

A MODEL FOR THE MACRO- AND MICROSTRUCTURE OF A YIPUNU-FRENCH SCHOOL DICTIONARY

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Declaration

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

Signature.....

Date.....

SUMMARY

In the field of the science of language, dictionaries have always been part of a standardisation process. They are also part of the expansion, the development and the promotion of languages in societies. On the other hand, the education system is an important partner for both foreign language teaching and the development of local languages in countries with a weak written tradition like Gabon. It is a strong platform for the production of dictionaries because it includes the diffusion and the application of school programmes and school manuals.

Therefore, it is relevant for the Gabonese population to rely on a well-established lexicographic tradition to preserve and promote their local languages. Introducing dictionaries in the field of education can ensure this. Dictionaries have to be compiled in the Gabonese languages for Gabonese pupils learning those languages. Because each culture encourages the development of dictionaries suitable to particular difficulties, dictionaries compiled in Gabonese languages have to be made according to the Gabonese situation.

The present dissertation will present a model for a bilingual school dictionary involving Yipunu, one of the Gabonese languages, and French. The aim will be to develop a model, based on metalexicographical principles, applicable to the Gabonese context. In this model the French section of the dictionary will not be active. The frame structure required in the compilation of such a model will contain a front matter, a back matter and a central list. Even if there are two treated languages, the dominant language in this dictionary will be Yipunu. French will appear only as translation equivalents. And for the convenience of the target users, the model will describe the content of a polyfunctional monodirectional bilingual Yipunu/French dictionary for Yipunu learners.

OPSOMING

Op die gebied van die taalwetenskap het woordeboeke nog altyd deel uitgemaak van die standaardiseringsproses. Woordeboeke vorm ook deel van die uitbreiding, ontwikkeling en bevordering van taal in gemeenskappe. 'n Land se onderwysstelsel speel ook 'n belangrike rol in die onderrig van vreemde tale, asook in die ontwikkeling van inheemse tale in lande soos Gaboen met 'n swak ontwikkelde skriftelike tradisie. Omdat onderwys die verspreiding en gebruik van skoolprogramme en -handleidings behels, verskaf dit 'n stewige platform vir die samestelling van woordeboeke.

Dit is belangrik vir die Gaboenese bevolking om op 'n gevestigde leksikografie-tradisie staat te maak om hulle inheemse tale te bewaar en te bevorder. Die invoering van woordeboeke in die onderwys kan dit verseker. Die woordeboeke moet saamgestel word in die Gaboenese tale vir die Gaboenese leerlinge wat daardie tale leer. Aangesien elke kultuur voorkeur gee aan die ontwikkeling van woordeboeke wat die uniekheid van die spesifieke taal weerspieël, moet woordeboeke vir die Gaboenese tale na aanleiding van die Gaboenese situasie saamgestel word.

In hierdie proefskrif word 'n model voorgestel vir 'n tweetalige skoolwoordeboek vir Yipunu, een van die Gaboenese tale, en Frans. Die doel is om 'n model daar te stel wat op metaleksikografiese beginsels gebaseer is en op die Gaboenese konteks van toepassing is. Die Franse deel van die woordeboek is nie aktief in hierdie model nie. Die raamstruktuur wat vir die samestelling van so 'n model vereis word, bevat 'n voor en 'n agtertekste-afdeling en 'n sentrale lys. Alhoewel hierdie woordeboek twee tale behandel, is Yipunu dominant. Die Franse woorde verskyn slegs as vertaalekwivalente. Ter wille van die teikengebruiker beskryf die model ook die inhoud van 'n polifunksionele, eenrigting tweetalige Yipunu-Franse woordeboek vir diegene wat Yipunu leer.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASG: Alphabet Scientifique des Langues du Gabon

FISDSA: The Francolin Illustrated School Dictionary for Southern Africa

FY-YF: Dictionnaire Français Yipounou/ Yipounou Français

GPLP: Grammaire Pounoue et Lexique Pounou

LDOCE: Longmann Dictionary of Contemporary English

OALD: The Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary

OJD: The Oxford Junior Dictionary

OLG: Orthographe des Langues Gabonaises

OPSD: The Oxford Pocket School Dictionary

YFSD: Yipunu French School Dictionary

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The aim of the present dissertation is to design a model for a bilingual school dictionary with Yipunu and French as language pair. The model should be designed in such a way that it could serve as basis for the compilation of a school dictionary going along with the *Rapidolangue* series of schoolbooks in order to enhance the learning process of five of the most frequently spoken Gabonese languages, introduced in the curriculum of Lycée and Collège of Libreville. The teaching of those languages has been introduced as a project directed by the Raponda Walker Foundation in collaboration with the Education Department. In Gabon, being a multilingual country (even if not officially), there is a need to promote and develop the local languages other than French, which is the only official language and the only medium of instruction. The linguistic situation that prevails in Gabon leads to a situation where a general dictionary cannot satisfy the needs of the young pupils of Lycées and Collèges.

Dictionaries have always served a pedagogical and a didactic purpose. They constitute a way of the standardisation of a language. They have been used for various purposes like language teaching and language restoring, thus providing explanations and information on words to the users. In their primary aim, dictionaries were compiled for practical purposes. They have been developed not as theoretical instruments but as practical tools. People needed support to help with translation concerning foreign languages. Dictionaries were also there to respond to a need of practical communication between communities with different linguistic cultures and backgrounds. The existence of lexicographic works like dictionaries is also due to a need of creating an interactive understanding between languages. This understanding prevails among languages from different linguistic communities, or among dialectal varieties from the same language and from the same community. In this regard, dictionaries develop along with the evolution of languages. This is reflected in the history of dictionary making, and still occurs in modern lexicography where one can see a theoretical-based growth.

Broadly speaking, the use of dictionaries has not actually changed much over time. They are still used as reference books by users who need some help with meaning, definitions, or translation to name a few. In that sense, dictionaries and schools are related, so are lexicographers and teachers. Together they play an important role in education by providing a better way for the pupils to adjust themselves to the society in which they live because they deal with normative language. The schoolbooks compiled during the process of the Raponda Walker Foundation project are there to present the young Gabonese generation with another aspect of the language of their parents.

Because Gabon is a multilingual country with a strong oral tradition, it is very important to develop and enforce the speech level in the classroom and in the environment of the pupils by providing adequate material to the teachers. Those materials may serve for either native or non-native speakers. Although all the studies in the field of language go along with a communication stage, when working on a school dictionary, the lexicographer should respond to the need of the intended target users of his/her dictionary, and at the same time, give the best view of the language he/she describes. He/she treats in the dictionary the standard variety of the language used by the users but also treats the daily language of the community. The pupils live in the same environment as adults. Yet, they may need more instruction, more information on the environment of the language described in a dictionary.

The present dissertation should serve as a theoretical basis to help in the process of the compilation of a dictionary such as the Yipunu French School Dictionary (YFSD) by providing a sound theoretically based lexicographic process, which includes assistance regarding planning, compilation of the corpus, compilation of the dictionary and issues of the consultation process. The needs of the intended target users cover text production as well as to communicate properly in the language of their parents. This however, is an element that allows the model of the YFSD to be a hybrid genre. The hybridness should help the lexicographer in providing a bridge that could narrow the gap between the oral form of Yipunu and its written counter part. In order to do so, the model will focus on providing data such as translation equivalents, alphabet, orthography, pronunciation etc.

The model will be designed utilising the theory of H.E. Wiegand in combination with insights from the work of Tarp and Bergenholtz with regard to dictionary functions. As a theory is not a fixed and rigid thing, the two theories presented in this dissertation have been applied and adapted to the Gabonese context in order to present a model suitable for the intended target user group. Because the model should be a response to the needs of the Gabonese pupils, it was necessary to identify those needs during the course of the work. Using both qualitative and quantitative methods, investigation on the language situation in Gabon, on the lexicographic situation of Gabon, on the education system as well as on the language policy in education was conducted in order to apply the above theories in devising a model that could lead to the compilation of a dictionary such as the YFSD.

In order to accomplish the task of the dissertation, the description of the model will be covered in four principal sections. The first section presents a brief view of dictionaries and dictionary typology. The second section gives a brief presentation of the linguistic situation in Gabon, setting a platform for the particularity of a dictionary suitable for such linguistic environment. The third section gives a view of the education system by presenting aspects of language teaching, the Gabonese classroom environment as well as three school dictionaries used in the South African context. The fourth section presents the design of the frame structure of the YFSD as it could be compiled. The emphasis of this section is on the outer texts section, the macrostructure and the microstructure.

**PART ONE: DICTIONARIES AND THE
TRADITION OF DICTIONARIES**

CHAPTER ONE: DIFFERENT TYPES OF DICTIONARIES

1. Introduction

General dictionaries provide a scientific way to respond to the needs of the users who are dealing with practical questions in their daily communication. Thus, they are made for a “general public” because they are describing the language of the speech communities and in a certain way, they constitute a mirror of the culture of a speech community. Their aim is to satisfy all the communities at the same time by providing answers to the users. In reality things seem different. One dictionary cannot give all the data needed by a community because there are different users in a linguistic community. The “general public” can be divided into small groups according to e.g. the socio-cultural level, the gender category, and the age. Dictionaries have to integrate themselves into those small groups by reflecting the language they speak. Because of the division of the so-called “general public”, dictionaries are covering several topics and they are divided into branches and types. The classification of a dictionary goes along with its function(s), its size, its format and the data categories it provides. In his book *Manual of Lexicography* Zgusta (1971) proposes a classification of dictionaries, which became a reference and a starting point for the theory of lexicography. He distinguishes various types of dictionaries divided into two major dichotomies. There is a distinction between “Encyclopaedia” and “Linguistic Dictionaries”, and between “Monolingual dictionaries” and “Bilingual Dictionaries”.

2. Encyclopaedia versus Linguistic dictionaries

Zgusta and modern-day lexicographers were not the first to introduce the distinction between encyclopaedia and dictionaries. This distinction started in the European Middle Ages with two different types of word lists. A well-established distinction was made between the *Glossaire de voix latine* and the *Sommes*. Catholic students to interpret and understand the ancient Holy Scriptures used the *Glossaire de voix latine*. The *Sommes*

was a collection of a range of information of what the people of that time had inherited from their past. An example of this kind of book is the *Etymologies* of Saint Isidore de Séville (Gross 1989).

Although they both deal with words, a dictionary and an encyclopaedia do not have the same focus. They differ in various points. This discussion focuses on some of the relevant differences that justify such a distinction¹. The major difference consists in the selection and treatment of their lemmata. An encyclopaedia deals with words that belong to what Martinet (1969:117) calls open paradigms. They include lemmata representing e.g. names of celebrities and of places, maps, pictures and photos. They do not typically provide data on words like verbs, conjunctions, locutions, prepositions and adverbs. On the other hand, dictionaries deal with the linguistic sign, so they provide a linguistic treatment of the word and they do not give as much attention to the referent. Encyclopaedias do not reflect the spoken language of the community, but the rare words, the not common words of the society. In their selection and treatment they focus primarily on extralinguistic features.

3. Linguistic dictionaries

Following the distinction between encyclopaedias and dictionaries, there is another distinction, indicating the difference between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. This distinction applies only when one deals with linguistic dictionaries. Encyclopaedias are generally monolingual. And within the category of linguistic dictionaries there are also subdivisions. Those subdivisions are made according to the size of the dictionary, but most of all according to the content, the treatment and according to the target user at whom the dictionary is directed. There are “standard dictionaries”, “comprehensive

¹ The difference between dictionary and encyclopaedia constitutes a great debate in the science of language. Some authors think that encyclopaedias and dictionaries are the same and there is no need to make such a distinction.

dictionaries”, “pedagogical dictionaries”, “historical dictionaries”, “etymological dictionaries”, “LSP dictionaries”. All of them are either part of what is called synchronic dictionaries, e.g. standard and comprehensive dictionaries, or part of the diachronic dictionaries like the etymological ones.

Berg, quoted by Zgusta (1971: 197), defines the word “dictionary” as a systematically arranged list of socialised linguistic forms compiled from speech-habits of a given speech-community and commented on by the author in such a way that the qualified reader understands the meaning [...] of each separate form, and is informed of the relevant facts in its community. Although I agree with such a definition of the term I also want to add that the user of a dictionary although he/she is automatically qualified to use a particular dictionary because he/she fits into the user profile of that dictionary, he/she may not necessarily be “experienced”. Still it remains a fact that the user comes to the dictionary to find a solution to a problem or answers to some questions. The user of a dictionary may not know how to use a dictionary but expects to find a solution in the dictionary. Therefore linguistic dictionaries do provide information on both instruction and cultural level.

One of the principal aims of the dictionary is to be consulted. Consequently, because of the changing needs of the users, many changes occurred during the last decade in lexicography. As a result, dictionaries are crossing barriers in the sense that, nowadays, there is not always a strict border between types of dictionaries. Some standard desk dictionaries seem to contain in their central list treatment such as that offered in comprehensive dictionaries, the treatment in etymological dictionaries also changed and they often contain more synchronic descriptions. One of the major examples of overlapping is the field of pedagogical dictionaries, especially school dictionaries, which use more and more extralinguistic information in the treatment of their lemmata to satisfy their type of users (particularly the dictionaries which deal with children on the level of primary school).

4. Monolingual dictionaries versus bilingual dictionaries Although the distinction between monolingual and bilingual started in the early phases of practical lexicography, it is usually known that bilingual dictionaries preceded the monolingual ones. In the past, people were using glossaries or word lists that essentially contained translation equivalents for foreign language words. From 3000 BC up to the Middle Ages in western countries, there were no or at least very few monolingual dictionaries. Boisson, referred to by Béjoint (2000:92), shows that some countries were having along with their oral records, both monolingual and/or bilingual traditional village recitations and word lists. Those word lists sometimes contained what he calls sorts of definitions, half poetry and half lexicography. The early monolingual dictionaries did not differ from the bilingual ones in terms of their function. They were also instruments for self-teaching. Both were used by people who wanted to know how to speak and write properly (to get to the high level of the language, the so called “standard language”). The difference between the two types was in terms of the number of the words included in the central list. Bilingual dictionaries were bigger than monolingual dictionaries (Béjoint 2000, Landau 2000). At the turn of the eighteenth century, that fact also changed. Lexicographers of that period felt the need to record and describe the “standard language” as a whole in order to exclude purely linguistic description aimed at prescribing the language. The community needed more grammar, and by extension, more dictionaries. Since then, in terms of volume, monolingual and bilingual dictionaries were equal. Whether the lexicographer has to describe the whole language of a community or the language of a particular group of that community, there are small and big monolingual dictionaries as much as there are small and big bilingual dictionaries.

Another point is that the pedagogical function of the dictionary at this period of time was still strong. In fact, teaching the “true language” was also one of the reasons for the expansion of monolingual dictionaries. In a similar way the need to know more about the linguistic system of a foreign language enhanced the publication and the quality of bilingual dictionaries. In that regard, Béjoint (2000:94) says that from a humble reference book for occasional use, the dictionary then became the repository of the language as a whole, a thesaurus recording language in a state that was not amenable to change. As a

result of describing the whole language in the central list of the dictionaries, the aim and the structure of dictionaries changed. The lexicographer no longer treated only “hard words” but he/she also included “simple words”. In the treatment of lexical items, provision was made to deal with polysemous senses and synonyms, paraphrases of meaning, definitions, collocations, regional terms, dialectal varieties, etc. The macrostructure as well as the microstructure of the dictionary developed into formal dictionary components and the typology of dictionaries became more established. This has led to more emphasis on the identification and establishment of specific typological categories. This has also helped the science of lexicography to become a well-established discipline with a sound theoretical basis.

The final distinction between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries regards the language(s) treated in the dictionary. As they have been named, monolingual dictionaries deal with only one language. For that reason and depending on the sub-type, it is preferable to compile them only if the language described is standardised. The language need to have a well established orthography, and a written form which is recognised by the community. Dictionaries serve as instruments in the development of a language, but their purpose is also to help in the process of the standardisation of languages. That is why most of the languages of the western countries have a range of monolingual dictionaries, with desk dictionaries and learner’s dictionaries being the most popular. For most of the countries in Africa, things are different. It appears that most of the dictionaries in those countries are mainly bilingual dictionaries. The major explanation for that situation is the linguistic situation that prevails in those countries. Most of them have more than ten languages to cope with, and yet the linguistic communities received as inheritance the language of colonisation. In some cases like in Rwanda, Burundi, Ethiopia, Tanzania and the DRC there are different literatures written in the local languages. Some of those local languages even manage to be official languages, and languages of the institutions. Some others are just languages that are spoken at home, or frequently used for research but not in the daily life like in the western countries with languages such as English, French and German. This part of Africa is a great platform for

the expansion of lexicography in general, particularly for the production of monolingual dictionaries. Bilingual lexicography still has a long way to go.

In conclusion, I can say that an important distinction that still applies to dictionary typology nowadays is that between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. It appears to be the most relevant one because all dictionaries, no matter the category, the size and whether they are synchronic or diachronic, are either monolingual or bilingual. During the last century, the emergence of multilingual dictionaries even absorbed the bilingual ones. Different functions in both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries also play an important role.

4.1. Monolingual and bilingual reference works in Gabon

In Gabon, the prevailing linguistic situation has seen the publication of many works in the field of bilingual dictionaries. The data used for those works was often taken from oral sources. Monolingual lexicography is still not explored in a comprehensive way. Missionaries have done some work. They concentrated on the religious and educational aspects and mainly translated French and English Bibles into some local languages such as Fan, Yipunu, Yinzebi, Getsogho, Omyene, Lembaama, Ghisir, etc., and they also produced some grammar and schoolbooks. Most of the people involved on a lexicographic level in Gabon were working on translation. The purpose was to provide a medium of communication between the local population and the missionaries or the explorers who lived in Gabon during that period.

Bilingual dictionaries entered Gabon in the 1600s (Mihindou 2001). Since then, they have been expanded. Monolingual dictionaries still have to undergo this process. The result of French being the only official language, amongst the sixty-two classified Gabonese languages, is that all the Gabonese languages developed along with French. Very little research in Gabon focuses on monolingual aspects of the local languages. It has always been a translation between French and the local languages. No exception was

made, even when it comes to grammar and schoolbooks, which are supposed to be monolingual works. One must notice that schoolbooks and grammars deal with mother-tongue speakers because their function is to help the children in their written knowledge of the language they speak. That is why, from a pedagogical point of view, school dictionaries and other lexicographical work directed at scholars and the standard language are usually done in the mother-tongue of the users. There is not such a procedure as source language and/or target language like in bilingual works. Every treatment is done in the described language, which is also the metalanguage.

However, the schoolbooks, and grammars compiled in Gabon were done according to a pattern resembling that of a translation dictionary. They all comprise two main sections. In the second section, all the explanations about the grammar, the pronunciation, and the structure of the language are given in French. In the first one, the examples and the lexical items are in the Gabonese languages. Those works essentially give the translation of the sentence or the lexical items in the local language. They do not pay attention to definitions, or explanation about the structure of that language, cf. the following examples taken from a series of schoolbooks edited by the Fondation Raponda Walker, one of the major Gabonese publishing houses.

Ex 1

Première leçon: **Salutation**/Greetings

Bonjour!	Fang	mbolo!
Hello! Good morning!	Inzebi	wè ma sogha!
	Lembaama	(mbolo) wè minyuasagha!
	Omyènè	mbolo!
	Yipunu Matin:	maranbuga (mbolué)!
		Midi: wi moyi!
		Soir: mbolué!
(réponse) bonjour!	F	Mm mbolo!
Good morning!	I	è na wè!
	L	è na wè!
	O	ae mbolo!

	Y Ninë na ndjenu! (mbolo) (inë)
Bonjour (plusieurs personnes)	* Mbolo ani! mbolo! mbolo!
Good morning!	* Be le ma sogha!
	* Mboloani!
	* Mboluanué!

Ex 2

SON ET ORTHOGRAPHE

A) Les voyelles:

a se prononce comme dans “pas”

ä ou **â** est une voyelle prolongée fréquente dans les langues bantoues. Elle s’écrit **aa**: son prolongé. Vient d’Afrique de l’Ouest comme dans “maam” grands parents en wolof, okaasi, femme en lembaama.

è se prononce comme dans “très”

i se prononce comme dans “si” - **ii** est un son prolongé

u se prononce comme dans “vous”

ü se prononce comme dans “tube”

B) les emi-voyelles:

ôn, ân sons nasalisés correspondant à «on-an » en français comme dans «bon» ou «enfant».

w se prononce comme dans “oui” ou l’anglais “we”

y se prononce comme dans “pied” ou l’anglais “yes”

C) les consonnes: Les consonnes **b, d, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, s, t, z**, se prononcent à peu près comme en français. Notez que:

mb, mp, nd, ng gardent leur valeur de consonnes et s’articulent nettement.

z représente un son intermédiaire entre le z de “zéro” et le j de “jeu”, dans la plupart des cas.

D) les consonnes combinées:

Leur prononciation s’apprend par l’usage. Signalons cependant quelques cas.

dy et **dj** se rapprochent du son “dion”, mais varient suivant la langue.

Quelque fois ils se rapprochent de **dz**

gh se rapproche de la jota espagnole ou du ch allemand «ach»

ng (généralement en fin de mot) son nasalisé qui se rapproche de “ing” dans “singing” en anglais.

ny ou **gn** se rapproche du son gn dans “agneau”. Exemple:
«nyama», «la viande» en yipunu (prononcer gnama)

The schoolbook is compiled using the French structure with no grammatical and semantic notions of the five Bantu languages treated in the schoolbook. The reason given by the authors of that schoolbook is that they did not want to repulse the pupils with grammar that could be “too complex” for them. But the French structure drastically differs from the structure of the five Gabonese languages found in the *Rapidolangue* series. Their choice does not represent a grammar that normally goes according to those types of languages. The real part of speech, the tonal suprasegment, the different forms of the lexical item, the morphology and data regarding all the structures are not presented. And yet, the format used for the book is suitable for foreign people who want to learn one of the Gabonese languages although the treatment is restricted to the pronunciation and the translation of the lexical item.

The fact that Gabonese languages do not have a written tradition makes the situation even more difficult to apprehend. Most of the patterns of phonetics are taken from the French sounds. That is not quite right because some sounds cannot be found in the French inventory. For example a complex sound like nasal consonants agglutinate to non-nasal consonants, or sequences of consonants are not often found in French while they are common in Gabonese languages.

Ex 3

In most of the Gabonese languages there are complex consonants like:

mpang [**mp**angə]

tsand [**ts**andə]

mvul [**mv**ulə]

udjab [**udʒ**abə]

ntchentu [**ntʃ**entu]

nda [**nd**a]

ndziami [**ndz**iami]

tchikwang [tʃikwɑŋə]

While none of the above sequence of consonants exist in French.

jambon [ʒɑ̃bɔ̃]

pic-nique [piknik]

chambre [ʃɑ̃br]

garder [ɡard]

charmer [ʃarm]

But we find:

plombier [plɔ̃bjɛ]

premier [prɛmjɛ]

fleur [flœr]

brouette [brœt]

The sequence vowel-nasal (VN) in Gabonese languages does not constitute one sound like in French. For French, the vowels **a** **o** and **u** for example followed by one of the nasals **m** or **n** are one sound [ã], [õ] and [ũ]. In the Gabonese languages these vowels can, in most of the cases, take the nasal coloration of the consonants. In some others, the vowel may be one sound with the nasal consonants like in French.

If the words are broken into syllables, we will have something like:

Ex 4

Yipunu	Civili	French
mpa-ng (mpang)	tchi-kwa-ngə (tchikwɑŋə)	en-fant (enfant)
tσα-nd (tsand)	li-ndo-mbə (lindombə)	sau-mon (saumon)
u-ro-nd (urond)	nko-mbə (nkombə)	gar-çon (garçon)

5. Conclusion

In modern day lexicography like in the past periods, dictionaries were compiled to respond to both didactic and communicative purposes. The classification that resulted from the practice of lexicography gave birth to dictionaries that are compiled according to the needs of the intended target users, and respond to those needs. Although metalexigraphers drew the lines between the different types of dictionaries, the overlapping is increasing, also depending on the needs of the target users. Therefore, the remaining major distinctions are: 1) the distinction between dictionaries and encyclopedias because of the lexicographic treatment they offer; and 2) the distinction between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries because all types of linguistic dictionaries can either be monolingual or bilingual. In that sense, although the reference works done in Gabon are all bilingual, they could present a good data base and a starting point for monolingual lexicographical work. The *Rapidolangue* series of schoolbooks will thus constitute a platform for the compilation of a school dictionary that could help in the establishment of dictionaries involving Gabonese languages in the education system. I believe that the function of this type of lexicographical work could help in producing a norm for the local languages.

**PART TWO: DICTIONARIES AND THE
LINGUISTIC ENVIRONMENT OF GABON**

CHAPTER ONE: THE LINGUISTIC SITUATION IN GABON

1. Introduction

Natural linguistic diversity is more prevalent in most of the black African countries and for them, bilingualism is a normal requirement for the daily communication. People speak the language of “home”, academic language and sometimes the language of the speech community of the environment they live in. A Yipunu mother-tongue speaker can then either speak Yipunu and French, or Yipunu and the dominant language of the province in which he/she lives. The common definition of being bilingual or monolingual refers to the number of languages a person speaks. A bilingual person will speak two languages and the monolingual person only one. It is ideally required from the bilingual that he/she speaks both languages equally well. That definition will then exclude most of the people in African countries who speak more than one language (sometimes more than three), and yet, even if a person speaks two languages, there will always be one, which will be the dominant one. But bilingualism or multilingualism is a complex concept with a lot of implications. Giving a right definition for that concept is a hard task, but not impossible if one takes into account the situation and its function. I believe that those two entities will determine the type of bilingualism that goes according to specific societies and individuals. An opposing group of definitions is based on the idea of language use, maintaining that bilingualism starts at the point where a speaker can first produce complete meaningful utterances in both languages (Johnson & Johnson, 1998:29).

2. Bilingualism and a multicultural environment

Some how, the complexity of defining the concept of bilingualism is due to the fact that one must decide on how much of the second language (L2) it takes to be a bilingual because there certainly exists a difference between a person who can master a L2 and the

ability of using it (sometimes the person struggles in the oral form while the written form is well mastered, and vice-versa). Thus, one should use the term “bilingualism” as a general word and talk about degrees or levels of bilingualism because most of the second language (L2) users control a different range of registers and styles in the two languages. For that reason a person can have a bilingual knowledge while being a monolingual. And yet, when someone uses more than one language, he/she has to internalise the L2 or the third language (L3) in such a way that he/she can use it for different functions and at different levels. That person needs to know more than asking his/her way, a cup of tea, bread or saying greetings. Furthermore, in the daily life, bilingualism is more restrictive. When a person is required to be a bilingual at work or whatever situation it may be, he/she is often expected to know the L2 just good enough to be able to produce what is required of him/her. Whether the person is fluent or not in the language in both written and oral form does not bother as long as he/she can satisfy the need of the situation. And more often, the use of the L2 will be restricted to translation and oral conversation, while the written form is neglected. In that sense, Johnson & Johnson (1998) take one example by saying that advertisements for bilingual secretaries seems to require an ability to use the second language for professional purposes alone; those for bilingual teachers often require the ability to reach non-English-speaking children rather than the knowledge of a language (Johnson & Johnson, 1998:29).

Another way to look at bilingualism is the fact that languages change with the linguistic environment in which they are spoken. Therefore, bilingualism is not a sign of any particular achievements, a bilingual person is not two monolinguals in one person, and as Hoffmann (1991:3) says, bilingualism arises as a result of contact. Bilingualism and/or multilingualism are not static states. The same rules are applied to monolinguals. During the last decades, some countries that were monolingual became bilingual or even multilingual countries. Canada, Finland, Belgium can be mentioned as examples of that process. The population of black African countries like Gabon mostly live in a multilingual environment, but those countries do not have an official status of being bilingual or multilingual countries. Even if there are several official languages, the one most frequently spoken will be the one of the ex metropolis. For those countries, being

bilingual or multilingual is just a fact and not a statement. They cannot be seen as multilingual states like Canada for example. An exception can be made with Rwanda that started a multilingual policy since the end of the 90s due to historical reasons².

In the case of Gabon however, the majority of the population speaks local languages. French still has a privileged position because it is the language of institution and medium of instruction in most cases. As a result, the education system appears to be a great platform to promote local languages even if they are unofficially used as medium of instruction in certain rural areas. In that regard, educational matters can affect, and they often do, the development and maintenance of bilingualism or monolingualism on both the individual and societal level. Hoffmann (1991:8) emphasises that point when saying that it has been attested, for instance, that unless the education system takes proper account of the special needs of the children of minority groups, they will not become fully functional in the minority and majority codes. On the other hand, a minority language that finds its way into the school curriculum will enjoy enhanced prestige and this can, in term, positively affect public attitude towards the language concerned and its speakers, who may find it easier to maintain.

The case is not the same in Gabon because it is the majority who speaks local languages. Nevertheless, those languages can be considered as minority languages because of the privileged situation of French (French is written, read and spoken while the local languages are only spoken and few people can read or write them). The education system in this case appears to be a good place to promote those languages and elevate them to an official level. The example of South Africa that introduced nine official languages, including the Bantu languages, illustrates the fact that Gabonese languages can also become official languages. For the case of Gabon, the procedure will be different because of the number of languages (62). Those languages are according to Kwenzi-Mikala (1988) divided into ten units. The strongest language of each unit can be elevated to an official language like French. The Gabonese government is willing to endeavour that

² After the genocide and the civil wars, most of the Rwandese people who grew up in Uganda came back speaking English. Today, Rwanda is a multilingual country with English, French and Kinyarwanda used in both institutions and as medium of education.

procedure. For this cause, it has introduced the five most frequently spoken languages into the educational system. Pupils from the “premier cycle” of Lycées and Collèges do have one of the five languages, Fang, Yipunu, Omyeng, Lembaama and Yinzebi, as subject.

From all this it follows that a better definition of bilingualism could be given according to the function of bilingualism. That leads us to different degrees of bilingualism. Cook, as mentioned by Johnson & Johnson (1998:30), proposes a new terminology, which can put all the levels of bilingualism under the same cap. He chooses to replace the term bilingualism by “multi-competence”. Thus a bilingual becomes a “multi-competent” person, no matter the level of the written mastering or the oral mastering of the language. That terminology fits well in with the statement I previously made that one must speak about a monolingual person with a bilingual knowledge.

3. Individual bilingualism

Although Gabon is not an official bilingual (or multilingual) country, there are many individuals who speak more than one language. For that reason, it is crucial to distinguish societal bilingualism from individual bilingualism. To go along with the situation that prevails in Gabon I choose not to speak in detail about societal bilingualism. Whether or not a country is officially bilingual has little to do with whether an individual can speak one, two or three languages, or whether that country has many multi-competent individuals.

Bilingualism is a subject that has been covered by several authors in the field of language acquisition, as well as in the field of linguistics and lexicography. I only chose to present definitions that are relevant for the present research project.

- In the definition given by Christopherson (1948:4), the competence of the bilingual is more realistic. He says that *the bilingual is a person who knows two languages with approximately the same degree of perfection as unilingual speakers of those languages.*
- A more realistic definition would be the one given by Weinreich (1968:1). It says that *the practice of alternately using two languages will be called bilingualism and the person involved, bilingual.* This definition can be applied to the analysis I make of the Gabonese children because it touches the point of the context and the function of bilingualism.
-
- For Oestreicher (1974:9), *bilingualism is a complete mastery of two different languages without interference.* That definition implies that the person does not confuse the languages, but it is restricted to two languages only while nowadays, it is possible to meet individuals with the ability to speak not only two languages, but also three or more. It is somehow an ideal definition because people who can completely master two languages are very rare due to the dynamics of the language and the linguistic changes. Because in a bilingual context there is interference between the different languages, two linguistic systems cannot be equally rich. The richer will prevail over the less rich in the language of a multi-competent person.

For Makey quoted by Hofmann (1991: 16), if we are to study the phenomenon of bilingualism we are forced to consider it as something entirely relative. He also adds that we should include the use not only of two languages but also of any number of languages. I shall therefore consider bilingualism as the alternative use of two or more languages by the same person because it may sometimes be difficult to draw a strict border between individual bilingualism and societal bilingualism. The age of

bilingualism at the time of the acquisition may result in considerable differences as suggested by the terms “early” and “late” bilingualism. There are some factors that can be taken into account to determine or describe someone or a community as bilingual or not. The first one will be the age, the second one the context of the acquisition, the third one the function of the acquisition of the language. Factor number 2 will provide the distinction between a child who learns the language from his parents, therefore who learns in a more natural environment (primary or natural bilingualism), from a child that has to learn, or who is put into contact with another language later on in a formal way like at school for example (late bilingualism). This category also includes adults who learn a foreign language and during the learning process the person becomes bilingual. This is different from the situation of a natural bilingualism where the child is already put in a bilingual environment. This secondary bilingualism must be distinguished from “school bilingualism” in which a person does not have the opportunity to practice and even speak or read and write the second language he/she learnt. The child born in a bilingual environment has the possibility of reading, writing and/or speaking the language, while in the case of school bilingualism, the knowledge of the second language stays in the classroom and is not put in the daily communication (Hoffmann 1991).

As already mentioned, fully bilingual people very seldom exist. It has frequently appeared that in a bilingual situation, one of the two languages is dominant and well known while the other one is weak with a lack of knowledge of the linguistic system. Most of the time, the dominant language is the first one, but it is not always the case. In some rare cases, one can find the dominant language being the second or the third one. This happens in the process of bilingualism when the person mastered the second language and ended up with a better knowledge and use of the second language, compared to that of the first language. This situation is mainly seen in the case of immigrant people who decided to adopt the language of their new countries. Both categories of people are found in Gabon. Some of the Gabonese have French as dominant and first language, some of them have French as dominant but second language.

On the other hand, the degree of bilingualism of an individual is often measured according to the monolingual environment in which that person lives. For example, an English person will be called bilingual if he/she is able to have a French or a Spanish conversation without having to look for his/her words, as if he/she was from that country (like in the definition of Christopherson or Weinreich) and vice-versa. In other words, one must find oneself in a monolingual situation to be able to know the degree of bilingualism of that person. Thus, languages used by a bilingual person are not, or do not need to be used in all kinds of contexts. He/she may switch from one language to the other, or only use one at the time. Because different bilingual persons function in different communication situations and display various levels of competence for each code, bilingualism is not a phenomenon of a language but rather of an individual. It is a characteristic of use. It is not a feature of code but of the message. That is why many conceivable patterns do exist when it comes to individual bilingualism. Those patterns go according to the languages spoken and the function in which they are used.

Generally the degree of bilingualism of an individual excludes the written use of language. Bilingual people are often only judged on an oral level i.e. in situations of listening and/or speaking. The ability to read or write is often neglected. In fact, a person can be bilingual without any knowledge concerning writing or reading, like in the case of Gabon and many black African countries. When individuals can only read and/or write a language without speaking it, they are not regarded as bilingual. There are degrees of bilingualism ranging from fully bilingual to being passive bilingual. The phenomenon of bilingualism is closely linked to the oral communication and that goes even for the Western countries that have a strong and well-established written tradition. If an individual in those countries is able to speak another language (lets take the case of a bilingual French-English individual), it does not matter if the person lacks some aspects of reading and writing, as long as he/she is able to speak and listen to the language, he/she is called a bilingual. The example of an African pupil who learnt one of the European languages, like French, German or English will be taken to illustrate this point. Pupils generally know how to read or write the language they learnt for several years (Gabonese pupils who had English as subject during high school). Yet, they will have

some difficulties to speak that language fluently. The common society will not talk about them as bilingual because the evidence for them lies in the speaking of the language. Thus the oral production prevails in the bilingual world, and in this case, even the individual himself does not consider himself as a bilingual.

4. Bilingual children in Gabon

Generally, the practice and alternative use of two languages will be called bilingualism, and the person involved bilingual. Hence, to be bilingual or even multilingual, a person should at least have a good knowledge of both languages and must be able to speak, read, and/or write them alternatively. This is not the case in Gabon. All the “bilingual” individuals do not have the knowledge to read and write the local languages. They may be classified in the category described by Martinet (1969) when he talks about symmetrical versus asymmetrical bilingualism. In the first case (symmetrical bilingualism), the person is supposed to have an equal mastery of both languages. He/she is fluent in them, and in a sense, stable. However, when one of the languages is less known than the other, it will be an asymmetric bilingualism. And in the situation of asymmetric bilingualism, one can distinguish:

- **Passive bilingualism:** The lesser known language is understood without being spoken (pupils learning English during high school in Gabon);
- **Non-receptive bilingualism:** It is the other way around. The language can be spoken but not fully understood (Children having one of the local languages as second language);
- **Written bilingualism:** The language is understood on the written level, and can be written as well, but it is not understood orally (pupils learning a foreign language at school)
- **Technical bilingualism:** The knowledge of the language is strictly limited to the professional needs (Foreign people who learn the language of the hosting country,

people working in specific domains and who are only familiar with the language of that domain).

In the situation of bilingual children, one can find two types of bilingualism (cf. p31). The two categories are determined by whether, in a bilingual situation, the child learns both languages simultaneously or not. In the case of Gabon, if the child learns both the languages of his/her parents and French, it is a case of “early bilingualism”. If he/she learns one of the languages before learning the other, e.g. when the medium of instruction in primary school is in Yipunu, the child will only come to know French at secondary school. It is a case of “late bilingualism”.

To learn a language, the linguistic environment is very important. It helps the learner to learn and retain quickly, and not to be confused in his/her practice. The words a person who learns a foreign language will hear most frequently will constitute the basis on which one can build his/her vocabulary (lexicon). Those words are normally the ones used in a typical conversation, in the daily life. Such words concern greetings, questions about how to find one’s way and words used when asking for help. They will have the priority because they are the words that the learner will encounter most frequently. Children are no exception. The way they learn is similar to the way of adults when learning a foreign or new language. But generally, there are two ways for them to learn a new or foreign language. The first one is through the immediate environment of the family, the linguistic context, and the second one is through reading, through the television and through school. The first way goes along with daily conversations where familiar words abound. They are the most learnt words, and they are easy to pick up by the children because the adults that live around them use them in a repetitive way. In the second way, which most of the time refers to books, the complex and academic words will be found. The two ways constitute the two registers that lead to the two acts of the linguistic activity of a community. Those acts are the production (encoding) and the understanding (decoding) of the language.

A difference must be made, in the present work, between learning a new or foreign language and acquiring a second language. The first normally refers to adults or pupils who have come into contact with a language through education or a formal medium of

instruction. Immigrants, women or men in mixed marriages, children of former colonised countries fall into that category. The second type merely concerns children of a mixed marriage, or children who come into contact with two (or more) languages in their early childhood. They do not learn the languages, but both languages are part of their language acquisition process (Hofmann 1991, Johnson & Johnson 1998). In Gabon, both categories of children are found in rural areas. Most of the children living in Libreville will fall in the first category, because the situation is such that they will come to learn either French as a second language, or one of the Gabonese languages as second language, especially in a monolingual marriage. For children in a mixed marriage, the best known situation will be learning the Gabonese language as a second language. In the rural areas, both categories of children will also be found with the difference that the local language is the dominant one while in the urban areas the dominant language will be French. Thus, Gabonese children often have to face more than two languages in their language acquisition process but most of all in their linguistic environment. They are secondary bilinguals because they come to know either French or one of the local languages later in their acquisition (cf.p30).

4. 1. The acquisition process

One must bear in mind that the acquisition or the learning process of a second language implies that the first language is well established in the linguistic competence of the speaker. For that reason, the second and first category of children seems to be similar because in both cases, we do have one dominant language and one weaker one. However a difference exists in the fact that in the first case, the child may just learn but still not be able to master the linguistic system of the learnt language, while in the second category, both languages become well established and mastered, although there will still be a dominant one.

Although it happens naturally, the learning of a second language does require certain conditions during the acquisition process. For the Gabonese children two major figures can be drawn:

- In rural areas, the child will first learn e.g. Yipunu, the language spoken at home and by the speakers around within the region. That child will come into contact with French only in primary school for some cases, and most of the time in secondary school and at university. At the early stage of the childhood, Yipunu is both first and dominant language. As soon as French comes into his/her life, Yipunu is still the first language, but will be the weaker one because of its lack of a written form.
- In the urban areas, the child either has Yipunu or French as first language. Some children were born or raised in a monolingual house. Yipunu will be the first language because it has been learned naturally, and French will be their acquired language. The child may be fluent in both languages, developing them at almost the same time. Yipunu will still be the first language but will not be the dominant one. On the other hand, some children would have learned French as first language and only come into contact with the second language occasionally, e.g. during a holiday at their grand parents. Those children are usually from mixed marriages and the language used by both parents when they talk to each other is French. In this case, two situations occur. Either French will stay the first and dominant language or one of the languages of one parent will become the dominant language.

In Gabon, like in many countries where people have to learn a second language for practical purposes such as work, school, integrating oneself in a new society or a culture, the process of learning was rarely done in a formal way. It was done more naturally and informally. In other words, it was done through the daily communication. People have to know how to speak to be able to fit into the society. This even goes for children. In that

regard I agree with Hoffmann (1991: 33-55) when she says that when a child learns to speak, he/she learns to use language as a means of expression, communication and social contact. Later on, she adds that he/she is also learning to use language as a tool for understanding and manipulating the world around him/her, i.e. he/she is learning that he/she needs to hear the language from people who surround him/her. In other words, language is an essential ingredient of a child's socialisation process (Hofmann, 1991:34).

4. 2. The linguistic environment

The familial linguistic environment in which the children grow up is a better way for them to learn words, especially when they are still young (2-4 years old). It appears also to be the better way for the older children to learn a new or foreign language (8-15 years old). This has the advantage not to be a passive process, but an active one because there might be a rich extralinguistic context to the conversation. The speaker will often have some sensitivity to the extent of the listener's knowledge, and the listener can ask questions (Bloom, 2000:192). The vocabulary found in the written sources is mostly like the linguistic environment in which children grow up. Nagy and Hermann, mentioned by Bloom, gave the result of a survey they conducted about how many words students who read at school can learn in a year. The response was that they will read about half million words a year and be exposed to about 10000 unknown words per year.

To the contrary, Beals (1998) finds that children are often exposed to rare words in the course of casual conversations at home, such as during meal time. That fact can explain why the linguistic context is the most frequent way for them to learn. It provides a way to learn both simple and complex words. The active function of learning a word can be defined by "hearing-questioning" to get more information from the learner's part. Most of the time the language is learned by hearing words in the context of sentences and use, and this linguistic context is used to figure out what they mean. The simple sentences will then be the ones most commonly heard. They will often not be able to talk in complex sentences and sometimes they will only use nominal sentences and contracted forms.

In Gabon, a lot of children have to learn the language of their parents as a second language because of the high number of local languages. All of them may be fluent in the language of their parents, but as mentioned earlier, few will be able to read or write in those languages due to the privileged situation of French (French is the only official language and the language of institution). The process of the apprenticeship in those languages (like with every child or adult learning a new language) will be more directed at the semantic level than the syntactic level. They will become familiar with verbs and nouns such as modal verbs, locatives, nominal classes, nominal and verbal pronouns in linguistic context. It will not be long sentences but simple and short ones, plus short affirmation and interjections forms.

