AFRILEX-ALASA 2009
Conference Book

AFRILEX 2009
14th Annual International Conference of the African Association for Lexicography
6-8 July 2009

ALASA 2009
15th Biennial International Conference of the African Language Association of Southern Africa
8-10 July 2009

Xhosa Department, University of the Western Cape, Bellville, Cape Town, South Africa

edited by
Gilles-Maurice de Schryver
&
Bertie Neethling
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A Few Words from the Xhosa Department

Welcome to the 14th Annual International Conference of the African Association for Lexicography, as well as the 15th Biennial International Conference of the African Language Association of Southern Africa. These two conferences are amongst the most important events on the calendar for academics working in the field of African languages and by presenting the two conferences back-to-back in the busiest conference time of the year for South African academics, many will be able to attend both instead of having to choose between the two due to financial and time constraints.

AFRILEX 2009 takes place from Monday 6 until Wednesday 8 July 2009 and once again attracts lexicographers not only from South Africa, but from all over Africa and the rest of the world. It is an opportunity for those interested in studying the lexicon of a language and developers of dictionaries to get together and to compare notes. Those who attend AFRILEX will also be able to visit the home of The eXe-Files, which is the corpus of the Xhosa language in its written form that is being developed by the Xhosa department at UWC under the leadership of Gilles-Maurice de Schryver from Ghent University, in Belgium, and Professor Extraordinaire in the Xhosa department. This corpus will enable the department to undertake various corpus-driven research projects in years to come.

ALASA 2009 takes place from Wednesday 8 until Friday 10 July 2009. The African Language Association of Southern Africa is a structure within which people from different fields of interest from the broad spectrum of language matters can share knowledge and ideas. It spans across linguistic, cultural and national borders and has a truly global membership. The international conferences of ALASA therefore create a multilingual mini-cosmos for a few days every other year where like-minded people meet to focus on the crucial issues they spend their time, skills and energy on. This year’s theme, ‘African Languages in a Multilingual World’, is broad, as are the fields that are covered, because African languages are part of real life for millions in a large continent. Many individuals who are not strictly speaking ‘language people’ find this conference a convenient place to meet others with whom they share common interests, and long-term working partnerships often start here.

In times of global financial recession it is difficult to find sufficient resources for all one would like to have. It is therefore necessary to focus one’s efforts on activities that may have a meaningful outcome. Even more than ever before, research into dictionaries and language as part of the identity of human beings, language rights and policy, language development, and language as a tool for communication, skills development and participation in all human enterprise is a worthy activity.

We would like to thank our sponsors, our three major patrons in particular: the NRF, PanSALB, and NB Publishers, as well as all other sponsors who contributed in various ways to these conferences, many of whom are displaying their latest publications and products throughout the conferences — please visit them: Cambridge University Press, CTexT, K Dictionaries (Israel), Menha Publishers (Uganda), Pharos Dictionaries, Oxford University Press Southern Africa, Maskew Miller Longman, Translate.org.za, and TshwaneDJe HLT.

True to the spirit of the Western Cape Province’s vision of ‘A Home For All’, the Xhosa department at the University of the Western Cape wishes to welcome delegates to AFRILEX-
ALASA 2009. Make yourselves at home, or, as the Xhosa saying goes: *Khulula ibhatyi yakho* – take off your jacket and with it all formality that would make you act like a stranger.

We hope that AFRILEX-ALASA 2009 will provide you with opportunities to meet old and new friends and colleagues, new ideas and understanding, and fresh inspiration to return to your place of work.

Alet van Huyssteen

(on behalf of the Xhosa department)
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A Few Words from the Xhosa Department

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**Will Translators Use Your Dictionary?**<br>Friedel Wolff & Dwayne Bailey<br>Translate.org.za, SA

**Looking Beyond Meaning in the Advanced Ndebele Dictionary**<br>Langa Khumalo<br>University of KwaZulu-Natal, SA

**Affirming a Role for Specialised Dictionaries in Indigenous African Languages, with Special Reference to Zimbabwe and South Africa**<br>Dion Nkomo<br>University of Stellenbosch, SA & University of Cape Town, SA

**Problems Related to Lexicographic User Research**<br>Sven Tarp<br>Aarhus University, Denmark
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**Linkie Kganyago**  
Parliament, SA  
Categorising Example Sentences for Research Purposes  
**Lorna Hiles**  
University of Stellenbosch, SA |
| 18:00       | CLOSURE                                                               |

**Wednesday 8 July 2009**

Special Keynote Address

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<td><strong>Prof. Brian O’Connell</strong>, Rector and Vice-Chancellor of the University of the Western Cape, addresses the delegates of AFRILEX 2009 &amp; ALASA 2009</td>
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*Proscription, prescription, description – Part 1*  
Presented by Henning Bergenholtz, Sven Tarp & Rufus Gouws |
| 11:00–11:25 | Tea                                                                    |
| 11:30–12:55 | AFRILEX Workshop 2  
*Proscription, prescription, description – Part 2*  
Presented by Henning Bergenholtz, Sven Tarp & Rufus Gouws  
ALASA Workshop 1  
*The Role of African Languages in Education*  
Presented by Vic Webb (CentRePoL, UP) and PRAESA |
| 13:00–13:55 | Lunch                                                                  |
| 14:00–15:55 | ALASA Workshop 2  
*Alternative Perspectives on Language and the Politics of Identity*  
Presented by Felix Banda (UWC) et al. |
| 16:00–16:25 | Tea                                                                    |
| 16:45–17:45 | ENTERTAINMENT                                                         |
| 18:00       | JOINT AFRILEX-ALASA CONFERENCE DINNER                                  |
AFRILEX 2009 Keynote Papers

Mono- and Polyfunctional Dictionaries

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Aarhus University, Denmark

Envoy: “A dictionary is a tool. Most dictionaries are constructed as polyfunctional tools: A dictionary is a dictionary or a dictionary is to be used by everyone for every kind of communicative and cognitive problem. Normal tools are not polyfunctional. If you go to a shop and ask for a saw, you have to specify first what you are going to saw: a big three or a small piece of plywood. You will be offered a monofunctional saw. A good tool is a tool conceived for a certain function and for a certain user group for certain needs. This paper will argue for the need of dictionary conceptions for monofunctional dictionaries.”

Dictionary Culture and the Challenges of Marketing and Distributing Lexicographic Products in Southern Africa: The Case of Botswana

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One of the major concerns of the lexicographer, for which s/he needs to plan, right from the inception of the lexicographic project, is the marketing and distribution of the final product. Prior to undertaking the project, the lexicographer will have to carry out a needs analysis / assessment, to determine whether or not the commodity s/he has in mind is really in demand in the target population. This is part of the strategic planning that is an important preliminary to any lexicographic project (cf. Hartman 1989: 103). Dictionary-making is an onerous task that requires no small investment in terms of extensive primary research work (especially corpus building), time and financial / material resources. It is therefore an enterprise that one (ideally) undertakes only after much careful thought and planning, with regard to the process and to the distribution and marketing of the end product. In the case of dictionaries, questions such as the following will inevitably arise: (a) Is it going to be a paper (printed) dictionary, an electronic dictionary, or one in both versions? (b) Is it meant for a specific group of target users or is it intended to be a general-purpose dictionary? (c) Who are the prospective users of the dictionary? (d) How widely will the product be disseminated and circulated within the speech community? (e) Who will publish it? (f) Who will advertise and market / disseminate it? (g) How much will it cost and who is likely to afford to buy it, if it is a printed dictionary? (h) What is the level of dictionary culture prevailing in the target community and what are the general user perceptions concerning the reference work commonly called ‘dictionary’ or ‘lexicon’? (i) Whose responsibility is it to dispense dictionary education in the community? (j) In which contexts is dictionary education usually given?

The primary research technique used here, in the pilot study, to collect the required data for the present paper is a standard written questionnaire administered to a fairly representative sample population of secondary school pupils and teachers in Gaborone and its environs. The study reveals, to some extent, the type of lexicographic products in regular demand within a given intellectual / sociocultural environment. This is closely related to the
topic of much current interest in lexicographic research, namely, the dictionary user and
his/her needs.

Wiegand (1984: 14) considers research on dictionary use as an integral part of a
general theory of lexicography. He proposes a metalexicographical model that incorporates
four main components, namely (1) the history of lexicography, (2) the general theory of
lexicography, (3) research on dictionary use, and (4) dictionary evaluation. Research on
dictionary use (which includes a lexicographic needs analysis / assessment) can therefore be
considered a functional component of the metalexicographical model.

* *

The paper, therefore, mainly discusses the challenges of marketing and distributing
lexicographic products (dictionaries, thesauri, glossaries, terminology lists, etc.) in Southern
Africa, with special reference to Botswana. Assessment of dictionary culture and reference
skills in the dictionary-using community is based on the results of a pilot study conducted by
the author among secondary school pupils and their teachers (at both junior and high school
level) in and around Gaborone, in Botswana. Attitudes among teachers and pupils with regard
to the value of dictionaries across the curriculum are also examined. The attitudes of
dictionary retailers (major bookstore managers) and dictionary publishers are also studied,
based on the results of separate parallel research conducted among publishers and personnel
in the book trade in Botswana, as well as on information gleaned from private
communications and interviews with a limited number of dictionary compilers on their
personal experiences in Botswana, with regard to the marketing of their own lexicographic
products.

The paper ends with a number of recommendations / suggestions aimed at promoting
dictionary culture in society in general and in educational institutions in particular, as well as
exploring strategies for improving marketing and distribution strategies of lexicographic
products. It is generally recognized that a dictionary is a valuable language teaching / learning
tool (when properly used). Robert Ilson (1985: 1) describes the dictionary as “the most
successful and significant book about language”. Hence the need to raise the level of
awareness of dictionary value among school children, students in tertiary institutions as well
as among teachers and members of the general public. Gouws (1996: 101), citing Hausmann
(1989), succinctly defines “dictionary culture” as “the adjustment of the community to
lexicography”.

* *
Terminological resources (i.e. technical dictionaries (whether printed or computerized) and term banks) should consist of agreed or standardised terminology. Internationally the source of that agreement could be an international standards organization, such as ISO TC 37 — the technical committee responsible for terminology and other language and content resources. In South Africa the source of agreement should be a National Language Body.

But why should terminology be standardised and agreed upon? Anyone could for that matter compile a technical dictionary and could not be forced to submit such a document to a National Language Body for verification and authentication.

The writing of standards is usually a democratic process involving consensus agreement among manufacturers, subject specialists, users, distributors, local authorities, regulating bodies, etc. It is difficult if not impossible to get all role-players involved in the standardising process.

Standards cannot be enforced. But they do make life much easier. It is clear that the people who need standards most are the users — wherever they appear in the user line: a consumer needs a standard for an electric kettle to be assured of its safety and performance; the kettle manufacturer needs a standard for connectors (i.e. regarding dimensions and performance) to ensure that he can obtain components from a number of suppliers; the connector manufacturer needs a standard for the material used; etc. All material or components in the manufacturing line need to comply to agreed standards. These general principles apply not only to standards for material items but also to terminology.

Various questions could be posed: Is terminology work necessary? Does terminology information already exist? Is the existing terminology standardised? Who should standardise? This paper will indicate that it is the terminology user (i.e. subject specialist, language practitioner, layperson) that will benefit most from standardised terminology.

When dealing with standardisation the terminological principles of descriptiveness and prescriptiveness need to be addressed. The continuum of descriptiveness versus prescriptiveness as experienced in terminography will be addressed.

According to standardisation specialists a language complies with the common definition of standardisation if there are grammars, spelling and orthography rules, general dictionaries and terminologies (technical dictionaries) available in the given language. A standard language is codified and uniform. Languages, however, change, develop and are modernised and therefore standardisation is an ongoing process.

A language cannot be used in written communication or documented in dictionaries if the spelling and orthography rules of the given language are not standardised. Terminology and terminography work adheres to the spelling and orthography rules of the standard variety of the language. New terms that are created need a solid linguistic basis with proper word-forming principles as norm.

A brief description of the work of ISO TC 37 and its local mirror committee, SABS TC 37, will be given. Guidelines will also be given regarding the submission of terminology lists for verification and authentication by the Technical Committees: Terminology Development of PanSALB’s National Language Bodies.
Work on the development of a metalexicographical model for school dictionaries has started at the University of Namibia. Due cognisance has been taken of the fact that one of the noticeable features of developments in theoretical lexicography during the last two decades has been a strong focus on the information needs and reference skills of the target users of dictionaries (cf. e.g. Gouws & Prinsloo 2005: 5). This focus presupposes that any dictionary is compiled for a specific purpose, and that the contents and presentation of the dictionary should be directed at that specific target group (cf. e.g. Gouws 1989: 49). This notion has led to the study of various features of dictionaries, such as dictionary functions and structures, all of which are informed by the user and the usage situation as central components of the genuine purpose of a dictionary (cf. e.g. Gouws & Prinsloo 2005: 1-8). The genuine purpose of a dictionary can be defined in different ways, but for the purpose of the work in progress the definition of Beyer (2008) has been adopted:

The genuine purpose of a specific type of dictionary is to provide a specific answer to a specific user question of a specific target user with the aim of communicatively empowering the user. This user finds him-/herself in a specific user situation and approaches the dictionary from a specific user’s frame of reference within a specific context. Within the same context, the dictionary provides the answer to the user question from its dictionary basis, in the form of part of a specific dictionary text (typically a dictionary article), presented according to its style guide which is represented in its metatext, all of which is offered through a specific medium and via a specific channel.

This definition is derived from a number of parameters which constitutes a specific dictionary user model. The user model is in turn derived from the adaptation of an interpersonal communication model to a lexicographic communication model (cf. Beyer 2006). The following twelve parameters constitute the user model (listed in no particular order):

1. the dictionary
2. the lexicographer
3. the style guide
4. the user
5. the usage situation
6. the user’s frame of reference
7. the medium
8. the channel
9. the metatext
10. the context
11. feedback
12. the commercial aspect

Each parameter comprises a number of variables. A complete definition of a specific type of dictionary is dependent on the qualitative values assigned to each variable. The parameters do not function in isolation; rather, each parameter stands in a relation of interdependency to the others. There is furthermore a strong relation between this model and the dictionary.
conceptualisation plan component within the dictionary plan, although it also has bearing on
the organisation plan component. The link between the user model described above and the
dictionary conceptualisation plan is established primarily through the dictionary parameter (cf.

Within the framework of the above user model, the completion of the definition (of the
genuine purpose) of a school dictionary through the assignment of qualitative values to all the
variables within all the parameters would mean the completion of a metalexicographical
model for that dictionary. Some of the work that has been done within the lexicographer
parameter (no. 2 above) is reported in Beyer (2008). Particularly with a view to dictionary
pedagogy, the focus has now broadened to the user’s frame of reference parameter (no. 6
above), which Beyer (2006: 56-57) describes as relating to users’ assumptions, habits,
perceptions and attitudes with regard to dictionaries. This paper aims to capture the
qualitative values that could be assigned to variables relating to target users’ perceptions of
dictionaries. Specifically, the following two questions are addressed:

— What do the target users think a dictionary is?
— To what extent do target users perceive dictionaries to be of potential help with
linguistic queries?

For this purpose, a survey was conducted among university entrants during the registration
period at the beginning of the current academic year at the University of Namibia. The
questionnaire instrument was used and the administration of the survey resulted in over 500
completed questionnaires being returned. The paper will report on this survey, and will
consist of the following components:

— Literature review
— Positioning of the survey within current research
— Examination and discussion of the survey process and results
— Opportunities and shortcomings
— Conclusion

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From Stem-based to Word-based Lexicography: An In-depth Case Study of the Zulu
Adjectives

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Bantu languages have about twenty to thirty so-called ‘true adjective stems’, and in most
existing Bantu dictionaries these are (a) simply (and only) lemmatized as stems, (b) given a
basic (or generic) meaning, and, for the larger dictionaries, (c) exemplified with one or more
(often invented) phrases. For linguists such an approach is arguably a magnificent and efficient lemmatization approach; for the average user it is problematic.

Given Zulu’s conjunctive writing system, the required agreement morphemes — known as adjective concords — are physically attached to the front of these stems. In Zulu dictionaries, it is thus left to the dictionary user to consult a grammar in addition, where information must be sought on the form and use of the adjective concords, as well as on the morphophonological rules applicable when attaching an adjective concord to an adjective stem. It is further also assumed that the dictionary user will be able to adapt the meaning depending on class membership of the noun that is being described.

In this paper, an in-depth analysis is undertaken to make a case for the lemmatization of all frequent adjectival forms with their adjective concords rather. It is shown that the supposed explosion in size of the dictionary may be contained within a corpus-driven Sinclairian framework. The advantages of such a word-like treatment far outnumber the generalizations that have hitherto characterized the lexicographic treatment of adjectives in Zulu.

* *

Some of the advantages of the new approach that is put forward include:

— Excellent reflection of the true distribution of the lexicon.
— Precise translation equivalents are provided, rather than general ones.
— The exact spelling for each form is given, without the need to apply the various morphophonological rules (useful for both receptive and active use).
— The correct (and modern) class numbers are indicated, while class restrictions are implied.
— Only the frequent core adjectives are treated, with (frequent) variant forms being cross-referenced to their more frequent forms.
— Diminutive and augmentative adjectives are listed directly where they are also used.
— Typical combinations and collocations are entered where they are relevant.
— Frequent derivations are listed where they are relevant.
— Idiomatic use is pinpointed and covered where it is relevant.
— Real examples illustrate each and every lemma, collocation, combination, derivation and idiomatic use.
— The most salient form of each lemma is illustrated, which in 90% of the cases is the lemma itself.
— The frequency star rating (a logical by-product of the approach advocated) gives a visual clue as to each adjective’s relative importance.
— The detailed analysis of corpus evidence also allows for a move towards the inclusion of supra-semantic features, such as the attention to semantic prosody.
— There is less dependency on a grammar for successful dictionary consultation.
— The ultimate user-friendliness is flexibility: for instance, when it comes to the need to differentiate between various homographs in a text, word-like adjectives may now be juxtaposed with words in other word classes through the inclusion of homonymous forms.
Looking at the Future of South African Lexicography

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In South African lexicography the past ten years have witnessed major changes including the establishment of the national lexicography units, the comprehensive application of corpus-driven dictionaries, the creation and wide-ranging use of TshwaneLex as a dictionary programme, active work by commercial publishers in the field of lexicography, the publication of a variety of new dictionaries representing different typological categories, an increasing interest in scholarly lexicography, a massive improvement in international collaboration and interaction, Lexikos being confirmed as a leading international journal and AFRILEX playing its role in local, continental and global lexicographic endeavours.

