not native Northern Sotho speakers and yet they were able to compile Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries. Therefore, it indicates that only limited number of native Northern Sotho speakers were involved in the compilation process.

From the presented findings, it can be identified that both Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho dictionary (1994) and Pharos Popular Northern Sotho dictionary (2004) presents the same set of issues in relation to the presentation megastructure features. Although, there is an improvement in the central list of the Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004), this

is due to the reason that the production and the need for bilingual dictionaries as the period were on the rise and it was compiled by academics that are prominent for uplifting South African Lexicography, particularly Northern Sotho lexicography. However, majority of microstructure aspects and the application of the medistrucre is nowhere in sight for both bilingual dictionaries.

However, when coming to Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007), the bilingual dictionary has rather unique set of findings. The compilation team consisted of both European and a native Northern Sotho speaker, the collaboration has turned out to be successful in meeting of the megastructure features. Considering that European and Asian lexicography has more influence on the direction that South African lexicography is taking. Hence Prinsloo (2020:586) asserts that dictionaries for African languages require higher lexicographic quality. The major argument provided was that existing bilingual dictionaries were Euro-centric. Foreign missionaries largely developed them to help them achieve their aims, namely, to help missionaries learn African languages to proclaim the gospel (introduction of Christianity). As a result, such bilingual dictionaries were never meant to fulfil the requirements of Africans, because they never possessed the culture that is imbedded in the African language. Furthermore, it can be easily concluded that both compilers of the bilingual dictionary had thorough exposure of lexicography as a discipline and have received training. For a target user without substantive knowledge of lexicography would easily conclude that the bilingual dictionary has went all out to meet the needs of its target users.

All three selected Northern Sotho bilingual dictionaries have proven that there was no thorough engagement with the Northern Sotho speaking communities concerning how to present specific headwords relating to culture, grammar, and even going further to provide non-verbal information to improve the bilingual dictionaries. In South Africa, the development of bilingual dictionaries for South African languages has expanded positively as the industry has grown over the past few years. The Department of Arts, Culture, Science, and Technology drafted the National Lexicography Units Bill in 1995. (DACST). This bill was designed to enable the establishment and administration of National Lexicography Units (NLUs) to provide equal provisions for each of South Africa's official

languages. These NLUs may help to preserve South Africa's linguistic diversity in all its forms (Mongwe, 2006:35). Therefore, it would have been relevant if these compilers could have consulted statutory language bodies in South Africa (especially the compilers for Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) and Oxford Pukuntšu ya Sekolo (School Dictionary) (2007).

6.4. Recommendations and reflection of the theoretical framework

The presentation of the recommendations of the study is in line with the application of the theory of Lexicographic Functions. Fuertes-Olivera & Tarp (2014:59) mention that the function theory, as described, is most useful above all when it comes to designing dictionary concepts and determining the specific data categories to be included in a specific dictionary project. However, it goes beyond abstract categorisation, being likewise concerned with giving content to these categories (communicative, cognitive, operative, and interpretive) and providing methods and specific guidance to select the required data and prepare this for the users of specific dictionaries. Furthermore, the recommendations of the study will be in manner that it responds to the research questions as stated from chapter one.

The study proposes that the presentation of megastructure features in the bilingual dictionary should be comprehensive as to meet the needs of the target user. That can be done by ensuring that future bilingual dictionary projects present precise and relevant information on how to use the bilingual dictionary in both languages used in the bilingual dictionary. However, considering that the front matter should not consume a lot of space in the bilingual dictionary. The intention of implementing such is to ensure that the bilingual dictionary meets the communicative category (text production, translation and reception) of the function theory and assures the target user that the bilingual dictionary is user-friendly and comprehensive for their educational level.

The study recommends that the bilingual dictionary compilers should consider consulting the relevant communities or linguistic bodies prior the presentation of macro-/microstructure aspects. This avoids the incorrect presentation of translation equivalents, contextual guidance and other microstructure aspects. The intention of implementing the consultation prior consultation is to avoid the repetition of the incorrect presentation of

lexical items in the existing bilingual dictionaries. By doing so, the bilingual dictionary will fulfil the aspects for the communicative category (text production, translation and reception) of the theory of Lexicographic Functions. Furthermore, the study recommends that bilingual dictionary compilers must consider the manner in which the study has analysed both the megastructure and medistrucre features (Chapter Four and Five) to improve and modify the upcoming bilingual dictionary projects.

When considering the issues of cotext and context in both micro-/microstructure aspects of the bilingual dictionary, it is important to ensure that the presentation of both concepts is always balanced. Initially, when coming to macrostructure aspects, contents such as run-on entries and headwords must be presented to provide cognitive guidance to the prospective target user. The presentation includes the alphabetical allocation of sections just like how run-on entries and headwords are presented in monolingual dictionaries. Furthermore, the presentation of run-on entries and headwords must be presented alphabetically, considering that some languages have letters with diacritics. This is to ensure that the prospective target user does not struggle in implementing their cognitive skills when utilising the bilingual dictionary.