Ex 1

Yipunu

rugh!: *come!*

djang!: *eat!*

tsan!: *sit!*

reelm!: *stand up!*

vhqs!: *speak!*

dund!: *do not do that/this; do not touch that/this*

ye bo'ivhik: *go and bring me that chair/ bring me that chair*

ni wendi' o ikol: *I go to school*

ni rondi unu mamb: *I want some water*

ni beeli: *I am sick/I am not well*

ye bo' dimanyi: *go and bring me the iron/ go fetch the iron*

we ye sus bipel: *do the washing up/go and wash the dishes*

The group, which I chose to work with in this research project, is Gabonese children from 8 to 17 years old. That group can be divided into two sub-groups according to their first

language. The first sub-group will include all the children who have French as first language. The second one will include the children who have Yipunu as first language. Even if in Gabon both types of children are found in the classrooms of both rural and urban areas, I only chose to work with the two categories of children living in urban areas. The primary characteristic of those two groups is that there is often a case of late bilingualism. For example, the pupils that are French first language speakers whose parents have a different mother-tongue (the parents speak a different Gabonese language) came into contact with the language of their parents after they learnt French. It is often the case in such a group because the language of communication between the parents and the children and/or between the children themselves is French. Most of the time the children came into contact with the Gabonese language while listening to their parents talking with relatives or friends, and/or by the mother when being given small tasks like fetching water, doing the washing up, swiping the floor, etc. This can also be seen with pupils who have parents that have the same mother-tongue but choose to give a French education to their children. The case of late bilingualism is also seen with children who have one of the Gabonese languages as first language. Most of those children were introduced to French in their first year of primary school, or while playing with their friends.

5. Conclusion

As demonstrated in this chapter, bilingualism is a relative concept. Although the majority of the languages spoken in Gabon are non-official languages, the linguistic atmosphere prevailing there qualifies it to be called a multilingual country. Every Gabonese child is raised in a bilingual environment as they are introduced to a second and even third language at either a later or earlier stage of their childhood. As a result, the young Gabonese generation is divided into two major groups where French and the local languages are wrestling. This rich linguistic situation also opens opportunities for the promotion of lexicographical work such as school dictionaries. Introducing local

Gabonese languages in the education system can help to maintain and improve multilingualism through the young generation, because it will provide for them tools enabling them to read and write in a language they already speak. Thus, the Gabonese population will come to an official multilingualism due to the promotion and the development of those languages.

CHAPTER TWO: BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES IN A MULTILINGUAL ENVIRONMENT

1. Introduction

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the multilingualism prevailing in Gabon leads to a situation where the pupils in the classrooms can be divided into two groups: the children having French as first language, and the children having one of the Gabonese languages (in this case Yipunu) as first language. In that regard, the linguistic system of Yipunu is non-existent in the group of children that have French as first language while it will be well defined for the children of the second group. The knowledge of French for both groups is, at this stage, established at both oral and written level. However, children who already have an oral command of the local languages only need to acquire the written command. An ordinary dictionary for these children has the delicate task of giving information that can satisfy the answers of both categories in order to respond to the lesson given by a schoolbook like *Rapidolangue*. The compiler of the schoolbook and the lexicographer must work together to give the best result for the children to be able to express themselves correctly in the chosen Gabonese language, because dictionaries are known as reference books for the standard language. The combination of the work of both parts will make the work of the teacher easier, and will provide a good basis for the learner to deal with collocation and usage. Hence, a complementary relation between the schoolbook and the dictionary is necessary. In this chapter, the focus will be on the type of dictionary suitable for pupils living in the linguistic environment that Gabon offers.

2. What dictionary for the education system in Gabon?

The dictionary produced as a result of the application of the model presented in this dissertation must not only complement the schoolbook, but it must also support some of the information found in it. The role it must play is a kind that will be between a monolingual dictionary and a bilingual dictionary. It is compulsory that this type of dictionary belongs to the bilingual field of dictionary making to be able to fit into the Gabonese situation, because at this very stage, there are no proper standard dictionaries in Gabonese languages. Further studies in the field of pedagogical Gabonese lexicography can rely on such a dictionary to precede a proper monolingual school dictionary. This dictionary must describe a considerable amount of lexical items in the corpus in order to provide a reliable database in Yipunu. In fact, the lexicographer in the case of Gabon has to bear in mind the situation of the language more than its linguistic attributes. It would be of no use if the lexicographer concentrates on a sophisticated linguistic structure rather than giving a record of the treated language, as it is daily spoken by the target users. As an example, existing bilingual dictionaries with French and one of the local languages as language pair will be taken.

Ex1: Articles from the Galley, a bilingual Fang/French dictionary

byal, celui qui taille une pirogue. *Mba
lair*, celui qui dépèce la bête.

MBA (b) (lg) adj. Beau, bon. *Mba*
est toujours avant le nom, et il est tou-
jours suivi d'un nom. *Mba sam*, belle
chose. *Mba mór*, homme bon. *Mba* n'a
pas de pl. *Mba bór* hommes bons.

MBA (b) (lg) n.1, pl. *bémba*. 1.
Touraco rouge et vert avec huppe. Une
autre variété est tout vert, sa huppe est
plus grande. — 2. Têtard de la grenouille
abé. Syn. : *mba-kórgé*.

MBA (h) (lg) n.2, pl. *mimba*. Tente,
abri, hutte, cabane, campement, para-
pluie. *Mba lóá mimba*, nous faisons des
tentes. *Mba wáké*, abri de campement
de chasse. *Ókon mimba*, maladie du som-
meil. Syn. : *nóáá*, *ókon óyo*.

MBA (h) (bf) n.2, pl. *mimba*. 1.
Bâtons pour taper le tam-tam (*óléá*) ou
le piano (*óncáá*). *Mimba mí ákúá*, *mim-
ba mí óncáá*. — 2. *Mba óléá*, battant
de cloche. Syn. : *míá óléá*, *míá óngóá*.

MBA KE... VE... (hb). Si... ne pas...
alors. *Mba ke nye wac, ve...* s'il n'était
par mort, alors... Proverbe : *Fak ba só
na : bamba be ne belal* (les *Fak* disent :
il y a trois *mba*) : *mba-kórgé*, *mba
óncá*, *mba ke kale*. Le premier est peu
de chose, un têtard ; le deuxième de mé-
me, un petit oiseau ; mais le troisième
est plus important : *mba ke kale wóá
me, ve me kama ba na ?* si cet homme
ne m'avait pas aidé, qu'aurais-je fait ?

Due to a lack of sound metalexigraphic principles, it is difficult for the common user to retrieve information from the data presented because the lexicographic treatment of the articles impedes the access to a rapid retrieval of the needed information. For example, the compiler only presents a list of the different translation equivalents without any further explanation of their semantic relation, and the illustrative examples do not offer enough data to direct the choice of the user.

2.1 The need for a school dictionary involving Gabonese languages

The new words that are learnt by the pupils are the words they hear in the context of sentences and they use the linguistic context to figure out what they mean (Bloom, 2000: 192). In that regard, like young children who learn how to talk, those children will not use complex sentences but they will use more simple nominal sentences.

Ex 2

Yipunu

ni we' o ikol: *I go to school*

ni djangi pembi: *I eat bread*

ni'nu mamb: *I drink water*

e sani o dulombili: *he is playing outside/ he plays outside*

mbumini: *do not annoy me*

nge rondi'unu dweyi: *I do not want to drink juice*

In the above examples, the children in that situation do not seem to have knowledge of the syntax and grammar of the language. They just repeat what they hear from the people around them. That is why the use of contracted forms such as “niwe' o ikol' rather than “ni wendi o ikol”, is frequent. For instance, injunction, forms of insistence used by their parents will have a bigger occurrence. And because the oral language is different from the written one, it is compulsory for them to learn how to write what they hear everyday. That is the intensive task of the proposed school dictionary model.

Another point to mention is the dialectal varieties with which the children grow up. Most of the time, they are not aware of such a fact. They are not aware of the fact that people can speak the same language with phonetical or, morphological differences and that in the same language one can find more than one way to pronounce, say or name things. Two persons from the same linguistic community may talk differently due to their dialectal variety. To illustrate that statement, the example will be taken of two Yipunu people, one from Mouilla, in the Ngounié province and one from Tchibanga in the Nyanga province. In the Nyanga province, the Yipunu people mostly cohabit with Civili and Yilumbu people, while in Ngounié they cohabit with Ghisir, Inzebi, Getsoghó and Isangu people to name a few. The realisation of lexical items and even the spelling of certain words will differ in many points.

Now, if a Yipunu school dictionary just takes one of the varieties, the Yipunu children of the other linguistic variety will get confused because he/she will not be able to recognise the language he/she often hears at home and will not be interested or feel obliged to follow what is happening in the classroom. The example of one female pupil of the Institution Immaculée Conception, one of the secondary schools that teach Gabonese languages as subject, can be taken. It happened that during a Faṅ lesson, the pupil interrupted the teacher claiming that he was teaching “rubbish “ to the pupils because the way he was pronouncing words was not familiar to how she pronounces the same words. She immediately asks the teacher to “stop” teaching “false Faṅ” to her classmates. The teacher, because he was aware of the dialectal varieties in that language, tried to explain to the child that it was not a mistake but that it was another variety of Faṅ. She tried to understand, but for her it was “two different languages although they were having similarities”. Examples like that are also seen with grown up people, particularly with the translation of the Bible. One will say that this Bible is not in “his” language because the translator was more familiar with another dialectal community and translated it into the language of that community.

3. Bilingual dictionaries in Gabon

The role of any dictionary, its influence and its importance in the linguistic activities of the linguistic society has been largely proved. Dictionaries go along with the development of the linguistic society for which they are produced (Gouws and Ponelis 1992, Zgusta 1989). Monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, as mentioned in Chapter one, take an important place in the lexicographical literature. However, the rich linguistic aspects that occur in Gabon are a major challenge for a lexicography still young, but expanding. In general, one speaks about bilingual dictionaries often to imply the answer to the question “how to make a good bilingual dictionary”? More than one lexicographer and/or metalexicographer have dealt with that question and more than one theory came out of it. A lot of reference works have dealt with the subject. Many questions still remain, e.g. how to make sure that a dictionary will serve the purposes for which it has been compiled? How to make sure that it will be understandable for the potential users? And, how, in the case of Gabon, can a bilingual dictionary be used?

According to Tarp (2004), the term bilingual dictionary contains some contrastive features. One can call a dictionary a “bilingual dictionary” if it contains two languages, in spite of its function. For him, the term “bilingual” does not necessarily refer to a dictionary that contains two languages, but a dictionary in which the two languages are equally treated. In that sense, if a dictionary contains two languages, and only one of the languages is fully treated (English-French dictionary where the treatment is in English and does only give translation equivalents in French), it should be considered as a monolingual dictionary with a bilingual dimension. In other words, a good bilingual dictionary would be a dictionary in which the lexicographer has to coordinate two languages in such a way that both languages receive an equal treatment. The same will be true for any dictionary that contains more than two languages. All the languages are to be equally treated otherwise it will still be a monolingual dictionary but with a tri- or multilingual dimension. It is just not the fact that more than one language is represented in the dictionary that will make it not a monolingual one. The distinction between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries according to Tarp’s theory is based on the treatment of the participating languages.

In fact, the lexicographer works along with the user. At the very beginning of the science of lexicography, bilingual dictionaries preceded monolingual ones. There are various examples of countries with a strong lexicographical tradition like the United Kingdom, France, or South Africa. They all had bilingual dictionaries before they had monolingual ones. The monolingual dictionaries came to establish or standardise the language previously treated in the bilingual dictionary. To continue with a long and old tradition I suggest that every country that does not have a culture of dictionaries should start with bilingual dictionaries before compiling monolingual ones. I believe that for Gabon, as for most of the countries in Central and West Africa, this would be the way to go. Using the traditional way will constitute a good database for the compilation of future monolingual dictionaries.

In the situation of Gabon, missionaries and scientists compiled many bilingual dictionaries. Although they all contain a bilingual dimension in their work (to stay in the terminology proposed by Tarp), the emphasis was on knowing how to translate from the

languages of the missionaries and scientists into the indigenous languages of the Gabonese communities in which they lived. The *Galley* (1964) and the *Dictionnaire Yipounou-Français/ Français-Yipounou* (1966) can be mentioned as examples. The lemmata in those dictionaries were translated from French into the above languages. Those particular dictionaries are, in the terms of Bergenholtz et al. (1997:221), active translation dictionaries that are dictionaries in which the translation equivalents comes from the mother-tongue user.

3. 1. Categorisation in bilingual dictionaries

Bilingual dictionaries can be distinguished as active or passive dictionaries, according to whether their function is to help with encoding (writing) or decoding (reading) activities. Because it is aimed at learners, a bilingual school dictionary in Gabon must satisfy both encoding and decoding functions. Most of the existing dictionaries are not limited to one type of function, but rather a mixture of two or all the types. That is one of the reasons justifying the hybrid character of a bilingual school dictionary for Gabonese pupils. It is necessary to join both encoding and decoding aspects of the language.

The traditional approaches to foreign or second language education used to emphasise reading for comprehension rather than speaking or communication. Only a few centuries ago, international cooperation was limited. People did not feel such a need to express themselves in foreign languages. The exposure to foreign languages was primarily through the study of classical languages like Latin and therefore, dictionary makers assumed that the function of the dictionary was to help the reader with the comprehension of foreign literature (Gross 1989). During the last century, technology and other development in science gave birth to new approaches to foreign language education, with the emphasis on expression and communication. Linguists provided theoretical foundations for the new approaches and devised the required methods and techniques such as the direct method, oral method, and various audio-lingual methods. Now it is the lexicographers' turn to implement the principles of the approaches to make dictionaries

that can help the user in production as well as comprehension of foreign speech and writing (Hartmann & James, 1998:25).

As stated by Tarp (2002: 4), the learning of a foreign language is normally a life-long process. Very few people succeed in reaching the same degree of dominance of their second language (L2) as is the case with their mother-tongue. And if they eventually do, they are no longer considered to be speaking in a foreign language. To help the user with this learning process, Gedney, quoted by Al Kasimi (1977), proposes four main aims often found in bilingual dictionaries. For two languages, L1 and L2 there is a distinction between:

- Telling the speaker of L1 the meaning of an expression that he hears or reads in the other language;
- Telling the speaker of L1 how to say something in the other language;
- Telling the speaker of the other language (L2) the meaning of an expression that he hears or reads in L1;
- Telling the L2 speaker how to say something from that language in L1

People want to recognise themselves and their language in the described language of any work done in the field of languages. Yet, because purely linguistic works primarily present complex forms of the structure of any language, they are not accessible to the common public. A model for a bilingual school dictionary involving French and Yipunu is primarily aimed to serve as an aid in comprehension and expression for the pupils having Yipunu as subject, knowing that the dictionary is intended principally for the speaker of that local language and not for the French speaker.

According to Al-Kasimi (1977), eight steps are necessary and even compulsory for a good bilingual dictionary:

- It should provide for each word or expression in the source language just the right translation in the target language;

- It should contain all the words, idioms and locutions that the user may need;
- It should contain all the inflectional, derivational, syntactic and semantic relations that the user might need;
- It should give data on all levels of usage including special warnings;
- It should include names (personal, famous people, places, countries, etc.) in the content of the back matter;
- It should give all specialised vocabulary items of all the socio-professional categories needed by the user;
- It should give all necessary data about correct spelling and alternative or commonly encountered incorrect spelling;
- It should include all the data needed to instruct the user to pronounce each word like a native speaker would have done.

3. 2. Mono- versus bidirectional bilingual dictionaries

A dictionary that can satisfy all these requests or demands is an ideal but utopian dictionary because perfect bilingualism does not exist, either at an individual or at a societal level. The data given in a bilingual dictionary must take into account (the same goes for every type of dictionary) the cultural environment of the community or the society. It is well marked in bilingual dictionaries by, for example, the use of surrogates as substitute translation equivalents. In fact, all the linguistic concepts and realities are not the same in languages. Yet, it is one of the reasons why a bilingual dictionary that could equally serve the needs of speakers of both the paired languages does not exist.

One of the problems the lexicographer will face in the course of the compilation of a bilingual dictionary is the level of vocabulary selection and the extent of its vocabulary. In order to do this the lexicographer should know at which language the dictionary is directed, knowing that both sections of a bidirectional bilingual dictionary cannot be equal. This happens through the user profile, which determines e.g. the nature and the

extent of the lemma selection and whether the dictionary is directed at speakers of both languages, or if it is directed only at one of the languages. In a bilingual dictionary, normally because the user requires a huge amount of data, the lexicographer has to make good use of the front and back matter. In those sections of the dictionary, cultural data about the language and their communities can be given, such as idioms, inflexion, geographical and tourist maps, etc.

In a monodirectional bilingual dictionary there is one alphabetical central list and that list is directed at the speakers of one of the languages. For example, an English-French bilingual dictionary should be for English people who want to learn French and the treatment of the dictionary will be oriented towards them. Data concerning French that will not be used by the English speaker must not be entered if it is not that relevant for the specific dictionary. On the contrary, in a bidirectional bilingual dictionary, both languages must receive an equal treatment. The two sections of the dictionary should contain an equal treatment in order to satisfy the needs of speakers of both languages. It has been proved that the user rarely takes into account the guidelines given by the lexicographers. He/she does not know the difference between a monodirectional and a bidirectional bilingual dictionary, especially when it comes to children or teenagers. An X-Y dictionary can also be directed at the speakers of language Y, helping them with text reception of the X texts. For children, just seeing “bilingual X-Y dictionary” on the cover of any dictionary, they assume that they can find whatever information they need. It seems logical for an experienced adult user that a particular X-Y dictionary is directed at the X speaker, but in the mind of either a teenager or a ten year old child, a Y-X dictionary is the same as a X-Y/Y-X dictionary. For him/her, to understand that if he/she is a speaker of language X, it is preferable to look for information in a X-Y dictionary oriented at his/her kind of speaker rather than in a Y-X bilingual dictionary that is directed at another type of speaker. Because of that confusion, it is much more relevant for a bilingual school dictionary to be monodirectional. Potential users must be made aware of these typological issues.

For children, and particularly for Gabonese children, a monodirectional dictionary with a local language and French as treated language pair is necessary and vital. With such a type of bilingual dictionary, the needs of both types of children (those with French as first language and those with a local language as first language) will be taken into account. I think that, such an approach will provide a better way of achieving good results and solving a lot of problems. The dictionary should be arranged in such a way that the local language section offers maximum utility to the French speakers.

4. Conclusion

The general assumption in bilingual lexicography is that the user of a bilingual dictionary is primarily concerned with understanding a foreign language and scarcely at all with expressing himself in a foreign language. In the case of Gabonese children, both comprehension and production need to be addressed in such a dictionary. The lack of the lexicographic expertise leads to a gap between the spoken and the written form of the local languages. Only French has a well-established coordination and balance between the two forms. Dictionaries have developed not as theoretical instruments, but as practical tools (Al Kasimi, 1977:1), that is why the lexicographer and all the people involved in the field of dictionary making have to make the dictionary friendlier to the user. This task is more relevant when it comes to children who, one knows, lose their focus on things quite easily.

PART THREE: DICTIONARIES IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

CHAPTER ONE: LANGUAGE TEACHING: THE CASE OF GABONESE LANGUAGES

1. Introduction

In spite of the different groups of learners, the common way to teach in the field of foreign language learning is generally the oral one. Learners want to be fluent in the new language they acquire. However, in countries like Gabon, a particular attention should be directed at the written medium. When decoding a printed message, it involves the assimilation of a lexical repertoire and an understanding of grammar that could provide the morphological and syntactical signals necessary to a coherent inductive reading. In the same way, the oral way of teaching should shift to more writing and reading activities

in the classes where Gabonese languages are taught. Dictionaries should be compiled in Gabon with the aim of helping the learning process of the local languages. In the present chapter, the aim of the devised model is to produce a reference work in order to complement the *Rapidolangue* series of schoolbooks. The model could open new horizons in the field of education and bring new perspective to the situation of the local languages in Gabon. The multilingual environment of the pupils that have Gabonese languages as a subject was discussed in the previous chapter. This chapter will focus on the way in which those languages are taught by looking at the methodology and the educational policy

2. Pedagogy and methodology of Gabonese language teaching

2. 1. The pedagogy

Five of the spoken Gabonese languages are taught at the Lycées and Collèges of Libreville. This is part of a project initiated by the Raponda Walker Foundation and the Gabonese Government (cf. Part Two). Actually, five schools are part of the programme which is only done in Libreville: Institution Immaculée conception, Collège notre Dame de Quaben, Collège Bessieux, CES de Sainte Marie and Lycée Nelson Mandela. At present, those five schools have been taken as sample and the programme will, in the near future, be extended to schools in some of the other provinces. However, it is important to say that the Gabonese languages are no longer only taught at the first two levels of Lycée and Collège but in all of the *Premier cycle* that is 6^{ème}, 5^{ème}, 4^{ème} and 3^{ème}. Those languages are taught as second or third language. In the classroom, they are the medium of instruction. The five languages are Omyene, Fan, Yipunu, Yinzebi, and Lembaama. The pupils have four years of learning Gabonese languages.

The educators are mostly students from the Linguistics Department of the Omar Bongo University of Libreville. The others are volunteers interested in languages and who want to see Gabonese languages promoted. They are mother-tongue speakers of the language

they teach and they all received training and have *Rapidolangue (Méthode d'apprentissage des Langues Nationales)* as basis for their methodology. They also often use schoolbooks and/or grammars from other editors as well as lexicographical works such as lexicons.

2. 2. The Materials used

Rapidolangue is a multilingual series of schoolbooks. It is multilingual because it includes Gabonese languages as well as French and English. Translations are given in Gabonese languages and in English while French is the medium of instruction. It supports the effort to overcome the lack of knowledge about the local languages. The oral method is used in the schoolbooks. The emphasis is on the conversation between the teacher and the pupils. It is similar to the one used in foreign language teaching for non-mother tongue speakers. Songs and stories in the target language, as well as mimes, drawings, and pictures are often part of the lesson in order to convey the knowledge. These are the ways that the teachers mostly use to convey their knowledge. They utilise cassettes as a starting point and listen to them along with the pupils. After that the teacher asks if the pupils have picked up something and know what the story is about. Then the pupils will open their books to find out the vocabulary of the story they listened to. The process is to make the pupils listen, repeat and memorise what they hear. The teacher can then check the pronunciation, the tones, the spelling, etc.

- *Rapidolangue Niveau 1*: The first Level that was edited in 1995 is used in 6^{ème} classes. The Gabonese languages treated within the book are Fan̄, Inzebi, Lembaama, Omyene and Yipunu. It contains the 800 most common and most frequent words in those languages. The book is divided into lessons and exercises. It also contains grammatical information of the treated Gabonese languages. It gives the different pronunciations and the orthography of the words for the Gabonese languages and it provides a special zone for specific characters related to Gabonese languages (the editors explain that the vowels they used come from the Latin alphabet). The choice of the Gabonese languages treated in the manual

was motivated by the availability of literature (grammar and lexicon for example), the frequency of speech and the number of native speakers of those languages. The same characteristics were used to keep the same languages through all the volumes.

Rapidolangue Niveau 1 has a linguistic foundation due to the input of linguistic works, which are more developed than lexicographic works. The alphabet and the writing have been simplified for the benefit of the pupils. Neither the alphabet proposed by Guthrie (1953:94) on Bantu languages, nor the Alphabet Scientifique des Langues du Gabon (ASLG) were used at this stage. Audiocassettes go along with the book for every treated language and in these cassettes the user will only find a single Gabonese language treated without the translation in French and English. French is used as basis and does not appear in the exercises or in the explication on the vocabulary while English is only there for scientific purposes because English is one of the compulsory subjects that the pupils have. They have to learn it from 6^{ème} to *Terminale*, which is the last year of Lycées. The written rules used in the orthography come from the written form proposed by Raponda Walker in his article *Alphabet des idioms gabonais* (1932). As already mentioned, the writing of the manual has been simplified to accommodate the needs and skills of the pupils. An extract of the front pages of the manual is presented as follows:

A) Les voyelles:

a se prononce comme dans “pas”
ä ou **â** est une voyelle prolongée fréquente dans les langues bantoues. Elle s’écrit aa: son prolongé. Vient de l’Afrique de l’Ouest comme dans “maam”, grands parents an Wolof, “okaasi” femme and lembaama.
e se prononce comme dans été. En langue fang, le “e” est muet comme dans le français “demain” et garde son écriture ordinaire. Il est généralement muet en fin de mot inzebi et yipunu. Il s’écrit “ë” dans les autres langues.
ee :son prolongé du “é”.
è se prononce comme dans “très”.
i se prononce comme dans “si” - ii est un son prolongé.
o se prononce comme dans “dos” - oo est un son prolongé.
ö se prononce comme dans “note”.
u se prononce comme dans “vous” - uu est un son prolongé.
ü se prononce comme dans “tube”.

B) Les semi-voyelles:

ôn, ân sons nasalisés correspondant à « on-an » en français comme dans “bon” ou “enfant”.

w se prononce comme dans “oui” ou l’anglais “we”.

y se prononce comme dans “pied” ou l’anglais “yes”

C) Les consonnes:

Les consonnes **b, d, f, g, k, l, m, n, s, t, z** se prononcent à peu près comme en français.

Notez que :

g est toujours dur comme dans “gare” ou “gant”.

h son aspiré comme dans « ehanda », « la tombe » en ikota.

j comme dans « jeu » souvent associé avec **dj**.

mb, mp, nd, ng gardent leur valeur de consonnes et s’articulent nettement.

r est généralement « roulé » dans la plupart des langues bantoues.

s se prononce comme dans “si”, jamais comme dans z. Il ne se double pas.

z représente un son intermédiaire entre le z de “zéro” et le j de “jeu”, dans la plupart des cas.

D) Les consonnes combinées :

Leur prononciation s’apprend par l’usage. Signalons cependant quelques cas.

dy et **dj** se rapprochent du son “dion”, mas varient suivant la langue. Quelques fois ils se rapprochent du son dz.

gh se rapproche de la jota espagnole ou du ch allemand « ach ».

ng (généralement en fin de mot) son nasalisé qui se rapproche de “ing” dans “singing” en anglais.

ny ou **gn** se rapproche du son gn dans “agneau”. Exemple : « nyama », la « viande » en yipunu (prononcer gnama).

Because the pupils are more familiar with the French linguistic system, the authors of the manual mostly refer to the pronunciation of French. For the illustration of some sounds, they used either Gabonese languages or English. In the case of “**gh**” they used German and Spanish.

Apart from the fact that French is the reference language, the authors of the manual count on the knowledge their target users have of the local languages. They have to get the pronunciation from a linguistic system that the pupils already know. The technique they use does not require too much from the users while allowing them to assimilate the linguistic system of the targeted language. Bantu languages can seem to be difficult because of their complex structure. Their morphology, syntax and grammar are difficult to apprehend for a young scholar. These languages differ in many ways from Indo-European languages like French

with which the children are more familiar. Knowing all the affixes and their combinations seems too much for young users of the language. Just a look at the number of affixes to combine, and the suprasegmental level confirms it. The grammar will then be an awful monster that they will not want to be confronted with. If though the system is presented in such a way that they identify it with something they already know, it will be easier for them to accept and enjoy it.

- *Rapidolangue Niveau 2*: The second volume of *Rapidolangue* was compiled three years after the first one (1998). The authors thus had the time to market their product and to let the Gabonese population accept it. They also had, in my opinion, enough time to make some changes and to improve the manual. There were no major changes in the compilation of both levels. However, some differences between the content of the two volumes can be noticed. While the first one contains 800 words of the basic vocabulary of each language, the second contains 50 words less (750). It was compiled with the participation of Gabonese linguists from the Omar Bongo University and the Applied Linguistic Centre of Dakar (*Centre de Linguistique Appliquée de Dakar*). For the first volume the compilers worked on their own, using the available literature. The simplified writing system used in the Niveau 1 book had a favourable response from the side of the pupils and their parents. Thus the authors of *Rapidolangue* did not change it. Audiocassettes also accompany the Niveau 2 book to help with the pronunciation. The five most spoken languages treated in Niveau 1 are the same Gabonese languages that are found in Niveau 2, as well as French and English. It follows the same pattern used in the previous volume. The emphasis is, once again, on pronunciation, but because of the linguistic input, the original structures of the language are part of the knowledge to be conveyed. More emphasis is on the morphology of the language.

In the description of the sounds and orthography some changes do occur. For the consonants, the “**h**” is described according to English, followed by the Gabonese

form, while in Niveau 1 the pronunciation was presented according to Ikota, one of the local Gabonese languages not treated in the manual.

h est un son aspire comme en anglais (ex. Maoahindji en Ikota)

The “**r**” in Niveau 1 is described as a rolled sound while in Niveau 2 it says that it is often a uvular sound. This is only a matter of terminology because the rolled sound is actually referred to as a uvular sound in linguistics. That shows the linguistic input they had during the compilation.

For the sound “**m**” they even give the difference between the “**m**” nasal sound in one of the Omye languages (Mpongwe) and “**m**” in the other dialects of that language.

‘ngoma’ se prononce ‘ngowan (nasal) mais ‘ngoma’ chez les autres Ngwemyè

To distinguish between the normal **m** and the nasal one, they chose to underline it “**m**”. They chose to omit complex consonants such as **mp**, **mb** and **nd**. The dialogues used to illustrate the lessons are longer than the ones found in Niveau 1

- *Rapidolangue Niveau 3*: It was published in the year 2000 and also has audiocassettes that go along with the book. In this volume, the level has shifted to the advanced and intermediate learner. The focus on the pupils remained but the intended target user is anybody who is interested in learning Gabonese languages and their culture. In Niveau 1 and 2, the authors chose to build the vocabulary of the pupils. Therefore, they used dialogues to help the learners increase their knowledge. For Niveau 3, a different strategy is used. It is assumed that the pupils have spend at least two years using the schoolbook while acquiring enough skills to be able to speak and write the language correctly. Thus, by the end of that time it is expected of the pupils to write short dictations and essays in the taught language.

To start with the improvement made in this book, I will talk about the way the treated languages are presented. In contrary to the first two volumes, the five Gabonese languages are not treated in one book. They are treated separately and constitute independent bilingual sub-volumes involving French and one of the local languages. This method has the advantage of providing a better way for the authors to explain how the structure of the treated language(s) works. More details on cultural data could then be exploited thus giving more ethnolinguistic and encyclopaedic data to the pupils. The authors added data such as fairy tales, legends, history and origins of the native speakers, society events, grammar, believes, proverbs, etc. Another difference that can be noticed is that the authors decided to change the writing rules. The book was used to accommodate the new spelling rules introduced by the commission on orthography held in May 1999 in Libreville. A comparison was made between the old rules and the new rules and they only changed what was relevant enough for the sake of the pupils. For example, in the first two volumes, the [ə] was written **e** like in French. In the bilingual sub-volumes it has been replaced by **ë** while the sound [ɛ] that was written **è** like in French is written **ɛ** like in the new orthography for Gabonese languages (OLG).

The composition of each bilingual sub-volume is simple and contains a wide range of texts. The information given on the historical point of view is based on the history of Bantu people, their migration and the different Bantu people that live in Gabon. By doing so, the authors allow the user to know where the language(s) come(s) from, whom the speakers of that language are and how it functions. They emphasise the information by giving in each lesson, cultural data such as traditional dances, traditional meals, believes, myths and rites. The learner can then identify himself/herself not only with the language, but also with the people and the society that speak that language. For example, in the section about the history and origins, the authors present the genesis of some of the Gabonese tribes, starting in the process by relating the language to the people.

Ex 1

Lesson1

HISTOIRE DES ORIGINES: Les peuples Bantu

Tous les peuples du Gabon
font partie des peuples Bantu.
Mais d'où viennent ces peuples?

L'Afrique est un grand continent.
Des multitudes de peuples et de races l'habitent.

Toutes les races au dessous du Sahara
ne sont pas des races noires,
mais certains peuples ont des langues
qui suivent les mêmes règles.
Tous ceux qui appliquent
ces mêmes règles de grammaires
et qui appartiennent à la race noire
constituent les peuples Bantu.

Lesson 7

HISTOIRE DES ORIGINES: L'origine des PUNU

Les Punu font parti des peuples Bantu.
Dans le plus lointain des temps,
ils ont pris naissance dans la vallée de
Bénoué
et sur les plateaux de l'Adamaoua.
Eux aussi, sont partis vers les grands lacs.
Mais contrairement aux Ngwè-
Myènè,
Ils sont revenues vers l'ouest
en longeant la grande forêt par le sud.
Ils se sont probablement installé d'abord
dans la cuvette congolaise.
Et ce n'est que bien plus tard
ou'ils sont remontés vers le nord
pour arriver au Gabon
par le sud et le sud-est du pays.
De nombreuses ethnies appartiennent
à cet ensemble.
Les Punus sont sans doute les plus nom-
breux avec les Gisir.
Ils font partie de l'ensemble que l'on ap-
pelle le groupe «méryè»

Although more data of the local languages have been added to these sub-volumes, I think that the method used does not fully correspond to the need of the users regarding those languages. The data entered is not enough because French remains the only medium of instruction while it is supposed to support the lack of

knowledge of the local languages. In this regard, I think that the authors failed in their goal because the third volume can be considered, according to Tarp's terminology, as a monolingual French schoolbook with a bilingual dimension. The first two volumes succeed in this way by providing a quasi-equal amount of data in the seven treated languages (French, English, Fang, Omyènè, Yipunu, Yinzebi, and Lembaama). Each of the five volumes does not give as much of a bilingual application as it should. When reading the front matter pages where the pedagogy, the methodology and the guidelines of the manual are explained, one expects to see at least an equal treatment of the two languages, i.e. French and one of the five studied local languages.

In the same way, the reader expects to find, at least a translation of the different texts given in the local treated language. On the contrary, the treatment concerning the local languages can only be found in the translation of the given proverbs, and under some grammatical point. It would have been better if the authors had given a translation of the texts found in those volumes. The texts are all in French and the reader can only see a small amount of lexical items pertaining to the local languages. In the previous example on history and origins, it would have been more efficient for a pupil who learns Yipunu to be able to read and speak about the origin of that language in the same language, and not in French because the pupil already knows it. Good information is given to him/her yet not as helpful as it is meant to be. If one is learning proverbs in a language, the first step should be to learn the equivalent for "proverb" in that language. For the present case, the author could have given next to the French term **proverbe**, the term **manongu** in the Yipunu volume, or **nkana** for the Fan volume.

2. 3. Remarks

The comparison of the three series of Rapidolangue regarding the way they deal with the taught languages can lead to an acknowledgement of failure. Concerning the written form of the local languages the first failure regards the number of languages found in each

book. It appears that they all have a multilingual dimension, but the first two manuals are the ones that give more information regarding the Gabonese languages than the third one. French being the medium of instruction, the last one is more of a French manual than a Gabonese language manual. Even if the classes are done in an oral way, the pupils still have to be put into contact with those languages. Most of them (and I am not talking about the mother-tongue speakers only) only know the language in its oral form. To familiarise the pupils with the written form they have to write it and read it as often as possible in class and at home.

Niveau 1 and niveau 2, by using dialogues in the process of learning, develop more of the oral way. In that way they do not provide room for the pupils to learn how to write. The amount of essays and dictations is less than the reading and the practical presentations. Furthermore, the fact that the teachers use tape recordings in their classes emphasises the oral knowledge of the pupils. To add to that fact, the lack of grammatical data in those two books is a hindrance to the aim of the project, which is to promote, preserve and develop the Gabonese languages. A language can only achieve those three goals by going from an oral stage to a written stage.

However, one must acknowledge the tremendous work done by the group of people of the Raponda Walker Foundation. A lot of efforts have been put into this work. They did investigate the overall linguistic environment of the country and did some research in order to be able to produce those manuals. By doing so, they chose out of the 62 existing languages the five most frequently spoken ones, and they collaborated with linguists in- and outside Gabon. It is a good starting point for the teaching of local languages in Gabon. This needs to be taken into account because *Rapidolangue* is the leading schoolbook dealing with local languages in Gabon. In that regard, it is relevant to note that not only the Gabonese Government agrees with the *Rapidolangue* method, but also neighbouring countries like the Democratic Republic of Congo have taken the model developed by the Raponda Walker Foundation to be applied to their linguistic situation. In the same way, the third volume provides all sorts of information that could be helpful for everyone interested in learning one of the treated Gabonese languages. The fact that

more cultural data is entered in this volume contributes to the preservation of the treated languages.

2. 4. The teaching

The teachers are all mother-tongue speakers of the language they teach. During the two months fieldwork I had in January and February 2002, and then again in January 2003, some interviews were conducted. Answering to a questionnaire was part of the interviews. One of the questions was related to the regional varieties in the language they were teaching. I asked if the problem of regional variety did not bother them³. The treated language may not be the one spoken by the teacher although he/she was chosen because of his/her knowledge of the language. Quite the reverse, it seems not to be the case. While teaching, they present all the variation that can appear in the language as far as the different regional varieties are concerned.

The regional varieties in Gabon are a great problem because of the number of languages. Regarding the five languages taught at schools:

1. For *Fan* and *Myeng* there are well-defined regional varieties. Therefore for those languages linguists speak about dialects.

Fan: *Atsi, Məke, Okak, Mveng, Ntumu*

Omyeng: *Nkomi, Ghalua, Orungu, Mpongwe, Adjumba*

2. For *Yipunu* and *Yinzebi*, there are regional varieties because the linguistic groups that speak those languages live in different provinces. Linguists have proved that the differences between those varieties are due to the linguistic environment in which the language is spoken. For *Yipunu*, the variety spoken by the *Bapunu* people that live in *Tchibanga* will differ from the one spoken in *Mouilla* because

³ There is only one variety of each language represented in *Rapidolangué*. The same goes for the tape recordings where people speaking the same variety and with the same accent were chosen.

the latest cohabits with Balumbu and Bavili people while the other cohabits with Bapindzi and Batsogho people. In the same way, the Yindzebi spoken in Haut-Ogooué province will be different from that spoken in the Ngounié or the Ogooué-Lolo province.

3. For *Lembaama*, the varieties are also regional but it is one of the Gabonese languages with its speakers mainly concentrated in one province, although the Estuaire province, particularly Libreville, has seen a growth of Lembaama speakers in the past years.

The level of intercomprehension between the different regional varieties goes according to the degree of proximity of the region in which those languages are spoken. For example an Adjumba speaking person will connect more easily with a Nkomi or an Orungu person than with a Mpongwe. The first two dialects are found in the Ogooué-Maritime province and the last in the Estuaire province. For the case of Yipunu, the intercomprehension between the dialects is more than 90% because the differences are only from phonetics and from some loan words taken from the surrounding linguistic groups. The same goes for Yinzebi and Lembaama. In the classroom there are not only multilingual, but also multidialectal pupils. Then the teachers are using equivalents when necessary for the pupils to know the different variations. It happens only when the differences are relevant.

Ex 2

In Yipunu, the word for “cassava” is **mulembu** or **mughum** in the Ngounié province while it is **ikwang** in Nyanga, especially in Tchibanga.

In Fan for example, in the Woleu-Ntem province, if you are a Fan Ntumu speaking person from Oyem, all the “**a**”s will be pronounced [ɛ] while in the other regions it is pronounced [a]

Some teachers do use other manuals in their classroom. For example for Omyene they use schoolbooks and audiocassettes from an association named *Inongwayile, Fondation des quatre saisons*. The books are:

1. *Méthode d'apprentissage du myénè*.
2. *Méthode pratique pour apprendre le myénè*

All the teachers will most of the time use dictionaries, grammars and storybooks⁴. Dictionaries play an important role in the process of language teaching. One of the teachers said to me that he had never used a dictionary treating local languages for himself but he recommends it to the pupils for them to improve their vocabulary. Another teacher said that he once used the *Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou; Yipounou-Français* compiled in 1966 by the Eglise Evangélique du Sud Gabon. But they complain about the lack of dictionaries in the local languages. The ones that are available are not focused on school children, but for tourists who want to find their way in the province or who simply want to have a taste of the local languages. To implement their teaching, they will need a dictionary that deals with the structure of a non-written language. They do not want to teach a written form to the pupils and find themselves in the delicate situation of giving to their pupils various forms of the orthography because each book has its own way of spelling words. For the Myene teachers, the orthography in *Méthode d'apprentissage du myénè* and in *Rapidolangue* differs, but because *Rapidolangue* is the method they use, it prevails in their teaching.

The teachers in Gabon deal with multilingual classes and have to accommodate both non-mother-tongue and mother-tongue speakers at the same time. That is why (although they do have mother-tongue speakers in their classrooms) the Gabonese languages are taught as second or third languages. If the same teacher could take both the lower classes and the higher classes, it would be an ideal situation because at the end of the first two years,

⁴ The storybooks are written in French but the teachers often translate some passages into the language they teach.

the pupils would be used to the “accent” of the teacher. This is not the case. The teacher who takes 6^{ème} Yipunu classes may not continue with the pupils who will be in 5^{ème} the following year and in the higher classes. At the end of the learning process, the pupils will have been exposed to teachers belonging to different regional varieties. Although it exposes them to a broader view of the language, it impedes the learning process because it can bring confusion.

2. 4. 1. The lower classes: 6^{ème} and 5^{ème}

In the lower classes the emphasis will be on vocabulary and more vocabulary. A lot of stories and idiomatic expressions will be used to facilitate the pronunciation and help acquire the necessary vocabulary. During the dictation the emphasis will be on the syntax and the knowledge of the verbs. At the lower stage, the teachers have to do a lot of grammar but they stick to traditional grammatical notions such as pronouns, adjectives, verbs, prepositions, etc. The suprasegmental level has been left away because it is a complex system and suprasegmental signs are only used to differentiate sound. Teachers with a linguistic background give more details on the subject and put emphasis on the nominal classes, because the teachers must help the pupils as far as they can to assimilate the morphological system of those local languages. They use songs and poetry to guide them in the combination of the affixes and to know their nature and function without bringing details that can confuse the pupils.

To emphasise the acquisition of the vocabulary, teachers implement their teaching with a question-answer approach. That approach consists of short dialogues involving questions asked by the teachers while the pupils answer them, trying as hard as possible not to use French words in their sentences. The prescriptions in the manual recommend it and encourage the teachers to use any topic from the daily life. Then the pupils are encouraged to do the same thing with their parents at home in order to continue the work done in class. That exercise aims to help them acquire a good level of conversation and it provides an opportunity for the parents to know exactly what their children learn. Yet the weak point of that exercise is that the mother-tongue speaker tends to talk the most while

the non-mother-tongue speaker just listens. It is now the duty of the teacher to accommodate both sides and bring the non-mother-tongue speaker to speak as well.