Gouws (1999) made the following remarks:

In spite of a lot of difficulties and problems facing PANSALB in their attempts to fulfil their assignment one has to acknowledge the golden opportunity they have to start the process of establishing a new lexicographic dispensation

and

In South Africa the national lexicography units may also be instrumental in producing containers of knowledge to shed and spread the light of the African Renaissance. However, this can only be achieved if the necessary planning is done and the units can follow the criteria laid down in a metalexicographic-founded model which is the result of the collaboration of linguists, lexicographers, metalexicographers and language planning officials.

Looking back at the last ten years it is not always clear to which extent the golden opportunity in South African lexicography had been seized and this paper will indicate some of the missed opportunities or opportunities not used in an optimal way. However, this paper will not ponder on the past but will be looking forward and will try to show possibilities, opportunities and ways and means to continue enhancing the South African lexicographic environment and products.

The emphasis in the paper is the way in which the user should play a central role in determining the planning and compilation of new dictionaries, lexicographic research projects, training projects and, very important, the investigation of various types of interdisciplinary collaboration. A user-driven basis for lexicographic planning will impact on every aspect of the future of South African lexicography and will confront lexicographers, national lexicography units, commercial publishing houses, as well as researchers and research units with a variety of challenges. Some of these challenges will be discussed and suggestions will be made in order to achieve the best possible solutions for some of the envisaged problems.

Reference
A Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles (1996) is rooted in quotation evidence. It contains approximately 8,000 South African English entries (including variant forms and unassimilated terms), each of which presupposes sufficient quotation evidence as a prerequisite for inclusion. These quotations are drawn from an extensive card index archive that was built between the late 1960s and early 1990s, providing a pool from which about 44,000 citations were selected to support those words finally included as headwords in the dictionary itself. Being a historical dictionary, citations feature prominently in the entry model, providing a set of concise illustrations of their parent headword. These short excerpts contain not only historical and semantic information which are not possible to represent neatly in a dictionary definition, but also played a key role in the early stages of lexical acquisition. By recording a quotation and indexing it by catchword — that is, the word as it appears in context rather than its canonical form — a potential headword would, of course, be noted or existing evidence for it augmented.

Using the legacy electronic format in which A Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles was typeset, the Dictionary Unit for South African English embarked on a process of digitisation of the published set of quotations. This involved conversion into a future-proof, industry-standard format and the development of a searching and updated editing environment. There were two reasons for this digitisation process. The first, not central to this paper, was to prepare the entire dictionary dataset for use in modern software. The second, shorter term motivation was to utilise the set of quotations published in A Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles as an electronic citations database in its own right. During this conversion process, it became clear that the resulting citations database would benefit from a full review involving the verification of all quotations against their original sources. This time-consuming process, some stages of which are unavoidably manual, is now over 60% complete, and is on target for final completion by 2011.

This paper will examine the evolution of the quotation verification project from its beginnings as an entirely manual exercise, to its current use of software developed for the purpose. To provide the context for this process, the past and future purposes of the citations database for the Dictionary Unit for South African English will be discussed, and some of the project’s achievements, such as antedatings and primary source identification, will be highlighted. Challenges encountered while trying to verify quotations will also be described, such as unverifiable quotations and sometimes highly convoluted research paths. In addition to this, the paper will look at the necessarily systematic nature of quotation handling and the main types of considerations determining methodology (for example, lexicographic, bibliographic and typographic requirements). Finally, the impact of the Internet on quotation research will also be considered, with some discussion of how this may affect the revision process for a new edition of A Dictionary of South African English on Historical Principles.
Categorising Example Sentences for Research Purposes

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Examples in dictionaries come in many different forms. They may be sentences or phrases. They may be corpus-based or made up by the lexicographer. They may contain the lemma in its uninflected form or they may contain an inflection of the lemma. In some dictionaries the function of examples is to provide contextual support to the meaning of the headword, and in others the grammatical support that they provide is more important.

While there is literature on the usefulness of examples, and on whether examples should be corpus-based or not, I have set out to find out what sort of examples South African school users identify as most helpful. In this paper, I look at whether examples in five South African school dictionaries do provide suitable contextual or grammatical support.

I have constructed a table to classify example sentences. The table includes the following categories:

— Whether the example is a sentence (A) or phrase (B);
— Whether the example defines the lemma (C), gives a clue to the meaning (D), or has no contextual support (E);
— Whether the example provides grammatical support (F) and a comment showing how; and
— Whether the example is in its simplest form (G) or whether it is inflected (H).


Using the set of 150 example phrases and sentences, I group them into categories A–H. Categories A, B, H and I are the easiest to classify and I grouped the others based on my intuition and experience in working with dictionaries.

The goal of this research is to present characteristics of examples in a way that makes them easier to analyse and compare. This should help lexicographers in future dictionaries check whether they have written or selected the best possible examples for their users’ needs.

Old News about Learners’ Dictionaries

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Since ancient times foreign languages have usually been acquired with reference to one’s own mother tongue. The emergence of the Direct (or Communicative) Method in foreign language learning at the end of the nineteenth century gave way several decades later to the monolingual dictionary for advanced learners of English, first in Japan and India, and following World War II to its rise and dominance more or less worldwide. Throughout the second half of the twentieth century this dictionary type has played an overwhelming part in
introducing new and innovative features, serving as a role model for other dictionaries. The 1980s marked new systematic efforts to integrate the native language in foreign language pedagogical dictionaries and to address the needs of non-advanced learners, a trend that has had a substantial leap in the first decade of this century. This paper will offer a critical overview of this evolution in historical, global, and lexicographical perspectives.

### Challenges that Simultaneous Interpreters Face with Regard to Terminology

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In line with the vision of the National Language Policy Framework, Parliament of the Republic of South Africa’s vision also is to promote multilingualism by ensuring that all eleven official languages enjoy equitable treatment, development and protection. In accordance with the mentioned statement, Parliament RSA established the Division of Language Services which provides simultaneous interpretation and written translation services to Parliament and the various ministries and departments. This study will only concern itself with the challenges which Simultaneous Interpreters face with regard to terminology when rendering Parliamentary services.

Parliament of the Republic of South Africa consists of two Houses, the National Assembly and the National Council of Provinces. In order to comply with the National Language Policy Framework, language practitioners should provide simultaneous interpreting in these Houses in all the eleven official languages including sign language. Fully fledged interpreting services in Parliament of the Republic of South Africa started in 2004. In Parliament, simultaneous interpreters interpret without having insight of members’ speeches because speeches are said to be embargoed until they are delivered. Riccardi (2009) regards interpreting as something which is more than transferring words from one language into another; first of all, it is about understanding the meaning, the sense of what is being said before delivering it into the target language. Simultaneous Interpreters (SI) in this regard find it very challenging to render quality and efficient services to the employer because Parliamentary terms are regarded as special and sometimes can be above the comprehension of the SI.

In view of the above-mentioned problem, there is a crucial need for an online parliamentary multilingual dictionary which could be compiled using a corpus approach. Written members’ speeches can be retrieved from prisms and results be analysed and stored using the TshwaneLex dictionary compilation software.

This study is therefore going to outline some of the problems faced by SI and how they could be resolved. For example, how to treat technical or scientific terms with zero-equivalence? It is easy for SI to interpret members’ condolence speeches because they make use of everyday language. At other times, however, it is very challenging for SI to interpret the speech delivered by, say, the Minister of Trade and Industry because in this area specialised terms are employed appropriate to the field. Therefore, SI, translators and members of Parliament can benefit from this type of dictionary because on its completion, it can be loaded on Faranani, the Parliamentary website and also on monitors found in booths.
It is an established traditional view in lexicography that the most important function of early dictionaries was to provide information on the meaning of words of a particular language. Patterns have emerged over the years with modern dictionaries providing more detailed linguistic information resulting in more informative dictionaries. This paper discusses the presentation of detailed grammatical information, pronunciation, tone marking and usage labels and the structure and content of the back matter in the prospective Advanced Ndebele Dictionary, henceforth the AND. The AND as is now well known comes after the Ndebele team of editors produced Isichazamazwi SeSiNdebele, henceforth the ISN, which was the first-ever monolingual dictionary in the Ndebele language, published in the year 2001. As stated in Khumalo (2007: 1):

The AND will not just be larger than the ISN, but will be more advanced with regard to the depth and scope of its lexical items and definitions. ... [U]nlike its forerunner, the AND will provide additional grammatical information for each lexical item, including phonetic transcription, tone marking and etymology.

It is the inclusion of detailed grammatical information, pronunciation, tone marking and usage labels and the structure and content of the back matter in the AND that is critically examined in this paper. We must hasten to state that the compilation of the AND faces many logistical challenges. It is still trapped in the planning stages as a result of the difficult socio-economic challenges bedevilling the country. This has resulted in a totally depleted staff and zero budget allocations to initiate and sustain work on the project. The work that has been done on the dictionary has been confined to academic papers about the dictionary’s structure and content. This paper is a third instalment on the AND after Khumalo (2003) & (2007). This is an effort to keep the project alive and in sight despite these budgetary challenges and staff turnover that are making it difficult for the project to proceed smoothly.

This paper therefore seeks to present some of the key considerations beyond just the meaning of each lexical entry in the AND. The style manual of the AND states that one of the crucial things besides etymology that the dictionary will provide is more detailed grammatical information, pronunciation, tone marking, usage labels and a detailed back matter to enhance the coverage and usefulness of the dictionary. As a modern dictionary, it is desirable that the AND includes the latest words from areas where neologism are common. These include business, information technology, science and medicine. The size and scope of the dictionary should be considered against the background of including up-to-date technical and international lexis.
Language planning in a broad sense means that a language is changed deliberately either by individuals or authorities. This means either changing a language itself, that is, a change to its grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation, or changing the status and therefore the usage of a language. Language planning was always a very sensitive issue in South Africa as it was used in the past to separate people and keep the majority of people from power, wealth and education. Therefore implementing the new language policies which should empower people and give all people an equal status is a very responsible task that should be carried out as soon as possible. This presentation is focusing on the implementation of lexicographic-related language policies and bills and tries to provide an overview of successful implementations on corpus and status planning level, as well as providing some ideas to use dictionaries as implementation tools for status planning.

Kloss (1969) introduced the division between corpus planning and status planning, where corpus planning is concerned with the linguistic aspects of language and status planning with its social aspects. Corpus planning activities for example include codification and modernization of a language. Codification aims at providing a standardized variety of the language, that is, the grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation of a language may be changed in such a way that it is possible to provide a standardized variety of the language. Dictionaries are the visible result of codification activities, as they document the (written) standard form of a language. Modernization of a language is mainly done at the lexical level via enlarging the vocabulary of this language. This includes creating new terms in order to enable the language to be used in new domains as well, for example in medicine or law. Specialized dictionaries represent such modernization activities as they document the vocabulary of specific domains. On a corpus planning level, the new South African dictionaries can be seen as successful examples of implementing language policies. As all official languages have general dictionaries that document the standardized (written) form of the language, those dictionaries are visible results of corpus planning measures.

Mühlhäusler (1996: 173) and Halliday (1992: 62) point out the two main areas of status planning, enhancing or degrading the status of a language and developing a language for use in new registers. Crystal (1997) defines it as: altering the status of language in society, that is, allocating new or other functions to a language. Enhancing or degrading the status of languages can be regulated by official policies that allocate certain functions to a language. Haugen (1971) argues that language planning measures can be implemented either by private individuals or by governments, which in the South African case means mainly by the NLUs and commercial publishers.

Concerning status planning, the situation is more complex and extremely sensitive. In order to change the status of the languages, it is not enough to compile policies and carry out corpus planning activities. Although such ‘technical’ prerequisites are needed to successfully enhance the status of a language, all measures can only work if they are accepted by the speech communities. Dictionaries can help to enhance the status of a language as they empower people, i.e. they enable users to talk about a range of topics and communicate with other people. Nevertheless, this requires that the people must know that dictionaries exist and must be able to use those dictionaries. This also includes the availability of dictionaries, that is, dictionaries must be easily available at bookshops and newsagents, as well as in schools and tertiary education. An important task here is to make the dictionaries visible. Making dictionaries visible is one of the tasks that still need some improvement but it is necessary to carry out positive status planning. This could include dictionary awareness campaigns which demonstrate the use of dictionaries for the individual user, as well as a strong media presence. Media presence includes informing the daily newspapers, regional papers, radio stations etc. as soon as a new product is available and providing them with details and articles about it and its use for the speech community.
As long as people don’t know that dictionaries exist and don’t know how to use them, the
dictionaries won’t play the vital role in status planning and enhancing languages that they
could play with more public presence.

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The Access Routes of Internet Finance Dictionaries: Present Solutions and Future
Opportunities

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1. Goal
The challenges represented by the fast development of the Internet have not been taken on
properly by lexicographers, especially those working with dictionaries of finance. One of the
clear examples of the poor response to the Internet technology challenges is the utilization of
the search options that help users find what they are looking for. The discussion in this paper
focuses on the access routes which refer to the options available to users when searching for
answers to their lexicographical problems. The Internet finance dictionaries (IFDs) are
divided into two categories following the proposal by Prinsloo (2005: 17), i.e. ‘paper
dictionaries on computer’ and ‘true electronic dictionaries’. The latter are discussed under the
concept of lexicographical information costs (LIC) proposed by Nielsen (2008) in order to
argue that solutions should be based not only on the availability of the technology but also on
the LIC. The paper concludes with suggestions on future opportunities for IFDs.

2. Paper Dictionaries on Computer
There are two typical examples of this type of IFDs available at the time of writing (May
2009), they are www.anz.com/edna/dictionary.asp and www.duke.edu/~charvey/Classes/wpg/
glossary.htm. The first one is the Internet version of the paper dictionary entitled The
Language of Money, third edition, by Edna Carew (1996). The second one is based on the
book entitled The New York Times Dictionary of Money and Investing, by Morgenson and
Harvey (2002). When opening the website of these two dictionaries, the users are presented
with the covers of the dictionaries and alphabetical lists of entry words. No text-box and
search buttons are provided, so users cannot type the term they are looking for. The users’
look-up acts are similar to those for paper dictionaries. For example, if users want to find the
definition of ‘debenture’, they need to click letter D, and then a new window will pop up,
listing all the entries for letter D. Subsequently, they have to scroll down the screen to find the
term they are looking for. Therefore, these two dictionaries can simply be called ‘paper
dictionaries on computer’.
3. True Electronic Dictionaries

Before describing IFDs which are categorized as ‘true electronic dictionaries’, it is necessary to mention the concept of lexicographical information costs (LIC). Nielsen (2008: 173) divides LIC into two distinct types: search-related information costs (SRIC) and comprehension-related information costs (CRIC). SRIC are “the costs (i.e. efforts) related to the look-up acts users have to perform when consulting a dictionary in order to gain the data for which they are searching,” whereas, CRIC are “the costs (i.e. efforts) related to the user’s ability to understand and interpret the data presented in the dictionary” (Nielsen 2008: 173-174).

Two IFDs considered as ‘true electronic dictionaries’ are www.financial-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com which is managed by Farlex and www.investopedia.com/dictionary/default.asp which is provided by Investopedia® – A Forbes Digital Company.

The website www.financial-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com offers the user several search options. There is a text-box button with four radio-buttons which enable the user to search for Word/Article, Starts with, Ends with, and Text. There are also articles on ‘The most popular financial definitions’ and links to ‘Other popular articles in the financial dictionary’. After searching a term, e.g. ‘debenture’, it becomes apparent that it utilizes the technological capabilities a bit too much which results in high LIC. Four definitions, taken from four different dictionaries, are shown for ‘debenture’. This results in high CRIC because the user will not know how to choose the best definition. Therefore, the technology, which enables the website to present results from several dictionaries at once, is not useful in terms of LIC.

The other website, www.investopedia.com/dictionary/default.asp, also provides a text-box and search buttons, along with links ‘By alphabet’ and ‘By category’. The search result of a term, e.g. ‘debenture’, is not the definition directly, but the list of dictionary terms (links) related to ‘debenture’. The user needs to click one of the links to find the definition. Therefore, the SRIC is high because the user has to perform two acts to find a definition. The technology enables the website to present results of related terms, but it is not the first thing needed by a user when consulting a dictionary.

4. Future Opportunities

There are at least two elements which can be added to IFDs. The first is the Options for Functions, e.g. Reception and Production. This idea is in line with Bergenholtz and Johnsen (2007: 10), i.e. if a user wants to understand a word, showing only the equivalent is adequate; whereas, if the user has a problem with L2 text production, information on grammar or collocations are necessary. The second is the Options to Create a User Profile, which may include the L1, linguistic competence in L2, factual competence in L1, and factual competence in L2.

References

The aim of this paper is to discuss the Multilingual Concept Glossaries Project which is being piloted at the University of Cape Town (UCT) as part of the university strategy to implement multilingualism in teaching and learning programmes as required by the Language Policy for Higher Education (DoE 2002). The development of the multilingual concept glossaries is aimed at providing academic support to students for whom English is not the first language. It is an accepted fact that Black students, especially those from poor schooling backgrounds, enter UCT with limited English proficiency, which makes it difficult for them to learn effectively through the medium of English (Morgan 2008, 2009). It is the argument of this paper that multilingual concept glossaries constitute an important pedagogic strategy to fast-track vocabulary development and conceptual learning to students with Limited English Proficiency (LEP) in South African institutions of higher education. However, other scholars like Mesthrie (2008) are quite sceptical about the effectiveness of glossaries in teaching and learning in higher education. Whereas it is a truism that traditional glossaries have proven not to be effective in teaching and learning in higher education, there is a growing consensus among scholars that corpus-based glossaries do overcome this limitation as they may also capture registers which are pivotal to students’ mastery of the discipline.