The presentation of microstructural aspects is important in the compilation of bilingual dictionaries. The bilingual dictionary compilers must ensure that bilingual dictionaries must contain the presentation of grammatical elements that are attached to either the headword or the translation equivalents. This gives the target user the idea of when and how to use the translation equivalent or headword. Furthermore, the presentation of translation equivalents must be separated by the appropriate structural marker that would make the target user have an idea of how the translation equivalents are synonymous or polysemous. The presentation of translation equivalents must be attached to their appropriate contextual guidance. Furthermore, considering that the presentation of pictorials is not supported by most bilingual dictionaries, the study proposes that the presentation of pictorials must either alternate with the sentence form of the contextual guidance or both must be presented when the presentation of translation equivalents requires non-verbal clarification. It is important to note that those bilingual dictionaries serve different target users that perceive information differently. Therefore, the study recommends that future bilingual dictionaries

consider compiling bilingual dictionaries with the mandate of meeting both communicative and cognitive needs of the target users.

Considering that it is important that when compiling dictionaries, the lexicographers must always consider presenting mediostructure, with the intention of establishing a series of networking between lexical items that are synonymous, plural or under the same grammatical category. However, it is important that the very same bilingual dictionary compilers must not forget to be linguistically inclusive on how they present reference markers. This is to assure that the bilingual dictionary meets the operational category of the theory of Lexicographic Functions . For example, the suggested presentation in chapter Five, proposed that the presentation of reference markers could use BONA in the X-Y section and use SEE in the Y-X section of the bilingual dictionary. The target user will be able to interpret information for the reference position till the reference address.

When coming to issues associated with the application of reversibility principle, it is important that bilingual dictionary compilers consider that because that is how target users will be able to comprehend that how languages can share the same network of linguistic categories. Furthermore, it provides the bilingual dictionary compiler the assurance that the both the presentation of headwords and translation equivalents is balanced, and the bilingual dictionary is user-friendly. The intention for bilingual dictionary compilers to implement this is to ensure that the bilingual dictionary fulfills the interpretive category of the theory of Lexicographic Functions . Meaning that the target users can comprehend the networking of macro-/microstructure aspects between the two languages used in the bilingual dictionary.

The big question is what happens to the existing bilingual dictionaries? The selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries should be used to equip target users with basic phonological skills and how to pronounce some of the headwords or translation equivalents. This is because bilingual dictionaries such as Kriel's Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (1994) and Pharos Popular Northern Sotho Dictionary (2004) still use the Northern Sotho phonological vowel structure to educate the target users on pronunciations.

6.5. Contribution of the study to the field of research

With the evidence provided in chapters 4 and 5, this study can be used as an assessment tool for bilingual dictionary user-friendliness. New and upcoming bilingual dictionary projects can refer to this study to explore the contemporary components of ensuring that a bilingual dictionary remains user-friendly. The study can add to the few South African lexicographic materials focusing on African languages and English bilingual dictionaries. This can be identified as the study outlines some dictionary functions and uses. Moreover, the study contributes as a guide to the knowledge of the current and upcoming language practitioners to take huge cognisance when using the already published Northern Sotho–English bilingual dictionaries. Also, not all African bilingual dictionaries have adequate features to ensure they are user-friendly and reliable for translation.

The study has the potential to influence language researchers that lexicography is a researchable field and contributes to almost every linguistic field. This is because the study has touched on some linguistic fields and how they use their knowledge of their linguistics fields and contribute to the production of dictionaries. i.e., semantics, morphology, and onomastics.

6.6. Conclusion

As Chapter One mentions, a bilingual dictionary is a roadmap to our languages to navigate how words are used, meanings and translations in everyday lives and cultures. Chapter Six outlined the study's findings in detail; these were presented as per the analysis of the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries and each research objective conducted in Chapters Four and Five. After that, the chapter presented a comparative summary of the findings between the selected Northern Sotho-English bilingual dictionaries and carried on providing recommendations thrown up by the study conducted. The chapter has provided recommendations that can be considered to ensure the presentation of a comprehensive megastructure and mediostructure aspects. It lastly alluded to what contributions the study has made in this field.

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ANEXTURE A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



Mr John-Kent Makoetja Ramusi (██████████)
School Of Arts
Howard College

Dear Mr John-Kent Makoetja Ramusi,

Original application number: 00017584

Project title: AN ANALYSIS OF THE MEDIOSTRUCTURE FOR KRIEL, PHAROS, AND OXFORD NORTHERN SOTHO-ENGLISH BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

Exemption from Ethics Review

In response to your application received on 04 July 2022, your school has indicated that the protocol has been granted **EXEMPTION FROM ETHICS REVIEW**.

Any alteration/s to the exempted research protocol, e.g., Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through an amendment/modification prior to its implementation. The original exemption number must be cited.

For any changes that could result in potential risk, an ethics application including the proposed amendments must be submitted to the relevant UKZN Research Ethics Committee. The original exemption number must be cited.

In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE:

Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours sincerely,

██████████

Dr Katherine Elizabeth Arbuckle
Academic Leader Research
School Of Arts

UKZN Research Ethics Office
Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Website: <http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/>

Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

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