2. 4. 2. The upper classes: 4^{ème} and 3^{ème}

In the upper classes the emphasis will be on the writing skills of the pupils. They previously had two years of learning the language when they reached 4^{ème} and 3^{ème}. They are supposed to have assimilated the 1500 words of vocabulary that they learnt through Niveau 1 and 2. Both mother-tongue speakers and non-mother-tongue speakers are supposed to be at the same level. Nevertheless the challenge is the same in both lower and upper classes. The mother-tongue speakers will still have the advantage of having parents who speak the language and can help in the process of the acquisition. However, for the non-mother-tongue speakers the language will not be as new to them as it was when they started in 6^{ème}. The role of the teachers in the case of the upper classes is very delicate. Although they must in a way master the running of the system of the language they teach, it is also required from them to have a good historical knowledge of the language and society. In this regard, they receive training at both linguistic and ethnolinguistic level. One of the challenges would be to succeed in the understanding of the culture of the language. For a European child, it may be difficult to accept or understand the circumcision ritual, the role of the traditional dances or proper Gabonese cultural activities. This type of information must be conveyed in a smooth way for the foreign child to integrate himself in the society of his/her friend. The same will be true for the Gabonese non-mother-tongue speaker.

The use of dictation and small essays will not disappear, but they will be put into practice by the study of bigger texts. The ideal situation would have been to see, at that level, that the teachers do all the teaching in the target language. But this task has been made impossible for the teacher because of the presence of the non-mother-tongue speakers and it is also due to the extent of French in the manual, largely used in Niveau 3, where French takes the place of the Gabonese language in such a way that the book seems to be a French literacy book. The teachers have to be strategic and skilled to translate the texts

while reading if they want the pupils to know the meaning of the texts in the target language. Some of the teachers only give a translation of the main ideas of the texts and let the pupils retrace the entire story. This exercise is used to help the pupils think in the target language.

I want to finish this section by saying that the teachers that teach the Gabonese languages are very proud of doing it. They feel that they are part of a very important process and are willing to make even more effort in order to make that project a successful one. They were happy to know that there were some people who cared about the implementation of their teaching and they are waiting for more feedback from lexicographers, linguists and people who deal with languages in order to enhance their teaching.

2. 5. The pupils

The target user group constituted by the pupils of Lycées and Collèges will be divided into sub-groups with different specific needs. The repartition will go according to the year in which the pupils are, their first language and the studied languages in question. That has led me to two big groups, the first one constituted by the pupils of the lower classes (6^{ème}/5^{ème}) and the second the pupils of the upper classes (4^{ème}/3^{ème}). In each group there will be 2 sub-groups divided according to their first language.

As previously mentioned, some of the pupils have French as first language due to various reasons. I will thus use the terms “mother-tongue” and “first language” alike. A child having French as first language will be a mother-tongue speaker of French even if he/she masters the language of his/her parents. The latest language will be his/her second language. The pupils who learn those languages are teenagers between 8 and 17 years old. It is possible to have some children in 6^{ème} that are between 8 and 10 years old and in 3^{ème} between 12 and 15 years old, it depends on the policy of the school to which they

go⁵. Those are the children forming the groups of pupils I worked with during the fieldwork.

Most of the time, the above groups of pupils are divided into classes according to their mother tongue or first language. However, it happens that in the classroom they will have pupils who are from foreign countries (i.e. French, Senegalese, Portuguese, or Lebanese children). Those children will choose which language they want to learn. They usually do so by choosing the language spoken by their friends. For example, if a Portuguese child has a Yipunu friend, he/she will choose to learn that language, if it is Fan, he/she will choose Fan and so on. Except for foreign pupils, it is possible to find pupils that have another language as mother-tongue (Gabonese language) than the one they choose to learn, but those cases are rare. The pupils have the liberty to choose whatever language they want although it seems logical for them to go for the language they already know, or for the one spoken by their parents. In that regard, one of the pupils said to me when I asked her why did she choose Yipunu and not Omyene for example, she answered as if it was obvious: “I’m a mupunu girl what did you expect!” I was not surprised because for certain children it is a chance (especially for those who do have French as first language) to catch up with their parents and particularly with their grand parents and their friends, who already master the language.

Because of the foreign pupils, the classes are not monolingual. The conditions in which the groups of pupils are learning are directed at one main goal: To master their mother-tongue. This is a new experience for the children. Some of them are only using the target language at home and when talking with their friends; some are not speaking it at all because they belong to two linguistic groups at the same time, so they only speak French; other know just a few words that do not allow them to participate in a conversation.

⁵ For Institution Immaculée Conception and lycée Nelson Mandela, the average age between 6^{ème} and 3^{ème} is 8-10 in 6^{ème} and 11-13 in 3^{ème}. In Collège notre Dame de Quaben and Collège Sainte Marie, it is possible to find 12 years old children in 6^{ème} and up to 17 years old in 3^{ème}.

3. Conclusion

The pedagogy used in language teaching in Gabon follows the principles of foreign language teaching where the oral form prevails. The teachers involved in the process are mother-tongue speakers of the language they teach, thus reinforcing that principle. They are volunteers taken from the linguistic department and other fields of education. In the classes, the pupils are asked to do a lot of practical tasks that will lead them to acquire an appropriate level of oral communication. The *Rapidolangue* formula emphasises the oral form of the language uses with the material it proposes. It has the merit to establish the pupils' confidence to participate in conversation and to involve parents in the process. Former pupils can talk to their teachers in the target language when they see them in the streets of Libreville, even long after they had the class. In the house, the parents are happy because for them it means that their children will not forget their roots, knowing that keeping a language equals keeping its culture. However, more efforts are needed to bridge the gap between the oral form and the written form of the taught languages. There is already a strong oral tradition in Gabon and the time is now ripe to strengthen the written level of the local languages if they had to be promoted and developed. It takes the written form of a language to maintain it.

CHAPTER TWO: SCHOOL DICTIONARIES

1. Introduction

Beside other criteria, dictionaries are also classified according to the needs of the users they have to satisfy. Apart from the traditional distinction between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, there also are other distinctions, e.g. that between linguistic dictionaries and encyclopaedias (cf. Part one). Within the family of linguistic dictionaries, subdivisions are also made. Although all dictionaries have a pedagogical and didactic emphasis, there are dictionaries that have a direct link with the education system,

or at least with the acquisition of a specific language. The topic “Pedagogical dictionary” will thus concern all dictionaries with education as main goal. School dictionaries are part of the pedagogical branch of dictionary typology. Most of the time, these are dictionaries that help in the acquisition or the learning of the mother-tongue. Their main aim is didactic and like many other dictionaries, they are used in knowledge-oriented situations or in communicative-oriented situations. According to Hartmann & James (1998:122) school dictionaries are dictionaries written for school children, and their common features are a controlled defining vocabulary, a clear design and the incorporation of illustrations. Their target users are clearly defined. The focus of this chapter will be on general aspects of school dictionaries. I also intend to discuss three monolingual school dictionaries that could be of help for the description of the present model.

2. Aspects of a school dictionary

School dictionaries provide treatment of selected items from the standard language and often are monolingual dictionaries. Young speakers have to acquire knowledge about the standard language. The knowledge they acquire will help them with a better understanding of the language, in order to use it for text production and reception. The education system in which each pupil finds himself/herself is for him/her to adapt to a certain cultural environment, which is the representation of the society in which the pupil will have his/her first steps. The data contained in school dictionaries provides a series of rules that will help the pupil to be recognised in the community to which he/she belongs.

School dictionaries have a prescriptive approach in their structure. They convey the authoritative picture of a dictionary by presenting the norm of the language. They have a right of veto over the terms used in the language because dictionaries generally authorise or disallow words, senses and lexical constructions. Pupils and students in their learning process need to know the standardised language as the average speakers of the community speak it. The lexicographer may give a descriptive treatment of a specific

language but because it has to do with pupils (most of the time children), he/she also has to provide a room for a more prescriptive treatment. School dictionaries contain indispensable rules for the learning of the terms of a specific language. However the lexicographer working on that type of dictionary must bear in mind that even if he/she offers the good usage of the language, he/she is only mentioning and/or sustaining a prescription, and not judging it.

Furthermore, the obligation of the lexicographer is to give a high degree of clearness to the dictionary. This can be possible by providing an explicit presentation of the contents depending on the needs of the target users. Particular attention should then be paid to the treatment of data within the dictionary, and more generally to its structure. Pupils and students daily face active communication, thus dictionaries become instruments to which they are more often exposed. In that regard, the concept of user-friendliness, as proposed by Hausmann (1989), is vital. The target user should not be an excuse for the lexicographer to turn the dictionary into a static list of words. Often the central list of some school dictionaries are not user-friendly in the sense that the lexicographer only presents a series of rules that gives the dictionary a repulsive look for the young users.

For the rest of this section I choose to look at some existing school dictionaries. I will not make a critical review of those dictionaries but point out characteristics that may be relevant to the Gabonese situation. For that reason I will spend more time on the organisation within the outer texts in general, and more particularly within the front matter of these dictionaries.

In a general way, in the outer texts there is a distinction between integrated texts and non-integrated texts. The non-integrated outer texts have no direct link with the genuine purpose of the dictionary which should be well defined in advance. They have their own purpose, which can help in the consultation process but is not directed at the treatment of the language itself. The integrated outer texts are the texts adhering to the genuine purpose of the dictionary. Integrated texts and non-integrated texts can both be functional (Bergenholtz, Tarp and Wiegand 1999). They have their place in any dictionary and it is

the freedom of the lexicographer to use them to facilitate the consultation process. For instance, the users' guideline, which is a non-integrated text, helps the users to access the structure of the dictionary. It gives information about the system of the treatment of the language in the dictionary and it does not really belong to that treatment.

3. The *Francolin Illustrated School Dictionary for Southern Africa*

The *Francolin Illustrated School Dictionary for Southern Africa* (FISDSA) is a monolingual school dictionary. It is a school dictionary aimed at non-mother-tongue speakers of English, and it only concerns senior primary school pupils who have English as subject or medium of instruction. The genuine purpose of a dictionary is formulated so that the target user who uses the dictionary in a typical usage context will have an instrument to assist him/her in achieving a successful dictionary consultation procedure by reaching the goals that motivated the search (Gouws 2001a: 66). The genuine purpose of the FISDSA would be to present the treatment of the English language which will help the pupils in their learning process of that language. Therefore, this dictionary mainly consists of a vocabulary of common everyday English words. It also contains specific words used in the school curriculum, as well as South African English words commonly used in local speech communities (Preface of the FISDSA).

This dictionary project was tested in schools with an average of 591 pupils. The aim of that testing was for it to be used in more than one locality (not only in the Eastern Cape, which was the departure point). The FISDSA is arranged alphabetically and its frame structure includes an outer texts section and a central list. The outer texts provide information on how to use the dictionary, how it was compiled and it also contains non-linguistic information as appendices. All the texts found in the front matter of that dictionary are non-integrated texts. Although they give information about the use of the dictionary, they have nothing to do with the treated language and the genuine purpose of the dictionary.

Teachers do play an important role in helping pupils to develop their language abilities. In order to assist those teachers, a detailed introductory section has been included in the FISDSA to explain how the dictionary is structured and how to use it to teach dictionary skills. The texts found in the front matter have a double orientation and can be divided into two sections.

- In the first section of the front matter the authors explain how the entries are treated within the dictionary. They also give the organisation of the articles and their different components (paraphrase of meaning, synonyms, polysemous senses, cross-references, etc.). This section of the dictionary is directed at the users.
- The second section concerns the teachers. In this section the compilers explain the way the dictionary was written. They also describe the function of all the microstructural elements. The section is immediately followed by another section entitled “**How to use the dictionary in the classroom**”. This series of texts cover exercises on dictionary skills. It has been developed to facilitate the consultation process. The advantage of this aspect is that it provides a way for the pupils to learn how to look up words by themselves in the dictionary. It also helps to develop the confidence in using the information they find. Here follows some of the exercises found in that section.

Ex 1

Exercise 1

Do exercises to practice the order of the letters of the alphabet. Ask questions like:

a) Which letter comes before the letter **b** and which letter comes after the letter **b**?

b) Answer: a, c

c) Which are the 14th, 15th, 16th, and the 17th letter in the alphabet?

Answer: n, o, p, q.

d) Where are the following letters in the alphabet? Are they at the beginning, the middle or the end of the alphabet: **c, m, z, t, b, o**

Answer: The letters **b** and **c** are at the beginning, **m** and **o** are at the middle and **t** and **z** are near the end of the alphabet.

Exercise 5

The definition is the part in an entry, which tells you what the headword means. Find a word, which does not have a picture. Ask your pupils to read the word and its definition carefully. Do exercises like:

a) Find the definition of the word **giraffe** and read it carefully. Where do giraffes live? What do giraffes look like? Have you ever seen a giraffe? If you know what a giraffe looks like draw a picture of it.

Answer: Africa, giraffes have a very long, thin neck, long legs and a skin with brown and yellow pattern.

b) When you first use a word from the curriculum, you can use the dictionary to help explain the meaning. Just make sure that there is a definition for this word in this dictionary. Write the word on the blackboard or chalkboard. Then ask your pupils questions like these: What do you think this word means? Find the word in the dictionary and read the definition. Close the dictionary and say what you remember about the word.

Exercise 9

The plural form of a noun is used to show more than one person, more than one animal, etc. In English, the plural of most nouns is formed by adding an -s- to the end of the word and these plurals are not listed by this dictionary. But there are nouns which have plurals which change quite a lot. To practice these irregular plural forms, do the following exercises:

a) Think of words which belong together, for example names of domestic animals. Ask your pupils to make a list of all the domestic animals they can think of, such as **pig, cow, donkey, goose, sheep**. Do any of these words have a special plural?

Answer: **pigs, cows, donkeys**, but two **goose** and two **sheep**.

b) Ask your pupils to look up an irregular plural, such as, **teeth**. What does it say at the entry for **teeth**? What does it say in the first time at the entry of **tooth**?

Answer: **teeth** more than one **tooth, tooth** (two **teeth**).

Every word used in the definition is also defined in the central list. This approach is called the use of a “controlled vocabulary”. To help the pupils who may have a limited vocabulary, the authors provide a zone in the front matter texts of the dictionary for daily contracted forms like “I’m”, “didn’t”, “I’ve”, “doesn’t”. Definitions and example sentences refer to familiar things, places and events in the pupils’ world. Definitions for difficult words used in the learning program have been written in simple language. The example sentences have been written in such a way that they establish and illustrate the meaning of the words in context. Pictorial illustrations have been included in the articles of some words for a better explanation and to reinforce the meaning.

indicator *noun*

1 a chemical which gives you information about a substance. You use the word **indicator** in chemistry: *You use litmus paper as an indicator to show if a solution is an acid or an alkali.* **2** a light on a car which flashes to show that the car is going to turn left or right: *There are two pairs of indicators on a car – one pair is at the front and the other pair is at the back.* **3** an instrument like a dial or a little light which tells you how fast something is going, how hot something is, etc.: *This oven has an indicator to show you how hot it is.*

indoors

inside a building: *When it rains we stay indoors, but when the sun shines we play outdoors.*

Industry *noun*

1 (two **industries**) the activities and people that make up a particular kind of business: *He works in the car industry, but his brother works in the mining industry.* **2** (no plural) the work done to make or to construct things, usually in a factory: *Our town does not have much industry and there is only one small factory.*

influence

1 *noun* something which can change what people think or do, or which causes something else to happen: *Because of the influence of her parents, Cynthia plays the guitar very well.* **2** *verb* (**influences, influencing, influenced**) to make someone do or say what you want, to change what happens: *Please*

do not try to influence me because I want to make up my own mind.

information *noun* (no plural)

something you find out about, knowledge which you get through studying something: *Jay asks the driver for information on when the taxi is leaving. Our teacher says we have to write something about our town and I am looking for information about it in the library.*

ingredient *noun*

something which you use together with other things to make a mixture, or to cook a meal: *A tablet is usually made up of different ingredients which all work together to make you better. You will need these ingredients to make bread: flour, water, yeast and salt.*



inhale *verb* (**inhales, inhaling, inhaled**)

to take air into your lungs through your nose or your mouth: *When you breathe in you inhale and when you breathe out you exhale.*

Initial *noun*

the first letter of a name of a person or of a word: *Her name is Funeka Ngwema and the initial of her first name is F.*

a b c d e f g h **i** j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

woman: *When I grow up, I don't want to have a baby until I have a good job and can care for it properly.* **2** to become: *The food was finished, and she grew weak from hunger.* **3** to live and develop: *In a place where it rains a lot and the soil is good, the plants grow well.* **4** to take care of something, so that it can develop and become bigger: *He sells the vegetables which he grows.*

grown

1 *adjective* having become bigger and more complete: *The boy is an adult. He is a grown man now.* **2** *verb* look at **grow**

grown-up *noun* (two **grown-ups**)

a fully grown person: *Tram tickets for children are cheaper than train tickets for grown-ups.*

guard

1 *verb* (**guards, guarding, guarded**) to make sure that someone or something stays safe, to protect: *They bought a dog to guard the house and keep away burglars.* **2** *noun* a person whose job is to make sure that someone or something stays safe: *The four guards stood next to the president's car to protect the president.*

Guava *noun*

a firm fruit with a smooth skin and with pink or cream flesh inside. A **guava** has many pips which you can eat.

Guess *verb* (**guesses, guessing, guessed**)

to say what you think is right, to

say what you think the answer to a question is when you do not know the answer exactly: *I don't know how old that girl is. I would guess that she is about 15 or 16.*

guitar *noun*

a kind of musical instrument with six strings which you move with your fingers to make music



gully *noun* (two **gullies**)

a deep narrow hollow in the earth which is caused by the action of water: *When water moves against rocks again and again for a very long time, the water makes a gully.*

gun *noun*

a kind of weapon which fires bullets. A **gun** can kill or hurt people or animals: *Guns are dangerous and you should never play with them.*

gutter *noun*

a narrow, open pipe at the side of the road or on the edge of a roof for carrying rainwater away: *Gutters on the edge of a roof carry the rainwater away.*

a b c d e f g **h** i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

The numbering of the pages starts at the beginning of the central list, in other words it starts with the first page dealing with the letter “a”. The first lemma of the page is highlighted because it is given on top of the page at the left hand side. The last lemma of the section is also highlighted and given on top of the page at the right hand side. Those words are in bolded characters. All the letters of the alphabet are given at the bottom of the page in the central list and the letter of the article stretch in which the lemmata on the page fall, is given in bold.

Ex 3

indicator 134

indicator *noun*
1 a chemical which gives you information about a substance. You use the word **indicator** in chemistry. *You use litmus paper as an indicator to show if a solution is an acid or an alkali.*
2 a light on a car which flashes to show that the car is going to turn left or right. *There are two pairs of indicators on a car – one pair is at the front and the other pair is at the back.*
3 an instrument like a dial or a little light which tells you how fast something is going, how hot something is, etc.: *This oven has an indicator to show you how hot it is.*


indoors
inside a building: When it rains we stay indoors, but when the sun shines we play outdoors.

industry *noun*
1 (two **industries**) the activities and people that make up a particular kind of business: *He works in the car industry, but his brother works in the mining industry.*
2 (no plural) the work done to make or to construct things, usually in a factory: *Our town does not have much industry and there is only one small factory.*

influence
1 *noun* something which can change what people think or do, or which causes something else to happen: *Because of the influence of her parents, Cynthia plays the guitar very well.*
2 *verb* (**influences, influencing, influenced**) to make someone do or say what you want, to change what happens: *Please do not try to influence me because I want to make up my own mind.*

information *noun* (no plural)
something you find out about, knowledge which you get through studying something: *Joy asks the driver for information on when the taxi is leaving. Our teacher says we have to write something about our town and I am looking for information about it in the library.*

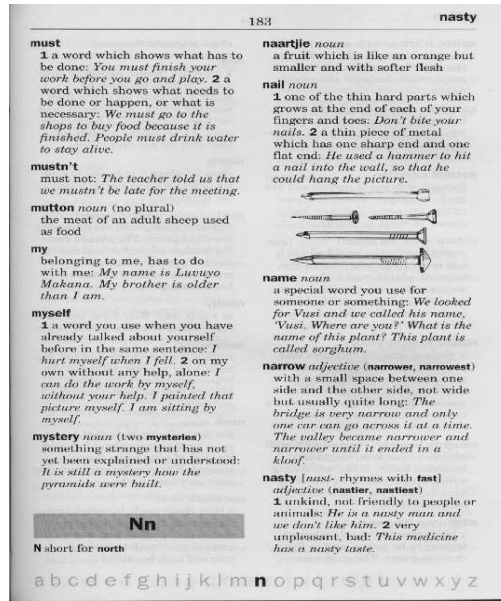
ingredient *noun*
something which you use together with other things to make a mixture, or to cook a meal: *A tablet is usually made up of different ingredients which all work together to make you better. You will need these ingredients to make bread: flour, water, yeast and salt.*



inhale *verb* (**inhales, inhaling, inhaled**)
to take air into your lungs through your nose or your mouth: *When you breathe in you inhale and when you breathe out you exhale.*

initial *noun*
the first letter of a name of a person or of a word: *Her name is Flavia Ngweni and the initial of her first name is F.*

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z



In the preceding examples on page 134 the lemma **indicator** is highlighted and the letter **i** given in bold. On page 183 it is the lemma **nasty** and the letter **n**. Because this dictionary is for non-mother-tongue speakers of English this method has the advantage of helping the user in finding the lemma through the alphabetical order and at the same time knowing or revising the very same alphabet. It helps him/her to familiarise in a quicker way with the alphabet of the foreign language.

4. The Oxford Junior Dictionary

Unlike the FISDSA, the *Oxford Junior Dictionary* (OJD) is a dictionary directed at first language speaking pupils. It is a fourth edition and the users targeted in this dictionary are primary school pupils between seven and/or nine years old. Because it is directed at a more restricted public and is for mother-tongue speakers, the OJD presents less cultural data than the FISDSA. For example, information on typical South African English is not dealt with within the dictionary. Although the dictionary gives typical usages of the treated lexical units, the definitions are short and so are the examples.

Ex 4

along *adverb, preposition*

1. from one end to the other. *He ran along the top of the wall.*
 2. forward. *He walked along slowly.*
- Come along!** Hurry up.

aloud *adverb*

in a voice that can be heard. *Do not read to yourself-read aloud.*

alphabet *noun*

all the letters people used in a writing, arranged in particular order. The English alphabet is printed at top of this page (...)

influence *verb* **influences, influencing, influenced**

to have the power to change what someone thinks or does.

inform *verb* **informs, informing, informed**

to tell someone something. *You should inform the police of the accident.*

informal *adjective*

not formal, not strict. *Informal clothes, an informal party.*

Words in this dictionary marked 'informal' are used when you talk to friends and at other times when you don't need to be very proper (...)

ugly *adjective* **uglier, ugliest**

not beautiful to look at

umbrella *noun* **umbrellas**

a round piece of cloth stretched over a frame that can be opened and shut. You hold an umbrella over your head to keep you off the rain

This dictionary also has a front matter and a back matter section along with the central list. The texts in those sections are shorter than the ones in the FISDSA and are very limited. The compilers of that dictionary only provide a single page to give a brief explanation as the user guidelines. The front matter, excluding the title pages, only has two pages presenting the texts on the use and the compilation of the dictionary. All the texts encountered in this section of the dictionary are non-integrated texts like in the FISDSA. The following extract shows the non-integrated function of a particular text-block included in the front matter of that dictionary. It concerns the way the dictionary was compiled and has no direct link with the genuine purpose of the dictionary. The back matter contains more data and provides typical information on weights and measures, names of places, etc.

In this revised edition we have preserved the virtues of earlier editions while adding significant new dimensions to suit the needs of today's seven-to-nine-year-olds. The typography and the design still aim at readability and user-friendliness. It is a real dictionary which young readers and writers can use not only in the classroom but also on their own.

In a number of ways, however, the scope of this edition is larger than it was previously. The vocabulary has been increased, especially with a view to covering semantic areas of technology and popular culture which are part of children's day-to-day experience. In other respects, too, this edition keeps pace with recent concerns in English teaching. To support children's spelling, and as a basis for discussion of grammatical issues, all forms of verbs are now spelled out, as are plurals of nouns, and comparatives and superlatives of adjectives. Another innovation in this edition is the inclusion of forms derived from the headword, wherever this will be helpful to children rather than confusing. Thus, users will find commonly used adverbs at the end of an adjective entry, related nouns at the end of a verb entry, and so on. In many entries, usage is illustrated by example sentences or phrases.

The central list of the OJD displays the alphabet of the language written on top of each page, and the letter dealt with is highlighted both at the left and right hand side. The compilers chose to mark the main lemma in bolded red colour. The same is used for the alphabet.

5. The *Oxford Pocket School Dictionary*

The *Oxford Pocket School Dictionary* (OPSD) is the third edition of the New Oxford School Dictionary, first published in 1990. It is a monolingual desk dictionary and was compiled for secondary school students between 11 and 16 years old. It is meant to be a tool for both text production and text reception during the school programme. By means of its genuine purpose the OPSD transfers, by treating lexical data, information regarding the words included as lexical items in order to increase the student's knowledge. It has a strong knowledge-orientated function although the communicative-orientated function is also present. The compilers said that they want their dictionary to *serve as a working tool in the classroom and accustom its users to the style in which most adult dictionaries are written*.

The frame structure of this dictionary has a front and a back matter as well as an alphabetically arranged central list. It provides many etymological data on the English language in support of its genuine purpose. The dictionary contains both linguistic and encyclopedic data that are linked to the culture and the development of the treated language. Although it is a synchronic dictionary, the OPSD has a good combination of synchronic and diachronic features. It gives the user information about where the language comes from; where it fits in a bigger picture and it indicates the approximate number of speakers as well as some of the countries where it is spoken. The diachronic information in this dictionary can be found in both the central list and in the outer texts (the front matter).

The texts found in the back matter of this dictionary are all non-integrated texts. In the front matter, however both integrated and non-integrated texts are found. The non-integrated texts are related only to the knowledge of the English language and its history, the integrated texts are related to the treatment of the English language within the dictionary.

Ex 5

- The first pages of this dictionary present a non-integrated text mentioning the situation of English and the family to which it belongs. I quote:

The English language

English is the chief language of Britain, the USA, Australia, and a number of other countries. More than 300 million people speak it as their first or their only language, and millions more in all parts of the world learn it as a foreign language for use in communication with people of other nations. It is the official language used between airline pilots and their air traffic controllers in all countries, and shipping, and the main language of international business, science, medicine, and computing.

All languages have a history: they are constantly changing and evolving. It is probable that nearly all the languages of Europe, and some of those in the Middle East and India, came from once ancient community, who lived in Eastern Europe 5,000 years ago. Scholars call the language of this community Indo-European. As people moved away to the east and the west they lost contact with each other and developed new and different lifestyles. Naturally their language needs changed too. They invented new words and forgot old ones, and the grammar of the languages also changed. Many varied languages grew from the original parent tongue, until the time came when people with the same ancestors would no longer have understood each other.

Invasions and conquests complicated the process. The English language shows this very well, for invaders brought their own languages to Britain, and British travellers took theirs to lands overseas. The earliest known inhabitants of Britain spoke a form of **Celtic**, related to modern Welsh and Gaelic. Very little of this Celtic survived the waves of invasion that drove its speakers into western and highland parts of the country, but the names of some cities, rivers, and hills date back to Celtic times (e.g. *Carlisle, Avon, Pendle*).

- The dictionary also gives information on the usage of formal and informal words.

Formal and informal

We wear different clothes for different kind of occasions, and often the words that we use when writing or speaking formally are different from those that we use informally to friends. Very informal language (e.g. *nick*=to steal, *quid*= £1, *piffle*= non sense) is called **slang**. It is used either for fun, or to express something in a more vivid or picturesque way than dignified words would do, or to shock people or attract their attention. Often, special slang words are used by members of a group, and they recognise others who use them as belonging to it too.

In the user guidelines one can find texts related to the explanation of the structure and the micro-architecture of the article stretches in the central list. Examples taken from page xiii illustrate it:

Ex 6

Inflections and plurals

Derived forms of verbs, plural of nouns, and some comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs are given after the word class (part of speech). The first verb form given (ending in *-s*) is used for the present tense. The second form given (ending in *-ing*) is the present participle. When three verb forms are given, e.g.

admit *verb* (**admits, admitting, admitted**)

the third form is both the past tense (as in ‘he *admitted* it’) and the past participle (‘it was *admitted*). When four forms are given, e.g.

come *verb* (**comes, coming, came, come**)

freeze *verb* (**freezes, freezing, froze, frozen**)

the third is the past tense (as in ‘he *came*’; ‘it *froze*’) and the fourth is the past participle (‘he had *come*’; ‘it was *frozen*’).

Examples

Examples of words in use are given in italic or sloping print like this to help make a definition clear, e.g.

beware *verb* be careful ♦ *Beware of pickpockets.*

Within its central list, the OPSD presents a good combination of simple and complex articles. It combines pragmatic and semantic information in the complex articles. All this data is attached to the linguistic data that a dictionary can give. The pragmatic data has a link with both the knowledge-oriented function and the communicative-oriented function.

Ex 7

advent *noun* the arrival of a new person or thing ♦ *the advent of computers*. [from *ad-* + Latin *venire* = come]

i **WORD FAMILY**
There are a number of English words that are related to *advent* because part of their original meaning comes from the Latin word *venire* meaning 'to come'. These include *adventure*, *contravene*, *convene*, *intervene*, *invent*, *prevent*, *supervene*, and *venture*.

behalf *noun* **on behalf of** for the benefit of someone else or as their representative ♦ *We are collecting money on behalf of cancer research*. **on my behalf** for me. [from an old phrase *bi halve him* = on his side]

i **USAGE**
Do not use *on behalf of* (= for someone else) when you mean *on the part of* (= by someone). For example, do not say *This was a serious mistake on behalf of the government* when you mean *on the part of the government*.

According to the level of knowledge that the target users have about the language, this dictionary offers pronunciation and plural forms as well as derivational forms. Labels are used to mark informal or slang words and words coming from specific fields. The dictionary in its treatment gives both a prescriptive and a descriptive presentation of the language. This aspect is well demonstrated by the pragmatic data provided by the dictionary.

6. Discussion

6. 1. Advantages of the method used in these dictionaries

6. 1. 1. The FISDSA

In this section, the series of exercises found in the front matter of the FISDSA will be examined. The fact that those types of exercises are explained in the section is a good starting point for the teaching of dictionary skills. Such exercises can be used in the Yipunu-French School Dictionary to help the teacher convey grammatical and morphological criteria. At the same time it will also help the pupils in the assimilation of the Bantu system of Yipunu. For example that approach could be used in learning the different pronominal classes attached to each stem. Another good point would be to ask the pupils to retrieve different affixes, such as locative prefixes or verbal prefixes, within the dictionary. For the Gabonese situation, a mini-grammar contained in the front matter text would be the best place in the dictionary to accommodate such exercises. The pupils could use the mini-grammar to retrieve the information asked through the exercises. Thus, the exercises should immediately follow the mini-grammar and not be before any explanation on grammatical notion like in the FISDSA. The existing grammars are the starting point for the establishment of that section of the front matter. They provide a good analysis and minor adjustments need to be done to integrate the data they represent into the structure of the dictionary. In that matter, it is important to note that the compilers of the YFSD should meticulously plan the structure of the front and back matter texts. The organisation of the different texts included in those sections of the dictionary should not be done in an arbitrary way but should rather be planned in advance during the very first stages of the lexicographic process. For example, the order of the texts could be planned when devising the data distribution process (cf. Part3, Chapt3).

Furthermore, to improve the efficiency of the dictionary, the compilers of the YFSD could use a system of cross-referencing from the central list to the front matter texts and vice-versa. The cross-reference system could create links between the data contained in the articles of the central list and the data contained in the mini-grammar on one hand, and on the other hand, create a link between the data contained in the central list and the data provided by the exercises. For example to have more data on a particular item, the

user could be referred to the mini-grammar or to one of the exercises, with the departure point of the search route being the morphological data included in the treatment of a particular word. This will have the advantage of showing the interaction between the central list and the mini-grammar, and at the same time showing that all texts in a dictionary are important. It could also enhance the dictionary skills of the user in the sense where it will direct the user to an effective use of the front matter texts. Used in a well-devised and consistent pattern, this approach could add to the access structure of the YFSD.

6. 1. 2. The OJD

The point to start here would be the alphabet that is written at the top of each page of the OJD. Such a display of the alphabet would provide a good way for the pupils to learn the alphabet of the language, whether they are mother-tongue speakers or not. In addition, this would also enhance the access structure of the dictionary because it catches the attention of the user. The user will not have to bow his/her head to see it but by opening any page, the alphabet is the first data he/she is introduced to. It would be easy for the users to retrieve the information they want. The letters of the alphabet would thus function as sign post indicators. At the same time it will be profitable for whoever would want to work on that language because the use of that alphabet would help in the standardisation of the language. For the Gabonese languages, there is an existing alphabet that is not yet fully applied (*Alphabet scientifique des langues Gabonaises, ASLG*), this approach would be a good way to establish and implement that alphabet.

The model for the YFSD will benefit a lot from the OJD in a sense that it can include outer texts in which aspects of the development of the language will be presented. For example an indication of the origin of words could be included in the outer text section in order to help the non-Yipunu pupils who are, in one way or another, learning the Yipunu language or in contact with that language. Such data could also benefit the group of pupils with Yipunu as first language, as well as the pupils having French as first language but whose parents are Yipunu mother-tongue speakers. Data regarding etymology of the

words in the case of the YFSD should not be entered in all articles but, if needed, the lexicographer should make provision for that through the data distribution structure. However, the compilers of the OJD claim that they want their dictionary to be a first step for their users to customise themselves with the use of dictionaries (preface).

We believe that this new edition will not only provide for young children's immediate needs, but will lead them to understand the uses of a dictionary and develop in them dictionary skills, so that they will be able to progress confidentially to more advanced dictionaries whenever the time is right.

6. 2. Disadvantages of the method used in these dictionaries

6. 2. 1. The FISDSA

6. 2. 1. 1. General aspects

Comments can be made regarding the treatment of lexical items in the FISDA. Firstly, it has a straight alphabetical order where the lemmata in the central list are arranged vertically. There is no sub-lemmatisation. The compilers used a very condensed microstructure within the article slots. The different senses are put together and there are no indications on how to find them. The user has to do a lot of thinking and reading to be able to find his/her way through all the given data. This can impede the access to the needed information and it is confusing especially because the target users of that dictionary are pupils who do not have English as first language. That is why they need more guidance and a less condensed structure to find their way during the consultation process. The example below will illustrate the point.

Ex 8

answer

1 verb(**answers, answering, answered**)to say or to write something after someone has asked you a question, to reply to a letter: *he asked her why she was crying, but she did not answer.*

2 noun something you say or write after someone has asked you a question, written a letter, or told you to find out something: *'Emily, where are you?' asked Mandla. But Emily gave no Answer. No-one got the answer Right.* **3 noun** the right solution to a sum in mathematics: *The right answer to the sum 5+5 is 10.*

4 verb to pick up the telephone when it rings and speak to the person who is phoning you: *The phone rang and Vuyani answered it.*

Like I said earlier, all the words have been treated as main lemmata. It is a simple way to present the treatment of the language and the system does not present any derivational words. In this dictionary, definitions are done properly but at the cost of space. However, the needs of the user should determine the system used. The authors have to repeat the same definition in many cases all over again for different lemmata. The treatment of “any” will be taken as an illustration of this statement. The compilers present the treatment of “any” as follows.

Ex 9

any adjective

1 some: *Do you have any brothers or sisters? She is poor and doesn't have any money.* **2** a word you use when you talk about something or someone and it does not matter what or who you mean: *You can come and visit me on any day during the week. It does no matter when you come to visit me. Any pupil who needs help should ask the teacher.*

After the treatment of “any” the treatment of the complex words with that specific lexical item as first stem follow: “anybody”; “anymore”; “anyone”; “anywhere” as main lemmata. However during the consultation process, the user is engaged in a repeating definition process because the meaning of all the words derived from “any” is linked to the very meaning of that lexical item. It would have been better for the compilers to present those derived forms under “any”. The users would still have been able to see the semantic relation existing between the different words. And if the user had to look for a derived word such as “anyone”, it would have been easier to retrieve it from the article cluster attached to the article of the main lemma “any”. For the lexicographer, such words are transparent complex forms. He/she should use that transparency during the lexicographic treatment to present those words in order for the user to retrieve the meaning of the word by knowing the meaning of their components. By using this approach, the lexicographer could have presented the data in a way that would have allowed the user to understand and retrieve the information in an unambiguous way. However, it would also help the lexicographer to save space for a better treatment instead of giving the same definition for the derived forms. In fact, “any” in those words functions as a stem and the other morphemes attached to it can also be found attached to other stems like “some”. Yet all these complex words in their full form (anywhere, anyone, anything) have to be entered in their alphabetical order with a cross-reference entry guiding the user to the lemma “any”. Thus the treatment of the lemma “any” would produce something like:

Ex 10

any adjective

1 some: *Do you have any brothers or sisters? She is poor and doesn't have any money.* **2** a word you use when you talk about something or someone and it does not matter what or who you mean: *You can come and visit me on any day during the week. It does no matter when you come to visit me. Any pupil who needs help should Ask the teacher.*
Any can be found in: **anybody; anymore; anyone; anything; anywhere.**

For the target user to be able to correctly interpret the data provided, illustrative sentences should follow in order to demonstrate the context of usage. If such a procedure were to be used in the compilation process of the YFSD, it would allow an easier and rapid access to the data. The cross-referencing would add to the clarity of the presented data and would also help in presenting more clearly the right semantic relations existing between the different words. Another benefit from such a presentation would be the fact that it will use a lesser amount of space.

6. 2. 1. 2. The cross referencing system

Another point that needs to be mentioned here is the cross-referencing system of FISDSA. It is not the easiest way for the consultation process if the user has to wonder what the meaning of the word the dictionary is referring to is. It seems that the compilers rely on the knowledge of the target user and assume a high level of that knowledge. It is sometimes better not to use cross-references, especially when it comes to pedagogical dictionaries because the type of users is not often familiar with dictionary skills, especially when it comes to non-mother-tongue speakers. To do the treatment of those lemmata, the compilers could have relied on the treatment of **more**, **one**, **thing**, and **where** in the central list, and with a better cross-reference system, the compilers would have avoided repetition:

Ex 11

anybody

any person (another word for **anyone**):

When Jaco started going to the new school he did not know anybody

anyone

any person (another word for **anybody**): *I*

can't find my book. Has anyone seen it?

Such a repetitive system could have the advantage of avoiding a complex lexicographic structure, but it has the disadvantage of not providing enough data for the user to know the usage context, or present the right semantic relation. A well-devised cross-reference system will add to a better transfer of data. The compilers could have also chose to present the two lexical items as synonyms.

6. 2. 1. 3. The exercises

The approach used by the compilers of the FISDSA concerning the exercises found in the front matter pages is useful and quite original. It helps the pupils in acquiring dictionary skills. However, the exercises seem to concern the pupils but one can note that they are pointed towards the teachers. What was supposed to be exercises for the pupils turn out to be a guideline for teachers. The title of that section is **How to use the dictionary in the classroom?** It does not concern the target user (the pupil) because the compilers address the teachers. Sentences such, as “Do exercises to practice the order of the letters of the alphabet. Ask questions like these” are found through the entire section. Preceding that section they provide another section entitled **to the teacher**⁶.

The duty of any lexicographer will be to facilitate the consultation process of its intended target user and the dictionary should be compiled accordingly. Providing a separate book for that purpose is, in my opinion, more helpful because the compilers could have developed the subject in more details and at the same time produce a better work for the benefit of both pupils and teachers. It is the pupils who use the dictionary, thus it is important for them to know how to find the information they want to retrieve from that tool. In the mentioned section, the compilers of the FISDSA could have directly addressed the pupils instead of addressing the teachers. Such a section would have helped to establish a dictionary culture in a better way and could have enhanced the dictionary skills of the users because if the data used in the exercise section is linked to the central list of the dictionary it will be easier for them to understand the structure and the purpose

⁶ Extract from the FISDSA pages vi to xvi

of a dictionary. In other words, it will set a platform to familiarise them with adult dictionaries at a later stage.

For the case of the model that is the subject of this dissertation, the exercises should be developed in the front matter of the dictionary without the part containing the suggestions on how these exercises should look like. It will only be directed at the pupils and be part of the dictionary as a text. Instead of having suggestions and exercises, I rather propose a series of exercises that will be part of the dictionary structure to help the pupils to focus their attention on dictionary skills. However, to implement the dictionary skills of the pupils, the teachers also need to be trained. A second exercise book comprising the same exercises as in the front matter text of the YFSD plus the answers to the questions of the exercises could go hand in hand with the dictionary. This second book will be directed at teachers and will offer more details on the activities of the dictionary. This will help in establishing a good dictionary culture in the classroom. A second option though would be to compile two different books, one for the pupils, and one for the teachers.

6. 2. 2. The OJD

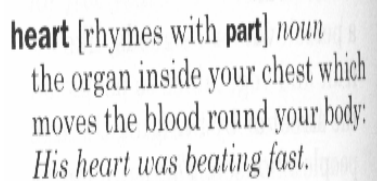
One of the shortcomings I have found in this dictionary is that the compilers did not provide a text to help the pupils to acquire dictionary skills. They only talk about it but make no effort to achieve that goal. The users' guideline is not enough to acquire dictionary skills especially because the users are between 7 and 9 years old.

Another point is that those young users are at a stage where they are still learning the language. They learn through school and through their surrounding people at home. Thus they may encounter new words that they will not be able to pronounce properly, especially if they found them in their reading (school programme, story books, etc.). The absence of a proper treatment of pronunciation in this dictionary is a hindrance to that learning process.

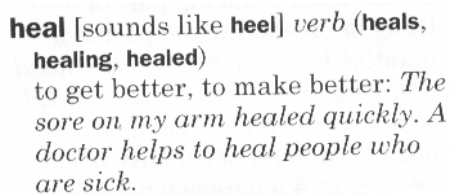
6. 2.3. Shortcomings in the treatment of pronunciation: the FISDSA and the OPSD

I have noticed that in all the dictionaries I have examined, the pronunciation is dealt with in a very arbitrary way. Lexicographers rely too much on the intuition of the user and it makes the consultation process uneasy and confusing. He/ she has to do more thinking to be able to figure out what is the real pronunciation of a word. In the following lines I will try to show some inconveniences that the treatment of pronunciation present. The approach used by the OPSD and the FISDSA does not give in the treatment of their lemmata the transcription of the word, but they only depend on similar sounds to help the user when they think the word may cause problems.