The Multilingual Concept Glossaries that are being compiled at UCT are based on small corpora developed for Statistics, Physics, Economics and Law. These corpora comprise academic texts such as prescribed books, tutorials, thesis abstracts, and so on. The glossaries are presented in Hypermedia hosted by Vula Online Learning environment at UCT. As this hypermedia environment is web-based, it supports graphical hyperlinks and links to sound and podcast files. Thus the glossaries are interactive and they provide contextualized, authentic learning opportunities to students and allow them to engage in tasks in which they use terms contained in their study material. The advantage of these online multilingual concept glossaries is that they can be linked with the source corpora and students should be able to search from the listed term to the texts to get a better understanding of concepts. It is hoped that when students engage with terms in these glossaries they will be developing and reinforcing their vocabulary and conceptual understanding as they make connections between text, pictures (images), sound and podcast. As scholars such as Gee (1997: 236) argue, concept acquisition is only possible if the reader is able to situate the meanings in context. Gee regards the human mind “as not so much a calculator and rule follower … but a flexible and adaptable pattern recognizer.” To support additive learning of terms and concepts, an attempt will be made to have all the glossaries available in all the eleven languages. Although the pilot project mainly focused on English, Afrikaans and Xhosa, which are the official language of the university, the goal is to have glossaries available in all the eleven official languages to ensure language equity and maximum language support to all our students. So far, designs for over twenty courses have been completed with each course having slots for all the eleven official languages. The challenge however, will be on translating the terms into all these languages as some of them have not yet well intellectualized.
Languages are not static, they develop through time. During this development, the vocabulary of a language is added or lost. As Fromkin & Rodman (1998: 459) write: “Changes in the lexicon also occur, including the addition of new words, changes in the meanings of words, and loss of words.” There are many ways in which words enter a language. Among this variety of ways, Fromkin & Rodman (1998) mention compounding, derivational process, coinage, recombining old words to form new ones with new meanings, and borrowing. Neighbouring languages always borrow from each other. Zawawi (2007: 1) points out that, “No two languages come into contact without one having influence upon the other.” Usually, it is the developing language that will borrow more from the developed language. Most languages, especially developing languages are borrowers. They borrow a word directly or indirectly. Borrowing occurs when a language adds to its own lexicon a word or morpheme from another language. Haugen (1950) as cited by Zawawi (1979: 3) defines a loan word as follows: “A loan word is a complex form composed entirely of foreign morphemes. Speakers of importing a loan word import not only the meaning of the word but also its phonemic shape although the substitution of foreign formative phonemes may be more or less complete.”

Indigenous African languages are developing languages, and therefore are borrowers. There are more than nine indigenous African languages in South Africa. These languages co-exist with each other. Some share geographical boundaries, whereas others are intermingled. On top of these, there are Afrikaans and English which co-exist with the indigenous African languages. However, when it comes to borrowing, one will notice that indigenous African languages borrow much of their words from the developed Afrikaans and English. Many scientific, economic, and political words have been borrowed from Afrikaans and English. If one pages through African languages dictionaries, one will notice that many of the loan words have been borrowed from Afrikaans and English. This does not mean that African languages dictionaries do not entail loan words from other languages such as Latin and Greek. In many instances, loan words from Greek and Latin have been borrowed indirectly through English. Because of the co-existence of the indigenous African languages, one would expect that dictionaries of these languages would reflect much on borrowing from other indigenous African languages. Contrary to this, one gets very few words borrowed from other indigenous African languages. It is true that indigenous African languages share much when it comes to terminology; but the mere fact that they are languages on their own and that their cultures differ, they also have got many differences regarding terminology usage. In reality, indigenous African languages do borrow words from each other. In spoken language, one encounters words of an indigenous African language being used in another African language, but not included in the dictionaries. This reveals that there is a problem, and this problem seems to be lying with lexicographers. It is surprising to find that Afrikaans and English borrowed more extensively from indigenous African languages than African languages from each other. This paper seeks to highlight factors contributing towards non-borrowing from one indigenous African language into another in the process of writing dictionaries and the importance of the inclusion of loan words in a dictionary.

References
The main purpose of this research is to investigate the type of ‘language’ used by most students in most of our tertiary institutions in the Republic of South Africa, especially the students at the University of Limpopo — the Campus Lingo (as they call it), and its significance to the development of dictionary writing in the indigenous languages such as Northern Sotho. Most youth prefer to use campus terminology instead of their own indigenous languages when communicating within and outside their campuses. The majority of students prefer to use this university slang or campus lingo because they regard this as a means of elevating their own status among their peer groups. The situation is further complicated by very low numbers of enrolments for the students registering indigenous languages in most of our tertiary institutions. During the 2008 academic year, for instance, the University of Limpopo had an enrolment of less than 70 students who registered Northern Sotho — from Course One to Honours level (NSOT100 to NSOT700). This has a negative effect on the development of the language, especially when considering the fact that this institution of higher learning is demographically and geographically placed within the main centre of the area which is dominated by the Northern Sotho speaking communities.

The widespread use of campus lingo does not only retard the development of the language in the lecture rooms, but also impacts negatively on the development of lexicography research and lexicography projects which assist in the compilation of dictionaries by the National Lexicography Units. This is one of the major challenges confronting lexicography work in the compilation of Northern Sotho dictionaries by the Northern Sotho National Lexicography Unit. One of the major consequences of the widespread use of campus slang terminology is the reduction in the number of reliable research respondents who are supposed to help in the development and recording of the indigenous lexicon in the lexicography research project.

The following are a few examples of the campus slang terms which are commonly used by students in the institutions of higher learning, and which are, to a larger or lesser extent, impacting negatively or positively on the lexicographic development of the Northern Sotho bilingual and monolingual dictionaries:

— **Lefresha**: a new student, instead of Moithuti yo mofsa.
— **Mzana** or **Motsana**: ladies’ residence, instead of hostele ya basadi.
— **Leansesta**: a slow progressing student who repeats courses several times and, as such, stays many years at the institution, instead of moithuti wa go tšwelela ka go nanya ditutong.
— **Smeka**: money, instead of tšelele.

Significance to lexicography work: This will lead to a low number of students who are interested in studying indigenous languages, and therefore, retard the development of the languages. The inclusion of loan words, derived from this terminology, in the dictionaries will have both negative and positive consequences on the lexicography process, i.e. criticism of
the dictionary by the purist section of the elite (negative), as well as a positive consequence, in the sense that the vocabulary of the indigenous languages increases.

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**Is it Intentional Semantic Shifts or an Irregularity? A Case Study of the Shifts in Indigenous Names for Months in Northern Sotho**

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The Northern Sotho Terminology and orthography number 4 of 1988 has recorded the standard Northern Sotho names for the 12 calendar months as follows:

- **January:** Pherekgong/Janware
- **February:** Dibokwana/Feberware
- **March:** Hlakola/Matšhe
- **April:** Moranang/Aporele
- **May:** Mopitlo/Mei
- **June:** Phupu or Ngwatoboshego/Juni
- **July:** Mosegamanye/Julae
- **August:** Phato/Agostose
- **September:** Lewedi/Setemere
- **October:** Diphalane/Oktobere
- **November:** Dibatsela/Nofemere
- **December:** Manthole/Disemere

While the Sothoized names are matching correctly with their English counterparts, the indigenous names seem to have shifted drastically from their original positions when these names were recorded as part of the standard Northern Sotho terminology. According to Ziervogel and Mokgokong (1975) these indigenous names were derived or inherited from the calendar of the Sepedi dialect of Northern Sotho. The year in the original Bapedi calendar starts in May and ends in April as the twelfth month. The names of the months in the Pedi calendar are recorded as follow:

- **May:** Mopitlo (1st calendar month)
- **June:** Moranang (2nd month)
- **July:** Mosegamanyi (3rd month)
- **August:** Ngwatobošего or Seetebošего (4th month)
- **September:** Phupu (5th month)
- **October:** Phato (6th month)
- **November:** Lewedi (7th month)
- **December:** Dibatsela (8th month)
- **January:** Manthole (9th month)
- **February:** Dibokwane (10th month)
- **March:** Pherekgong (11th month)
- **April:** Hlakola (12th month)

These names were given to reflect the activities, or to associate the months with what usually occurs, during those particular periods of the year. Unfortunately, the names, as they are recorded in the standard Northern Sotho orthography booklet, have shifted drastically from
the original references in the Pedi dialect. For instance, in Sepedi the name *Manthole* refers to *January* and not *December*, and *Pherekgong* refers to *March* in Sepedi and not *January* as it is reflected in the Northern Sotho Terminology and Orthography Number 4 of 1988. The main objective in this research is to give a comparative analysis of these shifts of references which have changed the original meanings accorded to these indigenous months.

The following are some of the questions which remain unanswered to date because there are no referral documents to this effect:

— Why did the compilers of the Northern Sotho Terminology and Orthography No. 4 of 1988 choose to use the names of the Pedi calendar, and preferred to swap their meaning?
— Were the shifts intentional or accidental?
— What are the significances of these semantic swapping to Northern Sotho lexicography?

The aforementioned semantic shifts regarding the indigenous names of the months in Northern Sotho have resulted in ambiguity which causes confusion and uncertainty among the Northern Sotho lexicographers. The Northern Sotho lexicographers are faced with the names which refer to one or more months at the same time, e.g. *Phupu*, referring to *June* (Standard Northern Sotho) and *September* (the Pedi calendar).

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**Lemmatisation of Non-standard forms in Northern Sotho General Dictionaries**

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Northern Sotho consists of more than twenty dialects which are spoken regionally by the people who regard Northern Sotho as their official language. Although these dialects are spoken by people who regard Northern Sotho as their official language, they have not been considered in Northern Sotho dictionaries as candidate lemmata that need to be defined or given translation equivalents. This exclusion of the dialectical forms ignores and puts a challenge to the role of general dictionaries in the languages, especially Northern Sotho. In discussing the role of the dictionary in standardizing orthography, Mdee (1999: 129) argues that a lexicographer should decide which form is considered standard and which is not. He explains that a standard dictionary has one mission of propagating the standard orthography.

There is no doubt that a general dictionary has an extra role to play in the language. A general dictionary should be an inclusive dictionary that records all the linguistic forms of a language. Because of its nature, it should document the vocabulary of the dialects of a language so that the users of a dictionary would know that some lexical items are regionally bound. Regarding the nature of a general dictionary, Gouws (1999: 13) writes:

> the comprehensiveness of a comprehensive dictionary, also known as overall-descriptive dictionary applies to two levels, that is, the selection of lexical items as well as the treatment of these items. A comprehensive dictionary endeavours to include the most representative selection of lexical items. Although no dictionary can include the complete lexicon of a given language, the objective of a lexicographer of a comprehensive dictionary is to represent as many items as possible. Because of its comprehensiveness, this category of dictionary does not only include lexical items from standard variety of the target language. A prominent feature of comprehensive
dictionaries is the inclusion of non-standard forms, dialectical items, items with limited use as well as the vocabulary of different social groups.

There is no doubt that a general dictionary should reflect the vocabulary of a general language by also inviting other lexical, sub-lexical and multi-lexical items in a dictionary. In taking Gouws argument’s further, Mojela (2008: 129) says that it is important to realize that the lemmatization of the vocabulary of Northern Sotho dialects will not only bridge the gap between the prestige dialects and the stigmatised dialects, but will also guarantee the unity and the stability of the language because there is still an ongoing debate about the name of the language and we think that this debate emanates from, amongst others, the fact that some dialects are not evenly represented anywhere in the standard language.

The question that could be asked here is whether general dictionaries lemmatise dialectical forms and if so whether these dictionaries have really played their role in documenting a general language as it is. If general dictionaries become selective of standard forms and exclude non-standard forms, then it could be argued that they do not serve the function of the general dictionaries that they are supposed to be. Mdee (1999: 132) states that it is possible for a dictionary to include words of other social and regional dialects provided that such a dictionary states that objective and that such geographical and social status of the dialect words are marked.

The purpose of this research, then, is to investigate the role and purpose of Northern Sotho general dictionaries and whether this role is adhered to by the lexicographers. The study continues to propose ways in which general dictionaries in Northern could try to serve their purpose as comprehensive linguistic instruments and also try to define the role of general Northern Sotho dictionaries for Northern Sotho as a multi-dialectical language.

Compiling Dictionaries for Monolingual Bantu Audiences

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The description of a dictionary user is one of the main considerations for lexicographers. User characteristics guide lexicographers’ decisions in the process of compiling dictionaries. Keeping these characteristics in mind, lexicographers then embark on the selection of dictionary information that is most suitable for a particular audience. However, since user characteristics vary, the nature of dictionaries compiled also varies accordingly. For example, monolingual dictionaries for monolingual audiences are different from, say, bilingual dictionaries for bilingual audiences. Specification of the characteristics of each of the above contexts and how dictionary data can be moulded to appropriately address the different contexts is the main aim of this paper. Most specifically the paper would like to spell out the needs of a monolingual Bantu dictionary user and propose methods of addressing monolingual Bantu needs in Bantu dictionaries.

One of the main considerations for lexicographers is the citation form of words in dictionaries. Stem citations have been championed in bilingual dictionaries but this citation format is compromising the native speaker’s natural forms of words as known by the speakers of Bantu languages. Dictionaries of this nature (with stem citations) are therefore considered difficult for monolingual audiences, which is understandable because words are cited for a different type of audience. English is in most cases used as the second language and in most cases bilingual dictionaries are geared towards enabling the English speaking audiences to understand a specific Bantu language. For the Bilingual audiences in such a case, the stem
citations suffice because the intention of the lexicographer is to provide codes for understanding the system of the Bantu language under consideration. However the same dictionary does not necessarily serve the monolingual Bantu audience of the second language considered.

Unfortunately the majority of the existing dictionaries compiled in Bantu languages are bilingual and they are in most cases the only dictionaries available. For that reason specifically, current Bantu lexicographers are tending towards the bilingual stem citations hence hampering the interpretation and understanding of Bantu languages for Bantu audiences even further.

Therefore, one of the main issues to be addressed in this paper is to specify how Bantu lexicography for European-centred audiences varies from that intended for Bantu-centred audiences. A comparative consideration of each of the audiences will show what Bantu-centred lexicographers should consider while compiling monolingual Bantu dictionaries satisfactorily. A description of how the monolingual Lusoga dictionary — *Eiwanika ly’Olusoga* — was compiled for a monolingual Lusoga audience will be used to discuss and test the proposed Bantu-centred approach. Conclusions about monolingual dictionary user characteristics will give pointers to the future of a Bantu-centred approach to Bantu studies.

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**Affirming a Role for Specialised Dictionaries in Indigenous African Languages with Special Reference to Zimbabwe and South Africa**

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In spite of modern technological and theoretical developments which have contributed immensely to lexicographic practice at a global level, lexicographic practice in the indigenous African languages continues to face enormous challenges. Most of these have been widely acknowledged in the relevant literature, but the worst of all pertains to a young or non-existent dictionary culture. In African societies, many people still hold the conviction that they do not need lexicographic assistance regarding their indigenous languages. Consequently, dictionaries are yet to be regarded as the utility tools that they are meant to be. At most, dictionaries in indigenous languages are symbols of personal achievements on the part of the compilers and symbols of cultural pride for the language speakers, with culture being regarded as more of what should be preserved rather than what should be relied upon in the face of modern developments in science and technology.

This presentation focuses on specialised lexicography (henceforth LSP lexicography). This particular area of lexicography in the indigenous African languages is in a precarious position mainly due to the role played by these languages in society. Several questions are raised against their production. They include the following:

— What would you call an atom in your Zulu or Xhosa dictionary?
— How are you going to define terms for concepts such as specialised concepts in an African language?
— Why would you produce a Physics dictionary in Ndebele when Physics is taught in English?
— Who needs a specialised dictionary in an African language when the teaching and practice in special subject fields is conducted in English?
The first two raise methodological concerns and imply that without effective strategies, LSP lexicography in indigenous languages is doomed. To that extent these concerns are genuine. Unfortunately, they are limited in that they are motivated by an English-biased linguistic orientation which purports that African languages are incapable of handling specialised knowledge. There already exists a lot of literature addressing such questions from a terminological perspective. A lexicographic touch will be added in this presentation.

The other two questions are more critical in that they question the very essence of lexicographic practice. If no one needs specialised dictionaries (henceforth LSP dictionaries) and reasons do not exist for their production, then there should be no talk of them as dictionary production is a costly enterprise. However, it is not true that the speakers of indigenous languages do not need LSP dictionaries in their own languages because English is the main language used in the specialised fields. This presentation draws insights from the theory of lexicographic functions (Bergenholtz and Tarp 1995, 2003) to demonstrate that indigenous languages can play a significant role in the teaching and practice of various subject fields in which English is the main language, the role of which may be supported by LSP dictionaries. Tarp (1995, 2000, 2002, 2005) and Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003) classify lexicographic functions as either cognitive or communication-oriented functions. In the case of African language communities, knowledge acquisition in special subject fields is a priority. Thus, LSP dictionaries which can assist users with specialised, encyclopaedic and even cultural information about a special subject field are needed. These functions may be realised even in the current context of English, and even the learning of the English LSP of the subject fields can be done via the medium of an indigenous language. These are the cognitive functions which LSP dictionaries in indigenous African languages may serve. Furthermore, specialised communication also occurs between experts and semi-experts, experts and lay people and even semi-experts and lay people. An example of communication between an expert and a lay person may be between a medical doctor and a patient. Such communication may be assisted by the use of LSP dictionaries through their text production and text reception functions. Thus, LSP dictionaries in indigenous African languages have an important role in the multilingual agenda of countries such as South Africa. Both cognitive and communication-oriented lexicographic functions may be served. This will be demonstrated in this presentation through references and article excerpts from LSP dictionaries and lexicographic projects in Zimbabwe and South Africa. It will be reiterated that once their role is affirmed and established, LSP dictionaries compiled according to a set of criteria meant to achieve their functions will be helpful to their users and, in turn, prove to be the main ingredient of developing a good dictionary culture.

References


A dictionary’s primary role is the description of linguistic units, that is, a language’s lexicon. Such knowledge representation includes the representation of a word’s meaning, its conventional spelling (which may include regional spelling variations such as colour/color, behaviour/behavior), pronunciation (which may also include pronunciation variations as in ‘either, potato’), its syntagmatic categories (the behaviour of a word in combination with other words both grammatically and lexically) and the various inflexions that a headword may take. The headword’s lexical relations may also be captured not only to differentiate it from other words but also to strengthen a user’s vocabulary knowledge. Such lexical relations may include synonymy, antonymy, meronymy and others.

However, even with such detailed lexical information, there is still much more to a headword that may be added in a dictionary to enhance a dictionary’s functionality. Such additional information in a dictionary has been termed “usage notes” in the New Oxford Dictionary of English (NODE) (Pearsall 1998: xiv) and the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) (Summers 1995). Usage notes take the form of information of how an entry is used in the language. They advise users on typical mistakes that users are likely to make, e.g. confusing ‘adequate’, ‘sufficient’ and ‘enough’, ‘good enough’, ‘satisfactory’ and ‘(will) do’. Some additional information, such as in LDOCE, includes frequency information of a headword in specific domains such as in spoken and written contexts.

In this paper we present some preliminary results of our research on how the Tswana dictionary headwords could be enhanced through the harvesting of concordance data. The concordance lines reveal three broad types of information.

First, there are high frequency words that are found in the vicinity of a word under investigation which are nevertheless not immediately critical to the meaning of a headword.

Second, concordance lines unearth multi-word units (e.g. *pula ya matlakadibe*: a vicious rainy storm, *pula ya sephai*: the first rain of the season, *pula ya kgogolamoko*: the first rain after harvest, etc).

Third, a word’s valency is revealed. For instance the noun *pula* ‘rain’ can take certain Tswana terms such as verbs and adjectives that characterise the type, intensity, end or beginning of the rain. For instance words that express the sense of heavy rain are: *tsorotla*, *porotla*, *bokete*, *kgolo*, *tshologa*, *gosomana maswe* and *tsora*. *Sarasara*, *komakoma* and *rotha* all express light showers. *Thiba* expresses impending rain while *simolola*, *itelekela*, and *kgomoga* all indicate the start of rain with *kgomoga* implying the beginning of a heavy rain. *Kgaotsa*, *didimala*, and *ema* relate to the sense of stop raining.

Information relating to category one above may be treated in large Tswana dictionaries. Category two information is lexicalised information and should be included either as an independent headword or as a dictionary sub-entry. Category three collocations are what could be added as part of a dictionary’s usage notes to illustrate the natural collocates of a headword. This will aid users, particularly users of an active dictionary (Svenson 1993) to produce ‘natural-sounding’ pieces of large units of language.
Cleaning Text Corpora of Afrikaans and African Languages for Lexicographic Purposes

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This paper describes (a) the composition, and compilation techniques used for the compilation of text and oral corpora for Afrikaans and the African languages at the University of Pretoria, (b) types of errors and noise in these corpora, (c) efforts to clean the corpora, (d) problematic aspects of the concept ‘clean corpora’ for Afrikaans and African-language corpora, and (e) steps towards automation of corpus cleaning.

Taken at face value the issue ‘clean’ versus ‘dirty/raw’ and ‘noisy’ corpora seems to be quite straightforward — if the corpus is dirty, clean it, and save the clean copy for use by corpus query programs. In reality, however, cleaning a corpus is much more problematic than meets the eye. What is a dirty corpus and what constitutes a clean corpus? In fact, clean corpora is a relative concept in terms of e.g. granularity, that is, how clean should the corpus be for lexicographic purposes and which version or versions should be saved for querying and preservation purposes? Is a corpus clean when it matches the original document or does a clean corpus also presume (a) corrections of mistakes made by the author, (b) indication of circumflexes, diacritics and tonal patterns, (c) the removal of foreign words and paragraphs, and (d) omission of data irrelevant to lexicography?

Should one invest time and programming-sophistication in corpus cleaning software or rather in improved handling of dirty texts by corpus query programs?

As a general rule, lexicographers prefer size to granularity. That is, if the choice is between high volumes of data with the occasional bit of noise, or very ‘clean’, carefully annotated data in much smaller quantities, they will always go for the former.

— Atkins & Rundell (2008: 93)

In terms of Atkins & Rundell (2008: 84) the first step is to standardize such a disparate collection of data in order to obtain what they call a single body of text in a uniform format in order to make the corpus ‘portable’ and to ensure that the data can be used in a corpus query system. They suggest that data should be converted into XCES, the XML Corpus encoding Standard, cf. http://www.xlm-ces.org/.

Noise in text is defined by Knoblock et al. (2007) as “any kind of difference between the surface form of a coded representation of the text and the intended, correct or original text” which means correcting the errors made in the earlier stages of text processing. From a lexicographic perspective noise can also be defined to include text that might be clean but unwanted for lexicographic purposes such as foreign words and texts, as well as different levels of text duplication in the corpus.

The corpora for Afrikaans and the African languages include a wide range of texts from mainly novels, grammars, newspapers, magazines, the Internet as well as a limited number of transcribed oral texts saved in ASCII format. Northern Sotho texts are tagged for part of speech and we are yet to embark on cleaning on this level.

Different types of errors occur in the corpora for Afrikaans and African languages. First, a major factor is typing errors and basic scanning errors, because a huge percentage of texts were scanned from paper sources by means of trainable Optical Character Recognition programs such as Omnipage. Diacritic signs cause a major problem in this regard. The basic aim is to restore text as closely as possible to the quality and accuracy level of the original texts. Secondly, many instances of text duplication occur, varying from (a) basic duplication
errors, e.g. the same text added to the corpus more than once, to (b) instances of text repeated in sister newspapers or on different dates in a particular newspaper, and (c) so-called boilerplate repetitions (cf. Baroni & Kilgarriff http://www.aclweb.org), i.e. recurring material such as automatically generated text blocks, navigation bars, page headers, etc. In the Media24 archive, for example, typical boilerplate occurrences include the name of the newspaper, repetitious instructions, headings, etc. Evert (http://www.lrec-conf.org) rightfully points out that page duplicates and boilerplate repetition may grossly inflate frequency counts for certain terms and expressions — a real concern to the lexicographer. He introduces NCLEANER, a lightweight and efficient tool for cleaning web pages. Guthrie et al. (http://www.lrec-conf.org) devise strategies for the removal of text from corpora that does not belong there. They refer to pieces of text in a corpus that differ significantly from the majority of text in that corpus as “outliers” and suggest an “unsupervised approach for the detection of outliers in corpora”. Thirdly, a more problematic dimension of corpus cleaning for African languages will be addressed namely issues such as incorrect spelling, old spelling, word division problems, grammatical errors, incorrect capitalization, etc.

Strategies employed or under development for corpus cleaning are (a) manual correction, (b) semi-automatic and automatic search and replace procedures, (c) spelling checkers, and (d) automatic n-gram based computer programs. Decisions also have to be made regarding storage, e.g. of original texts and text stripped for lexicographic purposes.

It will be concluded that more resources should be made available and utilised for the cleaning of corpora for Afrikaans and African languages to enhance the quality of future corpus-based dictionary compilation for these languages.

References
NCLEANER. http://webascorpus.sf.net

The Lemmatization of Tshivenda Idioms and Proverbs in a Tshivenda Dictionary: The Case of the Tshivenda National Lexicographic Unit

Tshivhengwa Z. RAMALIBA, Mulalo E. TAKALANI & N.T. MUKUNDAMAGO
University of Venda for Science and Technology, Thohoyandou, South Africa

This paper looks at the lemmatization of Tshivenda idioms and proverbs in a Tshivenda dictionary currently being compiled by the Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit. The paper will first give the historical background of the Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit, the objectives of the Unit and information about the dictionaries that it has already compiled.

Like any other language in the world, Tshivenda is rich in idioms and proverbs that are used on a daily basis whenever people communicate with one another. Tshivenda idioms and proverbs, whenever correctly used by a speaker whose mother tongue happens to be
Tshivenda, enrich the meanings the speaker intends to put across. However, this may not always be achieved as idioms and proverbs are connotative in nature and one, especially the youth and those who are not Tshivenda speakers, may not understand the information that is being conveyed. Without a dictionary of idioms and proverbs, it will be extremely difficult to interpret the correct meaning of such idioms and proverbs. It is for this reason that Tshivenda idioms and proverbs have to be included in a dictionary of its own specific type.

It cannot be overemphasized that idioms and proverbs play a crucial role in Tshivenda discourse. For instance, they serve, among others, to warn, advice, inform and to convey information in a polite manner. Also, idioms and proverbs are often used in Tshivenda because they enrich the vocabulary and expression of the everyday usage of the Tshivenda language.

The paper will look at the definitions of idioms and proverbs and will suggest strategies that should be invoked in the compilation of such a special dictionary. The literal and communicative meanings will also be provided. The literal meanings will be in brackets while the communicative meaning will not be in brackets. In this regard, the paper would like to propose that idioms and proverbs be lemmatized according to their semantic properties. For example, proverbs can be classified into those that deal with people, animals and insects, parts of the body, etc. when one looks at their literal expression as exemplified below:

People

*Kule ndi hu si na wau* (far is where you do not have yours). You are determined to risk your life to visit your relatives.

*Hu ambuwa vhunanga, vhukololo a vhu ambuwi* (a medicine man can cross a river, but royalty cannot cross the river). A professional person is acceptable whenever he goes, but the royalty cannot be accepted everywhere.

Animals and insects

*Khangala mbili a dzi dzuli mulindi muthihi* (two snakes cannot stay in one hole). Two leaders often find it difficult to stay in the same area.

Plants and their products

*Wa la nawa na vhanzhi, u zwimbela dzi a talula* (you may eat beans together with many people, but constipation singles out only one person). An unlucky person who was with other people who escaped unhurt from the accident.

The same procedure may also be applied to idioms:

Body parts

*Ha na ndevhe* (he does not have ears). It means someone who is stubborn and does not listen or take other people’s advice.

Animals

*Mashud a phele* (a hyena’s luck). Being very lucky without having laboured hard.
The paper will base its argumentation on dictionaries that are already available in Tshivenda. These are:

— *Venda Dictionary*, written by N.J. Van Warmelo
— *Venda Afrikaans/English Dictionary*, written by P.J. Wentzel and T.W. Muloiwa

Lastly, the paper will also have to examine the advantages and disadvantages of using the alphabetic system when compiling a dictionary of this type. For instance, the paper would like to suggest the use of the alphabetic system once the major categories as alluded to above have been identified.

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**Problems Related to Lexicographic User Research**

**Sven TARP**

*Aarhus University, Denmark*

The last few decades have seen a growing theoretical interest in lexicography, and parallel to this development a similar interest in acquiring more knowledge on the usage of lexicography’s practical products, first of all dictionaries, has emerged. This interest was especially aroused in the wake of a famous conference on lexicography, celebrated in the United States in 1960, where one of the conclusions was that “dictionaries should be designed with a special set of users in mind and for their specific needs” (Householder 1967). With this starting point it is intelligible that a growing number of lexicographers turned their eyes to the users and their needs and started organising research projects within this field.

The take-off was notwithstanding very slow. It was not without reason that Wiegand (1977) called the user the “well-known unknown”. However, from that moment the situation began to change. The 1980s and 1990s were characterised by the publication of a growing number of articles on user research. Starting in the late 1990s, a number of monographs, books and thematic issues exclusively dedicated to the topic were added to the list, for instance Atkins (1998) which contained a selection of contributions from various researchers, and Nesi (2000), Tono (2001), Wingate (2002), Thumb (2004), Lew (2004) and Dziemianko (2006), all of them monographs. Apart from these well-known and published contributions, various publishing houses also carried out their own user research which, however, was treated as a business secret in order to protect their competitive power.

Meanwhile, the amount of publications on user research has gradually reached proportions that make it increasingly more difficult to avoid losing one’s bearing. The corresponding need to get an overview and easy access to the results of these projects was met in 2006 by the first panoramic work (Welker 2006) which contains a short summary and index of 220 research projects published between 1962 and 2006. Parallel to the publication of the various research projects, a corresponding theoretical literature emerged. Tono (1986), Ripfel & Wiegand (1988), Hartmann (2001), Tono (2001), Thumb (2004), and other monographs contain valuable theoretical reflexions on the planning and organisation of user research.

The paper will discuss the ideas presented by various scholars and endeavours to develop them even further based upon the lexicographical function theory. It starts with a theoretical discussion of the concept of lexicographically relevant user needs and points out several different types of lexicographic needs that have to be taken into account when doing user research. It then discusses the advantages, disadvantages and limitations characterising the various methods used in lexicographic user research, i.e. questionnaires, interviews,
observation, protocols, experiments, tests, and log files. With reference to both lexicographic and sociological literature, it then raises a number of problems common to most of the lexicographic user research conducted until now, especially problems related to the introduction of scientific, sociological, and statistic research methods, and the need to focus more on qualitative methods. Finally, the paper will propose some alternative methods to supplement the ones already applied in lexicographical user research.

References

**Challenges Encountered in Cross-Border Dictionary Compilation — Experiences from the Silulu sesiSwati Dictionary**

**Mbuso T. Thumbathi**
*Tshwane University of Technology, Nelspruit, South Africa*

The Silulu sesiSwati dictionary project is a research undertaking by a group of lexicographers stationed at Tshwane University of Technology, Nelspruit Campus. The main goal of the dictionary unit is to produce comprehensive reference works that describe the Swati language in all its socio-historical and cultural diversity. The unit’s long-term vision is to produce
general and specialized Swati monolingual dictionaries, bilingual as well as multilingual
dictionaries pairing Swati and other South African languages.

As part of its bid to realize its dream, the unit is currently working on the Swati-
English / English-Swati bilingual dictionary project. Swati is a cross-border language spoken
in South Africa and Swaziland. Because of the artificial barrier (in the form of the border
between the two countries) that was established during the colonial era, the Swati in
Swaziland and those in South Africa have been living different lives in different
circumstances for a long time. For example, the two language communities have been
exposed to different technological elements, hence they are prone to different kinds of cultural
change owing to the differences in the way the two ‘language communities’ embrace
technological development. In the process of adopting and adapting new elements, the
language is also affected differently, hence the gap between the vocabulary that may be
perceived as common or uncommon in either South Africa or Swaziland.

Having considered issues related to the main goal of the unit that we have already
identified as that of producing a comprehensive dictionary, the size of the market as well as
the human and financial costs, the team of compilers has decided to produce a dictionary that
will cater for the needs of both its South African as well the Swaziland targeted audience. The
dictionary thus seeks to record and describe vocabulary as is used in the Swati communities in
the two countries. The proposed presentation will focus on the challenges that the team of
researchers is facing in the compilation process. Some of the challenges to be discussed
include those that have to do with the actual dictionary compilation process such as (a)
headword and sense selection — that is, how to determine which words and meanings should
be included or excluded in the dictionary, (b) multiculturalism — that is, how differences in
culture impacts on issues such as the explicitness of dictionary explanations, (c) differences in
the writing systems for the two language communities in the two countries, and (d) the
treatment of regional and social dialects, as well as others that have to do with the
management of the project at two centres, that is, (e) research coordination, and (f)
publication of the dictionary manuscript. The presenter will also look at some of the strategies
the research team has employed in trying to solve many of the challenges that it is facing.

Free Bilingual Dictionaries, with a Focus on Swahili: The State of Affairs and the
Prospects for the Future

Beata WÓJTOWICZ & Piotr BAŃSKI

University of Warsaw, Poland

The enormous amount of freely available linguistic resources on the Internet overwhelms an
average user. They may seem a gift from heaven when no print resources are available. But it
is not always possible for the learner, especially at the beginning stages, to judge the
credibility of the resource that he happened to stumble on while browsing or searching the
Web.

There exist numerous projects that freely host and/or distribute free electronic
dictionaries over the Internet. There are also various ways of creating such electronic
dictionaries. It rarely happens that a professional dictionary created by expert lexicographers
is made available to the community under a free license (such is the case of the English-
Polish-English dictionary by Piotrowski & Saloni). More often, free dictionaries are created
from scratch. One way of making this possible is to let users take part in editing an existing
dictionary and adding new entries. Their work may be self-supervised (the Wiktionary model)
or it may be subject to approval by an editor (the Kamusi model). In either case, this is the
“bazaar” model of open-source development, where, “given enough eyeballs, all bugs are shallow” (Raymond 1997). This principle can be observed literally, by subjecting the dictionary to the scrutiny of the users (the majority of whom are not trained lexicographers, however), but it is also possible to follow it indirectly, e.g. by monitoring user queries and drawing conclusions regarding the composition and quality of the given dictionary (as described in for example De Schryver et al. 2006). This type of approach requires a lot of energy on the part of the free dictionary builders, given the lack of financial support for this kind of enterprise. Thus, minimization of the costs while maintaining reasonable quality becomes a serious issue.

Our paper looks at the free electronic Swahili dictionaries that are used by the students of the Department of African Languages and Cultures of the University of Warsaw as well as some free dictionaries of Swahili that no one should ever use. We discuss the credibility of free dictionaries of Swahili on the Internet, from Kamusi — the largest and ever-improving (though still messy at places), to results of blind automatic concatenation (crossing) of Swahili-English glossaries with similar glossaries of various other languages (with English being often the interlanguage). We also introduce the FreeDict project that hosts free bilingual dictionaries. Some of the dictionaries of FreeDict illustrate many of the problems mentioned above — the first group of dictionaries in this project were results of concatenation of dictionaries of the Ergane project, with Esperanto as the interlanguage. Our point, however, is that practically, these dictionaries can never get worse, they can only get better due to the facilities that the project offers and that these facilities give the dedicated maintainers the potential to develop their dictionary into a serious and reliable resource. Our contrasting examples in this area are the so far unmaintained dictionaries of Afrikaans and the Swahili-English dictionary maintained by us. We describe this dictionary elsewhere and will only use it in the paper to illustrate what can be done in order to create a linguistic resource stage by stage, gradually implementing the current lexicographic principles and extending the microstructure in a stable way. We will also talk about the minimization of the cost of producing such dictionaries, given the special circumstances (lack of financial or institutional support) under which they may need to be produced. We treat this form of dictionary development as a very promising prospect for the future of free bilingual electronic dictionaries.

References

Will Translators Use Your Dictionary?
Friedel WOLFF & Dwayne BAILEY
Translate.org.za, South Africa

Dictionaries and glossaries are important aids for any translator. Apart from printed material, translators have also been using technology to assist the translation process for many years. Although expectations were initially high that machine translation might eliminate lots of the work of the translator, those expectations have been tempered as the difficulties in machine translation, in particular machine translation from English, have become clearer. However, Computer Aided Translation (CAT) and specifically Translation Memory (TM) systems have
become very popular with translators, with TM systems obtaining a penetration rate of over 80% in 2006 (Lagoudaki 2006). This article will argue that the integration of terminological resources with CAT tools is important to ensure that translators will use those resources, and will discuss several choices affecting the electronic usability of these resources, such as the file formats, choices in lemmatisation, and licensing.

Electronic lexicography has replaced older manual systems and given many advantages, even with regard to the creation of paper-based dictionaries. More recently some lexicons have become available as electronic documents, installable computer applications, or as Web applications. Although these can simplify access to and use of the lexicographical resources, they don’t always provide for optimal integration with terminology assistance features available in CAT tools.

An electronic lexicon can often be merely an electronic counterpart to a resource in hard copy, with some of the same limitations. Often it is still intended for human viewers only. By contrast, structured terminology formats make it possible for software to interpret all the entries, and provide useful access to the data in new ways and in new applications. Structured data in standardised formats such as TBX (cf. http://www.lisa.org/tbx/), make it possible to integrate with as-yet unknown tools that will support the file format. Integration with CAT tools can provide several advantages to the translator over hard copy or plain electronic copies, such as eliminating the need for time-consuming searching. Although Web access to a lexicon could provide similar advantages, the level of interactivity that is possible over suboptimal Internet connections is limited.