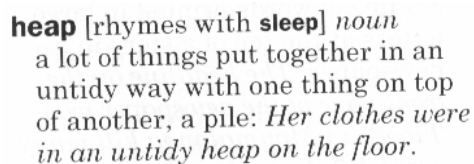
Ex 12 in the FISDSA



heart [rhymes with **part**] *noun*
the organ inside your chest which moves the blood round your body:
His heart was beating fast.



heal [sounds like **heel**] *verb* (**heals, healing, healed**)
to get better, to make better: *The sore on my arm healed quickly. A doctor helps to heal people who are sick.*



heap [rhymes with **sleep**] *noun*
a lot of things put together in an untidy way with one thing on top of another, a pile: *Her clothes were in an untidy heap on the floor.*

Ex 13 in the OPSD

arbitrary (say ar-bit-rer-ee) *adjective* chosen or done on an impulse, not according to a rule or law ♦ *an arbitrary decision.*
arbitrarily *adverb*
[originally = according to an arbiter's decision, not according to rules]
arbitration *noun* settling a dispute by calling in someone from outside to make a decision. **arbitrate** *verb* **arbitrator** *noun*
[from Latin *arbitrari* = to judge]
arboreal (say ar-bor-ee-al) *adjective* to do with trees; living in trees. [from Latin *arbor* = tree]
arboretum (say ar-ber-ee-tum) *noun* (*plural* **arboretums** or **arboreta**) a place where trees are grown for study and display. [from Latin *arbor* = tree]
arbour (say ar-ber) *noun* (*plural* **arbours**) a shady place among trees. [from Latin *arbor* = tree]

The compilers of both the OPSD and the FISDSA are relying on the knowledge that the user has of the language. This approach is, in some ways, arbitrary because one cannot assume that a certain word will be difficult for the student or the pupils, and another one not. If we take the case of the FISDSA, one has to remember that it was compiled for third and second language speakers of English. Their knowledge of the linguistic system of English is not at a point where they would know how to pronounce all “common words”. By their method, the lexicographer asks the children to know how to pronounce all the words. But, being a second or even third language speaker, the notion of commonly used words is different. The daily words used by a second or third language speaker are part of his/her mother tongue and are not part of the learnt language. The latter is used in occasional communication while the mother-tongue lexicon is the most commonly used because the environment of the user is related to his/her first language. Second and third language speakers always struggle with the common words that they do not use as often as they should.

In the OPSD the users are first language speakers. Yet the approach the compilers use for pronunciation can be a problem. One of the reasons why pupils consult a dictionary is to know how to pronounce a certain word. They may have encountered new words via their lessons, daily conversation and/or their readings, and would like to know how to pronounce that word. The dictionary should thus provide proper information that would give a solution to the problem they face. The target users of that dictionary are between 11 and 16 years old. It is important for them to find information concerning that matter because of the new words they may encounter. At the same time, knowing the etymology of a word does not help much if one wants to know if the pronunciation of that word is correct or not. One may be a first language speaker but this does not imply that he/she knows how to pronounce all the words, especially if you are between 11 and 16 years old. At this stage, one only starts to discover more than what he/she learns at primary school, that means more new words. Moreover the gap between academic writing and formal speaking increases the need of a proper pronunciation treatment in a dictionary such as the OPSD.

Ex 14 OPSD

arabesque (say a-rab-**esk**) *noun* (plural **arabesques**) 1 (in dancing) a position with one leg stretched backwards in the air. 2 an ornamental design of leaves and branches. [French, = Arabian (because the leaf and branch designs were first used in Arabic art)]

aquiline (say ak-wil-'l'n) *adjective* hooked like an eagle's beak ♦ an **aquiline** nose. [from Latin *aquila* = eagle]

ar- *prefix* to; towards. See **ad-**.

When the compilers use “say a-rab-**esk**”, the data they offer is in my opinion insufficient because the user may not know if he/she should pronounce it [æɾəbɛsk] or [æɾæbɛsk]

since the user could make a link with the preceding word “**Arab**” which is pronounced [æɾəb]. Here again, the compilers rely on the knowledge of the user.

7. Conclusion

Different Communities will certainly have different needs when facing a particular situation. In the same way users have different needs according to their linguistic environment and according to the level of dictionary culture they have. The three dictionaries I chose to focus on have in common the fact that they are all school dictionaries. The approaches compilers exploit to structure those dictionaries are different from one another due to the age of their target user, and their first language. In the context of a Yipunu French School Dictionary, the methods used for the treatment of the English language in the three dictionaries mentioned above would be helpful in various ways. They could not only benefit the mother-tongue pupils but also the non-mother-tongue pupils. To adapt those methods, a combination of the characteristics found in the three English school dictionaries will be necessary to respond to the needs of the Gabonese pupils. Those pupils are both mother-tongue and non-mother-tongue speakers, so they would be considered as second or third language speakers like in the case of the FISDSA, they are between 8 and 17 years old which is the average category dealt with in the three dictionaries.

CHAPTER THREE: THE PLANNING PHASE IN A DICTIONARY PROJECT

1. Introduction

If the question “what is the aim of a dictionary?” were to be asked to any user, either the expert or the inexperienced user, a typical answer would be: “To give information in order to increase one’s knowledge”. Yet the answer to the question “what is a good dictionary” would often be “any dictionary that gives all the information needed by the user in a friendly and accessible way”. The lexicographer should make it his/her priority to accomplish this goal. Make sure that the user is not more confused in the attempt to retrieve information. To emphasise that position Gouws (2001a) says that a dictionary consultation procedure depends on the way in which the needed linguistic information can be retrieved. It is also by trying to simplify the task of the user that practical and theoretical lexicography must work together because a dictionary can be compiled with a good theoretical foundation and still be inaccessible to the target user. This is one of the reasons why it is important for the lexicographer to have a good planning of the product. The plan of a dictionary project must not only make provision for the prescription of the data to be included in the dictionary, but it should also provide a clear and unambiguous guidance regarding the structures of the dictionary in order to facilitate the consultation process. This chapter will focus on the different phases of the planning of a dictionary.

2. The lexicographic process

According to Gouws (1997:1), the compilation of a dictionary is only a part of the overall lexicographic process and is preceded by the planning phase during which the dictionary conceptualisation plan is formulated and a sound theoretical basis is established. The compilation process should adhere to the dictionary conceptualisation plan. The planning phase of a dictionary project plays an important role in the dictionary making process. It will determine the structure of the dictionary as a finished product. It is also during that

phase that all the ingredients are put together in order to form the big picture of the dictionary and how it should look like at the end of the process. Yet in order to succeed during the process, several steps have to be taken into account. At some stage of the process, the purpose of the dictionary must be established as well as the method to collect the data and the material to be used during the compilation. One can never emphasise enough that a lack of planning typically results in a bad dictionary. Planning and dictionary making should always go hand in hand.

There are different phases in the planning of a dictionary, because when it comes to dictionary compilation one must know that it does not only start with the collection of data or the compilation itself. The actual process starts when the lexicographer or the lexicographic unit thinks about the idea of compiling a dictionary. That process implies various phases because there is a long road from the idea to the product itself. The road includes all the steps from the collection of data, the compilation of the corpus, dealing with a publishing house, binding, printing and so on. Gouws (1997) emphasises it well when he says that, during the planning phase preceding the compilation of any dictionary the lexicographer has to negotiate at least three important issues, i.e., the structure of the dictionary, its content and the user-orientation.

To start with a dictionary plan the lexicographer should first go to a publishing house to be sure that the product would be published, how it will be put on the market and also to have an overview of the intended users he/she has in mind. From that very first step, he/she has to bear in mind the intended target user of his/her dictionary. They will determine the content, the structure and functions of the dictionary he/she wants to compile. One of the reasons why a lexicographer should plan his/her dictionary long in advance is for him/her not to fail in the completion of the product. One of the major reasons why a dictionary often fails to be the kind of linguistic communicative instrument it is supposed to be is the lack of planning, and the arbitrary way in which it has been compiled (Gouws 1999:7). The arbitrary way is laid by the intuition of the lexicographer taken for truth during the compilation. Some lexicographers often assume what the user would want from the dictionary and try to guess what will go with his/her interest. This is

the result of no planning and the use of an arbitrary way in working during the compilation process. The lexicographer follows his/her intuition without exactly knowing what the needs of the target user are, what should really be put in the dictionary, how to treat the entries in the best interest of the user and what will be the goal to pursue. For Gouws (2001:64) the establishing of a lexicographic process leads to the formulation of a dictionary plan, which forms the basis of the decisions regarding the compilation of the dictionary. The lexicographic process will look at the development of a language in order to achieve all the activities leading to the publication of the dictionary as a final text product. Through that process, the dictionary project is analysed and well controlled. The lexicographic process thus allows the lexicographer during the planning phase to be able to predict what the dictionary will look like. It draws the path on which the lexicographer must work in order to generate a good and reliable product.

However, a lexicographic process is not a fixed formula that one has to apply no matter what the situation of the language is. It has to be defined according to the linguistic situation of the treated language, its political and geographical issues and according to the needs of its intended target users. Although the different sections of a lexicographic process may seem similar it will differ from one dictionary project to another. In that regard, the lexicographer must make provision for changes and adaptation. Its importance is reinforced by the fact that dictionaries are not only linguistic tools but they are instruments of communicative empowerment (Gouws, 1997:16). Specific language problems and the needs of a specific speech community have to be taken into account during the development of the lexicographic process.

In addition, a comprehensive lexicographic process includes the planning phase of a dictionary. This does not only require efforts from the lexicographer's side but it also involves the publishing house that will produce the dictionary and preferably a government policy to sustain the project, if possible. The lexicographic process is part of the event of a society and contains a comprehensive history of the development of the language. It is constituted by all activities leading to the publication of a dictionary as a text (Gouws, 1999:7). In other words, the lexicographic process forms the basis of all

decisions concerning the conception and the compilation when it comes to dictionaries. It is divided into two major phases: The **organisational plan** and the **dictionary conceptualisation plan**. The dictionary conceptualisation plan is purely lexicographic while the organisational plan also calls for administrative input. Metalexigraphic guidelines will cover both stages. The acquisition of a dictionary by the user is highly dependent on the aim for which it was compiled. Both sections are fundamental components of every lexicographic process.

2. 1. The organisational plan

It is the editor in chief of a lexicographic unit who is directly involved with the organisational plan. The basis on which the editor must determine the type of data to be included in the dictionary must be determined by the needs of the users and the genuine purpose of the dictionary. He/she has to make sure that the different sections of the lexicographic process are well formulated and implemented. He/she can work along with a board of directors of the lexicographic unit he/she is part of. Together they make provision for the timing, they set up the objectives of the dictionary project, and they plan the work with the publisher for the marketing of the product. They make the budget of the project and they indicate the nature and the extent of the duties of each staff member involved in the unit (Gouws 1999).

2. 2. The genuine purpose of a dictionary

To find the specific purpose of a dictionary is one of the first steps to identify in the lexicographic process, as the two phases will depend on it. The purpose of a dictionary is known as the **genuine purpose**. It is generally determined by the typological nature of the dictionary and its intended target user group. Gouws (1999:13) illustrated it more precisely by saying that the genuine purpose of a dictionary implies that a dictionary is produced so that the target user who uses the dictionary in a typical usage context will

have an instrument to assist him/her in achieving a successful dictionary consultation procedure by reaching the goals that motivated the search. The genuine purpose of a dictionary should therefore be to ensure a successful dictionary consultation procedure. The genuine purpose of a dictionary responds to the needs of the target user. It is a critical point and it plays a major role in the making of a dictionary. It has implications for the dictionary conceptualisation plan and the organisational plan. Concerning the dictionary conceptualisation plan it directly affects the structure of the dictionary, the contents of the dictionary articles and the data distribution pattern.

Although the genuine purpose of a dictionary is often dealt with within the conceptualisation plan, the lexicographer should think about it right from the beginning and work on the organisational plan by keeping it in mind. The organisational plan must make provision for a managerial infrastructure able to cope with the compilation of a dictionary that fits the requirement implied by its identified genuine purpose. In other words, when the organisational plan is established, the genuine purpose has to be formulated to form a basis for the dictionary conceptualisation plan (Gouws 1999:13). Thus the genuine purpose of the dictionary must correctly be identified from the very beginning of the planning phase. From day one, it will be the foundation on which the lexicographer has to build his/her product.

2. 3. The dictionary conceptualisation plan

Because the dictionary conceptualisation plan is directed at the structure and the contents of the dictionary, it plays the most important role, without underestimating the role of the organisational plan and the formulation of the genuine purpose. The conceptualisation plan has to deal with the final stage of the product, the dictionary as a text. It influences the compilation process and therefore it has to be well devised in order to get good results. Wiegand (1998) divides the conceptualisation plan into five different phases.

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

Together the phases are a good way to facilitate the compilation and the marketing process of a dictionary. They deal with a variety of matters, as they do not only have to look at lexicographic features, but also those of a financial, marketing and data collection nature.

2. 3. 1. The general preparation phase

The general preparation phase is the pillar that sustains the dictionary conceptualisation plan. It lays the foundation for the structure and the contents of the final product. During that phase, the first step will be the compilation of a **lexicographic style guide**. The lexicographic style guide, also known as an instruction book, contains a comprehensive description of the system applied in the dictionary. It gives the way in which issues like the lemmatisation, the treatment of polysemous senses or the use of abbreviations are dealt with within the content of the dictionary.

The general preparation phase also deals with the definition of the **dictionary basis**, which is all the language material relevant to the specific dictionary project (Gouws 1999:16). It can be defined as the full range of material sources that will be used in the lexicographic process. It concerns all the sources that can help the lexicographer to build his/her material collection. The most common sources are the oral sources and the written sources. The general preparation phase does not look at the **data basis**. The data basis is different from the dictionary basis because it concerns all the material that has been collected without a reference to its relevance to the specific dictionary project. The dictionary basis will only deal with the specific language issues of a specific dictionary while the data basis will have a more general concern.

Furthermore, the general preparation phase provides the planning of the **frame structure** of the dictionary. In that section, special attention is given to the different data types included in the texts that constitute the dictionary, i.e. the central list and the front and back matter texts. It is within that phase that the lexicographer makes provision for the distribution of the data in the above sections. The outer texts section and the central list are then devised according to the type of data to be allocated to each section. For example, it will be during the planning of the data distribution structure that issues concerning the article structure, and the comment on form and comment on semantics will be approached. The comment on form will include items presenting orthography, morphology and pronunciation data. The comment on semantics will reflect various aspects of the meaning of the lemma as well as pragmatic values of the lemma (Gouws 1999:20).

The identification of the dictionary basis during the general preparation phase has implications for the treatment of the **macrostructural selection** of the lexical items to be included as lemmata in the dictionary. It also touches the planning of the **microstructural programme**. This step concerns the different data categories to be included in the treatment of the lemmata, the typical article slots allocated to these categories and it deals with the quantitative extent of that dictionary. For Gouws (1999), a dictionary always has space limitations and an early indication of the microstructural programme is necessary to ensure a functional space budget. A further value of an early identification of a microstructural programme is that it assists the lexicographer during the early phases of the compilation process to focus on those data categories that will be included in the dictionary. If a lexicographer knows beforehand that no article slot will be reserved for a specific data category, the allocation of editorial tasks can be simplified because no one has to acquire the expertise to deal with the treatment of that data category.

2. 3. 2. The material acquisition phase

It is in that section that the data collection takes place. The assembling of all collected items thus leads to the compilation of the corpus, which is the root of the representativeness of any dictionary (Gouws 1999).

2. 3. 3. The material preparation phase

At the end of this phase, the lexicographer will be able to use the corpus or not. This stage of the conceptualisation plan consists of preparing all the collected material in order for it to be used. Gouws (1999:18) says that the proper execution of the material preparation phase establishes a good basis for the actual compilation process, which forms the central activity of the next phase of the dictionary conceptualisation plan.

2. 3. 4. The material processing phase

According to Gouws (1999:19) the material processing phase comprises the application of the data distribution structure and the writing of the dictionary text. It is during that phase that the dictionary is actually compiled and that the formulation of definitions and the choice of examples and equivalents take place. The organisation of the data inside the central list will constitute the major part of the work to be done here. Having decided already how many lemmata the dictionary will have, the lexicographer will write the contents of each dictionary article making the data ready to be used. In doing so, he/she will be in the process of establishing the macrostructure and the microstructure of the dictionary.

Not all the data can be entered in the macro- and the microstructure of the central list. For example in the case of a monodirectional bilingual dictionary, the lexicographer can decide to enter an alphabetical list of equivalents in the back matter texts. That list will be different from the central list. The lexicographer, by doing this, will help the users in easily retrieving the information he/she needs while enhancing the access structure of the dictionary. Another example of the distribution occurring during the material processing

phase would be the treatment of grammatical data. It is frequently experienced that the users need more grammatical information than presented in the central list. They need more grammatical data and not only data such as part of speech, word combinations, etc. The lexicographer can use outer texts to implement that data by providing a text where grammatical data will receive a more extensive treatment. In this case a mini-grammar, often found in the front matter texts, will be designed. Thus in the material processing phase the lexicographer would widely distribute the data to include it in the dictionary in the best possible way.

2. 3. 5. The publishing preparation phase

The publishing preparation phase concerns the preparation of the publishing of the final product, the dictionary as a text. For Gouws (1999:21) the dictionary plan has to make provision for a rapid and functional execution of this part of the lexicographic process. Publishing should be seen as a lexicographic activity because the layout and the design are part of the lexicographic process. They should make the dictionary friendlier by improving the access structure and the micro-architecture of the dictionary. This is more relevant when it comes to pedagogical dictionaries. It is important that the lexicographer should make sure that the dictionary provides a clear presentation of the treated data. This includes the choice of the character, the choice of the font, the choice of the paper, the choice of line spacing and so on. Lexicographers and publishers should consult each other in order to properly meet the needs of the users. This is the reason why it is important for the compilers of the YFSD to be part of the layout and the design of the dictionary. They should be involved in all aspects of the publishing phase.

3. Why planning, and what is a planning phase?

From a general point of view, planning can be described as a management of the activities involved in achieving specific intended goals. While planning, one draws a

draft of the objectives he/she has in order to make the above achievement more efficient. According to Kroon, mentioned by Van Schakwyk (1997), a planning phase provides:

1. **Help to adapt, change and reduce uncertainty;**
2. **For the enterprise a better focus on its objectives;**
3. **Improvement of performance to make financial control possible and more accessible;**
4. **Guidance for manager efforts;**
5. **Prerequisite for control;**
6. **Better co-ordinated actions of the different members of the enterprise.**

By looking attentively at the lexicographic process, the benefits suggested by Kroon are dealt with during the entire process. For example if we were to take the first point of the planning proposed by Kroon it corresponds to the **predictability**, the **calculability**, the **analysability** and the **controllability** that Wiegand (1989) mentions in his theory of the lexicographic process. Firstly, through the different phases of the dictionary conceptualisation plan, the lexicographer can predict what to put in the dictionary when identifying the genuine purpose of the dictionary and/or through the material processing phase (The distribution of the data between the different texts of the dictionary).

Secondly, the lexicographer through the organisational plan would know exactly how many pages to expect in the dictionary and how to divide the data amongst the different texts of the dictionary (calculability). The timing will also be taken into account during that stage. Furthermore, the material acquisition phase provides a good platform for the discussion on the data distribution process because the material collected should be analysed. Being able to analyse the data leads the lexicographer to focus his/her attention on specific aspects of the dictionary. This focused attention is also made possible through the general preparation phase where the microstructural programme is devised.

4. The Planning phase of the model of a Yipunu-French school dictionary

In the case of the Gabonese languages, minor changes will take place during the lexicographic process in order to adjust the theory to the Gabonese context. The principles are the same and will lead to better dictionaries compared to the ones that were compiled by missionaries and explorers who did not have proper lexicographic training. My focus in this section of the chapter will be on relevant metalexicographic principles that need to be adapted to the Gabonese situation. For the topic of this dissertation I have to devise a model of a Yipunu French school dictionary. It is a bilingual school dictionary and in that way it deviates from typical school dictionaries, which, because they concern first language speakers, are often monolingual dictionaries. Nowadays with the globalisation of languages and the fact that more countries are becoming multilingual, it is common to see bilingual school dictionaries leading the school dictionary market.

4. 1. The genuine purpose

Depending on the function of the dictionary, school dictionaries are often concerned with the users seeking information regarding their first language. In the Gabonese situation the pupils who learn Yipunu are not necessarily first language speakers. Therefore, the contents and the structure of the dictionary could change. It will still be for learning purposes and have that prescriptive way but it has to combine a prescriptive and a descriptive orientation. I will make provision for an explanation of those changes and will, in further chapters of the dissertation, describe how they will take place. Although it is intended to be a bilingual dictionary the genuine purpose of the Yipunu French school dictionary will still be similar to the genuine purpose of any school dictionary: “help scholars in their learning process”. For this reason it can be regarded as a prescriptive dictionary. It should be formulated to help the pupils who are in Yipunu classes. However, adjustments should be made to the contents and the structure of the proposed dictionary.

I chose to make that point because the model I intend to design can be regarded as a hybrid dictionary. It will give translation equivalents due to its bilingual aspect, but the focus is not on the treatment of those equivalents. Only Yipunu lexical items will be treated. The French lexical items are in the dictionary to ensure a support for the pupils because French is the only official language and the only one with a strong written tradition. Thus the metalexigraphic input of the model will be according to principles of a bilingual dictionary for the speakers of the source language with Yipunu as source language. The genuine purpose of the dictionary will not be the adaptation of the genuine purpose of a school dictionary to the genuine purpose of a bilingual dictionary. It is mainly a school dictionary aimed at scholars, yet with a bilingual dimension.

4. 2. The general preparation phase

The formulation of an instruction book is of major importance for the proposed model. It is vital that the people involved in the compilation of a dictionary such as the YFSD have a solid theoretical foundation. They need to be familiar with lexicographic principles that would lead to better dictionaries. The examples of the dictionaries compiled by missionaries, although they constitute a rich reservoir of data, can illustrate that point because some of them failed in conveying the right data due to a lack of methodology. Compiling a school dictionary in one of the Gabonese languages should be an example for the four other Gabonese languages that are taught in the Lycées and Collèges of Libreville. Knowing the procedures of the compilation process of this dictionary lays a foundation for further publications. The instruction book will also constitute a boundary marker during the compilation process of the YFSD. The advantage of the general preparation phase is that the compilers should always be able to refer to it at any stage of the compilation process in order to check and evaluate their own work while establishing a sound theoretical basis.

4. 3. The material acquisition phase

The aim of this phase is to help the lexicographer in the compilation of the corpus that will serve as reference source for the compilation of the dictionary itself. In the Gabonese situation that phase is critical because from the dictionary basis more data can be gathered. For the YFSD, the collection of the material will not be different from that of other projects. It will mostly be the collection of data for the compilation from a well-established corpus. However a point must be raised. Gabonese languages do not have many written sources. Most of the sources are oral and still need to be recorded and/or transcribed. For the case of the YFSD, the data to be included must reflect the standard Yipunu, or an average of what is spoken by most of the Yipunu speakers. The principal source for this task will be the *Rapidolangue* series of schoolbooks used by the pupils in the classrooms. The 1500 most frequently spoken words are found in the first two volumes. The tapes that go along with each manual will also be used as source. For the data contained in those tapes, a transcription is necessary.

Adding to the sources from language teaching, fieldwork is needed to be able to deal with some language issues like regional variations. For more than a decade Yipunu was only spoken in the Ngounié and Nyanga provinces. Nowadays, it is spoken in three other provinces, Estuaire, Moyen-Ogooué and Ogooué-Maritime. The majority of Yipunu speakers are concentrated in the two provinces mentioned previously but most of the children who learn Yipunu at school live in the capital that is located in the Estuaire province. For that reason they are more familiar with the Yipunu spoken in that region than the form spoken in Ngounié which is the form treated in the schoolbooks. Yipunu people think that true Yipunu is found in these provinces because it has been spoken there for many years. If one wants to standardise Yipunu or take a norm for the language, those regions are a better place. From my side I chose to work with the Yipunu spoken in the Ngounié province because the compilers of *Rapidolangue* use it and also because it shows less influence from other languages compared to the form spoken in the Nyanga

province⁷. Yipunu mother-tongue speakers who teach are from the two major provinces where Yipunu is spoken.

Yipunu teachers working in rural areas use Yipunu. They use it as medium of instruction to help the pupils in their understanding of the subject they learn. It would be useful if the intended dictionary could give information on history, geography, science, mathematics and so on. The non-mother-tongue teachers could thus follow their colleagues. They could easily convey their knowledge if they know the meaning of the concept they teach in Yipunu. Whether they teach Yipunu or not, the teachers have to be included in the planning phase of the dictionary. They are the ones who are familiar with the education field and the pupils. The lexicographer working in the field of education must make provision in his/her plan for the educators to comment on their daily life in that field. Having some input from their part helps theory and practice to work together. The aim of any dictionary is to provide information in such a way that the consultation process is facilitated. By including teachers in the lexicographic process this task would be fulfilled.

However some cultural aspects will be included in the dictionary as they were included in the treatment of the third volume of *Rapidolangue*. To be able to corroborate the information found in that schoolbook, going to the Yipunu speakers is vital. For that part of the work mostly old people and initiated people will be interviewed and recorded. The tapes will then be transcribed. All this information will go along with that transcribed from the tapes used in the schools. Another source to be used would be the two main bilingual dictionaries having Yipunu and French as language pair (*Grammaire pounoue et Lexique Pounoue* and *Dictionnaire Français Yipounou/Yipounou Français*).

The topic of the present dissertation is the design of a model. As such, it should include guidelines for the lexicographer regarding aspects of all the phases of the lexicographic process. I choose here to concentrate only on the genuine purpose, the general

⁷ The Yipunu spoken in the Nyanga province has many loan words coming from Yilumbu and Civili. It is not the case for the form spoken in the Ngounié province. Most of the surrounding population in that province always speak Yipunu and that is the reason why this variety of Yipunu is not as influenced as the one spoken in the Nyanga province.

preparation phase and the material acquisition phase. The other phases are not discussed here because they take place during the actual phase of the compilation process of the dictionary.

5. Conclusion

To sum up this chapter, I will say that the planning phase of a dictionary allows the compilers to control the procedure from the very first step to the end of the product. It makes provision for improvement, financial control, guidance, prerequisites and ensures a good co-ordination between the different stages and between the lexicographers and the users. Planning has an important role in every project. For the lexicographer it is of major importance if he/she wants to produce a good and efficient dictionary. The lack of effective planning of dictionary projects is the major reason why dictionary projects are undertaken but never finished. Good planning makes good dictionaries although it is difficult to satisfy the entire needs of a target user group. The battle of the lexicographer while working on a specific dictionary is to try as much as possible to satisfy those needs. A well-planned lexicographic process helps the lexicographer during that impressive task. It is compulsory for the lexicographer to do it. However he/she can adapt the principles of the procedure to the situation of the language on which he/she is working. Even for the formulation of a model of a specific dictionary, it requires from the lexicographer proper planning procedures.

**PART FOUR: THE YIPUNU FRENCH
SCHOOL DICTIONARY**

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL ASPECTS OF THE INTENDED YIPUNU FRENCH SCHOOL DICTIONARY

1. Introduction

Metalexigraphy is a theory that is aimed at the lexicographic practice. A dictionary can be regarded as a container of knowledge. This is one of the reasons why in modern lexicography, boundaries between dictionaries are no longer clearly demarcated. Dictionary typology is not a fixed thing where there are little boxes that cannot be mixed, changed or overlapped. In the typological classification there will always be provision for combinations that lead to hybrid dictionaries. The present chapter will focus on the adaptation of metalexigraphic principles for the design of the model of the Yipunu French School Dictionary. Particular attention will be given to the typology of this model, and its outer texts section.

2. The Yipunu French School Dictionary (YFSD): a hybrid genre

The name of a dictionary is mainly directed at its functions and it reflects what the genuine purpose of that dictionary is. A hybrid dictionary can be polyfunctional or monofunctional. The hybridness of a dictionary is not necessarily linked to its function. It often has to do with the type and the structure of the dictionary. A dictionary can be compiled for text reception or text production while combining different aspects of different types of dictionaries. As dictionaries within the same typology differ, it is also possible to see hybrid dictionaries within the same typological category. The difference between those of the same typology will reflect the degree of their hybridness.

The term hybrid can be applied to a typological combination and/or a function combination. It also refers to various combinations without restrictions. At this stage the lexicographer has the freedom to decide what to mix and why. More hybrid dictionaries

are compiled due to the needs of the users and language description. The distinction between monolingual dictionaries and bilingual dictionaries follows the same way and is not as strictly demarcated as it was during the previous decades. A lexicographer can compile a bilingual dictionary with a monolingual dimension and vice-versa. The overlapping of boundaries leads to different levels of hybridness. A dictionary can combine different typological features. The hybrid type in the field of dictionary making is a mixture of types of dictionaries. It is not a fifty-fifty relation of features. The degree of hybridness will depend on the target user.

2. 1. Why a hybrid genre?

Hybrid dictionaries are more often used in speech communities with a weak tradition of dictionary culture, e.g. in societies with a strong oral tradition. It is common to see that in non-standardised languages, bilingual dictionaries are the most commonly used reference books. The multilingual environment of the society that speaks the language often causes this situation. The mother-tongue speakers of that type of environment rely on bilingual dictionaries as their only lexicographic resource. The YFSD is part of such a category, as Gabon is a multilingual country. It will have degrees of hybridness in the sense that it will combine features of two major types of pedagogical dictionaries: school dictionaries and learners' dictionaries.

The degree of hybridness of that model will also be seen within its function. Due to their linguistic background, the target users of the proposed model will need a dictionary with both text production and text reception functions. For that reason it will be a bilingual school dictionary with both a knowledge-oriented function and a communication-orientated function. With the number of written sources being limited, the treatment of the studied language will proceed from both encoding and decoding levels. For example, the pupils have to do small essays and dictation in Yipunu as part of their course. The dictionary should be able to assist them in that task and at the same time enhance their communication skills. The active component of the dictionary will emphasise the

encoding process. To establish this part of the dictionary, it is important to take into account the knowledge of the users (pupils).

A decoding user will be translating from a foreign language into his native language. In this case, from what is supposed to be unknown (linguistic system of the foreign language) to what is known (the mother-tongue) moving from form (or context) to meaning. Likewise, the pupils targeted for the YFSD will go from Yipunu, which can be considered as a foreign language for those pupils, to French because it is, for the majority of them, their first language. The encoder, on the other hand, will be translating into the foreign language. However, since the YFSD is a monodirectional dictionary, from the second group of pupils (the ones having French as first language), a pupil could use the dictionary in its encoding function to translate to the first language.

The model will provide a good database for a bilingualised dictionary, and there will be no French as source language section. The real treated language will be Yipunu because the French equivalent words will be presented as translation equivalents without being the address of non-lemmatic addressing. The groups targeted are more familiar with the French linguistic system, thus French will only appear as an aid in the treatment of Yipunu. For example, to help with the pronunciation of certain Yipunu words, all the words will find their identification within the French pronunciation. To find the most difficult one, I chose to resort to different sounds from other European languages like English, Spanish or Portuguese. Loan words from those languages already exist in Yipunu.

Another reason for the YFSD to belong to a hybrid genre comes from the difficulties to choose a model of a dictionary that will satisfy the needs of the users; since multilingualism occurs in the Yipunu classrooms. All the pupils do not know the written form of the language and all the classes are done following the oral process of language acquisition (preface *Rapidolangu*). That situation put both Yipunu speakers and non-Yipunu speakers at the same level with regard to the reception part of the information. On the contrary, the two categories will not have the same demands concerning the text

production parts because the Yipunu speaker facing a text production situation will likely look for the spelling of the word and not for the meaning or the definition. For the non-Yipunu speakers there will be a different problem to solve because they have to look for the Yipunu equivalents in the French section provided in the outer texts, and then at the same time, they will have to look for the translation and for the spelling in the central list. However, the most needed information looked for by the two categories of users will probably be grammatical information.

The pupils in the classroom already know the French linguistic system and they will build their knowledge of Yipunu on it. The non-mother-tongue pupils will need additional information on grammatical and morphological level to help with the translation. But for the mother-tongue pupils, less data is needed because they are able to select the translation best suited according to the context of usage. For the pupils who are mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu, it would be easier to be able to choose what translation equivalent is best for a particular Yipunu item because they have an oral knowledge of it. The language is not totally unknown to them. In that regard, this type of decoding user will not need structural information or examples of typical usage, relying instead on their own native speaker competence to generate translations. The concepts of encoding and decoding help the lexicographer to structure articles, select data, decide on which translation and decide how much space to allocate to an article (O'Neil & Palmer, 1990:217).

I know that a single dictionary cannot respond to both needs. But in the Gabonese situation, it will be necessary to combine information concerning both categories of users. Lexicography is a young discipline in that country. Dictionary makers will have to work according to the non-standardised nature of the local languages like Yipunu. Very few written sources can be found. Furthermore the classes are not only multilingual; there is a huge gap between non-mother-tongue speakers and mother-tongue speakers. In countries like European countries the two categories of users would have received a different treatment in the sense that they will be in different classes. The learning programme started in the different secondary schools was initially aimed at the Gabonese pupils. The

classes were divided according to the ethnic group of the pupils and not depending on their knowledge of the language. The main goal for the Gabonese government was that the young generation should discover the language of their parents. The government wanted that at the end of the programme the pupils would be able to express themselves correctly in the language. They were supposed to speak, write and even think in that language.

To be able to accommodate both types of users (first speakers of French and first speakers of Yipunu) the compilers of the YFSD will have to adapt the frame structure of the dictionary. They could use the outer texts section to be able to accommodate certain data categories in order to enhance the retrieval of information. In the following section, I will demonstrate how making use of the outer texts section can enhance the productivity of a dictionary, particularly a dictionary such as the YFSD.

3. The frame structure of a dictionary

Dictionaries consist of an A to Z section, the central list, plus some introductory texts and appendices being respectively the front and back matter. As a book all the texts included in the dictionary contain relevant data. However, the main section remains the section where lexical items are alphabetically ordered and treated. The different texts found in the introductory section and in the appendices vary greatly in importance depending on the genre and the function(s) of the dictionary. Although the central list of a dictionary is a very important section of a dictionary, it cannot alone compose the dictionary as a carrier of text types. A dictionary is a series of texts found in the whole structure and not only in the central list. Therefore, the data distribution process does not only concern the central list, but all the texts found in the dictionary because it determines the position of the data in the various sections of the dictionary (Part 3; Chapt. 3). According to Gouws (2001), the use of outer texts gives the lexicographer a much wider range of possibilities when it comes to decisions regarding the distribution of the data to be included in the

dictionary and, if used with the necessary care, enhances the access of the user to a more comprehensive data selection. Yet the central list remains the focus point of the dictionary because it is the section of the dictionary where the different lexical items and their lexicographic treatment are found. The central list remains the main target of the average dictionary consultation procedure.

3. 1. The frame structure in a bilingual dictionary context

Gouws (2001) makes a distinction in bilingual dictionaries between a primary frame structure and a secondary frame structure. The first is when the texts in that section of the dictionary function as immediate text components of the dictionary as a text compound. The secondary frame structure to the contrary, is when an outer text displays its own complete extension resulting in a frame structure. The secondary frame structure can be present in outer texts where it often concerns the structure of bidirectional dictionaries. As often seen in this type of dictionary, it is possible to have a secondary frame structure without a primary frame structure. Likewise, it is possible to have a dictionary with a primary frame structure and not a secondary one. Gouws (2001) emphasises it by saying that a primary frame structure is not a prerequisite for the use of a secondary frame structure. Although this section is on a bilingual dictionary, examples have been taken from the FISDSA and the OPSD as they constitute a support for the present dissertation.

Ex 1: The FISDSA:

EXPLANATION OF THE ENTRIES IN THIS DICTIONARY

entry: a paragraph in a dictionary which explains the meaning of a word or words	ant <i>noun</i> a small insect which lives in a large group: <i>Some ants build nests called ant-hills and live in them.</i>
headword: the word or words that you look up in the dictionary	boy <i>noun</i> a male child: <i>When a boy grows up he becomes a man.</i>
definition: what the word means	clock <i>noun</i> an instrument which shows you what time it is: <i>We saw on the clock that it was half past four.</i>
example sentence: how to use a word in a sentence	dassle <i>noun</i> a small brown or grey animal with short legs and no tail: <i>Tree dassies live in trees, and rock dassies live in places where there are rocks.</i>

Ex 2: The OPSD: the front matter

Dictionary features

The diagram illustrates various dictionary features with arrows pointing to specific entries in a dictionary page. The features include:

- headwords in bold to find words more easily**: Points to the word **cake**.
- plurals for nouns where they cause difficulty**: Points to the word **calligraphy**.
- headwords with numbers when they have different meanings and/or origins**: Points to the word **cape** (numbered 1 and 2).
- abbreviations**: Points to the word **CD**.
- trademark**: Points to the word **Cellophane**.
- regional labels**: Points to the word **candy**.
- comparatives and superlatives of adjectives and adverbs**: Points to the word **canny**.
- irregular or unusual spellings for verb forms**: Points to the word **cede**.
- word families show how groups of words are related to one another**: Points to the **WORD FAMILY** section.
- word origins are given to increase language knowledge**: Points to the etymology of **Cellophane**.

the back matter



Ex3 OPSD:

Contents	
Preface	v
The English language	vi
Dictionary features	x
Notes on the use of the dictionary	xii
Oxford Pocket School Dictionary	1
Appendices:	
1 Prefixes and suffixes	834
2 Some foreign words and phrases used in English	836
3 Countries of the world	839
4 Weights and measures	842

Both the FISDSA and the OPSD only presents a primary frame structure because all the outer text are directed at the dictionary as a whole. There are no texts in the outer texts section of those dictionaries that are directed at another outer text.

3. 2. The outer texts in the frame structure

The reason behind having outer texts in the structure of a dictionary is linked with the concern of the lexicographer to create a quicker access to the needed data. He/she wants the users to easily retrieve the information they are looking for. However, the outer texts section is still misused by lexicographers and sometimes misunderstood by metalexicographers and dictionary users. They are often used as space-fillers, as a back-up solution or as dustbin where one can throw away inconvenient data that could make the central list heavy and complex. The decision of dividing the dictionary into a central list and outer texts did not come just to annoy lexicographers. In the past decades especially in the English lexicographic tradition, it was common to use a front matter section. The lexicographers were using that specific section e.g. to give an essay on the English grammar or on the history of the language (Landau, 2000:148). Lexicographers realised that few people read the outer texts section, especially the front matter parts. This assertion is also true today even if the user is more informed and more experienced than in the past years. He/she has more input on dictionary skills. Yet, a lot still need to be done on that subject.

Lexicographers give a descriptive treatment of a specific language by means of a dictionary. They cannot treat all the aspects of that language within the central list and the distribution of the data is often a critical task because lexicographers have to choose what to include in the dictionary and which aspects should not be treated. The central list contains the major part of the linguistic and encyclopaedic data of the dictionary. Nevertheless, it is often necessary to include additional data to fulfil the function(s) of a dictionary. Consequently, outer texts are functional constituents and they add to the description of the language. They provide an efficient transfer of data because one of their roles is to complement the central list. Front matter, back matter and central list are complementary sections of a dictionary.

3. 2. 1. Functionality of the outer texts

In the field of dictionary making, the use of front and back matters often depends on the lexicographers' decision. Yet, having front and back matter texts included in the structure of any dictionary is as helpful and useful as the central list. Both front and back matter sections could contain valuable and reliable data for the user. This data can sometimes lead to the solution of the problem that initiated the consultation process. Thus, to evaluate the functionality of outer texts the lexicographer should answer the questions: Is the data provided by the texts of any help to the user? Does it contribute to the satisfaction of the user's need? Does it make the dictionary friendlier?

Although there are some non-functional texts, most of the texts contained in any dictionary have a specific function. Those texts can have a direct or an indirect link with the genuine purpose of that dictionary. The distinction between integrated texts and non-integrated texts applies to the texts found in the outer texts. That distinction is based on the relation they have with the genuine purpose of a dictionary. The non-integrated texts are not directed at the lexicographic treatment of the language which is the subject matter of the dictionary. In my point of view, the genuine purpose of any dictionary is defined in order to meet the satisfaction of the users' needs. All the texts included in the structure of that dictionary implicitly have a link with its genuine purpose. The genuine purpose of a dictionary responds to the needs of the intended target users, i.e. the genuine purpose of a desk school dictionary would be to help the scholars in their learning process providing them the norm of the language. Therefore, I think that additional texts included in the outer texts to implement the knowledge of the young learners is linked to the genuine purpose of that dictionary. Whether those texts are integrated or non-integrated should not be determined by the nature of the link they have with the genuine purpose.

The reasons for the use of outer texts in a dictionary are independent of the original purpose of the dictionary. Hausmann & Wiegand (1989:330) argue that the front matter taken as a whole is normally not a functional part of a dictionary. They say that it is rather an arbitrary set of functional parts. Because of that, the lexicographer should be able to identify a function of that section of the dictionary, deduced from the function of

the dictionary. Although the word “function” here as used by Hausmann and Wiegand is not similar to the lexicographic function of the dictionary, it is the duty of the lexicographer to present the outer texts in such a way that it fulfils whatever lexicographic function(s) the dictionary may have (knowledge oriented, or communicative oriented). In that regard, I think that the front matter as well as the back matter of any dictionary can have a definite function. In the front matter, the integrated texts as well as the non-integrated texts are functional and give information that can be useful to the user, thus help him/her in achieving a successful consultation procedure. Further studies should be conducted in that regard.

On the same note, the title of a dictionary should reflect its genuine purpose and the needs of the intended target users. The title of a dictionary is found in the outer texts and it indicates the purpose it is supposed to serve. That very purpose comes from the needs of the intended users; therefore; the title of a dictionary is one of the first steps in the access structure of the dictionary. If an English pupil learning Yipunu is looking for information in a dictionary, he/she will look up for a Yipunu-English or an English-Yipunu dictionary on the shelf. His/her search is guided by the title of the dictionary. That title on the cover of the dictionary is part of the outer access structure and it is the first entry that leads the user in the consultation process. Thus, the title of a dictionary should not be chosen in an arbitrary way, so do all the texts contained in the front matter and back matter because they are relevant. For that reason, lexicographers and dictionary users should be made aware of the fact that an outer text is not only an ornamental part of a dictionary or a text included as page-filler. Outer texts are functional textual constituents and they need to be utilised accordingly (Gouws, 2004).

The nature and extent of the function of any dictionary plays an important role in the selection and the presentation of its outer texts. Those texts should contribute to that function and to its genuine purpose. Non-integrated outer texts do contribute to achieving the functions of a dictionary because a carefully selected and well-constituted outer text, albeit not integrated into the genuine purpose of a dictionary, could still form part of the functions allocated to the specific dictionary (Gouws, 2004). One can never emphasise

enough that the functions of any dictionary have a direct link with the reason why the dictionary is (or has to be) compiled. Unfortunately, lexicographers do not do the selection of outer texts in a very scientific and careful way. The data distribution programme where the outer texts are selected is done without negotiating the genuine purpose or the functions of the specific dictionary or the needs of the intended target user (Gouws, 2004).

3. 2. 2. The outer texts in the compilation process

As already mentioned, outer texts are part of the frame structure of a dictionary. The lexicographer should make provision for their treatment the minute he/she thinks about compiling a dictionary and he/she should have them in mind throughout the lexicographic process. It is important that the lexicographer should stay aware of the outer texts during all the phases of the lexicographic process.

It is the lexicographer who decides what to include in the dictionary in the general preparation phase. It is also during that phase that he/she decides where to include the chosen data. In that sense I agree with Gouws (2004) when he says that the planning of outer texts and the selection of data to be included in these texts should form an integral part of the dictionary conceptualisation plan. Therefore, the data distribution programme should be worked out with meticulous care to ensure a functional data distribution.

The use of outer texts in a dictionary is not compulsory. It depends on the lexicographer's intuition and on the nature and size of the dictionary. Outer texts will have a greater importance in dictionaries like pedagogical dictionaries. A bilingual dictionary deals with two different languages and when it comes to school dictionaries the lexicographer is limited by the size and volume of his product. By using outer texts, he/she can provide more information concerning the treated language and can also include some cultural data without the dictionary resembling an encyclopaedic dictionary. In a school dictionary, the front matter will be more relevant because a child will be in more need of a dictionary guide than an adult because he/she is not so familiar with the ways in which dictionaries

work. For him/her it can be a new instrument or he/she may not have enough dictionary skills to be able to use the reference book in a proper way. The lexicographer working on such a dictionary must not assume any awareness in dictionary use on the user's side. From one dictionary, the child will learn how to use any other dictionary in further consultation processes. That establishes a good dictionary culture with experienced users.

In the past years, front matters were more often used in dictionaries than back matters. It was frequent to see a dictionary with only a front matter and no back matter but the opposite situation was rare. In terms of usefulness, the tendency has changed and back matters tend to be more used than front matters. It is not possible to have a dictionary without outer texts because there are compulsory texts such as the users' guidelines, but it is possible to have a dictionary presenting only one of the outer text sections. The front matter section is more often seen because it is the place where the title of the dictionary is. In some dictionaries it even consists of only one page containing the title, the preface and some acknowledgements with no further lexicographic treatment.

3. 2. 2. 1. The dictionary guide

The dictionary guide is an essential aspect of a dictionary, usually allocated to the front matter. It describes every element of the dictionary. It gives information on lemmata, on pronunciation, cross-references, labels, synonyms, etc. The purpose of this series of texts is to describe as clearly as possible all the kinds of data included in the dictionary. It also shows the user how to interpret the given data, and it provides indications for locating as quickly as possible particular items and data. A dictionary guide is the answer to questions about how and where to find something in the dictionary. Thus a dictionary guide in a school dictionary must provide more information than in many other dictionaries in order to educate its target users. For Landau (2000:150) a children's dictionary guide is really not just to one particular dictionary, but a guide to dictionary use. It must therefore be more detailed, yet written in a much simpler language than that

of an adult dictionary⁸. In the same way, he suggests that a children's dictionary guide begins at the beginning, with the alphabet, and instructs the reader how to look up a word and how to use the guidewords at the top of the pages. It then more or less covers the same ground that adult dictionaries do, but with numerous examples taken from the A-Z section and sometimes with questions or exercises for the reader.

3. 2. 2. 2. The mini-grammar

Another important series of texts that make a front matter compulsory is the mini grammar often found in bilingual dictionaries. Landau (2000:114) says that grammatical information is more essential to a person who is trying to speak or understand a foreign language than to the native speaker. This affirmation tends to be true when it comes to adults. But when dealing with children, some adjustments need to be done. A child is a person who is in a learning process and most of the time this process does not only concern a foreign language. Because of that he/she will need a considerable amount of grammatical information, if not the same as a person who is learning a foreign language. The user of a monolingual school dictionary will need information that helps with the understanding and writing of his native language. For example, to understand a word in the treated language, he/she is likely to need data on meaning, spelling, definition, level of language, usage of words and grammar, while if he/she wants to write, it would be the spelling and the grammar that would be more necessary (Svensen, 1993). Grammatical information has a higher frequency of appearance in the case of children than they would have for an adult native speaker. Due to the learning process, the children using a monolingual dictionary speak the treated language of the dictionary, but they use that very same language to help them learn it. Thus to be able to acquire the norm of that language they would need all the grammatical information they could have on the language.

⁸ In that regard, one of the aims of the Oxford Pocket School Dictionary (OPSD) was that the dictionary could serve as a working tool in the classroom and that it could accustom its users to the style in which most adult dictionaries are written. The same goal needs to be reached in the compilation of the YFSD.

On the other hand, saying that grammatical information is more essential for a person who is trying to speak or understand a foreign language is justifiable. For the present dissertation, I will agree to that. As indicated in previous chapters, the Gabonese pupils who learn Yipunu are in a foreign language acquisition process, although native speakers are found among them. Furthermore for every learning process, knowing the grammar of the learned language is vital. Al-Kasimi (1977:50) emphasises that point when he says that a dictionary should provide the foreign learner with all the information he needs without referring him to handbooks of grammar. Thus, for the Gabonese pupils, it is decidedly relevant to provide within the front matter a section where not only basic grammatical information is given, but more details on the grammatical system of the language are provided.

For Jackson (1985), grammar and dictionary are complementary components of the lexicographic treatment of the language. This implies the general linguistic description of the language that provides a comprehensive explanation of that specific language, or an applied description of the language that serves the needs of an identifiable group of language users. A mini-grammar does present more grammatical data than the conventional grammatical data found within the central list. The type of information found in the mini-grammar concerns the morphological, the phonological, and the syntactical aspects of the linguistic description of the language. The mini-grammar is not a handbook within the dictionary. It functions in the dictionary as non-integrated text because it gives data on the treated language but not on the lexicographic treatment of the language. In the case of the YFSD, a well-designed mini-grammar will add to the description of Yipunu.

In the same way, the inclusion of grammatical information in the dictionary is a contribution to make the language learner an independent learner and to enable him/her to produce for himself correct and appropriate sentences in the language he is learning. This point covers in a good way the aim of the programme established by the Gabonese government and the publishing house *Fondation Raponda Walker*. For them the pupils must, by the end of the courses, be able to express themselves in the taught language. In

other words, they must have knowledge of the language that will allow them to speak, understand and write correctly. Thus it is important that as complement of their texts books, the YFSD brings necessary and useful grammatical data within the dictionary article as well as by means of a well-defined mini-grammar (Jackson, 1985).

4. Outer texts of the proposed Model (YFSD)

The textbook structure of any dictionary has a relevant part to play in the promotion and the development of the treated language. Particular attention needs to be paid to that component of the YFSD because the kind of data to be included in the outer texts of that dictionary could help with the establishment of a dictionary culture in the Gabonese education system. The texts included in the front and back matter contribute to the efforts of lexicographers to make dictionaries more accessible to their users, and to facilitate their consultation process. In fact, with data provided in the front and back matter, the Gabonese pupils will not only have information on Yipunu as a language, but also on Yipunu culture and Yipunu society. The use of non-integrated texts in the front matter will not only give guidelines for the user, but it will provide a platform for cultural information like the origin of the Bapunu, their lifestyle and their relation with other languages.

One of the advantages of outer texts is that they provide a better space for cultural data. Extra-linguistic data may be treated within the central list, but it has a restricted treatment, as the main focus of the central list is to offer a linguistic treatment of the language. For example, it will be difficult to give a treatment concerning the names of the different provinces and towns where Yipunu is spoken within the central list of the YFSD. In that case, the different regional varieties of the language coming from those localities would be more appropriate. Consequently, the treatment of more traditional objects or work could more easily be done within the back matter for example. By the use of outer texts in such a bilingual school dictionary Yipunu speaking pupils and non-

Yipunu speaking pupils will have the opportunity to acquire knowledge on general cultural data of the Yipunu tradition and society.

5. Examples of data for inclusion in the front and back matter of the YFSD

The aim of the present dissertation is to propose a theoretical model for the compilation of a Yipunu French School Dictionary. For this reason I chose to present some data as an example of how the above mentioned metalexigraphic principles could be applied in the compilation of such a dictionary. The data types that are discussed here are not exhaustive.

5. 1. The front matter

Besides the title of the dictionary and conventional texts occurring in the front matter, the front matter of the YFSD should provide: an **alphabet** of the Yipunu language with, where necessary, an indication of the pronunciation; a **dictionary guide**, a short **history of the Yipunu language and Yipunu people**; a **mini-grammar**. In the present section I only chose to present the alphabet and examples of short texts on the history of the Bapunu to illustrate the type of data to be included.

5. 1. 1. The suprasegmental level

The target user group of the YFSD consists of the two groups of pupils divided according to their first language (cf. Part2; Chapt1). For such users it is important to simplify the metalanguage used for the description of Yipunu. For the alphabet and the mini-grammar, I chose to give a brief treatment of the suprasegmental level in terms of tones. Not that they are not important for the Yipunu language, but to match with the level of the target users of that proposed model, it is necessary to keep the information useful but simple. In

that sense, Afane (2002:85) says that the problem of tones in Bantu languages is treated in different ways according to the lexicographer's intuition. Tones are complex elements of the Bantu languages and in the case of the YFSD; they can be described within the mini-grammar as a basis for the general knowledge of the user. Such treatment will have the benefit of creating a good habit amongst the young users because a typical user very seldom reads the front matter pages⁹. The children may not understand how the tonal system of Yipunu functions because tones are abstract components¹⁰. Their functionality is more on the phonological level than on the written level because the words have the same written form. But according to the frequency of the main tones, those written forms become different words. By treating the words as homographs in a dictionary like the YFSD, it is possible to treat the different meanings of the words without mentioning the tones.

5. 1. 2. Short and long vowels

On the other hand, the problem of long and short vowel needs to be present in the treatment of the dictionary. In the front pages of the *Rapidolangue* series, all the vowels are presented as well as their vocalic length. They are presented as different sounds to make the pupils aware of that particularity of the Gabonese languages. To follow up with what the compilers already did I chose to include those long vowels in the alphabet of the Yipunu language I am intending to propose. I think that for the level of the user group there is no need to stress the treatment of long sounds within the mini-grammar or the central list. The pupils will learn their alphabet and in doing so they will know that in the language there are long vowels while in French, short vowels are the principal¹¹ ones. The written form that I retain for those vowels will not change from the ones chosen by

⁹ In the bilingual English-Zulu and Zulu-English dictionary of Doke, Malcom, Sikakana and Vilakazi (1990), the presentation of the suprasegmental level in terms of tones is presented in the front matter pages. The compilers of that dictionary give a brief description of the two major tones that exist in the Zulu language.

¹⁰ For Afane (2002), a dictionary must firstly present the segmental level of the treated language because it is the one seen by the users. If they acquire the segmental level with its orthography and spelling, it will help to learn about tones that are abstract linguistic units.

¹¹ The length difference between [a] of "carte" and the [a] of "pâte" only exists in pure grammars. French people do not make any difference in pronouncing the two sounds and the difference stays only in the written form "a" and "â". The same goes for the distinction between [o] of *auto* and [ɔ] of *pomme*.

the Raponda Walker Foundation and the ones chosen by Kwenzi-Mickala (1989). They mark the length of the vowels by doubling them. The complex consonants will receive the same treatment as the long vowels. They will be presented in the alphabet with no further treatment.

Ex 4: short and long vowels

Short sound	Long sound
using (frotter)	usiing (to agree, to aknowledge)
uw <u>e</u> l (well done)	uw <u>ee</u> l (to get maried)
dibal (tropical tree)	dibaal (a man)
mutu mosi (another man)	mutu moosi (one man)
ubung (to destroy)	ubuung (to move)
udukis (to gently knock at a door)	udukiis (to follow)

5. 1. 3. Examples of the data to be included in the front matter

- The alphabet

The alphabet presented in this section is a combination of the *Alphabet Scientifique des Langues Gabonaises (ASG)*¹² and the Yipunu description presented by Kwenzi-Mickala in LUTO¹³. ASG is a general alphabet for all the Gabonese languages and counts 38 letters. The alphabet used in *Rapidolangue* will also be presented here. Those alphabets will provide the basis for the alphabet I propose for the YFSD

ASG:

a; b; c; d; ð; ø; ;e; ε; ;f ;g ; γ;h; i; ʒ; j; k; ?; l; m; n; η; ɔ;o; p;

r; r; s; ʃ; t; u; u; v; β; w; w; x; y; z

¹² Scientific Alphabet of Gabonese languages presented during a workshop held at Omar Bongo University in 1990. It was reviewed in 1999.

¹³ Proceedings of the seminar held in Libreville in 1989 from the 20th to the 24th of February.

Kwenzi-Mickala presents an alphabet of Yipunu composed of thirty-three (33) letters:

**a; aa; b; d; e; ee; f; ɣ; i; ii; j; k; l; m; mb; mv; n; nd; ng; ny;
nz; o; oo; p; r; s; t; ts; u; uu; β; w; y**

The *Rapidolangue* alphabet¹⁴ also contains thirty-three (33) letters. It is a summary of the combined version of the ASG and an old alphabet proposed by Raponda Walker in 1932:

**a; e; e [ɛ]; ë [ə]; i; o; o [ɔ]; u; u [y]; b; d; dy; dj; f; g; h; j; k; l;
m; mb; mp; n; nd; ng; ny ou ng [ŋ]; p; r; s; t; v; w; z**

The ASG and the *Rapidolangue* alphabet are both general alphabets for the Gabonese languages. They do not represent a single language like the Kwenzi-Mickala one. Therefore, only that alphabet presents long vowels as part of the different letters. This is one of the shortcomings of the *Rapidolangue* alphabet because in the schoolbooks, they chose to point out the problem of long vowels in Gabonese languages. The alphabet I propose here will contain the complex letters presented by Kwenzi-Mickala and *Rapidolangue*. I will also add some of the letters contained in the ASG that are not found in Kwenzi-Mickala's alphabet. I find those letters relevant enough to be part of a Yipunu alphabet. The letters **e** and **ɛ** found in ASG are the realisation of the Yipunu sound /e/. It is [e] when the sound is in a closed syllable or before a nasal sound like **m** or **n**. It is [ɛ] when it is found in a closed syllable followed by the realisation of the final **a**. The pronunciation of those two sounds is similar to the French **é** and **è**. So I chose to include not a single sound as a letter, but the two realisations because that is what the pupil will hear from their Yipunu linguistic environment.

¹⁴ The *Rapidolangue* alphabet presented in the present dissertation was part of the history of the development of the Gabonese languages examined by Idiata in 2002.

Ex 5

nzwengi will be	nzwengi (hummingbird)
mbembu will be	mbembu (language)
muletsi will be	muletsi (sparrowhawk)
uwela will be	uwel (well done)
ubela will be	ubel (to be sick)
bera will be	begh! (bring)

The same goes for **a**, which is realised as [a] in a situation of a closed syllable, while it is [ə] when it is in an open syllable. The letter ə is found in ASG but not in Kwenzi-Mickala's alphabet. I chose not to include it in the proposed Yipunu alphabet because the sound is whisperer and hardly perceived. It is almost like if there was nothing at the end of the word.

Ex 6

warisa will be	waris (be strong, stay strong)
usila will be	usil (to leave something, or to leave a matter)
siaala vana will be	siaal van! (stay there!)
mamba will be	mamb (water)
ubunga will be	ubung (to destroy)
usinga will be	using (frotter)

Because all the vowels in Yipunu are found in short/long pairs, the letters proposed above will also have their long counterparts. Here follows a proposed presentation of the Yipunu alphabet like it would be treated in the front matter. To follow the pattern of the Rapiolangue schoolbook, it should present the French translation equivalents along with the Yipunu forms.

a	ayi? (quoi? que ce passe-t-il?)
aa	dibaal (homme)
b	buduk (sottise)

d	d ikotulu (genou)
dj	mud j ambu (rivière)
dy	dy ambu (histoire, problème, palabre)
e	nzwengi (colibri)
ee	mwe e ndu (chemin)
e	uw <u>e</u> l (bien faire)
ee	uw <u>ee</u> l (se marier)
f	f umu (Seigneur)
gh	r gh (viens!) se prononce comme la jota espagnole dans juego
i	ibadangu (canard)
ii	usi ii ng (acquieser)
k	k oku (coq, poulet)
l	iling (robe)
m	m wan (enfant)
mb	mb bembu (langue, langage)
mv	mv vul (pluie)
n	n inunu (viellard)
nd	nd dambu (élastique, caoutchouc)
ng	mb ng u (argent) se prononce comme le ng anglais dans camping
ny	ny osi (abeille) se prononce comme le ñ espagnol dans mañana
o	o mosi (un)
oo	gh oo ghu (main)
o	gh <u>o</u> n (nouveau)
oo	digh oo b (respect)
p	bip p ung (boucles d'oreilles)
r	mbari (palmier)
s	usilm (dormir)
t	utabugh (couper)
ts	mbatsi (ami,e)
u	u bur (accoucher, mettre bas) se prononce comme ou français dans boule
vh	uv h egh (donner)se prononce comme la b de boca en espagnole
w	uwend (aller, partir)
y	yamb (plat, soupe, sauce)

- The Bapunu people

When the first European came into contact with the Gabonese coast during the 15th century, Punu people were only established in the Ngounié and Nyanga provinces. Since then their territory has expanded. They are found in 3 other provinces, Ogoouée Maritime, Estuaire, and Moyen Ogoouée. Those migrations lead to different varieties of Yipunu where the differences are mostly phonetic variations. The influence of other languages can also explain the difference between the varieties of Yipunu. Loan words have an active part in the development of a specific language and Yipunu does not escape from this rule. In the Moyen Ogoouée and Ogoouée Maritime Province, most of the vocabulary constituted by the loan words will come from the Omyene languages spoken there, while in the Nyanga province the loan words will mostly come from e.g. Civili and Yilumbu.

In the third volume of the *Rapidolangue* series there is a section in the textbook where customs and habits of the Gabonese languages are treated. Some of the information concerning the Bapunu will be taken from there and other written sources will complete the historical elements. Here follows an abstract of the history of the Bapunu people as it can appear in the front matter of the proposed model, followed by its French translation.

Histoire des Bapunu

Nan batu botsu o Ngabu, Bapunu wandi ba Bantu. Vha ghulu, ba ma bandil o nesi'o Adamaoua. Vhan usu bak wend' o tandu mu tol o Ngabu. Bapunu Badjagh, badjagh beni na mun bisir, balumbu, bavhili, masangu, bavharam, na bavhungu. Be vhosi ipunu o kumu no didjombi tumb na munyi ne o pungu, na mantsi, na lambreni be vhosi ipunu. Mutu e vhosi ipunu be mu nengili **mupunu**, baatu, **bapunu** diloongu djabeeni **Yipunu**.

Comme la plupart des peuples du Gabon, les Punus font partie des peuples Bantu. Dans le plus lointain des temps, ils ont pris naissance dans la vallée de la Bénoué et sur les plateaux de l'Adamaoua. Ils se sont d'abord installés dans la cuvette congolaise et ce n'est que plus tard qu'ils sont remontés vers le nord pour arriver au Gabon par le sud du pays. Se sont les descendants du groupe Bajaga dans lequel on retrouve les peuples Gisir, Balumbu, Bavili, Masangu, Bavarama, Bavungu. Le Yipunu est principalement parlé dans les provinces de la Ngounié et de la Nyanga, mais aujourd'hui on le trouve aussi dans

l'Oguouée Maritime, le Moyen Oguouée et l'Estuaire. Le mot Punu signifie "tueurs". Une personne appartenant au groupe Punu est appelée **mupunu** qui est le singulier de **bapunu**. La langue est appelée **Yipunu**.

The YFSD should have both a knowledge-oriented function and a communication-oriented function. In line with the two functions of the dictionary, the compilers should use a transtextual functional approach. They could provide within the front matter texts an additional series of texts containing games such as crossword puzzles. The aim of including this type of text will be to help improve the dictionary skills of the users. As issues concerning the use of a dictionary will be included (cf. Part2; Chap3) in the front matter of the dictionary, the games could also be part of the didactic aspect of learning how to use a dictionary. The compilers through the games should use a system of cross-referencing from the front matter to the central list in the sense that the questions asked in the game will find their answers in the lexicographic treatment of the central list. The content of the games should also refer to the back matter text. For example the crossword questions could concern a town in one of the provinces where Yipunu is spoken, or it could be about cultural information such as a traditional dance. The user will then be able to access data through and via the front matter texts to either the central list or the back matter text. This will have the advantage of allowing the user to use all sections of the dictionary and discover their importance and their role while being more familiar with the outer texts section. This learning process could be a friendly way to set a platform in dictionary culture. In that way, the user would have become more familiar with dictionary structure and when dealing with an adult dictionary, the level of dictionary skills could lead to a better consultation process.

5. 2. The back matter

For most dictionaries with a knowledge-oriented function, the back matter is the section where more encyclopedic data is treated. The YFSD will not be different. Cultural data is useful for a learner of a foreign language. And the situation of Yipunu in schools qualifies it to be taught as a foreign language. As such, more information on the Yipunu society needs to be given to the learners. For example, it would be useful for them to know where the Bapunu are located and to be able to locate them on a map. A geo-linguistic map of Gabon will be presented to the users in the back matter. On the map the user will find where the Bapunu live and with which people they cohabit. Because of the level of the children, the map must not be too detailed with a lot of technical geographical components. It must be done in a simple way but with enough data for the user to be able to interpret it.

5. 2. 1. The equivalent register

Being a monodirectional bilingual school dictionary, the back matter of the YFSD should offer an additional alphabetical list of equivalents for the benefit of the users. Such a list will present all the French translation equivalents treated in the central list with the Yipunu lemmata of the central list given as cross-reference address. For the non-mother-tongue speaking pupils it will be easy to look for a word because they know the translation in French and they are looking for data on a Yipunu word. In that way compilers would give the users access to the words they do not know in Yipunu while enhancing the access structure of the dictionary.

5. 2. 2. Proverbs

Another data type to be found in the back matter is proverbs. Proverbs have their source within the experiences of the daily life of a community. Nowadays they are still modelling the linguistic communities to which they belong. For Grauberg (1989) proverbs fulfil a psychological role of generalising and reflecting on experience. They are mirrors of the human genre in general and not only of specific linguistic communities.

Proverbs have a very active role in speech communities with a strong oral tradition like those in Gabon. In those societies, the art of talking was similar to the facility of using proverbs. The belief was that the more someone uses proverbs while talking, the wiser he is. Proverbs were used as means of instruction in the sense where they were employed to impart knowledge, to communicate a moral, or to counsel. Proverbs express and translate the cultural background of a community and they have a very significant place in the life of African society (Mabika Mbokou, 2002). They still are mirrors of those societies because they are rooted in them. Therefore it is important for the learners to acquire a relevant knowledge of the proverbs of the learnt language. That knowledge will lead them to the knowledge of the culture and customs of the linguistic community. However, the lexicographer must adapt the treatment of the proverbs to the level of the users. For young pupils, simple and self-explanatory proverbs are preferable.

5. 2. 3. Other data to be included

In addition to the type of data mentioned above, data like the names of months and days, and numbers are part of the treatment in the back matter of a school dictionary. Yipunu and French belong to different linguistic families and their speech communities to different continents. This makes the same reality different for each language. For example, weeks and months were initially different for a Mupunu person. Like all occidental people, French has seven (7) days in a week while in the past Yipunu only counted their days in term of the beginning of a week, the end of a week and the middle of a week. And Bapunu people did count their years in terms of seasons. They did not have fixed months and dates like the French people have. With the colonialism and the introduction of French as official language, the Bapunu took the French words to name days and months and integrated them into their linguistic system. Plus, during that time the French people gave their names to the country and places. The Bapunu already had their names for some places and localities where they lived, but they did borrow words to be able to adapt themselves to the different changes. New words appeared like names of foreign countries. Some words are loan words from other Gabonese languages and other are loan words from French. In the following section, I propose a way on how some data

types can be presented within the back matter. Those data types are presented in tables for the purpose of the dissertation.

Ex 7

- Months and days

Biluumbu tsi tson: les jours de la semaine

Yipunu	French
lendi	lundi
maardi	mardi
Mercredi/ ghari tson	mercredi
jedi	jeudi
vandredi	venbredi
samedi	samedi
dimans/ tson	dimanche

Mighweli mi mupumu: les mois de l'année

Yipunu	French
jaanvhi	janvier
fevhriyi	février
mars	mars
avhril	avril
mē	mai
juwē	juin
jjiyi	juillet
ut	août
septaanbr	septembre
octoobr	octobre
novhaanbr	novembre
desaanbr	décembre

- Cardinals and ordinals numbers

Ba nombr: Les nombres

imosi	un	murel	premier
bibedji	deux	mubedji	deuxième
biryeru	trios	muryeru	troisième
bin	quatre	mwin	quatrième
biranu	cinq	muranu	cinquième
bisiamunu	six	musiamunu	sixième
isambwali	sept	isambwali	septième
inan	huit	inan	huitième
ifu	neuf	ifu	neuvième
dighumi	dix	dighumi	dixième
maghumi	cinquante		
maranu			
kam	cent		

- Names of places

Malongu: les pays

Yipunu	French
Angleter	Angletere
Ben	Bénin
Bulongu tsi baus	Pays des étrangers, particulièrement ceux originaire de l’Afrique de l’Ouest
Bulongu tsi bibamb	Pays des blancs, souvent reference aux pays occidentaux
Fwal	France
Kamerun	Cameroune
Kanada	Canada
Kongu	Congo
Kot divhwar	Côte d’Ivoire

Lalimany	Allemagne
Marik	Amérique
Ngabu	Gabon
Sinigali, Senegal	Sénégal
Togu	Togo

Min ma mambur: les noms des villes

Yipunu	French
ghamb	Gamba
Bitam	Bitame
Dongil	Donguila
Francevhill/Masuku	Franceville
Kulumutu	Koulamoutou
Laambreni	Lambaréné
Lasturvhil	Lastourville
Makoku	Makokou
Mantsi	Port-Gentil
Masang	Tchibanga
Mayumb	Mayoumba
Mekambu	Mékambo
Miinvol	Minvoul
Mimongu	Mimongo
Mwabi	Moabi
Mwil	Mouilla
Ntum	Ntoun
Oyem	Oyem
Pungu	Libreville
Sindar	Sindara

The compilers of the YFSD could also make use of pictorial illustrations to implement the treatment of cultural data in the back matter text. The case of traditional dances, or the way to prepare cassava among the Bapunu people could be taken. The articles explaining

the lemmata naming the above cultural data will only present a strict lexicographic treatment. The knowledge-orientated function of that particular dictionary could be enhanced by adding some data that will bring more detail on information such as the preparation for the dance or, the type of clothes that the dancers wear. Cassava is one of the main meals in Gabon and it is cooked differently according to the linguistic community. The various utensils used during the preparation of cassava and the recipe for cooking cassava could be added as cultural data in the back matter text, as well as the material used for the making of traditional basket, traditional cloth, etc. In that way, the non-mother-tongue user will not only learn about the language, but also about the habits and the customs of the Bapunu people.

6. Conclusion

For any dictionary to be a good dictionary it is not only the data included in the central list of the dictionary that counts. The lexicographer has to deal with the structure of the dictionary itself, and the distribution of the data between the different sections of the dictionary plays an important role in determining its quality as well as its utility. A well-designed frame structure is the way to go in order to achieve this goal. Because of the data distribution, the lexicographer is able to provide good and useful information by means of the dictionary. Cultural data as well as linguistic data can then be accommodated without the user getting more confused during the consultation process. In this chapter, I wanted to show how data contained in the front and back matter could be relevant for a dictionary such as the YFSD. Their use is not to occupy space but rather to provide efficient data, if that data is treated in a scientific way, and if metalexigraphic principles are well applied. Not all the aspects of the front and back matter have been discussed here. For the Gabonese multilingual situation and the type of hybrid dictionary the model is about, the relevancy of data to be included in those sections comes from their convenience to accommodate the users and their advantage in enhancing the standardisation process of the Yipunu language. For example, the treatment of an

alphabet in the front matter pages would help with the establishment of a proper orthography for Yipunu because up to now, each author uses a spelling that is convenient for him/her. I also tried to show what the purpose of such a treatment would be. The model I intend to design does not only concern Yipunu but also the other four languages treated by the Raponda Walker Foundation in their schoolbooks.

CHAPTER TWO: MACROSTRUCTURAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENVISAGED YIPUNU FRENCH SCHOOL DICTIONARY

1. Introduction

The central list of the proposed Yipunu French School Dictionary has been briefly discussed in the previous chapter. It has been and will always be the major component in the structure of any dictionary. The central list is the place where all the lexical items included as lemmata find their lexicographic treatment. This is one of the reasons why the central list represents the body of a dictionary. It can be divided into two major structural components namely the **macrostructure** and the **microstructure**. The focus of the present chapter will be the macrostructure. By looking at the inclusion of macrostructural elements, the lemmatisation process will be the main point to be examined. The question I will try to answer is: What type of macrostructure will best suit the YFSD?

2. Metalexical principles for a macrostructure

2. 1. The data distribution structure

The data distribution structure is one of the starting points when it comes to dictionary making. All entries and texts included in the outer texts and the central list result from that step. It determines the frame structure of the dictionary as a whole because a dictionary does not only refer to the entries found in the central list (cf. Part3; Chapt.3). For the YFSD, the front and back matter play an important role for the learning process of the Yipunu language. The organisation of the different texts within the sections mentioned above would lead to additional macrostructures that differ from the macrostructure found in the central list. Although some of the head words included in the front matter as a register for example are duplicated from the central list to help the user retrieve the information within that section (grammatical information, user guidelines, etc.), they constitute a new and different macrostructure that has nothing to do with the

one found in the central list. If the outer texts present word lists, those words lists are considered as partial structures of the macrostructure. In the case of the YFSD, the equivalent register, the list of names of countries, names of towns, traditional Yipunu events, for example will constitute different macrostructures.

Generally speaking, there is only one macrostructure in the central list when it comes to monolingual dictionaries or monodirectional bilingual dictionaries. Bidirectional bilingual dictionaries often offer more than one macrostructure, one for each of the treated languages. The macrostructures are different in a sense where each of them portrays the specificity of the treated language as recorded by the lexicographer. It is not all the elements of the lexicon of the language in question that would be included in the central list of the dictionary. In a bilingual Yipunu-French/French-Yipunu dictionary, the selection of Yipunu and French items would require two different macrostructures. The proposed YFSD is a different type of bilingual dictionary in the sense that the bilingual dimension is there to provide help for the pupils in their learning process. It is a school dictionary falling into the category of monodirectional dictionaries. French in that dictionary is not treated at all, so there will be no French section as such. It would be a combination of translation dictionary and a monolingual school desk dictionary. As such, it contains features of a monolingual dictionary.

The YFSD will not have two different central lists. It will present the lexicographic treatment of all the lemmata in one main section. I am not proposing a combined macrostructure for the two languages. Only Yipunu will be the source language that receives proper lexicographic treatment because French items will only be included as microstructural entries, i.e. as translation equivalents. In the central list, the French translation equivalents should follow the lemma chosen as guiding element in the article of the dictionary. Another zone for French translation equivalents would be the translation of the different Yipunu illustrative examples within the microstructure. Those translation equivalents should be presented in italics for the user to know the difference between the two languages. No further lexicographic treatment would be presented in French (cf. the following chapter on microstructural elements).

Another point to be taken into account when planning a macrostructure is the knowledge that the users have of the treated language. For the case of the YFSD, it is vital that the choice of the lexical items to be included in the dictionary goes along with their knowledge of Yipunu. Their knowledge of French is generally superior to that of Yipunu. It would be irrelevant to access the data of such a dictionary on the knowledge of French rather than of Yipunu within the central list. However, this would be relevant if the users access the data from the back matter texts to the central list (equivalent register).

2. 2. The macrostructure

The dictionary skills of the users do play an important role in the way the macrostructure is presented. I agree with Louw (2004) when he says that dictionary culture in schools needs to be improved. The acquisition of better dictionary skills needs to be aggressively pursued, as dictionaries are vital instruments in the classroom but also in the life-long learning process. In the case of Gabon, like in most African countries, the dictionary culture is still in process and cannot be compared to the European context. Pupils may be familiar with the use of dictionaries but it does not mean that they have acquired enough dictionary skills. They are used to several French monolingual dictionaries as well as bilingual dictionaries including French and/or English, Spanish, Portuguese, German, Italian, etc. but they do not have contact with dictionaries involving local languages. It would be advantageous for the lexicographer working on the YFSD to use lexicographic conventions (such as bold, italics, semi colons, etc.) used in those dictionaries and make some adjustments when necessary. This is an advantage because the dictionary will appear more familiar to the user.

Knowing the meaning of the different typographical and non-typographical structural markers, the user should be able to interpret the treated data correctly. At the same time it will improve the access of the macrostructure of the dictionary, making it user-friendlier. Hence, the proposed model should improve the dictionary skills of its intended target

users by helping them acquire a good dictionary culture. It should be a platform for the use of larger scope dictionaries. The YFSD should lead the pupils in using other dictionaries such as Yipunu monolingual dictionaries. In that regard Louw (2004:37) says that a school dictionary not only has the vital role to play in the transfer of linguistic knowledge, but it must also prepare the user to be a life-long user of the dictionary.

2. 2. 1. The lemma candidates

The lemma candidates are lexical items that come from the dictionary basis and have been selected as potential lemmata for possible inclusion in the dictionary. In the selection of data to be included, the lexicographer's intuition does play a significant role. It serves as a balance in prioritising the choice of lexical items to be included in the dictionary. The corpus for a dictionary such as the YFSD would be compiled with the words contained in the volumes of the *Rapidolangue* series. There are certain items that should be included in the YFSD that are not part of the vocabulary used in the schoolbooks. Thus, other reference books such as the *Dictionnaire Français Yipounou/Yipounou Français* (FY-YF) and the *Grammaire Pounoue et lexique Pounou* (GPLP) should constitute an additional source. The lexical items found in the *Rapidolangue* series and those found in the above mentioned bilingual dictionaries will, in the case of the YFSD, form the basis for the lemma candidate list along with the cassettes. The lemma candidate list should make room for items that are linked to the Yipunu culture. It should include words related to themes like hunting, fishing, traditional wedding, etc¹⁵.

The lemma candidate list is not a fixed and rigid list. A lexicographer working on any dictionary must compile a lemma candidate list in such a way that it provides room for new words to be included. Local languages have affected the French spoken by Gabonese people. In the same way, French has had its influence on those languages. Yipunu is no exception. Nowadays for example, only few children know the proper name of the lobola

¹⁵ Some of those themes are mentioned in the schoolbooks with no further explanation. The compilers only provide the translation equivalents of the term employed. It is the teachers' choice to give more information on the cultural aspect.

part of the traditional wedding. In Yipunu **tsombu** is the term for paying lobola, which is **payer la dot** in the French spoken in Gabon (fg)¹⁶, and **donner la dot** for the standard form of French. As a result, Bapunu people like most of the local speech communities in Gabon use the translation of **payer la dot**, instead of **donner la dot**, which would also be the “correct” form that a mupunu will use. That would give **ufut tsombu** or **upeyi tsombu** instead of **uvhegh tsombu**. The lemma candidate list should then provide room for words that are not included in the schoolbooks, but that are part of the corpus available in the Yipunu language. It may also provide room for new lexical creations that are now part of Yipunu as spoken by the current Bapunu people.

2. 2. 1. 1. The role of the corpus in the choice of lemma candidates

For the lexicographer to choose what lexical elements should be included in the dictionary, it demands a good and right interpretation of the corpus. Although it is the lexicographer who has the right to decide what to include or what not to include, he must not base his approach on a traditional word-based selection. Even for the lemma candidate list, the lexicographer must take into account all the different elements of the lexicon. He must know if in the lemma candidate list, sublexical items and multiword lexical items would be potential lemmata. For that reason, it is vital for the lexicographer to be familiar with the structure of the treated language. He/she must take into account the linguistic features of the different elements of the lexicon of that specific language.

Based on the fact that the YFSD should serve as a tool for the learning of the Yipunu language along with the *Rapidolangue* series, it is of a great importance that the lexicographer looks further than the *Rapidolangue* series for the inclusion of lexical items in the macrostructure. It is not only the words found in the schoolbooks that should make the lemma candidate list. Words referring to the subjects taught in the school should also be part of the macrostructural elements. Being a school dictionary, the YFSD should reflect all the subject areas that are presented at school, in order to ensure a meaningful

¹⁶ “fg” stands for Français du Gabon, which is French spoken by Gabonese people. It will refer to a label explained in the front matter. I chose not to elaborate on it now because the point concerning labels will be treated in the next chapter on microstructural elements.

and relevant set of information. One of the functions that particular dictionary needs to fulfil would be to help the pupils in the classroom in their language needs, but also in their other subjects. The dictionary should provide information on how to communicate what is done in the classroom environment and in the school environment, i.e. information on their subjects like history, mathematics, languages, physics, geography, etc. The macrostructure of the proposed dictionary should include as many lexical items appearing in the education system as possible. Yet the inclusion process should be done according to the limited scope of the dictionary.

The selection of macrostructural elements and the decision regarding ordering principles in the YFSD should correspond to the user-friendliness approach. The design of such a dictionary should be based on user-oriented approaches. Therefore the macrostructure of that dictionary should reflect in its selection, the very user-friendly characteristics. The selection of the macrostructural elements and their inclusion in the dictionary will greatly depend on the plan of such a dictionary.

2. 2. 2. The ordering of the lemmata

Because the macrostructure is the place where the lemmata are entered as guiding elements, it can be part of the primary access structure of the dictionary. Ordering in the macrostructure does not only imply alphabetical arrangement, it also concerns other ways the lemmata could be arranged within the very same macrostructure. The order chosen by the lexicographer during the planning of the macrostructure could also influence the order of entries in lists presented in other texts. It regards the dictionary as a book and not only the central list section. However, if the central list displays lemma niches and/or nests, the list in the back matter does not have to use the same system.

The ordering system of the macrostructural elements included in any dictionary should support the genuine purpose of that dictionary. For the case of the YFSD some adjustments need to be done in order to give a good transfer of the linguistic data. That linguistic data should reflect a right and fair lexicological status of the treated lexical

items. All the traditional lexicographic conventions will not necessarily be applied in the lexicographic treatment of the included lexical items. Lexicographic structural indicators such as bold, italics, etc. will be used to mark macrostructural data. In addition to regular lexicographic conventions, innovations can be made in order for the lexicographic treatment to be adapted to the situation of Yipunu. Those innovations, as well as the use of regular lexicographic conventions, should be determined by the way they facilitate the consultation process for the Yipunu learners.

Ordering in the macrostructure could lead to word-finding problems. For that reason, it is important that the lexicographer does not choose an ordering in an arbitrary way. The accessibility of the data within a dictionary is one of the user-friendly features. It is required of the lexicographer to express as clearly as possible the entire system of the dictionary. Looking at the alphabetical order of the lemmatisation could limit the presentation of the macrostructure in a sense where multiword lexical items would be difficult to classify. The case is seen in some Afrikaans dictionaries that never include a complex lexical item as independent lemma. Neither are those types of lexical items treated in the article as the head of the construction (Gouws, 1991: 82).

2. 2. 2. 1. Alphabetical arrangement

According to Louw (2004:30), typological decisions that are based on the user perspective not only influence the selection of macrostructural elements, but also the ordering principles at work in the macrostructure. Initial alphabetical ordering presents immediate access, especially to the less advanced user of the dictionaries (Louw, 2004:33). The YFSD in its structure should not present a normative judgment although it is intended to give a standardised form of the language. Being one of the first models to pose such issues, the use of a straight alphabetical ordering would be the right way to go. This would have the advantage of presenting clear and unambiguous information to the users. The lexicographer could also deviate from a straight alphabetical ordering by including sublemmata for the presentation of some items, especially where only a limited treatment is offered.

When dealing with the arrangement of lemmata within the macrostructure, the lexicographer should be able to combine theoretical approaches and innovation with the needs of the target users. Application of the model should then be adapted to respond to the user profile. Most of the pupils attending the Yipunu classes have an oral knowledge of that language and most of the time they use the words in their full form, meaning affix+stem. But they also know that when saying **bapundu** or **banombi** it is the plural form of **dupundu** and **munombi**. They are able to identify that “ba” and “mu” are prefixes for the forms “-pundu” and “-nombi”. Yipunu has a very systematic way in which morphemes are combined, and for that reason and the above one, I think that the best way to include lemmata in the macrostructure of the YFSD should be a combination of stem lemmatisation and word lemmatisation. Yipunu being a disjunctive language, using a lemmatisation process only presenting stems will not satisfy the needs of the target users of such a dictionary. It would require more sophisticated lexicographic treatment that could impede the consultation process. However, by only including words as lemmata, certain items of the Yipunu lexicon such as verbs would be included under a single letter that could break the balance in the alphabetical order. In Yipunu, all the verbs are written as verbal prefix +stem +suffix. The verbal prefix is **u-**. If all the verbs were to be included as words, there will be more or less the $\frac{3}{4}$ of the lemmata entered in the central list under the letter “u”. All items such as names, adjectives and prepositions should be lemmatised as words while all items such as verbs should rather be lemmatised as stems (Mabika Mbokou to appear).

2. 2. 3. Homonyms and homographs

In school dictionaries, the extent of homonymy in the lexicon should determine their inclusion and their presentation in the macrostructure. This procedure should also be explained and detailed within the user guide. Homographs are important components of the Yipunu lexicon. There are more homographs than homonyms in Yipunu and it is the duty of the lexicographer to make the user aware of that particularity of the language. Therefore, the compilers of the YFSD should present homonyms and homographs in a different way to mark their lexicological status. It is homographs that should be

prioritised during the lemmatisation process. Homographs should be lemmatised and included as main lemmata with a superscript numbering system at the right of the lemma; homonyms should be presented as main lemmata with arabic number at the left of the lemma. The compilers of the YFSD should also provide a clear indication of the distinction between homonyms and homographs within the front matter pages.

Ex 1: Homographs

digondi [díghóndì]	digondi [díghòndì]
bukulu [búkùlù]	bukulu [búkùlù]
ufund [ùfùndè]	ufund [ùfùndè]
kal [kálè]	kal [kàlè]

Because they are homographs, they should be included in the YFSD in the following pattern

dighondi¹: régime de banane
dighondi²: charnière, gond
bukulu¹: oseille
bukulu²: généalogie, chronique
kal¹: crabe
kal³: passé

There are two ways in which homonyms and homographs can be arranged. They can be arranged according to their frequency of occurrence in a corpus, or according to their historical origin. A historical arrangement would be characterised by the inclusion of the oldest form going towards the newest form. For languages with a long written tradition and well-established corpora this procedure can easily be done and it offers a safe way to present the treatment of homonyms. But Yipunu has neither a long written tradition nor a well-established corpus. Thus the way to go for the compilation of the YFSD would be the arrangement according to the frequency of use. Another reason for such a choice of the empirical method is that it is often seen that the users want to see the form they use the most, included in a dictionary. For them a bad dictionary is often linked to the fact

that the particular dictionary does not contain a particular “frequent” word. In that regard, the method of arrangement of homonyms and homographs should be consistent along with the method of arrangement of polysemous senses (cf. Part 4; Chapt 3).

The role of any dictionary is to provide data for the users in a way that the user will not have to deduce, or wonder what the data is about. It should not be done in a way that the users would have trouble to find the needed data. To avoid such situations, the YFSD should be well designed and all the procedures should be explained and made as clear as possible in the user’s guide. The lexicographer working on such a dictionary should therefore pay careful attention to the way the lexicographic ordering and treatment is done. All patterns in that process should be as consistent as possible in order to leave no room for an arbitrary way in the presentation and treatment of the lemmata and other treatment included in the dictionary. Thus the ordering and arrangement should not only concern the frequency of use of the homographs, but it should also take into account their part of speech.