With a CAT tool providing terminology assistance, the lexicographer might take different choices to facilitate the use of the lexicographical resource, and this can have implications for the choice of lemmas and how definitions and lemmas are encoded for use by a CAT tool, especially for languages in the Bantu-language family. Furthermore the division of resources into separate areas of interest hold further advantages to the integration with software.

Where tight integration between the CAT tool and lexicon provide many advantages, the advantages can be augmented by facilitating the discovery and configuration of such resources. Whereas many terminographers and agencies developing terminology have noble goals for the advancement of languages, careless choice of which rights are reserved by the copyright owner might limit the level of integration that can easily be achieved with CAT tools, and might even become a barrier to the goals of the copyright owners. Liberal licensing of resources such as the English WordNet have made new and unforeseen applications of the data possible, and invited a wider contributor base.

Terminology resources are created at great expense. While many fear that their creation will be abused, what they should fear more is that it remains unused. Technology allows us to reduce the distance from the workbench to the bookshelf and allows the consumption of valuable resources, while correct licensing of these resources allows them to be used and enhanced to the benefit of the speakers of the language. This paper shows that access to knowledge is achieved through a combination of technology and policy.

References
Collocation has been gaining prominence in foreign-language learning, especially in terms of foreign-language production. The effective use of collocations in foreign-language text production is interpreted as a sign of linguistic competence for foreign-language learners. The dictionary as an important tool to help its users solve specific problems in concrete foreign-language learning processes can in no way evade the issue of collocations. However, the study on the treatment of collocation in learners’ dictionaries is still rare, possibly due to the facts that the ambiguity in the concept of collocation is still lingering and that learners’ dictionaries are essentially assumed to provide assistance in reception despite their claim to fulfil the functions of production as well as reception.

Previous studies concerning collocation in foreign-language production mainly focus on investigating the relationship between learners’ collocation knowledge and their foreign-language proficiency levels, and discussing the significance of learners’ knowledge of collocation in foreign-language learning with an attempt to justify the conscious teaching and learning of collocations in second-language acquisition. Many relevant lexicographic discussions in the scientific literature are concerned with sorting linguistic knowledge of collocations for lexicographic inclusion in learners’ dictionaries instead of considering how to provide lexicographic assistance to the learners as dictionary users, with a special focus on their specific difficulty with collocation. In discussing the monolingual accounting dictionaries used for EFL text production, for instance, Nielsen (2005) explores the lexicographical treatment of collocation with specific users’ needs in a specific user situation in mind. Bergenholtz (2006) touches on the issue of collocations in specialized dictionaries used for translation, pointing out that information relevant to collocation should be presented considering their syntagmatic features. Both studies shed light on the research of the lexicographic treatment of collocation, emphasizing the essence of understanding the specific users’ needs. This paper is intended to extend such discussion in learners’ dictionaries considering the specific user group in specific user situations.

This paper is aimed at exploring the issue of collocation from lexicographic and pedagogical perspectives by analysing foreign language learners’ needs in EFL text production. First, this paper will discuss the general concepts of collocation and foreign language learners’ needs for and problems with collocation in text production. Secondly, this paper will closely examine some entries in the existing major learners’ dictionaries in terms of text production. Finally, this paper will discuss the criterion of including and presenting data of collocation in learners’ dictionaries for foreign language learners in text production. Chinese learners of English as dictionary users in written text production of English will be used as a case in point. Chinese learners’ difficulty with collocation in English writing as well as the causes for such difficulties will be identified and discussed to fully understand their specific needs for lexicographic assistance in English writing. Qualitative research on entries in learners’ dictionaries will be made to analyse and explore the methods of lexicographic treatment of collocation in text production for foreign-language learners. This paper will argue that sufficient attention should be paid to the profile of foreign-language learners as dictionary users, their specific needs in the text production of a foreign language, and the stages of text production in a foreign language when considering treatment of collocation in learners’ dictionaries. The inclusion and presentation of data about collocations in learners’ dictionary should be guided by the learners’ specific needs for lexicographic assistance.
arising in concrete situations. The argument is based on the lexicographic function theory supplemented with the second-language acquisition theory.

References

# ALASA 2009 Programme

**Wednesday 8 July 2009**

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<td>09:00–09:25</td>
<td>Special Keynote Address&lt;br&gt;<strong>Prof. Brian O’Connell</strong>, Rector and Vice-Chancellor of the University of the Western Cape, addresses the delegates of AFRILEX 2009 &amp; ALASA 2009</td>
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<td>09:30–10:55</td>
<td>AFRILEX Workshop 1&lt;br&gt;<strong>Proscription, prescription, description – Part 1</strong>&lt;br&gt;Presented by Henning Bergenholtz, Sven Tarp &amp; Rufus Gouws</td>
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<td>Some ‘peculiar’ phonological processes in Kalanga</td>
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<td>The emergence of clicks in Khoesan and other Southern African languages: Two problems with a single solution?</td>
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<td>Prosodic Epenthesis and Elision in Zezuru: An Optimality Theoretic Account</td>
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<td>Urban languages and urban myths: Tsotsi and other taals in South Africa</td>
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<td>Cross-linguistic similarities in Zulu and Xhosa: advantages for computational morphology and lexicography</td>
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<td>A corpus-driven analysis of the morphology, morphophonology and semantic import of the Lusoga noun</td>
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<td>HLT applications for the African languages: an example for a successful</td>
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<td>What is in the name? Verbal affixes in Bantu languages with special</td>
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<td>Reciprocal constructions in Setswana</td>
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<td>Deficient verbs clause modification as diagnostics for temporal</td>
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<td>The semantics of intransitive verbs in the Generative Lexicon</td>
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<td>The overlapping of metaphors with idioms</td>
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<td>Challenges faced by the African languages translators with specific</td>
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<td>Bonisile P.K. Zungu (UFS)</td>
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<td>15:30–15:55</td>
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and praise names in Tshivenda
Nthambeleni Netshisaulu (UVenda)

and the Lowveld dialects of Northern Sotho – A forgotten reservoir of our indigenous knowledge
Maropeng V. Mojela (ULimpopo)

Xhosa literature
Mawande Dlali (UStellenbosch)

17:00–17:25
The Generative Lexicon and the nominalizations in Sesotho
Pule A. Phindane (UFS)

Lexical variation in Sesotho
M. Thetso & M. Rapeane (ULEsotho)

Names of Cattle and the cattle-naming system among the Tonga of Zambia
Mildred Nkolola-Wakumelo (UBotswana)

17:30–18:55
ALASA AGM

19:00
ALASA DINNER

Friday 10 July 2009

08:00–08:25
Registration

Parallel Sessions 5
GH1
GH2
GH3

08:30–08:55
Nominal classification of Setswana loanwords
Keneilwe Matlhaku (UBotswana)

A critical analysis of women’s self assertion in some selected Xhosa drama texts
O.M. Mntanga, Z. Kondowe & B.B. Mkonto

‘This poll has not happened yet’: Temporal play in Election Predictions, a discourse analysis
Ernest Jakaza (MSU)

09:00–09:25
A review of raised vowels
Seth A. Tshithukhe (UVenda)

The nature of the Xhosa traditional legal system as reflected in the case of Mqhayi’s ‘Ityala lamawe le’
Michael Somniso (NMMU)

Account giving in narrative of farming in isiXhosa
R.V. Ralehoko (UStellenbosch)

09:30–09:55
The impact of disjunctively written verbal prefixes on Setswana tokenisation
Laurette Pretorius, Biffie Viljoen (Unisa) Rigardt Pretorius & Ansu Berg (UNorth-West)

Praise Poetry
Mike S. Mvona (Malawi Writers Union)

The analysis of the politeness of the traditional healers’ discourse (language) with specific reference to Tshivenda
Zacharia T. Ramaliba (UVenda)
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<td><em>Wangui wa Goro</em> (London Metropolitan University)</td>
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<td>Parallel Sessions 6</td>
<td><em>The manipulation of verbal folklore genres in mass media communication</em></td>
<td><em>Challenges in developing scientific terms in isiXhosa: Natural Sciences &amp; Technology (grade 4-6)</em></td>
<td><em>A case of marginalised African languages tuition in urban South African schools: A need for an urgent implementation of a good foundation level in African languages</em></td>
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<td>12:00–12:25</td>
<td>Parallel Sessions 6</td>
<td><em>The superiority of humans over evil: AC Jordan’s folktale ‘Nomabhadi and the Mbulu-Makhasana’</em></td>
<td><em>Word formation in the development of Tshivenda terminologies</em></td>
<td><em>‘Black African learners reject African languages’: Truth or myth?</em></td>
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<td><em>Abner Nyamende</em> (UCT)</td>
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<td>12:30–12:55</td>
<td>Parallel Sessions 6</td>
<td><em>The roles of the women folk as portrayed in the epics: Ingqawule, Mwindo, and Sonjiata</em></td>
<td><em>The many names of HIV and AIDS among the Basotho</em></td>
<td><em>Some of the problems in First Year Students’ Academic Writing in some SADC universities</em></td>
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<td><em>Dumisani Spofana</em> (WSisuluU)</td>
<td><em>Maleshoane Rapeane, Palesa Khotso, Mape Mohlomi &amp; Rethabile Possa (ULEsoto)</em></td>
<td><em>Musona V. Mpepo</em> (UZululand)</td>
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<td>13:00–13:55</td>
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<td>14:00–14:25</td>
<td>Parallel Sessions 7</td>
<td><em>Origin and authorship of Xhosa proverbs</em></td>
<td><em>Culture and gender: A reflection on perceptions in some South African communities</em></td>
<td><em>On tones and reduplication in Cisubiya (Cikuhane)</em></td>
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<td><em>Thabazi N. Ntshinga</em> (Unisa)</td>
<td><em>Phalandwa A. Mulaudzi</em> (Unisa)</td>
<td><em>Joyce T. Mathangwane</em> (UBotswana)</td>
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<td>14:30–14:55</td>
<td>Parallel Sessions 7</td>
<td><em>A literary criticism of eight selected Setlamo political songs</em></td>
<td><em>The influence of Xhosa culture in the active participation of female first year students in a Xhosa L1 classroom</em></td>
<td><em>Teaching the Tswana locative with its tones</em></td>
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<td><em>Seboku Tšehloane</em> (ULEsoto)</td>
<td><em>Nkosinathi Skade</em> (UWC)</td>
<td><em>Sabine Zerbian</em> (UWits)</td>
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<td>15:00–15:25</td>
<td>Parallel Sessions 7</td>
<td><em>Language use in popular culture - An interpretive approach to windshield slogans on commuter public transport in</em></td>
<td><em>African languages in the 21st century: The main challenges</em></td>
<td><em>Word forms in conjunctive writing: a case of isiZulu, with Sesotho examples (for comparative purposes)</em></td>
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contemporary Zimbabwe
Owen Seda (UBotswana)

N.N. Mathonsi (UKZN)
& M. Rapeane –
Mathonsi (ULesotho)

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Parallel Sessions 8  | GH1 | GH2 | GH3 |
|----------------------|-----|-----|-----|
| 16:00–16:25          | An LMT account of the Passive in Ndebele
                       | Khumalo Langa (UKZN) | An investigation of the ‘unusual’ structure of the
                       |                   | Ikalanga relative clause
                       |                   | Rose Letsholo (UBotswana) |
| 16:30–16:55          | Re-examining the relationship between subject agreement morpheme and
                       | Mampaka Lydia Mojaelo (Unisa) | (in)definiteness in
                       |                   | Northern Sotho
                       |                   | The performance of food in a multilingual
                       |                   | restaurant, Cape Town: writing about sound
                       |                   | Quentin E. Williams (UWC) |
| 17:00–17:25          |     |     |     |

17:30 CLOSURE
Cross-linguistic similarities in Zulu and Xhosa: advantages for computational morphology and lexicography

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In this paper the research question is: how can cross-linguistic similarities in Zulu and Xhosa be to the benefit of computational morphology and lexicography? It will be shown how bootstrapping morphological analysers for languages that exhibit significant structural and lexical similarities may be fruitfully exploited for developing morphological analysers and improving lexicons for lesser-resourced languages. The baseline analyser is ZulMorph, a prototype finite-state morphological analyser for Zulu. The bootstrapping process entails the systematic extension of ZulMorph to include the modelling of Xhosa morphological phenomena that differ from Zulu. A guesser variant of the bootstrapped morphological analyser is employed to mine Zulu and Xhosa corpora for new word roots that may be considered for inclusion in the word root lexicons of the analyser. The benefits of this investigation into cross-linguistic similarity are illustrated by means of numerous examples.

Some ‘peculiar’ phonological processes in Kalanga

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The Kalanga language (related to Shona of Zimbabwe) manifests some morphophonological rules that when viewed at the surface realization may be deemed to operate in a very ‘peculiar’ way. Within a given verbal syntactic structure, for instance, there may often concurrently apply rules such as progressive and regressive assimilation, coalescence, elision, truncation, and vocalic and consonantal alternation. In some cases the application of such morphophonological rules is so extensive that often in the grammatical description of the
language the constituent morphemes and/ or lexical items involved are no longer recognisable and the resultant structure is so contracted that there is no longer any recognisable lexical boundary. For example [ndowoyenda] (I shall go) comes from {ndi-na-ku-zha ku-yenda} (I have to come to go). This paper attempts to scrutinise these forms so as to subject them to an analysis that would be based on generalisable morphophonological rules. Our thesis is that these are ordinary rules whose only ‘peculiarity’ is to operate and apply cumulatively and extensively, and they can be accounted for within the standard theories of morphophonology.

Name changes of South African place names: An indigenous flavour

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The paper seeks to address the fact that name changing may be used as a unifying tool with the express view of promoting and rediscovering the country’s heritage. However, it should be borne in mind that the process must be properly handled because it may end up dividing the nation. It is further argued that all the stakeholders should play a meaningful role in the rewriting the history of South Africa by engaging in all the naming and renaming processes taking place.

A corpus-driven analysis of the morphology, morphophonology and semantic import of the Lusoga noun

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This paper reports on an ongoing research project to write the first all-encompassing grammar for a Bantu language that is entirely sourced from an electronic corpus. The language
analyzed is Lusoga (JE16), a mostly undocumented language spoken by about two million Basoga in eastern Uganda. Corpus-driven grammatical studies for the Bantu languages are few and far between, with the notable exception of a series of studies by G-M de Schryver and his teams, which include a corpus take on the phonetics of Cílubà (L31a, De Schryver 1999), the first diachronic corpus study for any Bantu language, in casu for the locative prefix ku- in Zulu (S42, De Schryver & Gauton 2002), a study of the intrinsic and contextual semantic import of the Zulu nominal suffix -kazi (Gauton, De Schryver & Mohlala 2004), and a minute description of the structures of the higher-order locative n-grams in Northern Sotho (S32, De Schryver & Taljard 2006). In contrast to Zulu and Northern Sotho, and analogous to Cílubà, Lusoga’s orthography has not yet been standardized. We will show how this impacts on corpus building and will indicate how to deal with this apparent incompatibility. A Lusoga corpus of approximately 850,000 running words (tokens) was built, consisting of approximately 150,000 different words (types).

In corpus linguistics one is interested in what is common and has predictive power, rather than in what is rare and are outliers. We therefore lifted out all the types with a minimum frequency of ten, of which there are about 7000. One third of those are nouns. The form of the noun class for each of those was derived from corpus evidence, i.e. the nouns were studied in context, and that context (read: the concordial agreement morphemes) pinpointed / confirmed class membership. All the members of each of the classes were then subjected to an in-depth analysis on three levels: (i) morphological (i.e. a study and quantification of the singular/plural pairs, if any, as well as their overlaps), (ii) morphophonological (i.e. a study and quantification of all the sound changes when attaching (nominal) morphemes to noun roots), and (iii) a look at their semantic import (i.e. a study and quantification of the contents).

The language phenomenon of ‘Malapropism’ in Sesotho

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This paper intends to highlight occurrences of malapropism among native speakers of Sesotho, in which instances students in higher education institutions as well as officials in high rank positions are part of the dilemma. Hence, the objective of the paper is to clarify that malapropism is not always as humorous ‘comic effect’ as was the case with ‘Mrs Malaprop’s humorous character’ in the 1775 Restoration comedy, but that it is a speech fallacy that needs to be eradicated as much as possible. The paper will also identify the potential dangers and risks following the distortion in the use of words or phrases.

The portrayal of positive politeness and requests in Xhosa literature

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The aim of this paper is to establish how the various strategies for positive politeness may be expressed in requests in isiXhosa employing specific theories of speech acts and requests. For this purpose, the various strategies of Brown and Levinson (1987) will be considered. Brown and Levinson see politeness in terms of conflict avoidance. The central themes are ‘rationality’ and ‘face’, which are both claimed to be universal features, i.e. possessed by all speakers and hearers. Rationality is a means-ends reasoning or logic, while face consists of two opposing wants: negative face, or the want that one’s actions be unimpeded by others, and positive face, or the want that one’s actions be desirable to others. Politeness is fundamental to the very structure of social life and society, in that it constitutes the expression of social relationships and provides a verbal way to relieve the interpersonal tension arising from communicative intentions that conflict with the social needs and statuses.

Specific strategies for requests have also been developed by Trosborg (1995). The research methodology employed in this paper includes a range of relatively new aspects with respect to both the compilation and analysis of empirical data. This paper will also invoke evidence from isiXhosa to call into question the universality of the claim made by the proponents of politeness theory notably, Brown and Levinson (1987).

‘AKUCHANYWA APHA’ – NO PEEING HERE – Xhosa signage in Cape Town – what we really want to say

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For a number of years the author has collected examples of official signage in Xhosa, much of it incorrectly translated or spelt. Signage on new taxis however, is often slick and well-executed, while home-made township signs sometimes convey unconventional advertising and cautionary messages. The paper will address different categories of signage in Xhosa: a) official signage b) corporate signage and branding c) signs on taxis and finally d) township advertising and signage. The author will argue that the more authentic messages are those that are hand-painted, self-conceived and self-executed.

The emergence of clicks in Khoesan and other languages of southern Africa: two problems with a single solution?

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It has long been recognized that click-containing words in southern African Bantu languages are often essentially Bantu. The clicks replacing certain segments are believed to come from Khoesan languages. However: ‘borrowing’ scenarios fail to account for the emergence of clicks in Khoesan (Problem 1) – while leaving certain aspects of click distributions in Bantu languages (Problem 2) unexplained.

The paper proposes an endogenous origin for the Bantu clicks in rare but plausible intersections of complex morphophonological processes. It is then shown that many Bantu click words (i.e. with uncontestable Proto-Bantu underliers) are also present in Khoesan
languages. Possible implications of this surprising finding are explored, and in particular it is asked whether the solution to Problem 2 might not also be the solution to Problem 1.