3. The Lemmatisation process

3. 1. Main Lemmata

Macrostructural elements are motivated by both the nature and the type of dictionary to be compiled, as well as the data included in the compilation of the corpus. The usage frequency of the units of the lexicon, their register and their linguistic nature play an important role in the way those units are presented within the macrostructure. Those criteria determine their place as well as the amount of lexicographic treatment they will receive. But the inclusion of any lemma in the central list of a dictionary does not imply equal treatment. Although all the lexical items included in the macrostructure of a specific dictionary receive lexicographic treatment, the lexicographer cannot give an equal treatment to all those items. The inclusion of lexical items (whether it is a word, and item smaller than a word or an item larger than a word) in the central list of a

dictionary gives all the lemmata the same status. All lemmata have the position of guiding element of an article in the dictionary. They are all macrostructural elements thus they are all valuable and relevant elements for the dictionary. There is no concept such as superior or inferior lemmata. That is why the extent of the lexicographic treatment is not a comparative evaluation of the macrostructural status of lemmata. Gouws (2001a: 26) says, dictionaries have to be compiled in such a way that their macrostructure can accommodate all the different types of lexical items of the given language. The lemmatisation process has to ensure that lexical items can be included as lexical lemmata, subword lexical items as sublexical lemmata and multiword lexical items as multilexical lemmata. Certain types of lemmata will receive either a limited treatment or a more extensive treatment. Although this does not imply an equal treatment, it is the lexicographer's duty to try to give a fair treatment to all included lexical items.

3. 1. 1. Word-based approach

In the past, lexicography had often been dominated by a word-bias. The difference between words, sublexical lexical items and multilexical lexical items was not taken into account. This situation led lexicographers to compile dictionaries that only presented the treatment of words instead of that of all the elements of the lexicon. The development of lexicography has changed this situation and today, the macrostructure of a specific dictionary is planned in such a way that it reflects all the items contained in the lexicon of the treated language. In the macrostructure, there should be different types of lemmata. There should be lexical lemmata that mainly concern words, sublexical lemmata that represent sublexical lexical items and multilexical lemmata that are multiword lexical items.

The lexicon of any language contains all the lexical items of that language. A dictionary is supposed to be the mirror of the treated language. Before a theory of lexicography was put in place, lexicographers failed in representing the language by means of a dictionary because they primarily described words, in the strict sense of the term. Many early dictionaries were merely list of words. They only contained words as lexical items and

the lexicographic treatment given to idiomatic expressions, locutions, and lexical items smaller than words was not well devised. Some of those items were even excluded as macrostructural elements. But words chosen as lexical items to be included in the macrostructure of a specific dictionary are only a part of the lexicon of the treated language. And the lexicon of that specific language does not only contain words. It contains lexical items presented as words, parts of words as well as groups of words. In other words the lexicon of the language contains all the lexical items of that language. Although the majority of these lexical items are words, the lexicon also has elements larger than words as well as elements smaller than words. They remain fully-fledged members of the lexicon. Thus any dictionary in its description must contain a lexicographic treatment of lexical items like words, multiword lexical items and sublexical lexical items. Multiword lexical items are groups of words like fixed expressions or idioms while sublexical lexical items are e.g. affixes and stems.

Because dictionaries have an authoritative function they should present a description of a specific language that reflects a true account of the status of all the lexical items included in the macrostructure. Whether the treatment is about lexical items, sublexical lexical items or multilexical lexical items does not matter. The Yipunu lexicon is mostly composed of stems and affixes. Therefore, it has a large number of sublexical lexical elements. However, except for prefixes like those indicating nominal classes, verbal classes etc., there is never in that language a morpheme occurring independently. The stems are never used alone but they are always attached to a corresponding affix. For the purpose of the proposed model, and to go along with the knowledge of its intended target users, the macrostructure of the YFSD should contain the three categories of lemmata mentioned above. The major part of the lexical items will be presented in their full form as complex words meaning stem plus affix(es), while some of the affixes that function as prefixes or suffixes will also be presented as main lemmata. Those affixes include prefixes indicating nominal classes, verbal classes and so on. Some superlative and/or comparative suffixes will also be treated as full lemmata.

3. 1. 2. Lexial based appraoch

Words are natural candidates when it comes to lemmatisation. In the case of the YFSD, the choice of the elements representing the lexicon in their word forms is linked to the attempt to simplify the metalanguage of the dictionary for the benefit of its intended target users. The compilation of that dictionary in particular, and of any dictionary in general, should reflect a lexical based approach when it comes to the selection of macrostructural elements. Sublexical lexical items and multiword lexical items are members of the lexicon and as such, they qualify for inclusion as lemmata in the YFSD.

Ex 2

Prefix	Stem	Suffix
ba- yi- mu-	-punu	
u- mu-	-bok -bok-	-ə -is-ə
di- ma-	-tambi	
u-	-nu -nu-ang -nu-ang	-ə -a-ngə

From the table we have:

ba-punu	<i>bapunu</i> (people that speak Yipunu and/or that have Yipunu culture)
yi-punu	<i>yipunu</i> (the language)
mu-punu	<i>mupunu</i> (a person who speaks Yipunu)
u-bok-ə	<i>ubok</i> (to kill)
u-bok-is-ə	<i>ubokis</i> (to lose someone by mean of death)
di-tambi	<i>ditambi</i> (foot)
ma-tambi	<i>matambi</i> (feet)
u-nu	<i>unu</i> (to drink)

nwang-ə *nwang* (drink!)
 nwang-a-ng-ə *nwangang* (drinking continuously)

Ex 3

Prefix	Suffix
mu- pronominal prefix , singular classe1.	-isə
ba- pronominal prefix, plural classe2.	-ənə
mu- pronominal prefix, singular classe3.	-ikə
ma- pronominal prefix, plural classe4.	-itsi
di-pronominal prefix, singular classe5	-i final suffix
u- verbal prefix classe15	-ə final suffix
o-locative prefix classe17	-u final suffix
n-/m- pronominal prefix, singular classe9	
a- pre-prefix	
ma pre-prefix used in the past tense	

The above tables present the nature of the morphemes. Some of the morphemes such as **ma-**, or **-ənə** are always found in combination with a stem therefore they will not be included in the lemma candidate list as sublexical items. Others such as **o** (locative prefix classe17) will be included in the dictionary as main lemma.

The treatment of any component of the lexicon of a specific language should provide information concerning its lexicological status, its linguistic properties and its semantic relation with other components of the lexicon. The lexical approach of the treatment of the lexicon represented in a specific dictionary will adapt and refine the lemmatisation process of that given dictionary. It would be implemented in the dictionary in order to provide an unambiguous transfer of information, presenting the entire lexicon of the language and not only a collection of words. It would give the dictionary a better spectrum of the lexicon of the Yipunu language, as the aim of the YFSD is to provide the

norm of that language. When macrostructural elements like sublexical lexical items and multiword lexical items are not given appropriate lemma status, it diminishes and restricts their lexicographical treatment, whereas the contrary approach provides a full treatment that acknowledges proper lexicological status and gives correct linguistic information. For the compilation of the YFSD, lexicographers should not blindly apply the lexicographic convention that advises the treatment of multiword lexical items within the article of a specific lemma. Such principles display a word-based approach and they give an incorrect transfer of the lexicological and linguistic status of those elements. Some innovations concerning that matter have to be done in order to satisfy the need of the Gabonese pupils.

3. 2. Lemmatisation of sublexical lexical items

In a school dictionary, the word-based approach favours only a part of the lexicon of the treated language. The emphasis should rather be on a more representative presentation of data. Sublexical lexical items have their own meaning. The structure of the YFSD should be able to transmit that meaning. They belong to the macrostructure of a dictionary such as the YFSD because one of the aims of that particular dictionary is to facilitate an encoding process in a classroom context. Yet the pedagogical function of those types of lexical items is linked with the fact that they have a high word-generating potential for the encoding user.

Affixes are very important lexical items in the Yipunu language. And because they play an important role in the encoding process conveyed by the dictionary, they should be treated with consistency in order to avoid any confusion during the consultation process. If the corpus record shows frequency regarding certain types of affixes (either prefixes or suffixes), they need to be properly and clearly lemmatised. In the case of the YFSD, the corpus records should reflect the occurrence of affixes in complex words. It is then the duty of the lexicographer to make the necessary linguistic analysis in order to determine their productiveness and lemma potential. The challenge is for the lexicographer to be

able to extract from the corpus the necessary data because of the lack of written sources. He will need to add to the written sources, transcriptions of the oral sources. A good point to start the transcriptions would be the use of the Rapidolangue cassettes available for the pupils as part of their school material. Another way to implement that process could be the use of linguistic descriptions done in Yipunu. In the case of the compilation process of the YFSD it is vital for the lexicographer to have enough expertise in Yipunu morphology because Yipunu is a Bantu language and as such, it is one of the requirements for the identification of affixes in a corpus-based approach. Sublexical lexical items such as prepositions, pronouns, and nominal classes should be presented following that approach.

Ex 4

lemmata	treatment
a (negative prefix)	Translation equivalent, part of speech, stem they can combine with, illustrative examples
ba- (nominal prefix)	
e (personal pronoun)	
mu- (nominal prefix)	
o (locative prefix)	

3. 3. Lemmatisation of multiword lexical items

The inclusion of multiword lexical items is one of the tricky issues that any lexicographer has to deal with, because the lexicographer needs to decide where and how these types of lexical items should be lemmatised. Two options can be considered as a solution for that dilemma. The lexicographer can either decide that the multiword lexical item should be lemmatised as main lemma in the vertical order, or he can decide that the mentioned item should be listed attached to the article of the lemma representing its first prominent constituent, e.g. as a niched or nested lemma. The last option has the disadvantage of confusing the users if the lexicographer chose to group multiword lexical items with

collocations and examples in one article slot¹⁷. In that case the lexicographer does not give a clear indication of the lexicological status of the precise items, thus he gives the wrong information to the user. Concerning that procedure, Gouws (1991: 86) explains that if a multiword unit is treated in the article of a lexical lemma, the way and position of its presentation may lead the dictionary user either to regard it as illustrative material indicating a separate syntactic context of that lemma or as another polysemous sense of it.

The chosen headword for the inclusion of a multiword lexical item often has a semantic relation to the lexical lemma of the article where it is treated. In the case of the YFSD it would be preferable for the compilers to resort to the first option concerning the self-explanatory multiword lexical items because it will help in dealing with the microstructural treatment of these types of items. The inclusion of loan group multiword lexical items is not an issue as such because they are traditionally lemmatised as main lemmata. The YFSD should follow the same procedure.

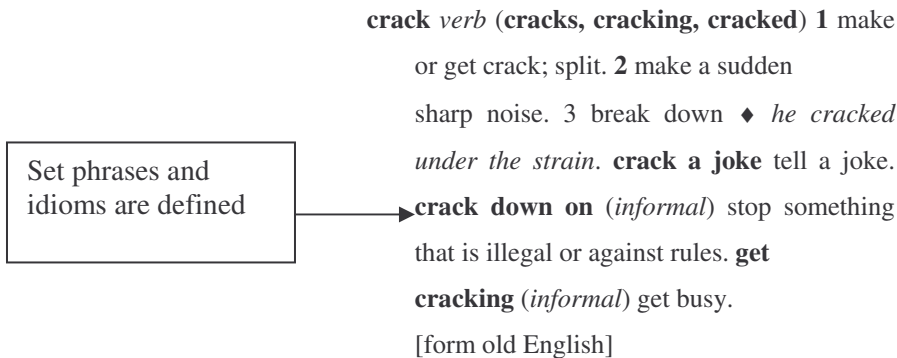
Likewise, it is often seen in practical lexicography that idioms are treated as sublemmata under what is estimated as being the prominent constituent of the idiom. But this affects their lexicological status if they are not clearly presented and they are mixed with microstructural data categories. Louw (2004:57) emphasises it by saying that collocations and idioms should be accommodated in different search areas allocated to each data category. By using different typefaces or structural markers the user could be lead to a clear distinction between these two data categories. For example, the compilers of the *Oxford Pocket School Dictionary* (OPSD) mention the way idioms are treated in the dictionary through the user's guide. But it is not clearly expressed because they treat idioms as microstructural elements. Thus it is difficult for the users to distinguish between colloquial sentences and idioms. The *Francolin Illustrated School Dictionary for Southern Africa* (FISDSA) to the contrary does not mention any treatment of idioms

¹⁷ Whether the lexicographer uses an integrated microstructure or an unintegrated microstructure will influence the article structure of the dictionary. It will affect the way collocations, idioms, fixed expressions etc. are accommodated. This matter will be discussed in the following chapter on microstructural elements.

and collocations in the user's guide. Yet in the central list of the dictionary one can see idioms being mixed with other microstructural data categories such as collocations.

Ex 5

In the front matter pages of the OPSD, the example of the word **crack** is used to illustrate the treatment of idioms:



Although it is presented in the front matter pages, the lexicographic treatment of the lemma **crack** is an indication of how the user can retrieve information within the central list. The method used by the compilers of this particular dictionary brings confusion because they do not give a clear distinction between collocations and idioms. Compare the following article:

Ex 6 OPSD

account *noun* (*plural accounts*) **1** a statement of money owed, spent, or received; a bill. **2** an arrangement to keep money in a bank etc. **3** a description or report. **On account of** because of. **on no account** under no circumstance; certainly not. **take something into account** consider or include it when making a decision or calculation.

4. The sublemmatisation process

The use of sublemmata generally reflects a semantic relation between the main lemma and its deriving components, presented as sublemmata. Although the choice to include such a type of macrostructural element belongs to the lexicographer, it fulfils the metalexigraphic principle of economy: If treated in a proper way, sublemmata signal the semantic relations between the main lemma and the sublemma. Thus the lexicographer can include more data about a certain lexical item. Sublemmatisation is also a way to transfer lexicological data because sublemmata are the guiding elements of their own articles.

In most school dictionaries, lexicographers avoid the use of sublemmata. They prefer to treat all lexical items as main lemmata in order to simplify the structure of the dictionary so that the young users could easily access the macrostructure, and to avoid unnecessary procedures of textual condensation. In addition to that, the status of a sublemma as lexical item in the dictionary is linked to the meaning of the main lemma to which article it is attached. A main lemma is always more accessible to the user than a sublemma because the main lemma is ordered vertically while the sublemma is ordered horizontally. A sublemma heads a subarticle and it is attached to the article slot of the main lemma. In practical lexicography the use of sublemmata is often determined by space-saving reasons. Hence, a well-devised macrostructure would help present and treat sublemmata in such a way that the user will not be confused. This is the reason why in the proposed model, a good and well-devised system of sublemmatisation could improve the quality of the dictionary.

4. 1. Ordering of sublemmata

Two main options are available when ordering sublemmata. The lexicographer can arrange a separate text block attached to the article of the main lemma in a strict alphabetical way, thus the use of a niching approach, or he/she can decide to use the morpho-semantic relation between the words to arrange them. This approach is called

nesting. Most lexicographers think that niching is a less confusing way to order lemmata. The sublemmata presented in a niching procedure are listed alphabetically and it helps the user to access the data included in the dictionary. The use of a nesting system requires more user-guidance than the niching system because it requires a more experienced group of users. That is why in my opinion nesting procedures are more frequently seen in general monolingual dictionaries than in bilingual dictionaries. Yipunu being taught as a foreign language, it would be preferable for the compilers of the YFSD to combine niching and nesting procedures in the presentation of sublemmata. They could give a better transfer of the data included in the article of the dictionary and at the same time they could avoid too sophisticated patterns. But the niching system should prevail over the nesting one. Nesting should only be used as support for a better transfer of data.

4. 2. Complex words

With complex words and multiword lexical items two major types of lemmata can be distinguished: the self-explanatory lemmata that refer to complex lexical items of which the meaning can be deduced from the meaning of their components; and the lemmata that need an explanation because their meaning cannot be deduced from the meaning of their components. The two types of lemmata can either be treated as main lemmata or as sublemmata. When treated as main lemmata in the dictionary, they are more accessible as reference addresses during a procedure of cross-referencing. This helps to facilitate the consultaion process. In the case of Yipunu, it is not all the lexical items that will be treated as main lemmata in the central list of the dictionary. Certain prefixes for example do not function independently from their stem and for that reason do not have any meaning on their own. It would be difficult for the lexicographer to place them as lemmata because it would convey the wrong information to the user.

Ex 7

ubok (to kill)	u- bo -bok “to kill very badly”
upantsigh (to destroy)	u- pa -pantsigh “to destroy very badly”
udimb (to bit)	u- di -dimb “to beat someone very strongly”

The prefixes **-bo-**, **-pa-**, and **-di-** do not have any occurrence outside the derived words they belong to. Those complex words are closely related to the words **ubok**, **upantsigh** and **udimb**. To treat the lexical items **ubobok**, **upapantsigh** and **udidimb** as main lemmata would give the dictionary a random content because the meaning of those words is the same as the headwords they would be placed under. The difference between the complex words and the headwords they would be put under is the type of action one takes to kill, destroy or beat. A good way to treat them would be to present them as derivational words with examples that will illustrate the word in context.

The categories mentioned above are more often treated in descriptive dictionaries. But for the proposed model, both categories would need to be taken into account because of the degree of descriptiveness required by the hybrid nature of this dictionary. In this case it is necessary to provide information on all the components of the lexicon and not only on components like words. For Gouws (2001a: 25), self-explanatory lemmata are included in a zone attached to the article of the lexical lemma sign representing one of the stems of the complex item. Their inclusion often impedes the strict alphabetical ordering of the macrostructure. He continues by saying that by grouping the self-explanatory lemmata in one text block with an internal alphabetical ordering in this grouping, users get a quick and easy access to a variety of complex words with transparent meaning. This is an economical way to include a larger number of lexical items in a dictionary.

To enhance the consistency and relevance of the information contained in a specific dictionary, the choice of explained lemmata must not be done in an arbitrary way. Semantic transparency has to be regarded as the motivation for including a lexical item as self-explanatory lemma. Although they are presented as sublemmata, self-explanatory lemmata remain fully-fledged macrostructural items (Gouws, 2001a: 25-26). For a bilingual dictionary such as the YFSD, the implication is that an unexplained lemma should not have an untranslated lemma as counterpart.

4. 3. Idioms

Based on the situation of the Yipunu language, a way to treat idioms could be to prepare the intended target users for a faultless transition to a standard monolingual dictionary. In that regard a clear distinction must be made between compound lexical items, idioms and collocations when they are treated as microstructural elements. The lemmatisation of compound lexical items will thus help to lessen the lexicographer's dilemma.

The main problem in the treatment of idioms is to find the right way to include them in the macrostructure of a specific dictionary. The most frequent way is to present them as sublemmata or as part of the treatment of a specific lemma sign. They are not defined by the meaning of either the lemma or another lemma, but there can be a direct relation with the preceding main lemma. This approach has the advantage of providing space for multiword lexical items like idioms and fixed expressions. This type of data should be presented in a systematic way and they need a lexicographic treatment. Thus, idioms should also be regarded as sublemmata because they are presented as treatment units. They are part of the macrostructure but their positioning does not go along with the normal way sublemmata are arranged. However, the disadvantage of such an approach is that the choice of the headword under which the idioms need to be treated is not an easy one. The meaning of some of those lexical items differs totally from that of the intended chosen headword. In some cases a semantic relation between the idioms and the chosen headword does not exist at all. Although the user may recognise the individual words within a multiword lexical item, it does not imply that the meaning of the idioms has something to do with the meaning of the individual words. This fact has an implication for the lexicographic presentation of proverbs and idiomatic expression in dictionaries.

In a dictionary, the treatment of idiomatic expressions can be done according to their semantic relation with the individual words that form part of the complex structure of the lexical item. For example, a zone in the entry of a particular lemma could be provided to list all idioms and/or proverbs with their own lexicographic treatment, and the choice of those idioms may be done according to the relation they have with the chosen headwords. This puts the responsibility on the user to identify possible semantic relations between

idioms and individual words before knowing where to find the idioms in the dictionary. In the case of the proposed model such an approach would hinder the access to the data because of the lack of dictionary skills of the intended target users.

Ex 8

- | | |
|---------------------------|--|
| 1. dikak “hand” | dikak di moosi a ghe susi yintsi djostu “one hand cannot wash all of the face” |
| 2. mwan “child” | mwana a ghe dji mu beyi o djughal “a child that does not like eating must be on his own” |
| 3. musiru “forest” | musiru u wara na miri “forest multiply itself by its trees” |
| 4. nzil “way” | nzil u sak dji we nyangu o didjulu mabagh “one knows the way by following the road while the sun is still shining” |

The meaning of the above-given idioms is not related to the meaning of the chosen headword, but it would be difficult to place them in the article of another lemma. Another way of ordering the idioms inside their search area would be to arrange them alphabetically according to the words following the first noun of the idiom. For example, in the following idioms, **dikak** is first noun.

Ex 9:

dikak di moosi a ghe susi yintsi djostu “one hand cannot wash all of the face”

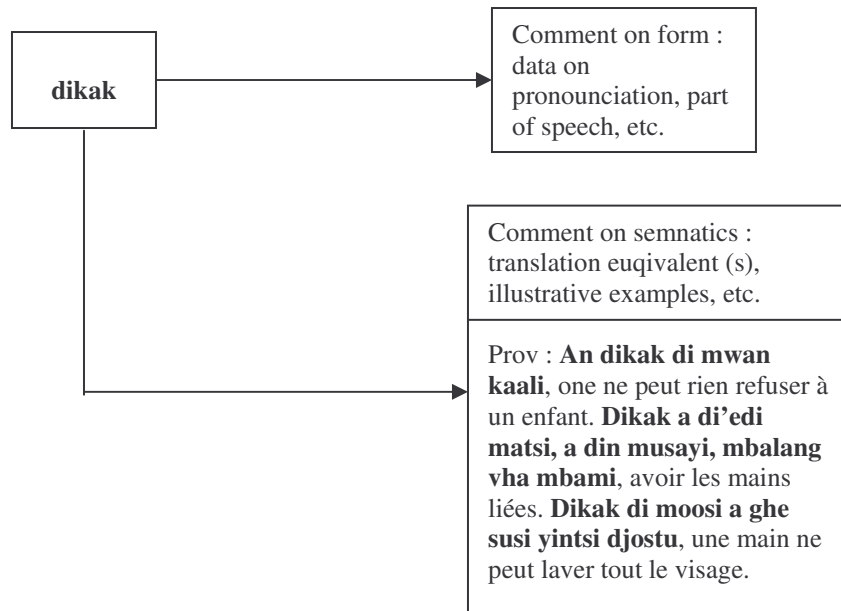
an **dikak** di mwan kaali “you cannot say no to someone”

dikak a di’edi matsi, a din musayi, mbalang vha mbami “to have one’s hands tied”

The user will expect to find such expressions under **didak** and if they are presented under another of the words that compose the expression, he/she might be lost in the consultation process. It is then the duty of the compilers to find a way to present adequate data to the user. This is one of the reasons why in most dictionaries, if idioms are treated in a separate zone attached to the article of the lemma representing the chosen headword, the choice of the headword and the arrangement within the zone is based on decisions regarding the part of speech. Idioms are usually entered under the first noun that compose

the idiom, e.g. **dikak** for the above given examples. The lexicographer has the freedom to decide which part of speech should prevail in the ordering. For the YFSD, the ordering within the zone should be done following the pattern: 2nd noun, 1st adjective, 1st verb, 1st adverb and/or 1st proposition. The pattern should be well explained in the front matter pages and it should be used consistently through the entire central list. In doing so, the compilers would help the user in their understanding and their interpretation of the given data. Consider the following example:

Ex10:



Because idioms are fully-fledged macrostructural elements, another way to treat them when entering them attached to the end of an article in a separate zone would be to arrange them in a nesting order. For collocations the inclusion process is easier because collocations are not multilexical lexical items but typical combinations to be included as cotext entries. Thus they are traditionally included in the dictionary as part of the microstructural elements in the treatment of one single lemma.

5. Macrostructural aspects for the YFSD

5. 1. General aspects

For lexicographers it is accepted that in compiling every dictionary, there must be accordance between the specific type of user group and their needs. The YFSD should thus focus on the satisfaction of the needs of its intended target users. The compilers of such a dictionary should also focus on the contribution that the YFSD could make in the teaching of the Yipunu language because it has the difficult task to supply the pupils with enough written knowledge in order for Yipunu to become more accessible. Being a monodirectional bilingual dictionary (Yipunu-French), the macrostructure of the YFSD should present language issues that are particular to the Yipunu language. It should also reflect the Yipunu language as it is spoken today in the pupils' environment. Therefore, it should include lexical creation newly introduced and adopted by the Bapunu community. Loan words should also be part of the lemma candidate list.

A multilingual range of pupils is supposed to use the YFSD but it is not intended to meet the needs of French speakers. It is for Yipunu speakers, and more precisely for Yipunu learners to acquire enough knowledge to be able to switch from an oral use of the language to a written use of the language. Its structure should constitute a bridge between the oral form of Yipunu and its written form. For that reason, macrostructural elements should primarily be chosen within the field of language teaching, and in a more general way within the field of education. It should include words concerning the different subject fields that are part of the education program of the schools.

Any dictionary must present in its lexicographic treatment the vocabulary and the orthography of the treated language as the speakers of that language use it. Yipunu would be the only treated language in the YFSD because the dictionary is aimed at pupils who are in the process of learning the Yipunu language. The learning process is based on the knowledge of French that the pupils have. They do not need to consult the dictionary to know the French translation equivalent, but they do need this type of data in Yipunu. Although it is not a comprehensive dictionary and because it is aimed at providing a norm of the Yipunu language, the YFSD should include notes on the usage of the Yipunu

language. It should also use Yipunu for illustrative purposes as well as giving pronunciation indicators within the front matter pages and the central list of the dictionary.

All pedagogical dictionaries have an important role to play when it comes to the standardisation of any language as well as its acquisition. They provide information on how to access the treated language. Bilingual pedagogical dictionaries are aimed at meeting the needs of the non-native speakers in the same way that they also make provision for helping the native speakers. Falling into that category, the function of the YFSD should be presented in a way that can satisfy the needs of both the pupils who have Yipunu as first language and the pupils who have French as first language (cf. Part2; Chapt1). For that reason it should be a polyfunctional dictionary. Its macrostructure should reflect the vocabulary of the Yipunu language that is employed in the teaching process, the translation equivalents of the subject taught in the education system, as well as items representing a bigger spectrum of the Yipunu lexicon. In that way the user can have access to a better and more comprehensive representation of Yipunu.

Furthermore, the compilation of the YFSD should respond to the lack of pedagogical material that is faced by most of the Gabonese local languages¹⁸. The fact that some of the pupils learning Yipunu live in an environment where they are in daily contact with both French and Yipunu, will have a great influence on the macrostructure and addressing structure in the dictionary articles of the YFSD. Because the macrostructural selection of lemmata and their treatment will be determined by the target users' profile, the YFSD should be designed in such a way that the model could be used as a pattern for the compilation of school dictionaries in the four other Gabonese languages used in teaching, namely Fang, Omyene, Inzebi and Lembaama.

¹⁸ While different sources exist in the field of grammar, linguistics and anthropology, there is only two bilingual dictionaries available for the Yipunu users. Those dictionaries are not accurate today although they constitute a good database for the compilation of Yipunu corpora.

5. 2. The challenges

The lexicographer(s) working on a dictionary like the YFSD have the difficult task to provide within the content of the dictionary a norm that can be taken as standard for the Yipunu language. The pupils who will use this specific dictionary are in a learning process and that emphasises the need for a standardised language. The situation may appear unpleasant or uncomfortable for the lexicographer, but it is compulsory to emphasise the prescriptive function of that dictionary. To be able to accomplish this difficult task, the lexicographer should enrich the macrostructure by including lexical items coming from sources that are different from the *Rapidolangue* series. In the present case, the two main bilingual dictionaries involving Yipunu and French (cf. 2.2.1, p147) should constitute a great source of data. It should help the compilers to build an appropriate corpus that, if lacking, could lead to a bad compilation process. Most of the local languages in Gabon have not yet been standardised. The non-standardisation of the Yipunu language constitutes a greater challenge for the lexicographer. For that reason he/she can only depend on existing lexicographical works while working on the compilation of a valuable corpus.

Another point that can be a hindrance to the quality of the YFSD is its typological status. Because it is a school dictionary, it should be restricted to a certain amount of data and to a certain amount of space. The lexicographer is confronted with the continuous worries of publishers about the product being sold, while he/she should look at the fact that the intended target users should be able to carry it in their school bags, without having the impression of carrying an enormous block of stone. The fact that the YFSD is a hybrid type of dictionary makes the lexicographer's task even thornier. Yet it should supply the user with a fair picture of the Yipunu language. The amount of data should be restricted but well presented and well designed in order to offer a fair transfer of linguistic data as well as to present the proper lexicological status and the proper semantic status of all lexical items.

The corpus built for the compilation of the YFSD should not be exhaustive in a sense where it should be compiled in order to serve as basis for the compilation of a larger

corpus of the Yipunu language. As small as it may be, this corpus should be well balanced, accurate and relevant. No corpora have been built for the Yipunu language. Some attempts to establish a Yipunu corpus are currently in process at the GRELACO. Due to the lack of effective corpora and due to the limited amount of written sources, the lexicographer working on the YFSD would have to do a pioneering work. Enlarging the corpus used in the compilation of this dictionary could lead to a bigger corpus of the Yipunu language. This would have the benefit of providing enough and relevant data for the compilation of other dictionary types such as standard monolingual dictionaries.

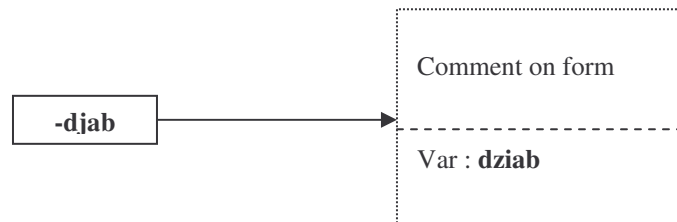
The compilation of a corpus does not imply that the lexicographer will have to use all the data incorporated in that corpus. The proposed dictionary is intended to be used in secondary school education system; therefore the selection of data to be included in that particular dictionary is restricted. The size of the dictionary and its macrostructure will highly depend on the amount of data incorporated. The lemmatisation process of that dictionary should be dealt with carefully in order for the lexicographer to use the space more efficiently, while providing valuable information for the consultation process. Inclusion based on frequency of use, and occurrence in the corpus could be an easy way to refine the selected amount of data within the broader guideline of the macrostructural elements chosen from the *Rapidolangue* series, the *Grammaire Pounoue et Lexique Pounou*, the *Dictionnaire Français-Yipounou/Yipounou-Français*, and the lexical items found in the school curriculum.

5. 3. The macrostructure

In order to satisfy the needs of its intended target user, the macrostructure of the YFSD will give a representation of the Yipunu spoken in the Ngounié province. It is the Yipunu treated in the *Rapidolangue* schoolbooks. Because of its authoritative role the dictionary should present this particular variety of Yipunu as standard variety. Yipunu is not a standardised language yet and the variety used in *Rapidolangue* can serve as a starting point in that process. The pupils are already familiar with that variety and it is the most

frequently spoken variety. But the other varieties will also be mentioned when necessary. They should be labelled and treated as synonyms for the lexicographer to convey the right lexicological information. According to the provinces where the Bapunu live, some words may be different. Those words can be considered as synonyms because they have the same meaning, they portray the same reality. Giving a lexicographic treatment to those types of lexical items would require the use of a cross-referencing system. In a school dictionary, cross-referencing can be confusing for the user especially if dictionary skills are still to be taught. I propose that orthographic variants used in different provinces should not be treated as separate macrostructural elements. The different forms should be given as variant forms of a given lemma. The chosen word will receive the full lexicographic treatment and its variant form will be given as part of the comment on form. The user will know where to find this type of data. Only the ones with a different spelling should qualify to appear in the alphabetical ordering of the main lemmata but with a limited lexicographic treatment.

Ex 11: **udjab/udziab**



The macrostructure of the YFSD should be relevant and representative enough for its intended target user to find the needed data. They should be able to recognise the language as it is taught and spoken in the classroom, but they should also be able to recognise it as it is spoken in their linguistic environment (at home and in the streets). In that regard, certain restrictions need to be taken into account for the inclusion of e.g. neologisms and slang words. The inclusion of loan words should be done in a more flexible way but with precaution in order for the dictionary to convey a standard form of

the Yipunu language. The words used e.g. in rap songs should not be part of the macrostructural elements included in the central list of a dictionary such as the YFSD. Those types of lexical items may be used in fashion and may not be included as part of the Yipunu lexicon because they would not have lasted or been used by the majority of Yipunu mother-tongue speakers. They can offend the common Yipunu mother-tongue speaker because he/she may not recognise them as “proper Yipunu”. The YFSD should be used in a classroom environment and this is not the proper zone for the treatment of such words. Including such lexical items in the structure of this particular dictionary could constitute a hindrance in the standardisation process of the Yipunu language.

5. 3. 1. Criteria for inclusion

For the inclusion of macrostructural elements in the YFSD, the lexicographer should take frequency of use as one of the major determining factors. However his intuition still plays an important role because the available sources are very old and Yipunu has observed massive growth and has changed over the years. Technical terms from various fields have been added to the language. New lexical items have been added to its lexicon due to the closeness of other local languages, and mainly because of its closeness to French. The Bapunu speakers living in Libreville and its periphery incorporate loan words for concepts inherited from the colonial time. For example, in Yipunu there are two lexical items for the translation of the word “socks”: (a) **idwaru yi ditambi** and (b) **bachoset/basoset**. The first form is a compound noun literally meaning, “clothes of the feet” while the second one comes from the French term **chaussette**. Nowadays the majority of Bapunu use the (b) form and form (a) is used by the older generation mostly in Tchibanga (Nyanga province). Form (b) is the most frequent form thus it should be included in the macrostructure of the YFSD. The lexicographer could give within the treatment of the article of that lemma a labelled indication of form (a). Another example that can be taken is the translation of the word “mech”. The Yipunu language has a form (a) **fofuru** and a form (b) **limet**. Form (a) comes from the Portuguese **phosporus** while form (b) comes from the French **allumette**. Form (b) appears to be the most commonly used and the best known by the pupils. The lexicographer should use a frequency list

from the corpus to help in the inclusion process. Yet as stated by Louw (2004: 31), frequency should not be the only determining factor and technical terms should be included in the dictionary, providing they are relevant to the target user market. In that approach, both less frequent form and frequent form are lemmatised. The lemmatisation of the less frequent form is done by means of a cross-reference to the frequent form.

Besides the lemma candidates taken from the corpus, the compilers of the YFSD should also identify specific fields or themes from which lemma candidates could be taken. For example, they could include cultural words coming from popular traditional songs, typical aspects of the life of the Bapunu, they could also include technical terms, sport terms especially football which is a national sport in Gabon and fashion, as they deal with young people. The compilers could also make use of words from popular radio and television programs. *Le Polyglote*, which is a program on the national radio, could serve that purpose¹⁹. The explanation behind the inclusion of such lexical items is found in the environment in which the pupils live. They hear and use those items in their daily life and in their school environment. For that reason they should be taken into account and they should be lemmatised. Names of traditional dances like **Bwiti** in the Tsogho community, **Mwiri** in the Apindji community and **Ndjembé** in the Myene community should also be lemmatised, as they are part of the Gabonese culture²⁰. Those types of items will have the same treatment as names of Yipunu traditional dances, such as **Nyemb**, **Mulombu**, **Ikoku**.

Part of the loan words to be included as macrostructural elements will be the names of foreign religions, names of public holidays that will be added along with the names of traditional events amongst the Mupunu community. The two dominant religions in Gabon are Christianity and Islam. The names of those religions as well as their respective holidays and events should be included as main lemmata in the macrostructure of the YFSD. In addition to those words, the macrostructure of the YFSD should also

¹⁹ *Le Polyglote* is a program where the presenter takes different sentences and invites listeners to translate from French into any of the Gabonese languages.

²⁰ Those dances are known by the average Gabonese population. Though they are initiation dances, all Gabonese can be initiated regardless the tribe to which they belong.

accommodate common abbreviations about international organisation like **FMI**, **ONU**, **NEPAD**, **FIFA**, etc. Those abbreviations are part of the curriculum of the pupils thus they should be taken into account as macrostructural elements. Here follow some examples of lexical items for inclusion:

Ex 12

muper	“ a priest”
noel	“Christmas”
paak	“Easter”
komini	“holy communion”
ilumbu yi tab	“Ramadan”

5. 3. 2. Dialectal and regional varieties

A lexicographer wears a double-faced cap while working on a dictionary. Even if he/she claims that his job description is purely descriptive; the prescriptive part is intrinsic to the nature of dictionaries. Whether the lexicographer likes it or not, he will prescribe a certain norm through his reference work. Furthermore, the authoritative position of a dictionary gives the lexical items included in the macrostructure the right to be used by the community. The users tend to take every word that is presented in a dictionary as the “right word”. If one wants to check the spelling of a word, the dictionary is the source of reference. The same fact exists for the finding of a sense, a meaning, and a definition. Through dictionaries, words are accepted or rejected in a faster way than the natural process of language dynamics will do. This also goes for different varieties.

One of the challenges of the lexicographer in deciding on lemma candidates regards the occurrence of dialectal and regional varieties. For a better understanding of the concept of dialectal varieties, it is important to highlight the difference between dialectal varieties and regional varieties. The dialectal varieties refer to the variation of a language that is spoken in two or more different countries (i.e. South African English and Australian English; Canadian French and French spoken in France). The regional varieties on the contrary refer to the variations of a language that are spoken in different regions of the

same country (Afrikaans spoken in the Western Cape province and Afrikaans spoken in Gauteng province, or American English spoken in California and American English spoken in Texas). For the Gabonese situation the lexicographer will have to deal only with regional varieties. It will concern mostly the varieties found in the two provinces where Yipunu is frequently spoken: The Ngounié province and the Nyanga province. On the other hand, varieties spoken in the Estuaire province should be taken into account in a more extended part because it is the Yipunu that prevails in the classroom due to its geographical situation. The Rapidolangue programme is run in Libreville, which is in the Estuaire province. The Yipunu speech community there does not speak the same Yipunu that was taken as example for the compilation of the schoolbooks. They do speak a mix of both dominant Yipunu varieties because Bapunu that live in that province come from both the Ngounié and Nyanga provinces.

The significance of the treatment of regional varieties in the compilation of the YFSD is far beyond the fact that they need to be presented. In the Gabonese case, the lexicographic treatment of such a type of data is to provide a norm, a certain standard form to the pupils. Therefore it is of great importance that the lexicographer uses the corpus and the frequency of appearance in order to give a fair lexicographic treatment in the dictionary, as well as the right information for the target users. The frequency and occurrence of the different varieties should be tested with the Yipunu speakers and the written sources on Yipunu.

Presenting a list of regional varieties in the back matter of the proposed dictionary will have the benefit to help the lexicographer to avoid using too many synonyms within the central list. The use of synonyms and homonyms when done in an arbitrary way can add to the confusion during the consultation process. In other words, when metalexicographical principles are not fully applied, the user is left with the choice of the different forms to use. In the case of a dictionary such as the YFSD the knowledge that the users have about Yipunu cannot allow them to make such a decision. In the classroom, the pupils are supplied with information corresponding to their current level

of knowledge. They need assistance in knowing which form to take while encoding poems, or texts from storybooks.

Regional varieties can be divided into categories. The inclusion of those varieties into the macrostructure of the YFSD will depend on their categorisation. Most of them are spelling differences of the same lexical item, and depending on the degree of their spelling, two major categories are distinguished.

- ✓ The first category concerns lexical items with small spelling differences. Those items should not be treated as separate headwords thus they should not be included as separate macrostructural elements. They do not require a new lexicographic treatment and their lexicological status remains the same as the lexical item chosen as headword. When necessary, they should directly follow the main lemma and be properly labelled.

Ex 13 In the comment on form

ntsil	“the way”	ntzil
djami	“mine”	dzjami/diami
udibigh	“to close”	utsibigh

- ✓ When lexical variation gives another word for the same reality, thus providing a relation of synonymy, the concerned lexical item can either be presented as headword with cross-referencing to the form that will receive a full lexicographic treatment, or it could be treated within the article slot under the chosen form. Both approaches require a proper labelling system from the lexicographer. In that case, cross-reference articles may be necessary. Here follows some examples.

Ex 14

Ngounié

Nyanga

musenfu

“banana”

mwisi

mughum/ mulembu

“cassava”

ikwang

As Yipunu has not been standardised yet, there is no need for the proposed model to include in its macrostructure, stylistically labelled variations such as informal and colloquial forms unless some words do have such restrictions. On the other hand, the environment in which the YFSD will be used is not a good place for the use of such types of lexical items. They should not have a frequent occurrence in this particular dictionary.

For the regional variation to be presented in a non-arbitrary way, the lexicographer should be as consistent as possible in his lexicographic treatment. Consistency in the presentation of the lexicographic treatment has the benefit to help the user not to get confused during the consultation process. Therefore, the inclusion of regional data as macrostructural elements in the structure of the YFSD should be well labelled.

6. Conclusion

The role of the macrostructure of the YFSD is to ensure communicative and pedagogical features. It should fulfil the genuine purpose of that dictionary that is to function, in a multilingual classroom environment, as a tool to aid in the linguistic empowerment of both mother-tongue speakers and non-mother-tongue speakers of Yipunu. For that reason, the compilers of such a dictionary have the responsibility to provide an easy and understandable lemmatisation procedure. Any pattern used in the compilation process of such a dictionary should be well designed, well explained and dealt with in a consistent way in order to avoid any confusion during the consultation process. Any inconsistency from the lexicographer’s side concerning the treatment of data and the inclusion of macrostructural elements can appear detrimental to the user-friendliness purpose of the

dictionary. The inclusion procedure thus should be taken carefully and efficiently to meet the requirement of user-friendliness principles. The compilers of such a dictionary should work with sound metalexigraphic procedures. Yet they should try to innovate while accommodating those principles to the Yipunu language context. They should find new ways of dealing with stems, affixes, sublemmata, dialectal varieties, technical lexical words, homonyms, etc. The new ways should be able to follow the conventional metalexigraphical inclusion policy while making sure that the chosen principles correspond to the Yipunu language linguistic situation. At the same time they should not lose sight of the needs of the intended target users. Such an approach will have the benefit of improving Gabonese lexicography and setting a good policy for the compilation of other school dictionaries with local Gabonese languages as treated languages.

CHAPTER THREE: MICROSTRUCTURAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENVISAGED BILINGUAL YIPUNU FRENCH SCHOOL DICTIONARY

1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, I looked at the organisation within the macrostructure of the proposed model. The role of the macrostructure of the particular dictionary as well as its microstructure is to ensure both communicative and pedagogical success because the main goal of the dictionary is to function as communicative and pedagogical tool to aid in the linguistic empowerment of both types of learners of Yipunu, namely the children having Yipunu as first language, and the children having French as first language. This chapter will focus on the microstructure of the YFSD. In addition, a look at concepts such as the micro-architecture, the access structure as well as the concept of the mediostructure will follow.