Challenges in developing scientific terms in isiXhosa: Natural Sciences & Technology (grade 4-6)

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The aim of this paper is to identify challenges in developing scientific terms in isiXhosa and will make tentative proposals on how to deal with these problems. It emerged out of collaboration amongst subject specialists who are speakers of isiXhosa, lexicographers, linguists and members of NLBs in a terminology development project for Natural Sciences and Technology (grade 4-6). This paper is based on empirical findings and qualitative and comparative approaches are used in this paper. The paper will cover the following aspects: problematic relations concerning homonyms, polysems and synonyms, sensitive terms, the value of definitions from source languages, culture-specific terms, terms denoting the same concept and orthography in target languages.

Acquisition of tense in Xhosa: The long and the short of it

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Xhosa is spoken in South Africa by 8 million people but is virtually unresearched regarding acquisition. It is a pro-drop language, with extensive morphology accumulating on the verb stem. The purpose of this paper is to explore when Xhosa-speaking children acquire the Present and Recent past tenses. A second goal is to investigate when children know the grammatical conditions on producing the long and the short forms of each tense.

Six monolingual Xhosa speakers were followed longitudinally for two years from age 2;0 to 3;3 years. The first hypothesis explored was whether Xhosa speaking children go through a stage of optional tense. The results showed that no optional tense stage is evident in Xhosa. Children supplied overt (non-zero) tenses over 90% of the time. See also Ud Deen on Swahili (2005).

The present and recent past forms exhibit an alternation between what are traditionally called long and short forms. The alternation seems to be distributional: The short form must have a following constituent in its clause.

The distribution regarding alternation is completely formal in nature. How well do Xhosa children do in respecting these distributional facts? It was hypothesized that children might initially adopt a narrower rule for the long and short forms, reserving short forms for transitives and long forms for intransitives. However, a close analysis of the conditions of use of each tense revealed that the adult rules accounted for a much higher percentage of the children’s utterances than did the simpler rule, especially for short forms (88% versus 41%). The data speak to the ease with which children acquire formal distributional rules in
Although the past plays a large part in election campaigns, predictions and promises are its lifeblood, with the various parties promising great things if elected and predicting doom if not. Indeed the ‘manifestos’ usually published at the beginning of an election campaign are a study in pledges, promises and wishes that parties use to entice the electorate to vote for them. Whilst talk of the future often dominates election discourse, one aspect of the future that is largely passed over without comment is the actual make up of the result, despite the relentless publication of opinion poll results. However, towards the end of the general election campaign in Zimbabwe in 2008, the Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) began to warn of the dangers of the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) winning the election by a large majority. The media gave wide prominence to this event, seen as tantamount to conceding defeat to the MDC, though the reaction of all the main political parties was to downplay its significance. In this paper, we explore the discursive manipulation of temporal relations in the March 2008 election campaign. Thus the paper focuses on how the two main political parties manipulated language and the media in de-campaigning each other.

Prosodic Epenthesis and Elision in Zezuru: An Optimality Theoretic Account

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This paper seeks to examine the prosodic epenthetic and elision processes that are active during the formation of Zezuru “stemless substantives” (Mkanganwi 1995:51), namely, demonstratives and pronouns. Utilizing the synchronized analytical architecture of Optimality Theory (cf. Kager 1999, McCarthy 2008) and Prosodic Morphology (cf. Downing 2002, 2006), this enterprise aims to demonstrate that the obligatory [j] and vowel epenthetic and elision processes that are active during the formation of Zezuru demonstratives and pronouns are triggered by the mandatory satisfaction of high ranked markedness constraints, namely, *VV and PROSODICWORDBRANCH, which demand that, in Zezuru, hiatus and monosyllabic words are prohibited respectively.
An LMT account of the Passive in Ndebele

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It has been claimed in the literature that a central topic in any grammatical theory is valency alternations (Lodrup 2004). These alternations include passivization, locative inversion, causativization, among others. Our main focus in this paper is the process of passivization. However, we will also discuss locative inversion in Ndebele since it provokes an argument for the expletive _ku_. This is because the _ku_-construction seems to license passivization of intransitives. Passive constructions are probably the most widely studied grammatical phenomenon within the generative grammar framework, (GB Theory, RG, LFG, among others), Chomsky (1981), Perlmutter (1983), Bresnan (2001), Mchombo (1993, 2004). The passive has also been discussed extensively in typological studies. Consequentially, the study of the passive in Ndebele is to some degree made easier by the fact that the passive phenomenon has been revisited so many times and in the process constructing an impressive body of knowledge in the literature. It is generally the case that in the passive constructions the subject NP of the sentence in the active voice is either deleted (suppressed) or expressed by an oblique function and the object NP assumes the functional role of subject, with attendant morphological modification of the verb (Mchombo 2004). The paper discusses the Ndebele passive derivation using the Lexical Mapping Theory (henceforth the LMT). Using the LMT, the paper discusses the syntactic properties of the passive sentences in Ndebele. The paper demonstrates that the architecture of the LMT is largely applicable to the Ndebele language. The paper further demonstrates that Ndebele is unique by allowing active transitive verbs to undergo locative inversion. It is demonstrated that the locative in Ndebele can be expressed as the subject followed by the expression of Theme and then the Agent in the active transitives. It is this uniqueness in the violation of the Thematic Hierarchy that persuades us to agree with Harford’s 1990 proposal that locative inversion may be formulated without any contextual restriction at all. This is because languages differ in their intrinsic marking of thematic roles. Blevins’s 2003 argument is also tested in this paper, and it is our conclusion that Ndebele data presents a fresh challenge to the Unaccusative Hypothesis (henceforth UH) even after Blevins attempt (2003) to sharpen the distinction between passives and impersonals. Another complication for the LMT is the occurrence of agentive objects in Ndebele which the theory cannot account for. The paper demonstrates therefore that whereas the LMT is a theory that is largely applicable to and can account for the syntactic properties of the passive sentences in Ndebele, Ndebele data presents complications for the theory due to the theory’s restrictive nature.

HLT applications for the African languages: an example for a successful implementation of language policies in South Africa?

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Language planning means that a language is changed deliberately by either changing a language itself or changing the status of a language. On a corpus planning level, developing HLT applications such as spellcheckers, is one form of implementing language policies, as they help to standardize and modernize the African languages. On a status planning level, these applications could be used to enhance the status of the languages if they are used and accepted by the speech communities. The existing applications can therefore be considered a successful implementation of language policies on a corpus planning level but not yet on a status planning level.

Portrayal of child-characters in selected Sesotho literary texts

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There are Sesotho texts which have child-characters who take part as main and minor characters from the beginning of the text up to the end. These texts portray challenges and childhood life influenced by the changing environment in which children live. This implies that, it has come to the attention of the authors that the life-style of today’s children, has changed as compared to that of children of the past. For instance, the type of education offered nowadays differs from that one offered in the past when at all stages of their education they were with people they are familiar with. However, it seems that children’s presence as characters is given little attention by literary critics. The aim of this study is to analyse one short story from the collection entitled Lehlohonolo ha se Lebelo published in the 21st century in order to find out how writers of this period portray children in their texts. The paper will also find out how far the portrayal of children in the texts corresponds with the real life situation.

An Investigation of the ‘Unusual’ Structure of the Ikalanga Relative Clause

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Demuth and Harford (1999) contend that in Bantu relatives, the verb raises from I-C if the relative morpheme is a prosodic clitic/bound morpheme while the subject remains in spec-IP hence these languages have subject–verb inversion. Although some authors point out the rarer relative clause of some Bantu languages such as Luganda in which no subject verb inversion occurs despite the fact that the relative morpheme is a bound morpheme, no one really discusses this particular structure. Ikalanga, a Bantu language spoken in Botswana employs the Luganda type of relative clause, that is, the language has no subject verb inversion in relatives although the relative morpheme appears to be a bound morpheme. This observation challenges the conclusion reached in Demuth and Harford (1999) that when the relative is a prosodic clitic the verb must raise to C resulting in subject verb inversion. This raises the question, ‘what then is the structure of the relative clause in languages like Ikalanga and Luganda? This paper explores this question investigating the following two alternative
analyses: a) a very simple and straightforward analysis whereby the verb raises only as far as T while the subject raises to spec-TP and the head noun raises to spec-NP of the NP that takes CP as its complement *ala* Chomsky 1977 or Kayne’s (1994) analysis. The second analysis is in line with Demuth and Harford’s analysis where there is I-C movement but this requires explaining why there is no subject verb inversion in the said languages. The paper will argue in favor of the former analysis using tests such as selectional restrictions of the verb, adverb placement and agreement facts as evidence in support of the analysis.

Systematic Polysemy of verbs in ChiShona: an account at the syntactic-semantics interface

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This paper examines the most pervasive patterns of systematic(regular) polysemy among ChiShona verbs. The analysis builds from a deconstruction of the principle of ‘biuniqueness’- a preferred principle in universal grammar, which polysemy as a phenomenon contradicts. In this article, instead of discussing the more abstract issues of the interpretation and representation of polysemy directly, I will try to contribute to this discussion by providing a detailed analysis of specific polysemy phenomena connected to verbs in ChiShona. Using synchronic data I will show that a verb’s semantic variation is inseparable from those syntactic constructions that the verb appears in. I will also stress that it is not just the more abstract syntactic description of these structures that correlates with the semantic alternation of a verb(i.e. its polysemy), but also the semantic content of the nouns that can appear as its arguments. This shows that polysemy is best treated as a global concept. In this discussion, there is a general departure from the traditional linguists’ position that unquestionably sees polysemy as a phenomenon that affects the meaning of individual words to a position that the meanings of words often change when these words appear in different syntactic structures. I will argue that polysemy is best explained at the syntactic-semantic interface.

On social relations and marriage: a perspective in some of TN Maumela’s literary works

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Population groups in many parts of the world do not view the status of parents and their children as equal; neither do they take the status of a man and a woman equally. This is so because many societies are patriarchal in nature, Vhavenda society included. Parents treat their children as secondary citizens. As a result, their rights regarding marriage processes are abused through the practice of forced marriage. However, modern youth are resisting this type of marriage. They want to choose spouses that they love. While the old generation believe that the main purpose of marriage is procreation, modern youth believe that marriage is based on love. African culture prevents the youth from playing leadership roles in the society; hence they are discouraged to play a role in the marriage process. They are perceived as people who
cannot think for themselves. Their life is controlled by the adults in the male dominated society. The denial of freedom of choice regarding spouses on the part of the children leads to pre-arranged and forced marriages; a problem faced by both female and male children. The prevailing situation is the source of conflict between parents and their children. The aim of the paper is to highlight the problem faced by both parents and children in the area of marriage as reflected in TN Maumela’s literary works and propose solutions in this regard.

Revisiting the Language Question in Zimbabwe: A Multilingual Approach to the Language in Education Policy

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When a country uses language to exclude the majority from participating, then it becomes apparent that its language policy is part of the apparatus used to block access to democracy. Zimbabwe is a multilingual country that seems to generally ignore the multilingual character of its citizenry resulting in a total perpetuation of the colonial status quo that marginalizes indigenous African languages at all levels of the country’s education system. This paper argues strongly for the recognition and use of all indigenous African languages spoken in the country in both the private and public spheres. It also argues that when minority linguistic rights are acknowledged, the full participation of minority groups in all national activities is guaranteed. Discrimination on the basis of language, the paper argues further, has negative repercussions in other spheres of life. In conclusion, the paper proposes a language policy framework code-named ITEM (Integrated Trilingual Education Model) that could be adopted to enable the country’s citizens to actively participate in national development. The Model makes it possible to accommodate all of Zimbabwe’s languages using them as essential tools of communication for development purposes irrespective of the number of speakers.

Music – Evidences of Language Change, Progress or Decay

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One of the human compositions that cuts across human race in terms of touching, entertaining, educating and addressing issues that affect mankind, is music. Basotho as a nation, are no exception in the production of music and more often than not, artists display what can either be perceived as language change, progress and or decay in their music. One such musical genre is Famo Music. This paper therefore sets out to interrogate some of Famo music artists with regard to the use of language in their selected songs. The discussion will be tailored around utterances of different forms – be they proverbs, words, phrases and / sentences; during musical performances by some Basotho Famo artists. The intention is to establish whether or not these utterances during musical performances constitute change, progress and
From orality to scribality and then to textuality: A critical evaluation of the elements of orality in the novel of OK Matsepe: *Lešitaphiri*

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Oral literature transcends from orality to scribality and then textuality due to technonical innovation. This paper seeks to evaluate the value of the characteristics of morality as applied by O.K. Matsepe in his novel *Lešitaphiri*. This will be done taking into account the significance of self and community in a developing and changing society. It is important to note that all cultures are born from orality. However, the changes that the self and community undergo have a strong impact on the communications models within the community. This is influenced by the self and community, as the writer expresses his/her views by means of language that is based on a particular community.

Pragmatics and the Shona naming system 1890-2008

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This paper submits that the way the Shona people use given names to communicate various kinds of information demonstrates the applicability of pragmatic tenets of performatives, implicature and presupposition. Furthermore, it reckons that these anthroponyms sustain the community’s tranquillity as well as their namers’ face. And, to decode their multiple intended and implied pragmatic meanings, one has to draw significant insights from pragmatics. Data was gathered through questionnaires. This qualitative ethnographic paper draws greatly from a UNISA registered Doctoral study on Shona anthroponyms 1890-2008 that advocates for the pragma-semio-semantic decompositional theory as the best way forward to decode Shona anthroponyms.

A sociolinguistic analysis of a contemporary tsotsitaal poem titled; “Ekhoneni” by Siyabonga Sikhakhane

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The aim of this paper is to prove that tsotsitaal is not static, but dynamic and involves inherent changes. It appears that change is the very law of its existence. What today may be regarded as a new-founded lexicon or expression of tsotsitaal may change in future. Some tsotsitaal of today may fall into desuetude in a few generations to come. Concerning the statement of the
problem of tsotsitaal is that it keeps on changing. One problem is that tsotsitaal is rooted in a generation gap. Another problem of tsotsitaal change is that old traditional words are giving way to the new ones. The context of old tsotsitaal words is fast disappearing. The meaning of a traditional tsotsitaal word may shift in a contemporary or modern situation. This help the users to perpetuate the nature of a tsotsitaal as a secret language in order to exclude unwanted person from the conversation. Concerning the theoretical approach the paper is analyzed within the framework of existing sociolinguistic theories.

To write this paper the speaker was motivated by a live performance of the abovementioned tsotsitaal poem titled “Ekhoneni” by the poet Siyabonga Sikhakhane at various KwaZulu-Natal provincial functions. The same poem which has now been changed to hip-hop or rap music will first be played to the audience. It will then be followed by an analysis of language expressions used in this poem. Concerning the nature of the tsotsitaal poem the speaker will discuss borrowing which is used in the poem: “Ekhoneni”. The paper will conclude with the main finding of the paper, i.e. that Tsotsi language is a vibrant language variety that is accepted by its speakers because it facilitates expression in certain social contexts.

On tones and reduplication in Cisubiya (Cikuhane)

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This paper is a descriptive study of tones and the process of reduplication in the Cisubiya language. Cisubiya is a Bantu language spoken in the north western part of Botswana mainly in the Chobe district and the surrounding areas. This language is classified by Guthrie (1967-71) as K 42 in Botswana. Specifically, the paper seeks to address the following aspects of this language: the tonal patterns typical of Cisubiya lexical items and the tonal structure of reduplicatives in Cisubiya. As will be demonstrated, unlike other Bantu languages such as Ikalanga (Mathangwane 2002); Ciya (Ngunga 2001), among others, Cisubiya reduplicatives copy both the segmental and tonal material e.g. voózavoóza ‘spread continuously’; bûkûlabûkûla ‘make fire continuously’. This type of behavior put Cisubiya in the same category as Chichewa (Mtenje 1988) and Cinamwanga (Mtenje 2006) in which reduplication is shown to copy both the segmental and tonal material.

Nominal classification of Setswana loan words

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The system of noun classes has been viewed as an important aspect of Bantu linguistics. According to Katamba (2003) the presence of noun classes has proven to be the “litmus” test for membership of a language of the Bantu family. This system of noun classes extends to
new words when they become nativized in a Bantu language. Each Bantu language has its own rules and conditions of integrating loanwords into its linguistic framework. Most of these rules involve a combination of semantic, morphological and/or phonological features. Upon their nativization loanwords have to be assigned to their respective noun classes (Janson and Tsonope 1991).

This paper examines the morphological classification of loanwords in Setswana. We address the classification of nominal loans to noun classes and evaluates the interaction between phonological, morphological and semantic triggers. The interest of the paper lies with what appears to be interplay between phonological, morphological and semantic constraints in assigning noun loans to different classes. The paper will attempt to specify the productive criteria of nativizing loans into the Setswana system of noun classes. The assumption is that in addition to semantic and morphological criteria, Setswana segmental phonology plays a crucial role in determining the class prefixes the nominals of the nominal loans once they are adapted, and this determination affects their class membership. For example, with the adaptation of words with word initial consonant clusters such as /sk-/ , /st-/ and /sp-/ by inserting the epenthetic vowel leads to their being assigned to class 7.

**Word forms in conjunctive writing: a case of IsiZulu, with Sesotho examples (for comparative purposes)**

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The notion of a word is, in most languages, by no means clear-cut. There is a mismatch between form and function that makes it difficult to resolve wordhood. Word formation may take place beyond the lexicon. Hence, it is difficult to conclusively say where a word begins and where it ends. Some morphemes are words in their own right (free morphemes), while others are bound. The word ‘lexeme’ was introduced in order to avoid the ambiguity in the term ‘word’ when vocabulary is discussed. In Zulu, an agglutinating language spoken in South Africa, some “orthographic words seem to incorporate more than one syntactic category.” (Van der Spuy, 2006). They contain morpheme sequences that do not coincide with syntactic words.

The authors of this paper want to re-open the wordhood debate by proposing that, since words may appear in a variety of forms in Zulu, the notion of ‘word’ must be relativized to at least five different senses. This proposal extends Bresnan & Mchombo’s (1995) three senses: morphological, grammatical, and semantic. In Sesotho, a language spoken in South Africa and Lesotho, however, the number of forms is reduced because of its disjunctive orthography.
A case of marginalized African languages tuition in urban South African Schools: A need for an urgent implementation of a good foundation level in African languages

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The purpose of this paper is to highlight the issues related to the teaching of Indigenous languages in predominantly white primary schools of the Western Cape Province in South Africa. It has been discovered that in these schools, all the Second language teachers of African languages, in particular isiXhosa, feel that these languages do not get the same attention and treatment that is given to all the other school subjects. A practical example of this is that in these schools, isiXhosa is only taught for 30 minutes in a two weeks cycle, and can only be taught as a Third language, which constitutes play and sleep activities with no time and opportunity for assessment whatsoever. This is a worrying situation especially in a country with an extensive Nation Building programme which upholds the equal development and equal use of all the languages.  

When discussing this paper, the following aspects will be looked at: The importance of building a good foundation in the teaching of African languages in lower grades (to solve the proficiency problems of both the Home language and the Second language speakers who choose to take isiXhosa as a subject). Secondly, the way in which the problem of time allocation for the teaching and learning of isiXhosa can be addressed. Thirdly, a suggestion will be given on the kind of syllabus or curriculum teachers of isiXhosa can follow in primary schools. Lastly, recommendations will be given on the immeasurable role of curriculum advisers, teacher planning clusters and Further Education and Training (FET) input in developing the standard of isiXhosa tuition in the predominantly white schools in South Africa.

Mainstreaming indigenous languages and literature for socio-economic enhancement: challenges for Zimbabwe

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Linguistic imperialism has remained one of the nagging challenges for independent African states. In spite of political independence, Zimbabwe - a multilingual state, has maintained English as the official language with the excuse of the lack of resources theory. This paper explores possibilities of using African languages and literature as a conduit for socio-economic empowerment in Zimbabwe. It analyses the challenges and proposes possible solutions to improve the status quo. The paper concludes by making recommendations for an all-inclusive language policy that values the diversity of its language resources while recognising the limited economic resources to support the implementation of policy changes.
The media, Malawian local languages and HIV/AIDS (interlinkages)

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This paper seeks to show the inter-links between the media use of local language in informing and civic educating people on issues related to HIV/AIDS. It also discusses how the media can effectively use language that is culturally acceptable, culturally sensitive and proper simplification of HIV/AIDS tough technology in prevention of HIV/AIDS and the mitigation of its impact to persons living with HIV/AIDS and those affecting as well as care and support activities. To do that the paper will present findings of various studies. Notably an MBC listenership survey on language used during the programming and presentation of HIV/AIDS, sexual and reproductive health and other cross cutting issues and how it has negatively impacted on listeners, i.e. there was wide spread resentment distaste of the highly sexually insensitive and culturally provocative language and choice of words used. The study found that there were reduced numbers of listens country wide to HIV/AIDS programming. Other finding also indicated that delivery of HIV/AIDS and sexual reproductive health messages could best be delivered understood in vernacular and local ethnic languages.

A recommendation from the above cited study led to another study and intervention jointly implemented by the centre for language studies of the University of Malawi, the Censorship Board and MBC on suitable language for use by the Media, Health providers in the delivery of HIV/AIDS and sexual reproductive health issues. The research teams fund overwhelming acceptable terminology from respondents for use in the delivery of such messages other words were listed down by respondents as unacceptable for use in the delivery of HIV/AIDS messages. The information about terminology both acceptable and unacceptable was compiled into a book. The presentation will single out words that are commonly abused and used in the delivery of HIV/AIDS messages. This presentation will also discuss this research finding Nation Aids Commission on Television and Radio programming of HIV/AIDS and sexual reproductive issues. The general findings will be discussed in relation to language used in general, local language frequencies and presentation frequencies. Other findings from Media Institute of Southern Africa, MIJ radio survey Prah, and Manda on Local Language quotas in electronic media will also be discussed. The paper concludes with a recommendation of establishing HIV/AIDS News papers or publication in local and ethnic languages establishment of Media Local Languages resource centre for HIV/AIDS, media handbook development of a mass media behaviour change communication strategy and as well as exploring HIV/AIDS policy documents on how they can be effectively

What is in the name? Verbal Affixes in Bantu Languages with special reference to Kikongo

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The relation between verbal affixes and their effect on the predicate argument structure of the verbs that host them has been the focus of many studies in linguistics, with special reference to Bantu languages in recent years. Despite the existence of a substantial literature on the verbal affixes in Bantu languages, their status and designation remain contentious. Among others, the question whether applicative, causative, passive and the like should be regarded as extensions or derivational affixes, has not been conclusively dealt with. While taking into account the data found in Matsinhe and Fernando (2008) and the effect of these affixes on the verb they are attached to, this paper revisits their status and designation with special reference to Kizombo, a dialect of Kikongo as spoken in Makela do Zombo and Damba districts of Uige province in northern Angola.

The semantics of intransitive verbs in the Generative Lexicon

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The polysemous nature of linguistic items present many challenges in various spheres of life. The extent to which we are able to decompose the complex nature of word senses becomes imperative. It is against this background that this paper explores the multiplicity of word meaning in intransitive verbs, in particular, of state or motion verbs. The theoretical paradigm used to explore how meaning is constituted in intransitive verbs is, Pustejovsky’ (1996) Generative Lexicon Theory. This theoretical paradigm is structured in such a manner to explain how linguistic items can have novel senses in various contexts and how these novel senses manifest themselves due to the compositionality process, while at the same time constraining the number of lexical entries in the lexicon.

It is argued in this paper that the Generative Lexicon model for lexical semantics provides one with a plethora of devices to explore the denotations of lexical items in different contexts. This paper seeks to determine among other things the event structure of these verbs, in particular, the classification of aspectual classes of events. The inclusion of verbal aspect is informed by the notion that verbal aspect expresses the characteristics of the internal structure of events. The argument and the qualia structure of these lexical items will also be looked at. These generating factors play a crucial role in outlining how new senses can be composed in the realm of linguistics.

Re-examining the relationship between subject agreement morpheme and (in)definiteness in Northern Sotho

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This paper re-examines the role of the subject agreement morpheme (AgrS) in Northern Sotho, in relation to the interpretation of a noun phrase (NP) as definite or indefinite. The relationship between definiteness [±Def] and specificity [±Spec] is clarified, for the purpose of interpretations. Because of this morpheme’s intimacy with the subject position the paper interrogates, as far as possible, only the subject (NPsubj). This will be done by (1) revisiting four works that exhibit relationships with [±Def] and/ or AgrS; (2) analysing a few texts that
may shed light on the issue; and (3) relating findings from previous works with current analyses. The main argument of the paper is that AgrS does not necessarily render an NP definite; specific indefinite NPs can also agree with predicates by AgrS. Secondly, when some class 9 NPs assume class 1 AgrS, the NPs are interpreted as definite.

The unrecorded vocabularies of the North and the Lowveld dialects of Northern Sotho – A forgotten reservoir of our Indigenous Knowledge

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The standard Northern Sotho or Sesotho sa Leboa has excluded a large section of its indigenous dialects, thereby excluding almost half of its indigenous vocabulary due to several historical factors. Northern Sotho is historically known to consist of several dialects which include, inter alia, Sekone, Sepedi, Seroka, Setlokwa, Sehananwa, Selobedu, Sepulana, but the standard Northern Sotho has excluded almost all its Lowveld dialects and the dialects spoken in the Northern and North Eastern parts of the Limpopo Province. These sidelined dialects do not form part of the Northern Sotho written language and the majority of their vocabularies are not recorded as part of the Northern Sotho standard language. These unrecorded dialects include, inter alia, the major dialects such as Khelovedu, Setokwa, Sepulana, Seroka and Sehananwa. Most of the communities speaking these dialects are found in the border with the Vatsonga-Machangane and the Venda communities in the Lowveld and the Northern Parts of the Limpopo Province. The exclusion of these dialects from the standard form led to the following consequences:

- Almost half of the potential Northern Sotho vocabulary is not standardized.
- The indigenous knowledge ‘hidden’ in most of these vocabularies is gradually forgotten and soon will disappear.
- The recorded indigenous Northern Sotho culture only gives a picture of those communities whose dialects form part of the standard language.
- The indigenous cultural system in these ‘sidelined’ dialects is still very much unknown to the linguistic researchers.
- As a result, the size of the Northern Sotho lexicon as it is at present is very much smaller than it is supposed to be.

Therefore, the sooner the entire indigenous vocabulary of this language is included in the standard vocabulary, the bigger and richer will be the vocabulary of the Northern Sotho language.

Reciprocal constructions in Setswana

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Reciprocal constructions in Setswana are interesting in the sense that the introduction of the verbal extension –an to the verb radical derives an intransitive verb from an underlying transitive verb. In particular, the process reduces the object arguments of the verb. The reciprocalisation process expresses the notion of carrying out the action mutually by two individuals or groups (Cole 1955:209), as in (1b). The paper examines reciprocal constructions in Setswana Dictionaries, paying attention to the distribution of the reciprocal morpheme -an, especially when it occurs with other valency morphemes.

The analysis is carried out in Lexical Mapping Theory, a sub Theory of Lexical Functional Grammar, developed by Bresnan and Kanerva (1989). The theory links the constituent in the c-structure, the grammatical functions and the arguments. This study is done in honour of Dr. MLA Kgasa, the pioneer of Setswana Lexicography.

(1) a. Mo-simane o-bets-a mo-setsana.
   1-boy 1SM-beat-M 1-girl
   ‘The boy is beating the girl.’

(1) b. Mo-simane le mo-setsana ba-a bets-an-a
   1-boy and 1-girl 1SM-PRES-beat-REC-M
   ‘The boy and the girl are beating each other.’

Example (1b) shows that after the reciprocalisation process, the two sentences are conflated and the subject of the verb refers to two participants and the object function is eliminated.

**Deficient verb clause modification as diagnostics for temporal constituency of lexical aspectual verb classes (situation types)**

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The main aim of this paper is to examine the occurrence of various deficient verbs in Sesotho as they may occur in a range of tense and mood with various basic-level situations. Types of verbs (states, activities, accomplishments, activities and achievements) are used in order to determine whether the occurrence of the respective deficient verbs is semantically compatible with each individual basic-level situation type verb. In addition attention will be given to the expression of the temporal-aspectual distinction in Sesotho in the light of the conceptual distinction between tense and aspect since tense closely interacts with aspect in the interpretation of temporal-aspectual relationships. In this regard the temporal and situation type aspectual meanings of Sesotho deficient verbs in their occurrence with a range of semantic verb classes in Sesotho will be explored. The viewpoint aspect in relation to the perfective-imperfective opposition realized in these sentences will also be considered.
Some of the Problems in First Year Students’ Academic Writing in Some SADC Universities

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There are many problems that confront English as a Second Language (ESL) learners in academic writing in some Southern African Development Community (SADC) universities. Some observers and commentators continue to bemoan the fact that most graduates from Historically Black Universities (HBUs) exhibit poor performance in English when compared to neighbouring countries like Lesotho and Swaziland. One of these problems is low proficiency which manifests itself in numerous syntactic errors and inappropriate lexical selection in their use of the target language. The forms or varieties are simply mistakes or errors which can be eradicated by teaching. The learners need to learn and understand the structure and nature of the English language. The deviations and innovations arise owing to a number of processes. This article argues that the problem stems from the fact that the burden has been placed on departments of English which seem not to want to abandon the literary tradition. It presents some of the problems that African learners of English in HBUs seem to exhibit in academic writing when they enter university education. It discusses what is done and what needs to be done to first years students when they enter university in HBUs. In HBUs English language programmes are not mandatory or do not exist as is the case with most SADC universities and some Historically White Universities (HWUs). The conclusion makes a suggestion that it becomes necessary to mount similar English language programmes at first year level in institutions which do not have these programmes. It is hoped that this would improve learners’ language proficiency and hopefully competence as well as students acquire their education.

The proverb ‘you may lead the horse to the water but you cannot make it drink’ as portrayed in the Northern Sotho novels: A continuous existence of a love triangle

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Considering our past experiences, it is not surprising that some cultural relationship issues remain recurring problems in our society. They form part of a complex series of problems which, to a certain extent, reflect some of the wider social ills which prevail in our society. We are, however, not unique. These issues which confront some individuals in our society even today affect other communities as well. Parents in the Northern Sotho novels had a great influence in the marriage of their children and their decisions were final. There were no frank and open discussions between the parents and their children and the latter felt that they were not fairly treated. Wealth also had a negative influence. It is the purpose of this paper to show that marriage that involves the third force or is based on the properties often hits the rocks as it is indicated in the novels. It furthermore helps the parents of this new era to learn tolerance and respect by interacting harmoniously with their children who are different from them. Where there is heart, there is love.
“Indebe” as metaphor in Matyila’s *Bawo Thixo Somandla*

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Arnold Matyila wrote this song *Bawo Thixo Somandla* in 1973 when he was dismissed by the erstwhile Ciskei Government from his teaching post. This paper intends to show how Matyila uses “Indebe” as metaphor for his situation.

In keeping with what Lakoff and Johnson (1980) say that Metaphor is reflected in our everyday language by a wide variety of expressions, Matyila uses ‘Indebe’ metaphorically to express his frustration at what is happening in his life.

> ‘Mayidlule le ndebe
> ndinesingqala entliziyweni yam
> ndisoloko ndisithi “mh” “nc!”
> mayidlule le ndebe
> Bawo Thixo Somandla’

(May this cup pass
I have this uncontrollable sob in my heart,
I keep on saying “mh” “nc!”
May this cup pass Father God Omnipotent)

The paper will also espouse that in expressing his feelings of rejection as an individual, he says ‘Mayidlule le ndebe’ (May this cup pass) the text does not simply ‘clothe’ the words but propels and gives them a powerful additional resonance.

Matyila’s dismissal relates much to his morality, as it was to his antagonism to the Ciskei establishment. This according to him is his ‘Indebe’ which he wishes to pass.

**Culture and gender: a reflection on perceptions in some South African communities**

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This paper discusses the views of various scholars on how culture defines masculinity and femininity. With regard to this, Wood (1994:21) says, “We are born male or female—a classification based on biology – but we learn to be masculine and feminine. Gender is a social construction that varies across cultures, over time within cultures … “ This definition and others which will be examined lead to expectations of how individual men and women should act and communicate; how individual communication establishes the meaning of gender that in turn influences cultural views. African communities are not exempted from such definitions.

The meaning of gender in African communities depends heavily on cultural values and practices. These cultural values are reflected in both verbal and non-verbal communication.
and examples will be cited from various African languages to illustrate the role of these values in society. Important as they are in most African communities, these values pose a challenge to the present generation which feels that they lead to stereotyping of men and women. In addition, such stereotypes devalue women and segregate them from men.

In conclusion, this paper suggests that some of these cultural values should be reviewed in order to align them with the practice of human rights. Besides, cultural values should conform to a changing world. This would ease the brewing tension between the older and younger generations. The media can play an important role in this by interrogating values which promote negative social interaction between men and women. Cultural values should also be a part of the school curriculum as they play an important role in the development of children.

**Word formation in the development of Tshivenda terminologies**

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The Tshivenda Language Research and Development Centre was established in 2005 at the University of Venda in collaboration with the Department of Arts and Culture. The Centre has five divisions. One of the divisions, namely Language Enhancement and Terminology Development, was mandated to produce and coordinate subject specific terminologies. The Tshivenda Language Research and Development Centre was terminated at the end of 2008 before it could complete its work. During its tenure, the Tshivenda LRDC developed and coordinated two subject specific terminologies. Two of the projects that were completed were *HIV and AIDS* and *Human Social, Economic and Management Sciences Projects*. In those projects the Centre was developing terminologies. Tshivenda terminologies were developed from English. There was no formula or theory laid down or was followed in developing those Tshivenda terminologies.

The aim of the paper is to analyse the terminologies in order to come with linguistic rules that were followed consciously or unconsciously in developing the terminologies. The research will be limited to words used in two pieces of completed work entitled *Multilingual Terminologies on HIV and AIDS Terms* as well as partly completed works on the *HSEMS Project*.

This research is significant because it will help language practitioners, grammarians, morphologists and linguists develop new terminologies in the Tshivenda language.

**African languages in the 21st century: the main challenges**

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Prior to the independence of all the countries on the continent, African languages were stultified and marginalised in the political and socio-economic development process of whatever kind. This is in spite of the assumption that language is the key or at the heart of socio-economic development. Concerted effort to develop languages at continental and national levels in terms of dictionaries and terminologies that has seemingly produced fruit is indeed a milestone in the development of African languages. The question to ask is: After all these efforts can we say African languages are now capable of carrying philosophical and scientific discourse to unprecedented heights, that is, the level to assume that African languages have taken their rightful place in the states and in the world? It is on the basis of the above that this paper attempts to highlight the successes, possibilities and challenges in giving impetus to the promotion and use of African languages in various spheres of activity on the continent.

Praise Poetry

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Praise Poetry is one of the ever increasing arts African politicians have used to decorate their power. Upcoming poets, in trying to uplift their profiles and inadequacies have for many years created colourful new words in poetry to praise politicians at rallies. They weave a more acting picture that has created a false paradise for such power-hungry politicians though the road is rough and bribery. African women too, with their new compositions have been used to consolidate dictatorial regimes by creating juicy, poetic praise songs. But will such crowd-pulling poetry continue to dominate after the demise of dictatorial regimes in most of the African countries?

The overlapping of metaphors with idioms and praise names in Tshivenda

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In defining a metaphor various scholars understand this figure of speech differently. Some scholars define metaphors as a matter of thought and not merely of language, others understand it as figures of speech in which one object or thought can replace the other without any effect in the meaning. It is also important to note that other scholars regard metaphors as figures of speech with implied comparison while others take them as a thought – transfer of an idea.

This paper would like to illustrate how metaphors overlap with most of the historical linguistic properties of language or with some other figures of speech as reflected in the Tshivenda language. This is possible due to their flexible natures that accommodate other figures of speech without any difficulty. The close relationship is mainly found between metaphors and other linguistic properties, such as in proverbs, idioms and diglossia.
One aspect that the paper would like to investigate is the semantic value of metaphors as it is used in the language. Metaphors carry more semantic value than an ordinary literal sentence.

**The Manipulation of Verbal Folklore Genres in Mass Media Communication**

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There is a close relationship between folklore and mass media. This paper explores and evaluates the manipulation and use of oral literature in mass media taking into consideration the concepts of context, de-contextualization and re-contextualization. The paper argues that mass media does not destroy folk tradition rather it invigorates it. It further argues that by using these verbal genres and adapting them to the modern world mass media continues the role and function of oral literature in African societies such as to educate, give moral lessons, warn and sensitize people. It concludes by showing that folklore is dynamic enough to adjust to any cultural innovation.

**Names of cattle and the cattle-naming system among the Tonga of Zambia**

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Names of Cattle and the Cattle-Naming System among the Tongas of Zambia The paper looks at names of cattle and the cattle-naming system among the Tongas of Zambia. The study of names is part of a sociolinguistic branch called onomastics. By exploring the origins, meanings and significance of names, whether they are names of people, cattle, animals, rivers, possessions or business, one would be struck by the wealth of information which certain names provide about the society that gives them and the economic and social environment people live in. In the paper it is shown that names of cattle are not just randomly chosen. A lot of thought goes into the choice of cattle names taking into consideration prevailing trends as dictated by the social, cultural and economic set up of a community.