2. General aspects

The microstructure of any dictionary is the place where the user should find all the data concerning the lemma sign. It is where the questions concerning certain lexical items (may it be pronunciation, spelling, translation equivalent, definition etc) should be answered. Thus, the microstructure of a particular dictionary should be well designed and well structured. The particular design should be based on sound theoretical and user-friendly principles. The microstructure of a dictionary such as the YFSD should be as clear and simple as possible in order to avoid any confusion during the consultation process. The user should be able to have an immediate and understandable access to the needed data. For a dictionary such as this, an accessible user-friendly microstructure will help in transferring data in a more rapid and easy way.

2. 1. Different types of microstructures

In order to present the user with a good and relevant microstructure, the first step that the lexicographer should follow is to carefully devise the nature of the microstructure as part of the dictionary conceptualisation plan. There are different types of microstructures according to the nature of the dictionary and the type of data to be included, e.g:

- An integrated microstructure (cf. Hausmann and Wiegand 1989)
- A non-integrated microstructure (cf. Hausmann and Wiegand 1989)
- A semi-integrated microstructure (cf. Wiegand 1996)
- A primitive microstructure (cf. Gouws and Wiegand to appear)
- A rudimentary microstructure (cf. Hausmann and Wiegand 1989)

The decision regarding the type of microstructure corresponds with the decision regarding the typology of the dictionary to be compiled and the needs and reference skills of the users. The data distribution process should make provision not only for the macrostructure of the dictionary, but it should also guide the choice of microstructural elements. For the present dissertation, the focus will be on three of the different types of microstructures, namely the integrated microstructure, the non-integrated microstructure and the semi-integrated microstructure.

- In an integrated microstructure, there is a direct link between data inside the comment on semantics. Inside a single subcomment on semantics there will be a direct link between what is known as the co-text (e.g. illustrative examples) and the translation equivalent (in bilingual dictionaries) and/or the paraphrase of meaning (in monolingual dictionaries). In other words, the co-text directly addresses the translation equivalents without the user encountering any obstacle (Gouws 2001). By using an integrated microstructure, the lexicographer gives the illustrative examples directly after the translation equivalent. That means that for a specific lemma, if there is more than one translation equivalent, each of them, depending on lexical or semantic divergence, will be followed by an illustrative example that will be provided to support the user to correctly choose and interpret

the given data. Because there is no separation between the translation equivalents and the illustrative examples, the user is able to easily retrieve the needed information. Although it may seem space consuming (especially when the dictionary offers the treatment of polysemous lexical items), the presentation of an integrated microstructure is less compact and less condensed, and it considerably facilitates the consultation process. Here follows examples of an integrated microstructure used in the FISDSA:

Ex 1

great *adjective* (**greater, greatest**)

1. very big in size, number, or amount, a lot of: *4 is greater than*
2. *A great crowd filled the streets to see the rugby players go past. The donkey broke its leg and is in great pain.* **2** important, or famous: *He became a great leader, but he never forgot how ordinary people live.*

guard

1 verb (**guards, guarding, guarded**)

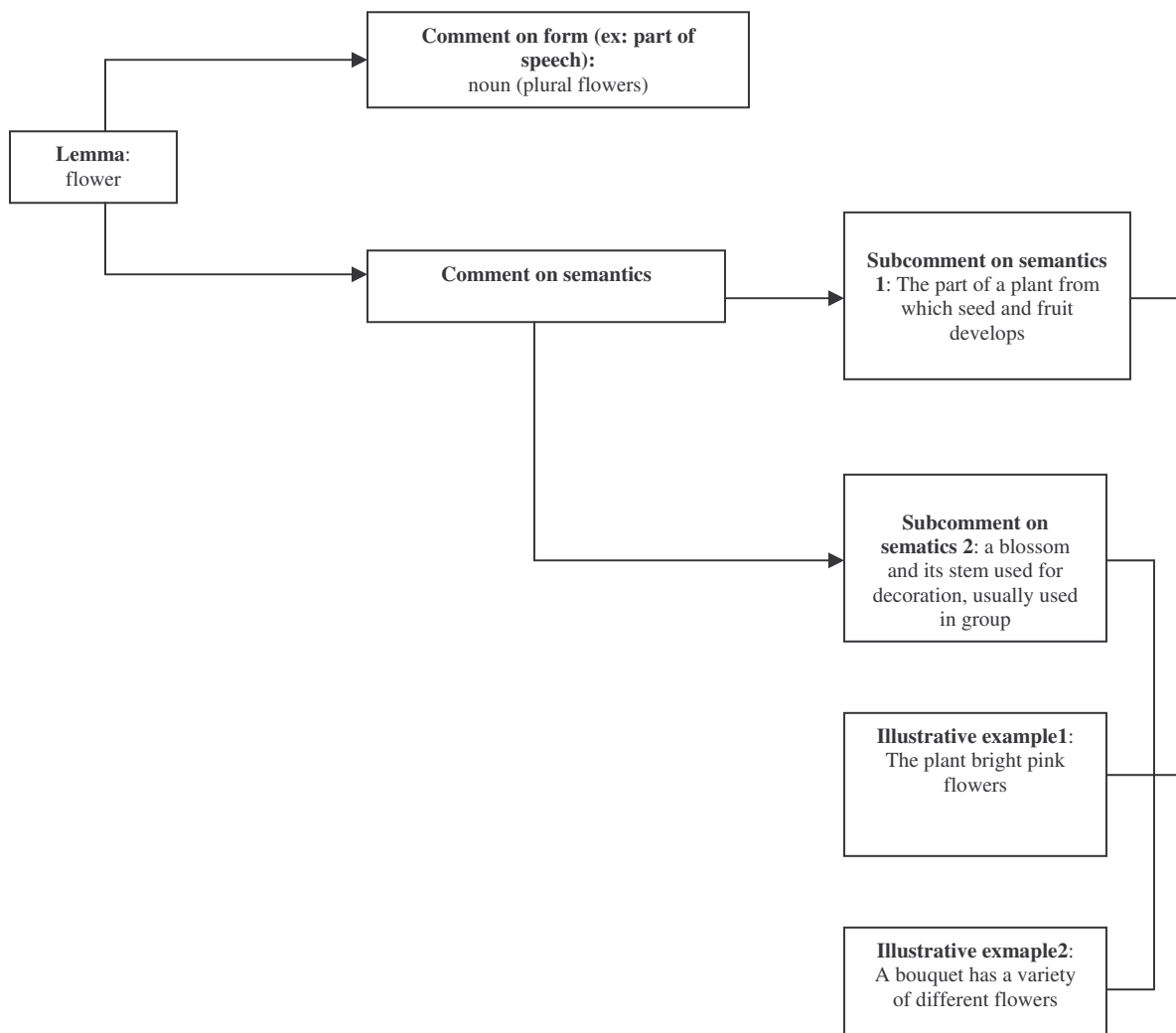
to make sure that someone or something stays safe, to protect: *They bought a dog to guard the house and keep away burglars.*

2 noun a person whose job is to make sure that someone or something stays safe: *The four guards stood next to the president's car to protect the president.*

- Unlike the integrated microstructure, a non-integrated microstructure offers a presentation where some of the data inside the comment on semantics is presented in a separate text block. The co-text will be presented not in the same subcomment on semantics as an entry directly after the translation equivalent or the paraphrase of meaning. Whether it is a bilingual dictionary or monolingual

dictionary, a non-integrated microstructure has the disadvantage of making the microstructure of the dictionary heavy. It hinders the access structure of that dictionary in a sense where the user has to go through the entire article slot to be able to find the co-text linked to a particular translation equivalent or a paraphrase of meaning. This task is even thornier when users are dealing with polysemous lexical items. In a bilingual dictionary for example, it would be more difficult for the user to know what example goes with a particular translation equivalent. Thus the lexicographer would have failed in his/her task of facilitator. This procedure is also called distant addressing.

Ex 2: pattern of how a non-integrated microstructure could look like



- A semi-integrated microstructure is a combination of an integrated microstructure and a non-integrated microstructure, and it assists the user with regard to both decoding and encoding needs. The integrated component is directed at a decoding function whereas the non-integrated component is directed at the encoding function (Afane, 2004). For a school dictionary the semi-integrated approach is less desirable. It requires more experienced dictionary skills from the users. There are not yet examples of a semi-integrated microstructure as Wiegand (1996) mentioned that it would be difficult for the lexicographer to design a dictionary with such a microstructure because it requires a high level of dictionary skills.

As it is possible to have a macrostructure in the outer text section (front and/or back matter texts), it is also possible to have microstructure(s) outside the central list. In the case of the YFSD, the register of Yipunu translation equivalents found in the back matter text will constitute the microstructure of that section. This is true when we consider the microstructure as being a set of ordered data that follows the lemma. As mentioned in Chapter one of this part of the dissertation, the back matter texts of the proposed model should have a list of all the lexical items entered as translation equivalents in the central list. This list will show a record of the French translation equivalents with their respective Yipunu forms to accommodate the users. The selections of those lemmata represent the macrostructure of that section and the microstructure will be limited to the Yipunu words included as lemmata in the central list, with no further lexicographic treatment. For the proposed model, the reference to the microstructure will only focus on the central list because a back matter text with equivalent registers typically displays a rudimentary article structure composed of reference articles.

The microstructure of a dictionary should be able to set out data that can clarify the encoding process in which the learner is engaged. A clear and simple presentation of the semantic data within the microstructure of a dictionary such as the YFSD is a prerequisite for an effective consultation procedure. The relevance and effectiveness of the transferred semantic data should be one of the major points that lexicographers should focus on

because the search for data on semantics is the most frequent motivation for dictionary consultation situations (Louw, 2004:64). Lexicographers should also have a meticulous presentation of data on pronunciation, grammatical data, morphological data, and spelling in order for the dictionary to adequately fulfil its communicative function and its pedagogical goals. The dictionary should be able to transfer data in such a way that it responds to both the encoding and the decoding needs of the users (Mabika Mbokou, 2002).

2. 2. The data to be included

The data included in an article structure of a dictionary can be divided into two major categories, namely the comment on form and the comment on semantics. The comment on form will concern data such as orthography, spelling, data on pronunciation, data on morphology and data on grammar. The comment on semantics will refer to various types of data that are determined by the type of dictionary to be compiled. According to the typology of the dictionary to be compiled the prevailing semantic data should include the paraphrase of meaning for monolingual dictionaries, and translation equivalents for bilingual dictionaries.

Microstructural elements include various types of data such as semantic data, lexical data, historical data, encyclopaedic data, pragmatic data and cultural data. Depending on the typology of the dictionary, and most of all on the needs of the user and the level of knowledge they have of the treated language, microstructural items representing those classes will be included or not. For the present model, data on semantics should be the main focus. Yipunu is taught as foreign language and therefore pronunciation has a vital place in the teaching. In 90% of their daily conversation, the intended target users do not speak Yipunu. For that reason more emphasis should be put on pronunciation and a considerable amount of lexicographic treatment should be given to spelling. Data on pronunciation should have an important treatment to complement the use of the schoolbooks and study material.

Because the goals in teaching Yipunu are for the pupils to be able to produce texts (write and read in Yipunu along with their daily communication), another prominent data type to be included in the YFSD should concern the illustrative examples and the usage notes. As their vocabulary will be increasing during the classes, the pupils will encounter words they should be able to use in context. Grammatical and morphological data will be presented with a limited lexicographic treatment, since it will be implemented by the mini-grammar presented in the front matter pages. The central list will present the articles with the lexicographic treatment of the part of speech, the nominal classes, the translation equivalents, and the illustrative examples. Polysemous senses, collocations, as well as pictorial illustrations will also be part of that presentation.

3. The micro-architecture

The design of the YFSD should also provide room for the compilers to know how to structure the data inside the article of the dictionary. All elements included in the microstructure should be arranged in such a way that it allows a successful and easy consultation process. The user of a dictionary such as the YFSD should be able to find his/her way without encountering any obstacle. In order to do so, the compilers should provide a well-designed micro-architecture.

Because the target users are pupils, it is important that the font used is as clear as possible. Also, the spacing used between the different microstructural elements should be carefully chosen and not done in an arbitrary way. For the design of the micro-architecture, and to avoid any confusion between different types of microstructural elements, the compilers could make use of conventional markers such as comas (,), semi-colons (;), double space, etc. In the case of the YFSD, data such as synonyms could be preceded by a semi-colon (;) marking the end of the previous search area, while the regional variety could be introduced by a colon (:), marking the end of the previous search

area. The compilers could also have the choice to use a double space to separate the main lemma from the translation equivalent and the data on pronunciation.

Ex 3 in the FISDSA

low adjective (lower, lowest)

1 going up only a short way from the bottom to the top, not high, not tall, not far from the ground: *There was a low table in the room. The garden had a row of low bushes.*

2 not much, less than usual: *Food does not cost much here. The prices are low.*

3 near the bottom of a musical scale, near the bottom of the set of notes which the human ear can hear: *A man can sing this song better because it has some very low notes in it.*

In the given example, the different senses of the lemma “low” are introduced by a numerical arabic indicator while inside that text block, the compilers presented each subsense by differentiating them by the use of a comma. The colon (:) is there to mark the division between the paraphrase of meaning and the illustrative examples. For the YFSD to satisfy the need of its intended target user, standard arabic numerical indicators should be used. In the same way, each new sense should be presented in a new line rather than being presented in a random way like it is presented in the given article (cf. appendix).

4. The access structure of the YFSD

The access structure of any dictionary presents the search route a user follows to reach an entry in a dictionary (Gouws, 2001:88). It does not only refer to the central list of the dictionary because a user should be able to have access to the data throughout the frame

structure. The access structure can be divided as follows (Hausmann and Wiegand 1989, Gouws 2001).

- The outer access structure: It presents the search route that directs the user from the information found on the cover of the dictionary up to the lemma.
- The inner access structure: In that section, the lemma sign is the starting point. The search route leads the user within the article slot of a given lemma. The inner access structure often concerns microstructural elements while the outer access structure covers elements from the outer text (front and back matter) to the macrostructure. For Gouws (2001:89) a well-devised inner access structure is characterised by the use of lexicographic conventions to assist the user on the search route.

The structure of any dictionary should be presented in such a way that it accommodates the data that could easily be retrieved by the users. The success of a consultation process is linked to the rapid access to the needed data. The knowledge that the user has about the language leads him/her to consult the dictionary in an intuitive way. This is the reason why I find it important to stress the relevance of accessing data within the dictionary article (the inner access structure). If done in a rigorous way, by knowing the alphabet of a specific language, it is possible, and sometimes quite easy, for the user to retrieve a word he/she is looking for. Finding information about that word is another story. He/she may have to go through an entire jungle of data before actually finding the needed entry. It is another journey for him/her and it is the duty of the lexicographer to draw an accessible, rapid and understandable search route. The lexicographer must make sure that after finding the word (the lemma sign), the user is not confused. This can be verified, more particularly when lexicographers deal with dictionaries that have to meet the needs of learners of 2nd and/or 3rd language(s). The compilers of the YFSD should therefore be careful in the lexicographic treatment of microstructural elements.

All microstructural elements must be presented in a consistent pattern. That pattern should avoid any confusion because the search route during the consultation process goes far beyond the alphabetical order found in the macrostructure of the dictionary. In other words, when it comes to looking for information, the search does not come to its end at the moment the relevant form has been located in the alphabetical list (Bogaards, 1999:114). For the user to easily retrieve the needed information, the lexicographic treatment of microstructural elements must reflect certain principles, meticulously respected. For that reason, I agree with Bogaards (1999:115) when he says that locating the form [in a dictionary] does not always suffice: in very many cases it is necessary to go in the body of an article in order to find out which element may lead to semantic information that is looked for. Hence, all the data included in a dictionary should be organised in a way that allows an easy search route, especially in longer articles.

To be able to supply an easy and rapid access structure, the compilers of the YFSD can use conventional lexicographic structural indicators. The two types often used are typographical and non-typographical indicators. The compilers must explain any procedure in the front matter pages and make sure that those indicators convey a message that meet the level of dictionary skills of the intended target users. In the section concerning the microstructure of the YFSD, I will provide examples of the type of indicators that could be used for an access structure that could facilitate the consultation process of the target users.

5. The mediostructure

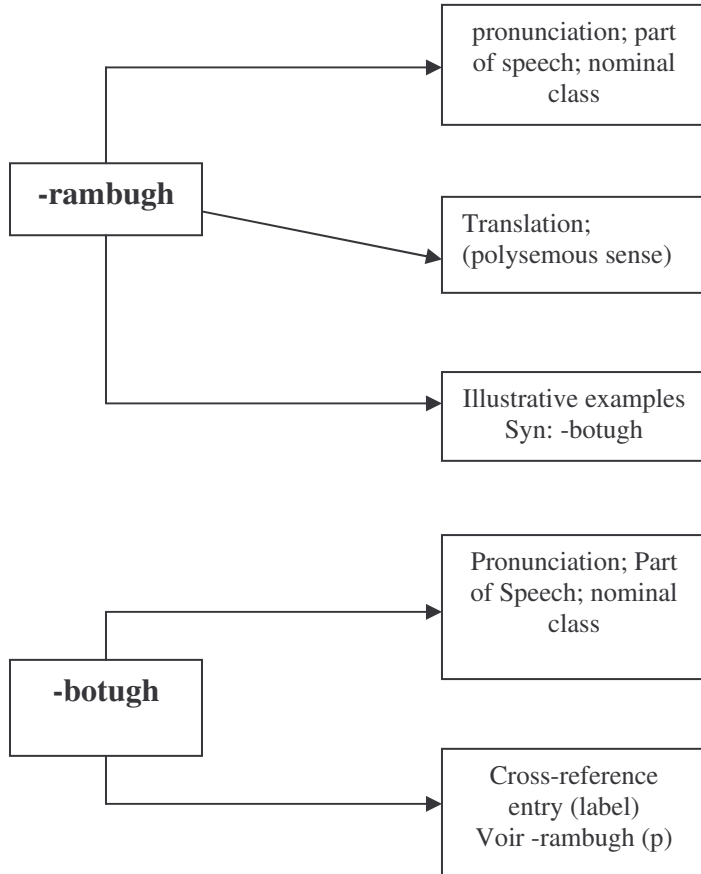
The mediostructure is a system of cross-referencing employed in a dictionary to lead a user from one entry to another (Gouws, 2001:91). To put the user at ease and to stick to the user-friendliness feature of the dictionary, the compilers of the YFSD should facilitate the cross-referencing process by means of identification markers. A use of identification markers could direct the user to the right form. We must remember that cross-referencing

can often mean that the user has to go look for information in another zone of the same article slot or in a zone outside the article. The cross-reference can mean going to another lemma, thus another page or letter. This is the reason why, if not done properly, using cross-referencing in a school dictionary can be a hindrance in retrieving the information. A user of a school dictionary often responds negatively to cross-referencing because it often implies more complicated dictionary consultation procedures and more dictionary skills. For the YFSD, a combination of cross-reference markers such as a double arrow, single arrow etc, with a system of cross-referencing based on indicating the page number (double address entry) should be used. By using that combination, the user would have a more rapid access to the other entry. However, the use of a system where the cross-references are from one entry to another entry outside the article (external cross-referencing) should prevail. It has the advantage of using a less confusing system by allowing them cross-referencing from and in the central list.

With the use of a well-designed mediostructure, it will be possible for the compilers of the YFSD to accommodate data such as regional varieties. In Yipunu, like in most of the Gabonese languages, there are words expressing the same linguistic reality but it is done differently according to the province in which Yipunu is spoken. It is the duty of the lexicographer to enter such data in the macrostructure. The microstructural treatment of those lexical items would be the same if all of them have to be given an extensive lexicographic treatment. The word **ubotugh** and the word **urambugh** are both used to say “to move away”. If a Yipunu speaker comes from Tchibanga he/she will say **ubotugh**. If he/she comes from Mouilla he/she will use **urambugh**. The most common word used is **urambugh** because it is used in most of the provinces where Yipunu is spoken. The people of Moabi and Ndindi are part of the Nyanga province like the people of Tchibanga and they all use **urambugh**. In the other provinces where Yipunu is spoken (Ngounié, Ogooué Maritime and Estuaire), it is also **urambugh** that is used. Even though the compiler could use further studies, it appears that **urambugh** should be the lemma that receives the full lexicographic treatment while **ubotugh** will be entered and treated by means of a cross-reference. Many lexical items will have to receive a similar treatment. The compilers should rely on frequency of usage when deciding on the

lexicographic treatment. The full treatment should be given to the most frequently used form. Following such an approach will help the compilers in a way that they will not have to repeat the same data.

Ex 4



The mediostucture here will present the cross-reference entry “Voir **-rambugh**” supported by the given page number (**p**). The information needed by the user at this point of the consultation process is more of a general nature. He/she will learn that here is a word used by the Bapunu of Tchibanga. It is just additional information.

Another procedure of the mediostructure is to cross-refer from the central list to the back or front matter texts. Cross-referencing can lead to the retrieval of additional grammatical information or other information. The compilers can provide a way of cross-referring the user to the front matter text for a detailed explanation. If we take the example of **-botugh**, the compilers can refer the user to the back matter where information about the specific dialectal variety could be provided. Because of the level of knowledge of the target users, the compilers should not use many mediostructural procedures. The compilers should make sure that the cross-referencing system is used sparingly through the entire dictionary. They should also make sure that the users correctly understand the system they use. It should be explained in the front matter pages of the dictionary because as stated by Gouws (2001: 91) the mediostructure needs to be devised and executed in such a way that the user can interpret the instruction in an unambiguous way.

6. The microstructure of the YFSD

Due to its hybrid genre, the microstructure of the YFSD should combine features of a monolingual dictionary with those of a bilingual dictionary, especially for decoding tasks like reading. It is not the case with the present model. The degree of hybridness of the envisaged dictionary does not allow the inclusion of definitions in the dictionary. According to the stage of the learning process in which the pupils are involved, it is not of any interest for them to include definitions in the microstructure of the dictionary. As demonstrated in Chapt 1 of Part two, the intended users of the YFSD will be looking for translations and for a way to be able to use them in communication. The written part will be acquired to emphasise the exercises and help in the standardisation of Yipunu.

The dictionary as a whole can have different types of microstructures. Depending on the data to be included, the lexicographer can have the choice of using one of the five major types mentioned in section 2. 1., or he/she can decide to use a combination of different types at different levels of the compilation. Before the compilation process, the

lexicographer should make sure that the obligatory microstructure of the specific dictionary is known. In his/her choice he/she will be guided by the typology of the dictionary, therefore, for the proposed model, the obligatory microstructure would have to include part of speech, pronunciation, and grammatical and morphological data. The main data would be the translation equivalents and the illustrative examples as no definition will be required.

The distinction between integrated, non-integrated and semi-integrated microstructure lies on the distribution of the data and the structuring of search zones inside the comment on semantics. Being a pedagogical dictionary, the compilers of the YFSD should adopt an integrated microstructure. Semi-integrated microstructures and non-integrated microstructures alike require more advanced dictionary using skills from the user. Considering the age of the intended target user of that dictionary and the lack of dictionary culture, one can say that the users of the YFSD are among the less experienced users. In addition to that, a semi-integrated microstructure is more suitable for comprehensive dictionaries and general standard dictionaries (Gouws 2001). For the YFSD the use of such a structure could hinder the simplicity of the metalanguage of the dictionary. At the same time it would make the dictionary less user-friendly.

The microstructure of the YFSD should be as practical and simple as possible. Because the lexicographer working on such a dictionary deals with school children (8-17), he /she should try to use identification markers that will simplify the structure of the dictionary and provide a good and easy access route to the needed data. Due to the pedagogical function of that dictionary, the indicators should be presented in such a way that they will facilitate the consultation process. The fact that the users are learners of Yipunu, while having a well-established knowledge of French, should lead to an inclusion of microstructural elements that provides data on Yipunu rather than French. French here should only concern the translation equivalents, the translation of the illustrative examples and special blocks concerning cultural data and/or usage notes.

All the patterns used to accommodate the data included in the microstructure of the YFSD should be consistent and well explained in advance in the front matter pages. The compilers there should use a cross-referencing system from and in the front matter pages towards the central list. Such a procedure has the benefit to complement the access structure of the dictionary. Any innovation may be taken in order to put the user at ease. However, those innovations should go along with each level of the *Rapidolangue* series. For the younger group of users (6^{ème}-5^{ème}), the use of drawings and pictorial illustrations could be a good way to complement the translation equivalents especially when it comes to lexical items concerning Yipunu culture.

The microstructure of the YFSD is not there to serve as a solution for a problem in which a user faces an unknown word, an unknown sense and/or an unknown meaning. Because no dictionary as such has been compiled for pupils learning Yipunu, its microstructure should present details on data related to general lexical items used by the pupils. Those items include both vocabulary found in the school environment of the pupils, and in their daily familial environment. The users of that specific dictionary will come to consult the dictionary to acquire both written knowledge and communicative features of Yipunu rather than French. Therefore, emphasis should be put on translation equivalents, spelling, and illustrative examples. Such data should serve as support for the different polysemous senses and synonyms. Because non-Yipunu speakers are part of the learning programme, data on grammar and on pronunciation will be there to accommodate the polyfunctionality of the dictionary.

6. 1. Polysemous senses

For school dictionaries in general, it is important to distinguish between homonymy and polysemy. Homonymy has been dealt with in the previous chapter on macrostructure. The focus here will be on polysemy. Senses of polysemous lexical items must be

demarcated in the different subcomments on semantics of a single article, preferably by means of a clear, unique system of indication.

In the practice of dictionary making, polysemous lexical items are presented with standard arabic numerical indicators while the super scripted arabic numeral is used to mark homonyms and/or homographs. For the purpose of the YFSD, the compilers should take into consideration the level of dictionary culture of the users. As such, they should focus the lexicographic treatment of polysemous lexical items on indicators that could contribute to a rapid access of the needed data. The compilers have the choice to stick to the lexicographic convention or to innovate, making sure that the innovations regarding sense indication enhance the user-friendliness of the dictionary. A condensed and complex article slot could lead to a confusing consultation and is likely to give the dictionary a repulsive image because the user would have a long and complicated search route to follow. That will be going against the user-friendliness principles dear to all metalexigraphers. In addition to that, children are easily distracted, especially when it comes to looking for something. Consulting a dictionary is not often a joyful expedition for them. As a result, presenting a compact text where it is difficult to find one's way could confirm the repulsive feeling they often have towards dictionaries.

6. 1. 1. French spoken in Gabon

The default comment on semantics for the purpose of the present model will only consist of translation equivalents and illustrative examples. Some cultural data can be added to the microstructural elements when necessary to focus on the difference between the treated languages. The usage note of the cultural data will only concern restricted senses. That restricted usage will only be about the Yipunu culture and the type of French spoken in Gabon.

The role of any bilingual dictionary is to provide by means of lexical items, translation equivalents that could help the user to read or create text in an unknown language. But, like Hartmann and James (1998:14) say, finding suitable lexical equivalents is a

notoriously difficult task, especially in pairs of languages with different cultures. That is the reason why it is necessary to present the treatment of equivalents of French spoken only in the Gabonese context. By giving a lexicographic treatment of those items, the YFSD will, in a way, reduce the cultural gap between the two languages. Furthermore, the reality faced by the learners need to be taken into account, and French spoken in Gabon should be accommodated in that particular dictionary. In other words, the lexicographer should make provision for the inclusion of Gabonese French in the list of equivalents found in both the central list and the back matter pages. Not only what is called “bon français” should be taken as translation equivalents.

6. 1. 1. 1. Sub-division of senses

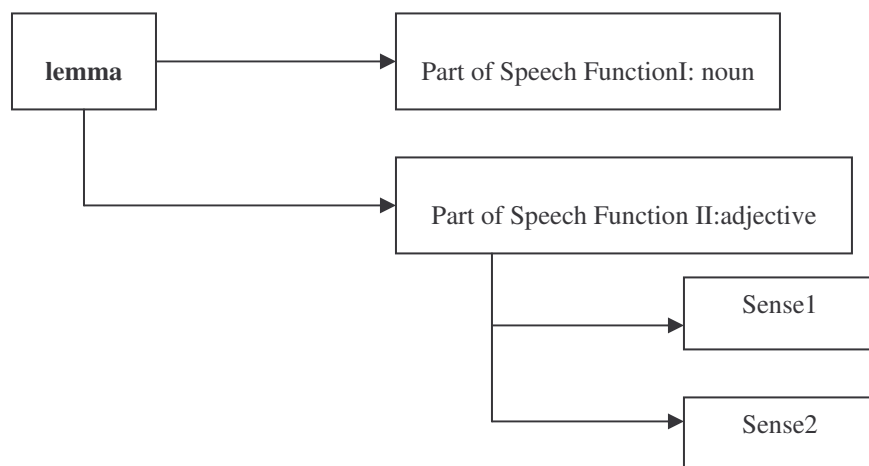
Many vocabulary items are polysemous, and it is one of the chief functions of the general dictionary to distinguish between them, by means of definitions, synonyms or examples (Hartmann & James 1998: 110). In the case of the YFSD it is the duty of the lexicographer to give a distinction between the different polysemous senses by means of different equivalents and illustrative examples. In the efforts of simplifying the content of the dictionary it is advisable that the YFSD should not present subdivisions on polysemous senses. In the same way, the semantic relation between the different senses will be the criteria for the ordering of the senses. It is preferable that the compilers of that dictionary use an approach that goes from the most direct sense to the most semantically related one. In that way a combination of logical and usage frequency order will be the way to go. About sense-subdivisions Louw (2004:69) states that an overuse of sense-subdivision could unnecessarily complicate a pedagogical dictionary's structure, which should rather be kept as easily understandable as possible. I agree with that point because the YFSD is a monodirectional bilingual dictionary that does not offer any definitions. If the compilers include sub-sense subdivisions, it could lead to a confusing system where the balance between the articles could be broken and the structure of those articles would be too complex and too condensed because of too much data included. Users should clearly know what to expect in the presentation of the different subcomments on semantics. Compare the following article:

Ex 5 FISDSA

green
1 *noun* the colour of fresh grass
2 *adjective* being the colour green:
Peas and beans are green
vegetables. Plants often have green
leaves. **3** *adjective* not ripe: *Eating*
green peaches will make your
stomach sore.

In this example, there is confusion between part of speech functions and the senses. This can be problematic because the user cannot know whether there is a division of senses or not. For example, the user may not be able to recognise in the different illustrative examples that it is a different sense attached to entry 1 and 2. The compilers could have followed the following pattern:

Ex 6 For the YFSD (cf. appendix p252)

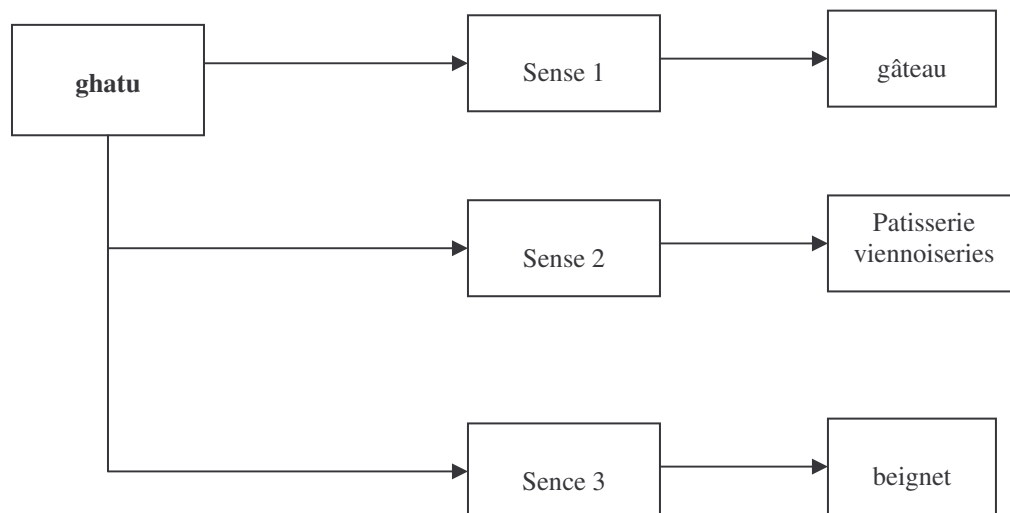


6. 1. 1. 2. Semantic divergence and lexical divergence

6. 1. 1. 2. 1. Semantic divergence

Another point to focus on should be the fact that in polysemy, there is divergence in the equivalent relation of the paired languages. Divergence is the rendering of a word in one language by two or more words in the other language (Hartmann & James, 1998:45). There are two major types of divergence: the lexical divergence which is when the translation equivalents in the target language are all synonyms and semantic divergence seen in a situation where the lemma sign represents a polysemous lexical item (Gouws 2002). For the YFSD, a possible approach would be that the compilers accommodate both equivalent relations of divergence in the dictionary. Due to the hybrid genre of the model, and for a clearer presentation of polysemous senses, the two types of divergence need to be distinguished unambiguously in order to present the right relation between the lemma and the translation equivalents.

Ex 6: semantic divergence in YFSD



One of the attributes of a dictionary is to give users a range of data to increase their knowledge. It has a significant influence on the way people speak. So, whoever the user is, he/she will find help in a dictionary, whether it is in an encoding or a decoding process. Dubois & Dubois (1971) stated that dictionaries permit words, constructions and senses, by integrating them into the use of the community. The dictionary gives them the right to exist. In the same way, it condemns words by rejecting their use. This statement refers to the prescriptive part of dictionaries. As keeper of the norm of the language, dictionaries are also used in a pedagogical function. In this case, the lexicographer can be regarded as a grammarian or a purist. I want to emphasise that he is a normative person with a descriptive view. He is normative because he gives prescription by means of the lexicographic treatment presented in the dictionary. He is descriptive because he has to deal with languages that are dynamic due to the change of the linguistic communities that speak them, and because he/she is the one that makes the choice of the different items to be included in the dictionary. Hartmann and James (1998: 110) think that multiple meanings are of the most central problems that can justify the use of dictionaries, since most common-core items in the basic vocabulary of any language have several senses that need to be distinguished. The user has the right to know those meanings and the lexicographer should make provision for them in the dictionary.

6. 1. 1. 2. 2. Lexical divergence

When dealing with translation equivalents, new meanings coming from French spoken in Gabon need to be taken into account in the lexicographic treatment of polysemous lexical items. One of the roles of the lexicographer is to record the language used by a given society and to compile the vocabulary of that language by arranging it systematically together with its meaning (Chuwa, 2003:169). The lexicographer finds the data to be included in the dictionary among the users of that dictionary. The language of the daily life of the Gabonese pupils should therefore be reflected in the YFSD. In that regard, the

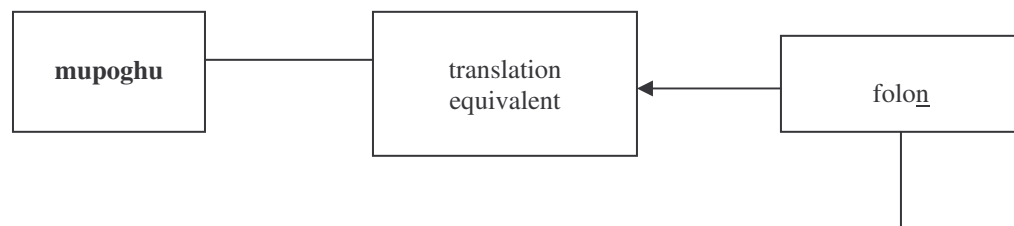
lexicographer working on such a dictionary should make provision for meaning extension and new senses entering in the vocabulary of both French and Yipunu. The fact is that the YFSD should reflect Yipunu and French spoken by the intended target users. Being a synchronic dictionary, the translation equivalents treated in that dictionary should take into account the meanings of the words according to the Gabonese context, and not according to the French context. Although standard French will be taken into consideration for the translation equivalents, the compilers of that particular dictionary should bear in mind that the dictionary is directed at the knowledge of Yipunu and not French. The present dictionary is for pupils with a clear knowledge of French that learn Yipunu, a language they partially know, because they only have the oral form of it. This is true for both the pupils having Yipunu as first language and for the pupils having French as first language. Thus, newly entered meanings of words like **gâteau**, **clando**, **kangué**, **beignet**, **folon** should be included in the presentation of translation equivalents. When the senses are only related to the Gabonese context they should be labelled as *français du Gabon* (fg).

In the situation of polysemous senses, the senses should be included according to the frequency of usage, and the compilers should take into account the knowledge of the users. Hence, because of the knowledge of French of the pupils, the compilers should give a treatment that considers the best-known form rather than the lesser known one. If those new meanings are treated in the central list of the dictionary, they should also be recorded as part of the words listed in the back matter pages in the translation equivalent register. The inclusion of that type of data has the advantage of enhancing the promotion of any language. As Yipunu does not have an official status yet, the dictionary will put both Yipunu and French at the same level. Moreover, it will allow Gabonese French to develop and even lead to a dictionary of Gabonese French as the image of e.g. the Dictionary of South African English.

As a matter of fact, the society in which the intended target users live is very different from that of the French society. Although they do share the same language, the meaning attached to certain words will be deduced from the specific cultural context. And as

stated by Chuwa (2003:169), for a word to be accepted in a language, it has to be used a number of times by a group of people with the same understanding, portraying a message which does not create ambiguity amongst the users of that language. For a Gabonese child, the word **gâteau** and the word **folon** have a different meaning than what they will mean for a child living in France²¹. For a French child, **folon** does not exist in his/her vocabulary because **folon** is a loanword borrowed from Fan, one of the Gabonese languages. The term refers to a variety of spinach found in central Africa, the French term being **épinard**. A study must be done to know when the term **folon** entered the Gabonese French vocabulary, yet for now, a survey (Mavoungou 2002) can demonstrate that both children and adults use it sparingly²². It would not be fair for the user if the compilers present the translation equivalent of **mupoghu** as **variété d'épinard** while if the question is asked even to an adult Yipunu speaker the answer will be **folon**. I think that the translation that should be included should be **folon**. **Variété d'épinard** should thus be entered as a translation equivalent representing a target language synonym. The same fact is noticed when it comes to the word **gâteau**. For the Gabonese child, **gâteau** can refer to either the French word **gâteau** (cake) or to what is for a French child **beignet** (fat cakes and/or donut). The term **beignet** for the Gabonese child refers to the fried yellow plantain, which is for a French child **banane fritte**. For the sake of the users, it would be preferable that the microstructure of the YFSD first includes **beignet** as being a translation equivalent for **babenyi** rather than **banane fritte**. This is a case of lexical divergence and the compilers could present it in the following way:

Ex 7: lexical divergence



²¹ Referring to children living in France, I also include Gabonese children who were born and/or raised in France and who live there. Those children have a French culture and may not be aware of the new senses unless they have been introduced to it.

²² The name of that vegetable led to the name of certain dishes. In the Intercontinental Okoumé Palace hotel, a former chef use to bake quiches with local Gabonese food. One of them was the “Quiche au folon”, for which the restaurant of the hotel is known.

Although those words have not been widely used in the printed media (newspaper, books etc.), they deserve their place in a dictionary such as the YFSD. In the *Rapidolangue* series, examples about the word **beignet** have been included in the schoolbooks with the sense related to the French standard. My proposition is that they should include the term with the meaning that is known to the pupils. By including those types of words with the French standard sense they do not respond to the oral status they wanted to give to the learning of the different languages. Yet it is confusing for the pupils who will hear in his/her everyday speech **beignet** referring to **banane fritte** while at school he/she has been told that it is something else. I think that that approach will pertain the pattern inherited from the colonial time where it was strictly forbidden to speak another language than French (Kwenzi-Mickala 1995, Mavoungou 2002, Ndinga Koumba Binza 2004). Words that generally suggests a legitimate meaning often hold a clear and understandable message to both speakers and hearers of a specific language (Chuwa, 2003:169). That is how technical words, dialectal words as well as slang, to name a few, are introduced in a vocabulary of a specific language. And they are part of the data included in a dictionary.

Moreover, pupils learning Yipunu will hear and speak about buying **gâteaux** meaning buying fat cakes. The new sense has been accepted by the entire Gabonese population and covers different types. For **gâteau** (fat cake) in the Gabonese context there are **gâteaux banane**, **gâteaux farine**, **petits gâteaux** and **bedoumes**. In this context the term is often used in the plural form (Mavoungou 2002). It will not serve the needs of the users if the record of the YFSD does not include the translation best known to them. There is no ambiguity for that child when saying **gâteau**. The original meaning could bring a confusion in the knowledge of the French he/she speaks because the lexicographer's role is to record what speakers of a given society have to come to an agreement as being acceptable and probably correct in their eyes (Chuwa, 2003:169). This is true because the lexicographer working on a specific dictionary should be able to take into account not

only the whole structure of the language in question, but also the culture of the respective linguistic community in all its aspects (Zgusta 1971: 15)

The choice of introducing senses that only refer to the Gabonese context is also lead by the fact that the translation from Yipunu to French does occur more often in an oral base. The pupils in their linguistic environment do not use an academic register. Although an emphasis is put on the written form, the role of the *Rapidolangue* programme is to help the learners in the acquisition of the taught language for communicative purposes. At the end of the programme the learners are expected to speak in the taught language. Thus they should be able to communicate in Yipunu in the same way they communicate in French. And in their daily conversation in French, they do use many of the words mentioned above. To go to school, some of the pupils may use a **clando** (type of public transport), or they may have had **folon** for supper. Consequently, the YFSD should be able to provide information that will help them achieving the goal foreseen by the compilers of the programme.

Most of the new senses entering in languages like French, find their source in the semantic differences resulting from different conceptions of the same reality and /or activity. An absolutely identical physical reality can be conceived in different ways depending on society culture and background. Just as languages differ in selecting some qualities as criteria, they differ also in forming different designata that pertain to the same extra linguistic reality (Zgusta, 1971:30). The inclusion of senses labelled as *Français du Gabon* (fg), is there to enhance the communicative function of the dictionary as well as its descriptive aspect. The prescriptive part will be served by the standard form of French, the data on pronunciation and the spelling provided in the structure of the dictionary. For that reason the dictionary should include both French used in the school environment, and French used in the daily environment of the pupils. Zgusta (1971:17) has a strong point of view about the matter.

The basis of a sound and efficient lexicographic work is a good theory, but on the other hand, the dictionary is written for a user who will not be primarily seeking too

much of lexicographic theory nor a wide array of lexicographic problems presented in it; the user will be interested in finding quite different information, viz. indication concerning the fact of the respective language itself.