Without discarding the purely linguistic approach, the paper defines cattle names generally and determines their collective meaning as an expression of the distinct social and economic culture of the Tonga society. In particular the paper shows that cattle names reveal the nature of the immediate social and economic environment of the people inasmuch as they translate some aspects of the beliefs and customs of the people.

The paper uses a thematic approach to explore the social function of the cattle names and their meanings and significance in the reconstruction of the culture, social and economic environment of the people and their view of the world and the value they attach to cattle. Most names are meaningful labels which taken as a whole constitute a statement on the culture of the people who invent them.
In our analysis the relative social value attached to each category of names is assumed to be proportionate to the number of distinct names it comprises. The higher the number of times certain types of names appear, the greater value they express. Multiplicity of names in a given category will thus signal a subject matter of great relative social importance to the community.

**Origin and authorship of Xhosa proverbs**

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There is a noticeable connection between proverbs and other forms of literature, both oral and written. This is in line with the generally accepted existence of a connection between genres, a connection which some scholars, among them Julien (1992), refer to as intertextuality, which is a continuous dialogue of works of literature among themselves.

Connected to the question of intertextuality is the issue of the origin of proverbs. Few studies have been done on the origin of the proverbs. In reality, there is little or no possibility of seeing a proverb in the making. Taylor (1985) emphasizes that any beliefs regarding origin must justify themselves as evident, or at least plausible.

The authorship of proverbs, like other folklore forms, is characterized by anonymity. Even text appears to be an intertext. On this subject, Taylor (1985) comments that at the very beginning of a proverb’s history, there is no question of “communal composition”. Taylor acknowledges, though, that tradition accepts or rejects a proverb immediately after its composition, an act which is a “factor in its making”.

This paper seeks to argue that despite the popular view of “communal composition”, which is a fact, some proverbs can be assigned to definite authors. Popular quotations are turned into proverbs and are quoted widely in Xhosa circles. Although it is true that not all popular quotations can be traced back to their inventors, the paper argues that there are implications for a person, and not a group of people, as a starting point. This is an issue which has not been investigated much in the noticeable enthusiasm in proverb studies.

**The superiority of humans over evil: A.C. Jordan’s folktale “Nomahadi and the Mbulu-Makhasana”**

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In the story, “Nomabhadi and the Mbulu-Makhasana”, Nomabhadi encounters evil forces in the form of *iMbulu-Makhasana*. Through her portrayal the story is able to demonstrate that a human being exists within the protection of a hard shell of the culture that surrounds and protects her/him. The whole community in which the little girl, Nomabhadi has lived dies leaving her with a rich cultural background of songs, stories, art, lineages, etc. While on her long journey to her uncle’s home she encounters an evil creature called *iMbulu-Makhasana*. This creature sets about tormenting Nomabhadi physically, but spiritually she remains much
stronger than it is. The spirits of her dead parents give her added support and in the end she prevails over the evil creature. The *iMbulu-Makhasana* is then killed, but it returns from death. Unlike the parents of Nomabhadi, the *iMbulu-Makhasana* only returns as a melon, which possesses no spiritual powers, but just a mere physical existence. For the second time the *iMbulu-Makhasana*, now in the form of a melon, is destroyed and Nomabhadi survives its attack which can still only affect her physically.

**The economics of languages: Indigenous versus global languages from a South African perspective**

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The notion that language rights and linguistic citizenship are appropriate and adequate models to guarantee equal treatment of all local languages in South Africa is a utopia. A voluminous literature has emerged on various aspects of human rights with special emphasis on the epistemological grounding of human rights. Equality of language rights in South Africa is guaranteed by the fact that these rights fall under individual human rights. The perception that language ‘rights’ are about the redress of past wrongs has had negative effects on efforts to gain broad public support for the teaching and maintenance of languages other than English in most countries, notably the USA (Ricento, 2005:349).

This paper seeks to establish whether all official languages enjoy ‘parity of esteem’ and are treated equitably in South Africa. A case study approach will be used to determine whether a balance can be maintained between the global need to communicate and the need to preserve local and regional identities and cultures. The paper endeavours to establish whether it is feasible in South Africa, to maintain the prospects of multilingualism on one hand and to simultaneously promote the use of the local indigenous languages on the other, in an increasingly globalized world.

**The generative lexicon and the nominalizations in Sesotho**

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In this paper, the deverbal nouns in Sesotho are analyzed semantically within specific parameters taking into account the deverbal noun as a whole. This is done by viewing how word meaning interact with a set of generative mechanisms to account for the creative use of language. These mechanisms involve the levels of representations (i.e. argument, event and qualia structures) which provides information about the number and type of arguments; the event type of a lexical item and how these events are tied together within different relations. The focus is on nominalizations in classes 1, 3, 7, 9 and 14.
The Impact of Disjunctively Written Verbal Prefixes on Setswana Tokenisation

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Tokenisation is regarded as a core technology in natural language processing. Setswana is characterised by a disjunctive orthography, mainly affecting the word category of verbs. In particular, verbal prefixes are usually written disjunctively, while verbal suffixes follow a conjunctive writing style. For example, in the English sentence “They shall learn Setswana” the four tokens are they /shall /learn /Setswana, but in the Setswana sentence “Ba tla ithuta Setswana” (They shall learn Setswana) the two tokens are ba tla ithuta /Setswana and not ba /tla /ithuta /Setswana. The correct identification of word boundaries in Setswana is therefore essential for any further processing of electronic Setswana text. This paper reports on a Setswana tokeniser, based on a combination of two tokeniser transducers and a finite-state morphological analyser. It is applied to a hand tokenised test corpus and results are discussed.

Account giving in Narrative of Farming in isiXhosa

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The purpose of this study is to examine message production and image restoration in the narrative accounts of an isiXhosa-speaking farming community in Keiskammahoek. Further, this study examines the motivations and conditions for account-giving in isiXhosa. Accounts are similar to narratives and can be retained at the level of private reflections for others to read, educate, learn and refer to from time to time. The reason for focusing on narrative accounts is that they are embedded within social actions in the sense that they render events socially visible and as a result typically establish expectations for future events, because the events of daily life are immersed in narrative. The study employs Gergen’s (1994) narratives forms as linguistic tools that have important social functions to fulfil, such as stability narrative, progressive narrative and regressive narrative. Gergen considers self-narratives as forms of social accounting or public discourse. In this sense, narratives are conversational resources - constructions open to continuous alteration as interaction progresses. This phenomenon has been elaborated upon in this study especially in the narrative accounts of different isiXhosa stories which were collected and analyzed.

What emerges from the analyses is that the individuals, whose stories are told, are portrayed as dealing with some conflicts or problems in their lives, and at the same time searching for solutions. These narratives proved, in this regard, to be a cultural resource that serves social purposes such as self-identification, self-justification, self-criticism and social solidification. The final findings of this study are that the social-interactive aspects of account-giving of an Account giving in Narrative of Farming in isiXhosa
The analysis of the politeness of the traditional healers discourse (language) with specific reference to Tshivenda

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The aim of this paper is to examine the discourse used by traditional healers in their interaction with their clients. In order to achieve this aim, the paper will concentrate on a variety of communicative aspects such as the employment of appropriate terminology in interpreting the messages denoted by various divining bones, the use of terminology when addressing the clients, and the employment of terminology in identifying trees with medical value. The paper argues that besides the potency of medicine dished out by a traditional healer to prevent and cure a variety of ailments, the use of polite language in ensuring the well-being of clients cannot be over-emphasized. In other words, the interface between physical and psychological features in traditional medicine should receive prominence at all times as the total health of humanity is predicted by the foregoing features.

The many names of HIV and AIDS among the Basotho

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The creativity and dynamism of language and its speakers make it easy for speech communities to coin new terms and change the meanings of old terms, when need be. Basotho are no exception to this observation; as life changes they coin new terminology to address the many changes observable today. This creativity is seen in the coining of new terms and application of many old terms to refer to HIV and AIDS. However, many of these terms are negative and therefore unacceptable to those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS. This paper describes the cultural and linguistic processes through which HIV and AIDS become stigmatized as a result of the negative terms used to refer to it and those who are HIV positive. The paper will also highlight consequences resulting from this negativity in naming.

Language use in popular culture – An interpretative approach to windshield slogans on commuter public transport in contemporary Zimbabwe

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In present day Zimbabwe, privately owned buses, minibuses and kombis provide up to 80% of the mass transit needs of ordinary citizens. Using Zimbabwean commuter public transport as a research site, this paper analyzes the Africa-wide phenomenon of windshield slogans. The paper will argue that because windshield slogans are produced for the consumption of a mass audience with a purpose to attract and/or impress potential customers, these slogans are multilingual forms of popular culture. The term “popular” assumes an empirical, sociological
basis which refers to “the people”. Using examples cited on commuter omnibuses plying Zimbabwe’s roads, the paper will analyze these slogans as a light-hearted colloquial reflection on matters of deep interest and concern to driver crews and their passengers, informed by local slang and popular culture.

**The nature of the Xhosa traditional legal system as reflected in the case of Mqhayi’s “Ityala lamawele”**

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The aim of this paper is to explore the nature and sustainability of the Xhosa traditional legal system in rural areas. This relates to a concern over major gaps relating to dispute resolution in the present South African legal system courts. This practice would preserve and acknowledge Xhosa traditional settings in the South African democracy.

The first part of this paper discusses the nature of the Xhosa traditional legal system as reflected in “Ityala lamawele” (The lawsuit of the twins). The book in question is a Xhosa novel written by S.E.K. Mqhayi in 1914. This book demonstrates how justice among amaXhosa operated quite successfully before South Africa adopted the Western system. Secondly, it will suggest the strategies into the development of rural legal system.

**The roles of the women folk as portrayed in the epics Ingawule, Mwindo and Sonjiata**

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The paper looks at how the roles of the women folk are portrayed in the following African epics: Ingqawule, Mwindo and Sonjiata, as they performed their roles in the amaXhosa, Nyanga and Mande societies. Okpewho (1992:202) defines an African epic is defined as:

“epic has often been used to describe tales in which human characters, endowed with somewhat superhuman qualities and powers, undertake and execute tasks which would be beyond men with normal human capabilities. These outstanding or extra-ordinary men are referred to as heroes and in performing their tasks, invariably aided by extra human resources such as magic, divinities or spirits or even certain animals prompted by supernatural forces. Epics are usually broad in their scope (in the scale of action, the time taken or the political or cultural geography covered) are most set in some historical experiences, and in any case reflect some significant stage in political or cultural history of the communities that tell them”

A brief outline of each of the epics mentioned above is given, and is followed by a discussion on the three epics.
A design-based framework for the design of a specific purposes isiXhosa course for student teachers

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The aim of this paper is to present a framework for the design of a specific purposes isiXhosa course for student teachers. The teaching of isiXhosa as a second additional language was prioritised by the Western Cape Education Department in its Language in Education Transformation Plan, which highlighted the urgent need for the development of second-language proficiency in isiXhosa among educators. The paper will investigate how different dimensions of text analysis can inform a design-based approach to syllabus design undertaken within the framework of contemporary task-based language teaching theory and specific purpose course design. The framework presented was developed after an extensive literature review and analysis of communicative texts.

In search of larger units of meaning: a foray into Northern Sotho data

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One of the intrinsic principles upon which language description is based, is the assumption that the word is the basic unit of meaning. Sinclair (1996) calls the word one of the primitives of language, the other being the sentence. Taking the word as the primary unit of lexical meaning furthermore implies that a word has an independent meaning. The way in which words are treated in dictionaries illustrates this mode of thinking rather clearly. However, there are instances where the independence of the word as unit of meaning is compromised, idioms, proverbs and fixed phrases being the most well-known and oft-cited examples. In conventional descriptions of a language, these extended units of meaning are largely ignored, being regarded as somewhat quirky vocabulary items that have to be learnt, since the meaning of such a multiword unit is more than the combined meaning of its parts. This is also the case for Northern Sotho. Based on evidence provided by the electronic corpus, Sinclair (1996) argues that the phenomenon of extended units of meaning is not restricted to idioms, proverbs and fixed expressions, and that the choice of a word is very rarely independent of the environment in which it appears. Following Sinclair, in this paper, the concept of extended units of meaning is investigated and illustrated by means of examples from Northern Sotho. This concept is defined on three levels, increasing in abstractness from the first to the third level, i.e. the collocational level, the colligational level, and thirdly the level of semantic prosody. The implications for such an approach to language teaching, especially the teaching of Northern Sotho as first or second additional language are also explored.

Lexical variations in Sesotho

M. Thetso and M. Rapeane
The dynamism of language and culture is not peculiar to Sesotho, as life changes so do all human languages. As linguistic change is preceded by linguistic variation, Sesotho shows this variation at different levels. Lesotho has two official languages: Sesotho and English. Because of the relationship between the Basotho and neighbouring South Africans, there is contact between Sesotho, Afrikaans and the Nguni languages spoken in South Africa. To a large extent, variation is observable between early and current, rural and urban Sesotho. However, the issue of language variation is a sensitive one to language purists, perhaps because it is not easy for them to accept a shift from early and standard forms to current forms. The purpose of this paper, then, is to study lexical variation in Sesotho, concentrating on both internal and external variation.

The use of persuasive message in Xhosa

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Persuasive message has a communicative value since no matter what people do, they reveal information about themselves. Xhosa, like any other language, also uses persuasive message in everyday life. Persuasive communication plays a pivotal role among the Xhosa discourse as people sometimes pay more attention to how one conveys the message rather than what he or she says. Like any form of communication, there are problems associated with understanding a persuasive message. Difficulties may arise if the communicators are unaware of the types of messages they are sending and how the receiver is interpreting these messages. Divergence may also arise if the sender’s message does not match the receiver’s perceptions of said norms of particular situations. All parties involved must desire interaction for reciprocal communication to occur. The primary aim of this paper is to investigate the use of persuasive messages in Xhosa.

A literary criticism of eight selected Setlamo political songs

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Political songs form a sub-genre of Sesotho oral literature, however, very few researchers have ventured into carrying out research on them. There are hardly any written documents on political party songs in Lesotho. This therefore poses a threat that, much of this genre goes unnoticed together with its literary and thematic aspects including the role it plays in the society. It is this scarcity of comprehensive studies on political songs and the realization of literary aspects which are prevalent in them which has triggered the researcher to undertake the present study. The present study hopes to analyse some of these political songs, discussing their themes and highlighting their subject matter.
A review of raised vowels in Tshivenda

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Vowels are more difficult to describe than consonants. This is because the parameters used in the description of consonants have not been found applicable to vowels. Taking into account all these, scholars or phoneticians agree that the naming of vowels is therefore attributed to the role played by the position of the tongue in the oral cavity. Although unlike other speech sounds which are named due to specific areas where they are articulated, vowels lack specific areas of articulation. As such, their naming is due to the role played by the position of the tongue in the oral cavity.

This paper is therefore not prescriptive in nature, but it is an attempt to open our minds to a concern or argument that there are only TWO raised vowels in Tshivenda, namely, vowel e [ɛ] and vowel o [ɔ]. The paper explores the potential for the possibility of the availability of other raised vowels than the two already mentioned.

The aim of this paper is therefore to expose the possibility of the presence of other raised vowels in Tshivenda.

I discovered that raised vowels are a creation which therefore opens up the possibility of the creation of other vowels due to the influence of the terminative vowel [i].

New types of courses for new types of students?

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Courses offered in African languages at South African universities were mostly designed for students coming from a knowledge-based educational system. Most of the students entering universities in South Africa today are products of outcome-based education. Courses should be adapted in response to a new set of needs: not only should students acquire knowledge, they should also acquire skills with which to apply their knowledge in the globalised world of the 21st century. The approach based on the assumption that there is a basic course that should be completed by all students to match a basic set of requirements should shift to an approach that considers the real needs of real students within a real environment. Course design should be based on a marriage of basics and specifics, knowledge and skills. At the University of the Western Cape it has been found that an increasing number of Xhosa speaking students prefer to register for the Xhosa language acquisition courses, rather than for the mother tongue courses. The profiles of a number of these students were studied and some of the findings are discussed in this paper.

Locative-subject inversion constructions with the motion verb –hamba in isiXhosa: event structure and (anti-) causation distinctions

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The paper explores the lexical-semantic and morphosyntactic properties of the arguments in locative-subject inversion constructions with the motion verb –hamba (‘go, walk’) in isiXhosa. First, the lexical-semantic properties of the subject NP of the verb –hamba are examined. Thereafter the aspectual verb class (event structure) properties of the alternation constructions are analysed with respect to a range of diagnostics including the acceptability of temporal, manner and instrumental adverbials, and reason modification clauses. It is shown that the event structure properties of the alternations with –hamba exhibit the causative – anti-causative distinction associated with activity and state events.

The Performance of Food in a Multilingual Restaurant, Cape Town: writing about Sound

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The point of departure for this paper is that the organization of multilingualism in late-modernity differs significantly from the social situations in which models of multilingualism have traditionally been formulated. I argue that the dynamics of emergent multilingual practices in situations of mobility and flux offer unique encounters between mobile populations of multilingual language users in the transcultural flow of goods, services, music, languages, peoples and food. This paper speculates that sound and spaces of sound are intricately linked with the consumption of food at a popular restaurant in the township. Through a semiotics of sound and performance/performativity, it will be shown how modes of sound create spaces of sound that is intricately connected to the consumption of meat and drinking alcoholic beverages at a popular township restaurant in Cape Town.

“Black African learners reject African languages”. Truth or myth?

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This article aims to give a clearer perspective of the incorrect situation that has been painted several times in the Sunday Times, and other newspapers with catchy headlines such as “Black African learners reject African languages”. The newspapers give the impression that African learners do not want to learn their home languages. That situation is not the whole truth, but the newspapers continually mislead their readers by presenting the situation of former Model C school learners as if it is the situation in all South African schools. The majority of schools where Black African learners are, offer African languages as home languages and English as the first additional subject.
Challenges faced by the African languages translators with specific reference to isiZulu

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The development and the upliftment of the status of the previously marginalized African languages which have been accorded the equal official status with English and Afrikaans is a major concern in the language fraternity in South Africa. Various language services including translation are offered by various structures and agencies ‘in languages by translators’ or language practitioners who together with ‘the product of their activities are pivotal intermediaries in a multilingual context’ (Beukes in Webb & Du Plessis 2006:16). This paper intends to look at the challenges faced by African languages translators, who also have to contribute to the development, promotion and the elevation of these languages.

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