One may argue that because of the authoritative status of the dictionary, users see dictionaries as guides to respectful verbal performance (Gates, 1990:266). However, it is the same authoritative status that allows word creations (Dubois & Dubois, 1971:36). I take into consideration that persuasive power of dictionaries in order to promote a linguistic reality only known to a specific linguistic community: French spoken by the Gabonese population. Far from to weaken French, I think that those new extended meanings enrich it by enlarging the spoken sphere, while the academic is there to regulate the standard form. When the word **gâteau** with its new meaning is considered as bad French, no scientific or lexicographic principles serve as basis for such affirmation. A child growing up in Gabon and who, for one reason or another travels to France, will go with his/her cultural background. That background includes the linguistic knowledge of French that he/she has. Although the geographical environment has changed, certain realities will not. The purist may regard Gabonese French as including objectionable words but a dictionary should be a record of the treated language(s). Gabonese French should be included in the proposed model because the emphasis in that dictionary is on Yipunu and the Gabonese culture. As such, it needs to reflect the linguistic environment in which the learners of Yipunu live. In addition to that, Yipunu is learnt as a foreign language, so the pupils need to be able to find out the social status of words, to avoid making social blunders. Because they pick up all kinds of words from their linguistic environment, they need to be able to find out which words can be appropriately used on which occasions (Gates, 1990: 275).

6. 1.2. The ordering of the polysemous senses

Because Gabonese French has not yet been widely recorded as a written form (only used in some local newspapers and by some Gabonese writers)²³, the compilers of the YFSD should be able to rely on frequency of usage to determine which French translation equivalent should be included. When a particular word has more than one part of speech leading to different senses, e.g. a verb and a noun, the proposed model will treat the noun first, followed by the verb. For the microstructure of the YFSD to be as consistent as possible, that pattern should be kept in the entire structure of the dictionary. Frequency of usage will only serve for the ordering of data such as polysemous senses.

The ordering system used in a particular dictionary highly depends on the typology of that dictionary. According to Kipfer (1983: 101), the arrangement of senses within the dictionary article is one of the most important decisions facing the lexicographers, both in terms of meeting the user's needs and expectations and in providing appropriate and accurate ordering for particular types of dictionaries. There are various choices of ordering when it comes to polysemous senses. The best knowns are:

- Historical ordering
- Logical ordering
- Metaphorical ordering
- Usage frequency ordering

A logical ordering is a method based on the fact that a given sense is chosen to serve as a base. From that base, the other senses are deduced. It is quite an arbitrary decision because it is not always easy to choose which sense to take as base. The lexicographer is often lead by his/her intuition and by the knowledge he/she has of the treated language(s). In other words, the logicalness of that method depends on the intuition of the lexicographer. It may be logical for an experienced user and appear totally illogical for

²³ The first daily newspaper L'Union uses such words in the *Pour moi quoi...Makaya* column.

the non-experienced one. It may be logical for the compiler but still appear totally confusing for the users. For a child who is learning a foreign language, what is logical is often similar to what is known. It would be logical for that type of user to find the most known senses arranged in a certain logical way. The aim here is to satisfy the need of the users. Even when thought out meticulously, the logical ordering has restrictions if not used in combination with another ordering system. This is illustrated in the statement made by Louw (2004:75) as he pinpoints that:

In order to use [a logical ordering] system a lexicographer must therefore think carefully about which sense to use as a base, research this decision well, explain the criteria used in the user's guide and apply the method as sparingly as possible. If this is done logical ordering can be very effective in the ordering of two senses relatively close to one another in frequency and in identification and ordering of subsenses in larger sense paradigms.

Thus, for the dictionary to serve the interest of the user at best, the lexicographer could combine different ordering systems. The combination of those systems should be done taking into account the typological status of the dictionary to be compiled, its content as well as the expectations of the intended target users. For that reason, the lexicographer is able to anticipate the needs of the intended users. In the case of the proposed model, a combination of usage ordering and logical ordering should be the way to go. Being a synchronic bilingual dictionary, historical ordering would be of no utility for the sake of the user. A disadvantage of the historical ordering is that as the lexicographer goes through the various senses, it may appear that there is less and less information concerning the oldest form. Hornby, cited in Kipfer (1983:105) argues that:

For those to whom English is a foreign language, those who are learning (not necessarily studying) English for present-day needs, the order in which semantic varieties are entered should perhaps be based on frequency rather than historical principles. Such users of a dictionary are more likely to meet, and to need to use, words in their current senses. These are the senses, therefore, which should be entered first.

6. 1. 2. 1. The use of a corpus in the ordering process

The YFSD should take into account all the words contained in the schoolbooks but it should also include daily words found in the linguistic environment of the children. Therefore, the users consulting that dictionary will expect to see senses they know the best. To be able to solve such problems it is important that the compilers of the YFSD rely on a well-established corpus. A corpus should not only help with the lemma selection, but also with microstructural elements because a corpus should be the representation of the lexicon of any language including the oral repertoire as well as a record of the written texts found in that specific language. It should give a record of all the characteristics of the lexical items of that lexicon. As a result it should be objective and not selective, because it could serve as basis for the compilation of bigger corpora. In the case of Yipunu, using data from existing linguistic and lexicographic works is necessary. French has a long and well-established lexicographic tradition. No corpus needs to be compiled in the sense that corpora already exist, and using existing general French dictionaries would save a considerable amount of time.

The compilation of any corpus does not mean that all the data contained in the corpus has to be included in the dictionary. The typological nature of that specific dictionary, its volume and its content will mostly determine the amount of data to be included. Though the corpus built for the purpose of a dictionary directed at school children in Gabon should be small, yet relevant and accurate, and should not be exhaustive. The compilers of that dictionary should benefit from the available advanced technology (corpus queries) during the compilation process. These types of programs are used increasingly in modern lexicography. They are less time consuming and some of them are useful in providing frequency counts. They can run several frequency word counts and frequency lists that could give the compilers enough evidences to support their choice in the ordering of polysemous senses. With some adaptation of the program to the language, detailed data is provided by the corpus. Thus the compilers are able to make a decision on inclusion

procedures not only based on what they know, or what they feel should be included in the dictionary.

From the corpus, the different senses should thus be ordered according to their frequency of usage. That approach lightens the work of the lexicographers in a sense where they can order the sense going from the most general and frequent to the less known one. It has the benefit to lead the lexicographers in their choice, even when it comes to regional senses, slang or technical senses. Only the most frequent and relevant of the latest will be treated. If the difference between the regional senses is not a major one, the senses should not be presented. However, if the sense is related to the cultural aspect of a certain variety, the lexicographer should take such data into account. Thus, general and frequent senses, colloquial and regional senses, technical and slang senses will not have the same treatment in the microstructure of a dictionary. For the present model, only general and frequent senses will have a prominent place, dialectal as well as technical senses will have to be labelled. Obsolete senses and archaisms will not be treated because they do not play a major role in the standardisation process of the treated language. Regional or dialectal senses as well as technical ones are often placed at the bottom of the inclusion policy because they are restricted to a specific area or discipline. Depending on the frequency of usage of those senses, the lexicographer has the right to include them at the top or at the bottom.

6. 2. Collocations

A distinction should be made between free combinations of words and collocations. A collocation is not a single lexical item. The meaning of a collocation is a combination of the meaning of the words constituting that collocation. However, some collocations can eventually become fixed expressions. And if they are not fixed, collocations should be included in a dictionary as microstructural entries. Learners of a foreign language are more likely to hear and read collocations in their every day language use. It is the duty of the lexicographer to include them in the microstructure of a particular dictionary. He/she

has to treat them in a meticulous way to avoid confusion and misinformation (Part 4; Chapt. 2). Collocations are more fixed than free combinations and less fixed than idioms. Since collocability is difficult for foreign language learners, dictionaries need to specify such patterns, especially where translation equivalents are unpredictable (Hartmann & James, 1998:23). I see collocations as entries presented in the treatment of a lemma but also as secondary treatment units in their own right.

Collocations can be grouped into broad semantic categories depending on the things that one can do with the object denoted by the headwords (Mittmann, 1999). Hausmann mentioned by Gouws (1996a) distinguished two major components of a collocation, namely the base and the collocator. Collocations can be entered in the article slot of the dictionary under the base or the collocator. For the YFSD, collocations should be included at both base and collocator depending on the frequency of use of the items. The behaviour of the user is unpredictable when it comes to collocations. He/she may look for collocations under a word representing the base, or he/she may look for it under the collocator. The search here depends on the familiarity that the user has with the components of the collocation. The example of **udimb mbaat** can be taken to illustrate that matter. **Mbaat** is the base and **udimb** the collocator. The user is likely to hear **udimb** more often than **mbaat**. This will create a familiarity that will cause the user to look for the collocation under **udimb** rather than **mbaat**. The compilers of the YFSD should therefore include **udimb mbaat** under **udimb**. A system of cross-referencing can be used in the article of the lemma **mbaat** or the collocation could be entered in both articles.

In a dictionary such as the YFSD, collocations should be clearly distinguished from other illustrative examples. The compilers of that particular dictionary could use bold, as distinctive markers for collocations while examples will be marked with italics. Whenever a collocation is entered as illustrative example, the use of both bold and italics should serve as indication for the user to identify and correctly interpret the given data. In that way, he/she will have a true picture of the lexicographic treatment given to each data type. This system should be explicitly explained in the front matter pages, and used consistently through the entire structure of the dictionary. Collocations become treatment

units in their own right and the lexicographer should use extended forms of non-lemmatic addressing to ensure an optimal treatment. Here follows examples withdrawn from the FISDSA and the OPSD.

Ex 8 of the OPSD

account *noun* (*plural accounts*) **1** a statement of money owed, spent, or received; a bill. **2** an arrangement to keep money in a bank etc. **3** a description or report. **on account of** because of. **on no account** under no circumstances; certainly not. **take something into account** consider or include it when making a decision or calculation.

acquit *verb* (**acquits, acquitting, acquitted**) decide that somebody is not guilty
♦ *The jury acquitted her.* **acquittal** *noun*
acquit yourself well perform or do something well. [from ac- + Latin *quietus* = at rest]

club *verb* (**clubs, clubbing, clubbed**) hit with a heavy stick. **club together** join with other people in order to pay for something
♦ *club together to buy a boat.*
[from Old Norse]

The examples show that OPSD use bold as indicators for the collocation and idiomatic expression. Although bold is also used for the main lemma and other forms of that lemma, it is easy for the user to know that the data he/she is facing is different from other data such as illustrative sentences.

Ex 9 FISDSA

club *noun*

1 a group of people who meet to do something together: *He is member of a tennis club and plays tennis with other people every Saturday.* **2** a heavy stick used as weapon: *The burglar hit the man with a club.*

Ex 10 FISDSA

advantage *noun*

something which helps you to succeed or to do things better than other people: *You have an advantage if you can speak more than one language because you can talk to many different people.* If something is **to your advantage** it will help you do better than other people: *it will be to your advantage if you work hard at school*

again

1 another time, one more time: *I have forgotten what a square looks like. Can you please explain it to me again?* Something that you do or that happens **again and again** is done or happens many times, often: *If you want to be able to do something very well, you have to try again and again.* **2** become the way someone or

something was before, once more:
Thabisa was very sick yesterday,
but she is better again today.

Here, collocations are treated as treatment units in their own right.

In the front matter pages it is said that expressions and combination of words are listed after the meaning of a headword, with their own definition sentence, and often also with their own example sentence, but the way the two dictionaries treat collocations in their structure is similar in the fact that they both use bold as identification markers. According to the needs of their users, they present an explanation following the collocation. I think that for the users of the YFSD the presentation offered by the FISDSA could be a good way to go. Like that dictionary, the YFSD is there to respond to the need of second language speakers, they need detailed information especially for the use of collocations. Collocations should be treated as secondary treatment units.

6. 3. Illustrative examples

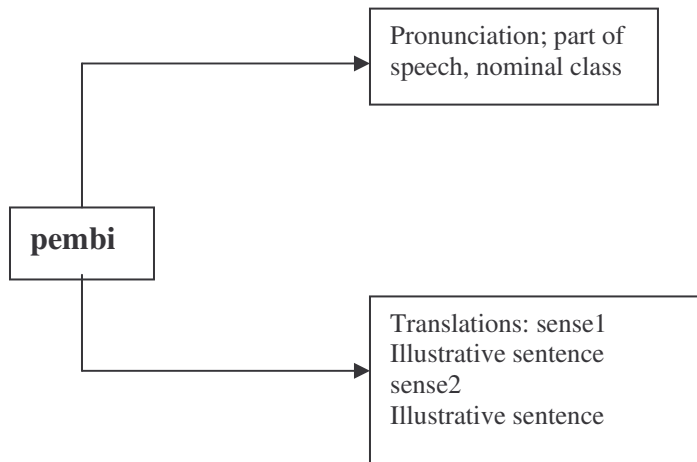
Illustrative examples can be defined as any phrase or sentence that illustrates the use of the item defined or translated. The use of illustrative examples is often seen in pedagogical dictionaries. Palmer mentioned by Al-Kasimi (1977), introduced them in the early 1930's for the benefit of people learning English as a Foreign Language. There are different types of illustrative examples i.e. verbal illustraton, quotation, citations, etc. and they can serve more than one purpose. They can be used in a dictionary to prove that a word exists in a language; they can illustrate a meaning or a translation of a particular word; they can illustrate the grammatical behaviour of the word defined or translated; and they can serve as stylistic indicators.

Illustrative examples have the advantage of giving a precise and concrete idea about the lexical item. They can clearly indicate if an item is flexible or rigid, if it can be used in a particular circumstance. In other words, they put the lexical items in a contextual

environment and they enforce the different senses of polysemous lexical items because they activate a given sense and neutralise the other senses. For example, the word **ibulu** refers to either an animal or a stupid or foolish person. The translation can then be **animal/bête** or an insult: **stupide/sot/bête**. Illustrative examples in that case will give to the user the right usage context. However, the figurative sense of **ibulu** should be labelled for the user to know the register of that specific lexical item.

Illustrative examples can play an important role in the treatment of cultural data specific to the Yipunu culture. In traditional Yipunu dances like **ikoku**, or **ilombu** women paint their faces with a type of clay. It can be red or white and each design has a specific meaning. The example here could give the user an indication not only of the semantic use of the item, but it could combine semantic features and cultural data.

Ex 11 (appendix p256)



As stated by Cowie (1999: 7), illustrative sentences are designed to show the lexicogrammatical patterns by which items in their particular senses are realised. They function as a support for the interpretation and distinction of polysemous senses. The use of illustrative examples is also relevant when it comes e.g. to part of speech. For lexical items that can function as a verb or a noun, illustrative examples will be provided as support for the user to correctly interpret the given data. The user will then have the right

status of the word as well as its usage context. The following article found in the FISDSA can illustrate this.

Ex 12

group [rhymes with **soup**]
1 *noun* a number of people who are together in one place or who belong together, a number of animals or things that are together in one place or who belong together: *The teacher took a group of children to the museum. Our house is in the last group of houses at the end of this road. Lizards, snakes, and crocodiles are all part of the group called reptiles.* **2** *verb* (**groups, grouping, grouped**) to put things into a group or groups: *Group all the old numbers and even numbers in this list: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.* **3** *noun* a number of people who play musical instruments and sing together: *He plays in a pop group.*

For the purpose of YFSD, it would be of a good help to include illustrative examples that can provide detailed information. But a combined structure of detailed information and concisely organised data can be adopted to satisfy the needs of the user. Such an approach could set a platform for the establishment of a dictionary culture in Gabon. By doing it, the compiler will provide a variety of examples that could enlarge the possible choice of the user. Yet, the compiler must be aware of the fact that too many choices can mislead the user and complicate their choice. The various examples should be treated in a way that they facilitate the consultation process.

6. 4. Pictorial illustrations

The use of pictorial illustrations can be of a great help in understanding the meaning of lexical items. But further work should be produced on that topic because, as mentioned by Al-Kasimi, (1977:97), the use of pictorial illustrations is rarely dealt with in the literature on lexicography, and the few references to it suffer from serious misconceptions. Although the YFSD does not provide a paraphrase of meaning, it would be relevant enough for the compilers to use pictures and/or drawings. It would complement the written data provided within the article slot of the lemma and would be a good support for the lexicographic treatment of the cultural data on Yipunu. Because there is no sharp distinction between language and the extra-linguistic world, an explanation of a thing can function as an explanation of a meaning (Wiegand, 1984:17). The pictorial illustration can therefore function as an ostensive explanation of meaning especially when it comes to cultural data. For Al-Kasimi (1977), pictorial illustrations have two major functions in a bilingual dictionary: They cue and reinforce the verbal equivalents, especially when the user can identify, attend to and respond differentially to the picture; they also serve as generalising examples when several pictures are given in order to establish the concept they are intended to illustrate.

Pictures are often used in a dictionary with a knowledge-orientated function. As such the descriptiveness of the information they provide can have a passive function and/or an active function. The passive function would be where the illustration gives a better understanding of the lexical item, while the active function would require the illustration to give a better use of the word. Both communicative-orientated functions and knowledge-orientated functions provide active and/or passive functions when it comes to pictures and drawings. The pictures and/or drawings used in the YFSD should combine both functions (passive and active). They should be able to help the user in the use of the lexical item as well as in its understanding. In such a dictionary, it would be more appropriate to use pictorial illustrations as support for the treatment of cultural data. In the treatment the word **miloombu**, which is a traditional dance costume, it could be of good help if the lexicographers working on that particular dictionary could provide a drawing showing a dancer dressed in that costume. The traditional dance costume

miloombu was named after **iloombu** the dance itself. By using drawings, and/or photos in such a dictionary, the lexicographer will avoid confusion and he/she will, at the same time, help the users in the choice of the right data. By seeing how it looks the user will be able to know what the use of that lexical item is because the drawing in this case will illustrate a cultural item which he/she cannot easily conceive without an aid.

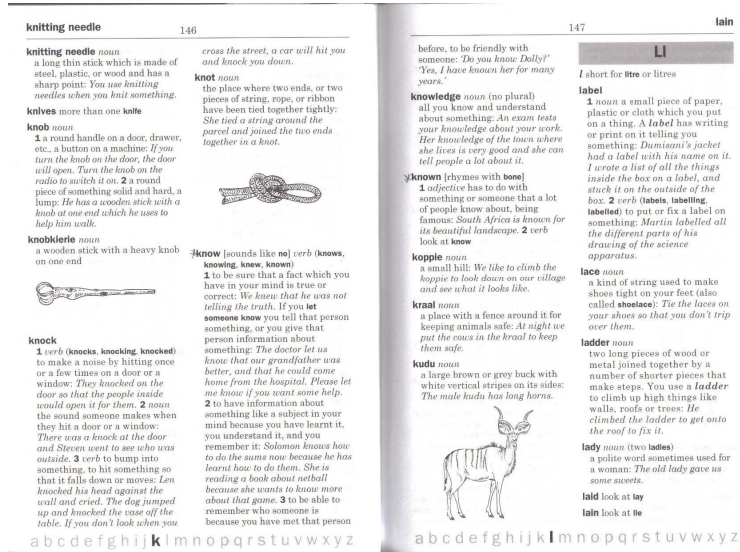
According to Wiegand (1984), the dictionary article is a text of linguistic instruction with which the lexicographer instructs the dictionary user on the use of a lemma sign. For that reason, there must be a complementary relation between the pictorial illustration and the definition or the translation equivalent. That complementary relation should help the lexicographer to avoid repetition and ensure that it adds to the definition or translation. In our case, the lexicographic treatment of complex cultural lexical items can be done by means of drawings or photos. Although the number of those drawings and photos in a pedagogical dictionary may overstep the line between encyclopaedias and dictionaries, the use of such data in a dictionary like the YFSD should lead to a better understanding and a more comprehensive treatment of the required data. As stated by Al-Kasimi (1977:99), pictorial illustrations can be employed in the bilingual dictionary to illustrate objects familiar to the user as well as those culture items, which are particular to the foreign language.

Pictorial illustration does not only involve drawings and/or photos. The sentences that go along with the pictorial material are also part of the illustration, therefore they contribute in facilitating the consultation process. The lexicographer when dealing with pictorial illustrations should be careful not to give an arbitrary treatment of those sentences. It should not be arbitrary or incidental but rather subjected to certain objective consideration. In other words, the lexicographer should employ a pictorial illustration when it can unequivocally indicate and reinforce a particular response, or establish a particular concept more efficiently than a verbal equivalent could do. The accompanying sentences should be carefully and meticulously chosen from the corpus in order to provide the right data. If not treated properly, the user can be confused and consequently, he/she can misinterpret the sentence accompanying the picture. Those sentences should

be about the linguistic reality portrayed by the drawing or the photo. In that way, I agree with Smith, as mentioned by Al-Kasimi (1977:98), who said that pictorial illustrations help the dictionary user understand and remember the content of the accompanying verbal equivalent because they motivate him, reinforce what is read, and symbolically enhance and deepen the meaning of the verbal equivalent. This statement is verified especially when it comes to children. In this case, pictures attract them and contribute to the didactic function of the dictionary.

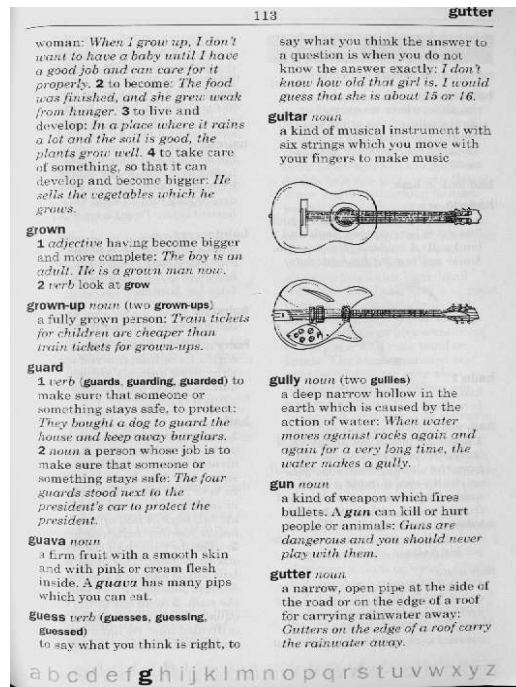
Al-Kasimi (1977: 100-102) designed 4 major principles that should be used in the treatment of pictorial illustrations. Applied in a consistent way, those principles would be efficient and they could enhance the quality of a bilingual dictionary. I choose to present the three principles that I find relevant enough in the case of the proposed model:

- **Compactness:** Although they can be helpful, too many pictures can be a hindrance for the quality of any dictionary. It is of vital importance that the lexicographer reduces the use of drawings, maps, photos etc. to its essential. He/she should restrict the treatment of such data to the treated lemma. In the case of the treatment of **miloombu** mentioned above, it would be unnecessary if the lexicographer puts a picture where too many details of the dance are given, e.g. a traditional ceremony with different dancers wearing different costumes, musicians, etc. A picture of the costume or at least a picture of a person dressed in that costume could add to the data provided in the verbal treatment. The lexicographer should therefore keep the treatment of pictures as simple as possible.
- **Fidelity:** The nature of the subject matter and the level of the behavioural objective usually determine the type of pictorial illustrations used in any dictionary. Therefore, fidelity of pictorial illustrations will closely be related to how realistic they are (Al-Kasimi, 1977:101). The examples below illustrate that point.



The drawing illustrating the lemmata **knot** and **kudu** respond to the fidelity requirement because they give a simple but true picture of what the referent of the word is.

- Interpretability: For the user to be able to interpret the data conveyed by the pictorial material, the drawing, or photo should be relevant, simple, complete and clear. In that way, the picture should be related to the linguistic environment of the users because in the same way that the lexicon of the language recorded in the dictionary portrays the speech community of the treated language, the pictures used also portray the society in which the users live. The simplicity of the pictorial material used has a link with its compactness and its interpretability. If the lexicographer does not use complex images or drawings, he/she will keep the illustrations close to the reality of the referent thus avoiding dual interpretations. This can be observed in the following example:



With the drawing illustrating the lemma **guitar** the compiler of that dictionary provided not only what the lemma refers to but also presented to the users two different drawings. Although it is not said in the verbal treatment the user might see (or guess) that there are two different guitars. The compilers could have enhanced the drawing by using an accompanying sentence giving the name of the type of each guitar or presenting more details in order to avoid a dual interpretation.

The compilers of the YFSD should comply with the above-mentioned criteria in order to improve the quality of the dictionary, and at the same time meet the needs of the intended target users. When pictorial illustrations are used, they should provide clear pictures that can be easily distinguished by the users and the sentences used to accompany the pictures will only be a comment on the drawing and not another translation of the lemma. To be able to satisfy the need of the users, the compilers of the YFSD could use a mix of drawings and photos with a predominant choice of drawings because they are less space consuming. Photos could be used to illustrate cultural data such as traditional dances. The

picture should be there to implement the text section of a particular article in the YFSD. As such, whenever a pictorial illustration is used, it should be addressed at the lemma and not at the microstructural elements found in the articles. It is part of the treatment of the lemma and they should present a lemmatic address.

6. 5. Labels

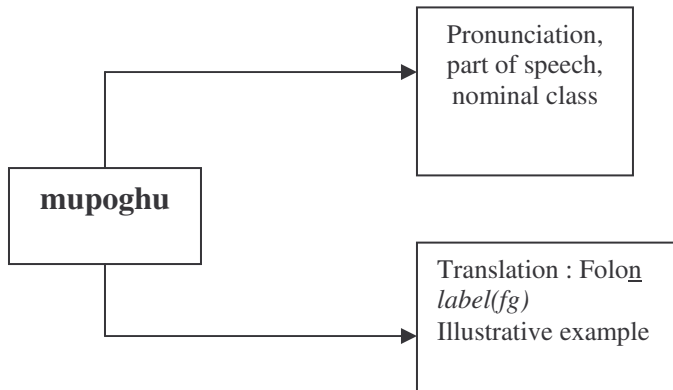
Labels in the compilation of any dictionary are elements of the microstructure. Like most microstructural elements, they give direct information about the lemma or about microstructural entries at which they are addressed. They are often used to give information on a restriction because they act as markers to indicate the particular usage context of a specific lemma or translation equivalent. In other words, they act as pragmatic markers that indicate deviations from the default pattern. For Hartmann and James (1998), they indicate the marking of the word or phrase as typical or appropriate in a particular context or language variety.

For a bilingual dictionary, labels can be directed at the lemma, the translation equivalents or equivalents representing specific polysemous senses of that specific lemma. As such, they should be carefully and practically treated. However, contrary to the other microstructural elements like pronunciation, part of speech, nominal classes, translation equivalents, etc. it is not all the lemmata that receive labels because labels mark a deviation from the default value of the dictionary. The lexicographer can only predict the lexical item that will need to be labelled on account of the needs of the target user. The function of labels depends on the type of dictionary to be compiled. For example, in a prescriptive dictionary like the standard dictionary, labels will have a more normative value (information about the register of lemma for example) than in a descriptive one.

In a dictionary such as the YFSD, the lack of labels can put the user into trouble, especially when it comes to regional demarcations and information about the register of the language. For that reason, labels need to be included in the microstructure of any

dictionary in such a way that they catch the user's eyes. They are used as sign posts to indicate that a word has certain restrictions, they are also there to indicate that it belongs to a specific field or register for example. The lexicographer has the choice to enter them in italics, between brackets, and so on. He/she must just make sure that the user can see them and can understand the message they convey. For the proposed model, using italics superscripts on abbreviations could be a way to go.

Ex 15



Labels are found in all types of dictionaries. In comprehensive dictionaries, one finds more words labelled than in other dictionaries, whereas in standard dictionaries fewer words receive labels. The way the lemmata are labelled in the microstructure can be of the same pattern, but differences are often found. The compilers of the YFSD should enter labels that will suit the learning process of the language. Restriction on register as well as regional and technical restriction should be pinpointed in the lexicographic treatment of translation equivalents. The compilers have to keep in mind that, the intended users of that particular dictionary do not really know the structure and the vocabulary of the language they are learning. Thus, they must give the maximum of information (without becoming a comprehensive dictionary), and at the same time be sure that they give the key to easier communication. When not used properly, labels can make the structure of a school dictionary very heavy and condense, meaning that the articles may be much longer and too many labels can lead to confusion.

As already said labels function as markers in a language. They are divided into four groups:

- Stylistics labels which give information concerning the register, the different levels of language, sociolinguistic features etc.;
- Geographical labels which give information regarding the different areas using the lemma and dialect variations;
- Temporal labels that give information regarding the period of the use of the lemma. They indicate if a word or a meaning is old, archaic, obsolete, etc.;
- Sphere of usage labels which give the specified field to which a word or a meaning belongs.

A detailed examination of the different types of labels will not be done here. In the present dissertation, the relevant point is the contribution of labels in pedagogical dictionaries. When a user opens a dictionary, he/she expects to find a key that helps him/her to solve the problem he/she faces in a daily communication or in reading a book. The lexicographer has to do his/her best to guide the user. He/she is the one who looks at the field of linguistics and signposts the road. The pedagogical aspects of a dictionary such as the YFSD are basically focused on the learning of the daily Yipunu language. The major criteria for the selection of the microstructural elements being frequency of usage of the word in communication, the compilers of that dictionary have to keep in mind that the target users would need more than “ordinary” words to be able to communicate. That is the reason why this dictionary should clearly differentiate all the different senses of the lexical items and provide appropriate register and field labels (Jackson, 1988).

Furthermore, labels should be entered in the microstructure of the YFSD because the users of that dictionary deal with different languages (different linguistic systems) and different cultures. They are people who want to know about a language of which they do not master the system. What is valid for a Yipunu speaker is not necessarily valid for a French speaker (correspondence between the mother-tongue of a speaker and the language he/she learns). In both cases, the one who learns the other language needs to be lead correctly by having maximum information. The compiler should work with the fact that the users have a limited

knowledge of the linguistic structure of the language they learn. Because non-native learners are considered to need explicit guidance (warnings about secondary usage), by employing labels, the compilers of the YFSD should mark the appropriateness or not of a lemma for a given communication situation, and they should at the same time enable the user to select the right word. Labels should ensure an effective communication process (Jackson, 1988). In the following lines, some advantages of the use of labels in the YFSD are presented:

- Labels as markers of the language permit the user to identify the deviation of the standard language. The YFSD being a school dictionary, it is the duty of the compilers of that dictionary to present the norm of both treated languages. But it is also their duty to present some lexical items that could have an offensive connotation. They may do so by warning the user with regard to register and style. For example with words labelled as, “familiar”, “popular”, “neologism”, etc. the user will be able to chose appropriately, depending on the communication situation.
- Labels, if they give syntactical or grammatical information, say how the system of the language works, but they must be distinguished from indicators of morphological status. The compilers of the YFSD should make that distinction clear in order not to mislead the user in the consultation process.
- Labels that give information on the geographical environment of a word. For the YFSD there should be labels about the different regional varieties. The pupils having French as first language may not often be aware of the different varieties of the language they learn. Geographical labels will then direct their path and ensure an effective access structure.

Although it is a learner’s dictionary, the method used by the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) can be of a great help in the compilation of the YFSD. This method can be accommodated to meet the needs of its intended target users. The procedure of

the LDOCE is explained in the front matter pages. Some of the points that seem relevant enough for the purpose of the YFSD are the following.

Ex 14

1. *CarE* Caribbean English

Etc.

2. Words which are used in English but which come from another language (...) the language they come from.

French

German

Italian

Latin

Spanish

3. Words which are used in a particular situation, or show a particular attitude:

approving a word that is used to praise things or people, although this may not be clear from its meaning

formal a word that is suitable for formal speech or writing, but would not normally be used in ordinary conversation

Etc.

4. Words which are used in a particular context or type of language:

biblical a word that is used in the language of the Bible, and would sound old fashioned to a modern speaker.

dialect a word that is only used in particular part of British or US

law a word with a technical meaning used by lawyers, in court, etc.

When looking at those different categories, the application in the compilation of the YFSD should be the following: Firstly, knowing that labels do not only mark the lemma, the compilers should label all the translation equivalents that are French spoken in Gabon, or in any particular French speaking country. Secondly all the Yipunu words that come from other languages (either other local Gabonese languages or foreign languages

such as English) should be labelled and the language they come from should be mentioned. Words like **musonfi**, **folon**, **ikwang**, and **ifofuru** for example should be labelled according to their origin, and the compilers can make provision for a usage note for more explanation on that origin in a text bloc at the end of the article. In that case, usage notes, like in the OPSD, could be entered in a square space with a warning sign such as an exclamation mark (!), a plain dark triangle (▶), a dark square (■), a music note (♪) or even drawings like mouse, cat, etc. Such indicators should be different than labels although like labels, the lexicographer uses them to catch the attention of the user. For the YFSD a little drawing could be effective to attract the children. A music note could also go. The following examples illustrate how a combination of labels and usage notes can be accommodated in the treatment of the lexical items **musonfi**, **fofuru** and **ikwang**.

Ex 15

musonfi^{fg} [músõfi] n c11 musonfi. *We ye royisi mamb, musonfi a ke bwil* va faire bouillir de l'eau pour que musonfi puisse prendre sa douche. *Ye ghab bighudji musonfi a ke dji* va servir musonfi pour qu'elle puisse manger.

♪ Musonfi désigne une femme qui vient d'accoucher. C'est un mot emprunter au Yipunu qui est entré dans le français parlé au Gabon sans modification de forme: On dit musonfi aussi bien en yipunu qu'en français.

fofuru^{por} [ifófùrù] n c14 allumette. Voir *limet* p

♪ Ifofuru est un mot emprunter au portugais phosforus. Il est entré dans la langue Punu après l'arrivée des portugais sur les côtes gabonaises.

ikwang^{tch} [ikwángɔ̃] n cl4 manioc. Voir *mughum*. P

♪ Ikwang vient de tchikwang, manioc en Civili. Les Bapunu de Tchibanga vivent en communauté avec les Bavili et les Balumbu. Ils ont été influencés par les langues parlées par ces populations et ont ainsi emprunté certains termes.

In the above examples, the “fg”, “por” and “tch” illustrate the way a label could be presented in the YFSD while the “♪” illustrate how a usage note could be presented.

The compilers of the YFSD should accommodate words coming from specific fields like computer vocabulary. They should also give a record of the register of both Yipunu and French when using labels. Labels entered in the treatment of polysemous senses and homonyms help the user to pick up the right word he/she needs. They give the specific field or context of use. Those types of labels often concern fields such as economics, politics, biology, etc. In the case of the YFSD, they should mostly refer to the different subjects taught in the education programs (mathematics, history, physics, biology, etc.). However, although the treatment will be in Yipunu, the labels used in the YFSD should be in French for the users to be able to correctly interpret the data labelled. Therefore, the compilers of the YFSD could use labels such as:

- Geographical labels which will provide information on loan words and regional and/or dialectal varieties: *fg* (français du Gabon), *fn* (Fan), *por* (portugais), *mlla* (Mouilla), *tch* (Tchibanga), etc.
- Stylistic labels which will give notice on the register of the language: *fam* (familier), *pop* (populaire), etc.
- Sphere of usage labels that will concern all specific fields such as *math* (mathématique), *sp* (sport), *bio* (biologie), *hist* (histoire), etc.

7. Conclusion

To summarise, I can say that when dealing with the microstructure of any dictionary, the lexicographer has to be as objective as possible. It is his/her duty to try to answer all the questions that the user will face during the consultation process. Although no dictionary can be the answer to all lexicographic issues, the lexicographer should think of his/her work as a ready to use product. Dictionaries are manufactured objects which should produce information that should answer community demands. Any learner, in order to be able to communicate daily and write properly in the taught-language should be given enough information that he/she can understand and interpret properly. Therefore, the role of microstructural elements in the YFSD should help the dictionary to achieve this goal. The microstructure should meet the requirements of a communicative-orientated function, as well as knowledge-orientated function. It should be well-designed and all microstructural procedures done meticulously and used consistently through the entire structure of the dictionary and explicitly explained in the front matter pages of the dictionary. This will ensure a rapid and efficient access to the needed data. As such, the YFSD should give a synchronic record of the actual Yipunu spoken among the community living in Libreville and in the four other provinces. That is why microstructural elements such as polysemous senses, collocations, illustrative examples, pictorial illustrations and labels should play an important role in that dictionary. Metalexicographic principles should be taken into consideration to enhance the use of those elements and at the same time, they should build a bridge between theory and practice (for a clearer picture of the microstructure a full treatment of articles is presented in the appendix).

RECOMMENDATIONS

The main goal in a dictionary like the YFSD is to help with the establishment of orthography as well as providing a supportive tool for the schoolbooks already used by the pupils. To implement the structure of the dictionary and to provide efficient information for the users, all the systems must be well explained in advance in the front matter of the dictionary. The teacher could help in the task by using exercises provided in the front matter to help in the utilisation of the dictionary. In the back matter, the translation equivalents should be provided for the names of provinces, regions, and all the French translations should constitute an equivalent register. This approach has the advantage of providing a space management. The model is intended for pupils therefore, the amount of data and the volume of the dictionary are criteria that need to be looked at carefully. Consistency in the pattern used for the compilation of such a dictionary is of vital importance for the success of the eventual consultation process.

To summarise all the issues treated in the preceding chapters, some comments need to be made. The specific aspect of the linguistic situation of the Yipunu language should determine the lemmatisation principles in the YFSD. It is a vital point for the proposed model because part of its genuine purpose is to provide a standardised written form for the young Yipunu learners. For the lemmatisation procedure the following approaches can be applied:

- ✓ The lemmata should be ordered alphabetically;
- ✓ For a better transfer of data, the compilers should also make use of sublemmata;
- ✓ A niching procedure should be used as far as sublemmata are concerned although some aspects of nesting procedures can be combined;
- ✓ Independently from their nature, all the nouns should be presented in their full form, as well as the adverbs and the adjectives: affix(es)+ stem(s);
- ✓ All the verbs should be presented in their infinitive form without the verbal prefix. An hyphen should be included in place of the verbal prefix: (-) +stem;
- ✓ Sublexical lexical items like nominal classes should be lemmatised as full lemmata in their alphabetical position;

- ✓ Homographs should be lemmatised with a superscript numbering system at the right while homonyms should be lemmatised with a numbering system preceding the lemma;
- ✓ Multiword lexical items should be treated as sublemmata, especially when it comes to fixed expressions;
- ✓ To avoid any confusion during the consultation process idioms should not be presented as part of the microstructural treatment. They should not be used as illustrative examples and should be able to receive a proper treatment within the microstructure if they are presented in such a way; or they can be presented in the back matter text;
- ✓ Only regional varieties that lead to a different lexical item should be included as macrostructural elements in the YFSD.

Concerning the microstructure of the proposed model, an equal emphasis should be put on both comment on form and comment on semantics. It should display an integrated microstructure with no complex lexicographic treatment in order to provide a less complicated dictionary consultation procedure. The obligatory microstructure of the YFSD should have:

- ✓ Data on pronunciation presented between square brackets [] only for main lemmata, it should also be the place where the suprasegmental level (tone) is presented;
- ✓ In the treatment of nouns, the corresponding nominal class following the part of speech and plural form should be provided, when necessary;
- ✓ Translation equivalents of each main lemma following the data on pronunciation and presented in round brackets because the users are already familiar with French and master both the oral form and the written form of that language;
- ✓ Translation equivalents found inside a single article only presented in italics with no further lexicographic treatment;

- ✓ Equivalents representing different polysemous senses of the lemma should be clearly marked with each sense starting on a new line. To be able to distinguish them from other data types, the compilers should use standard arabic numerical indicators at the left hand side of the different senses;
- ✓ Translation of illustrative sentences presented in italics;
- ✓ Collocations that can be entered as illustrative examples while being clearly distinguished from other illustrative sentences. To make that distinction, the compilers could make use of bold;
- ✓ Pictorial illustrations reserved for cultural data, however the compilers have the liberty to decide if usual words need to be complemented with drawings and/or pictures. When used, it is the address of the picture that should determine its position;
- ✓ Labels to mark regional varieties as well as stylistic and register markers. The compilers could make use of italics superscript to do so.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

In any discipline, to be able to have a good and reliable product, it is necessary to refer to theoretical criteria that will lead the path. Metalexigraphic principles are the way to improve lexicographic work such as dictionaries and other reference works. In the present dissertation some of those principles were discussed in order to provide a suitable model for a monodirectional bilingual school dictionary. The particular dictionary involves Yipunu, one of the most frequently spoken Gabonese languages taught in Lycées and Collèges of Libreville, and French, the only actual medium of instruction in the Gabonese education system. These theoretical principles are not only aimed at designing a good model, but if well applied, they could lead to a compilation of an improved dictionary for pedagogical purposes. In the same way those principles could lead to establish a much stronger dictionary culture among the Gabonese pupils, and help in the process of standardising Yipunu. The model should also serve as basis for the compilation of dictionaries involving the four other Gabonese languages taught in the classrooms and help further the project in rural areas.

In order to provide enough information concerning the matter, a detailed description of some of the major metalexigraphic principles has been given. To start with, a description, and analysis of the linguistic Gabonese situation was provided. In that analysis the emphasis was put on the fact that Gabon is a multilingual country with 62 languages not yet standardised. The target users are pupils that can be considered as bilingual. The compilers of a dictionary such as the one designed will have to accommodate the data not only according to the target users, but also to the linguistic environment in which those users live. The target users being pupils, they will have to involve teachers in the compilation process as well as all the school material used in the learning process of Yipunu. They will also have to refer to existing material such as existing Yipunu dictionaries. It is important that the compilers involve the teachers in their work because they are the ones dealing with the pupils on a daily basis. They know their needs and know what could help in the learning process.

The Gabonese Government in its attempt to promote and develop all local languages is involved in that project initiated by the Fondation Raponda Walker. This project involves the teaching of five of the most frequently spoken Gabonese languages and the school materials used comprise schoolbooks and audiocassettes. The lexicographer working on that particular dictionary should not be a lone ranger only directed by his/her intuition. In Gabon, linguists and lexicographers often failed in their tasks because they assumed that Gabonese people have a very low or even no written knowledge of the languages they speak. A look at the literacy, the printed media and the different pedagogical materials available in Yipunu contradict this assertion. Both old and young people have at least some knowledge on how to read and write the language they speak. A survey conducted in 2002 and 2003 show that even the pupils that did not have Yipunu as subject could at least write a dictated sentence. In addition to that, different writing systems already exist. The purpose of the present model was then to harmonise the writing systems in an attempt to standardise a writing system for Yipunu. That is why an alphabet combining different existing alphabets (including the alphabet used in the Rapidolangu schoolbooks) was proposed.

The model of a school dictionary that I intended to design in the present dissertation took into account the fact that Gabonese languages are not yet official languages. The level of their written form does not permit to have a fully monolingual treatment. School dictionaries are often monolingual dictionaries. For the reality of Gabon, the proposed model had to be a fully bilingual dictionary because of the status of the Gabonese languages, and it had to have a monolingual treatment for the Gabonese language section. The monolingual treatment only concerned the Yipunu section. That section had to give a full treatment of the language in a sense that all the information concerning semantic and cultural aspects of Yipunu would have to be developed. By semantic aspects I do not only see translation equivalents and illustrative examples but also polysemous senses and homonymic forms. The macrostructure and the microstructure of this model should put emphasis on Yipunu for the French description had already been done and monolingual French dictionaries are widely used in Gabon (cf appendix).

It is of a great importance that the compilers of the YFSD deal carefully with the way the data can be accessed and retrieved in the dictionary. This has a direct link with the way the user understands and interprets the needed data. It is the duty of the compilers to present the data in a clear and simple way to accommodate the users' needs. The ordering system, the lemmatisation process and the use of indicators for the lemma sign, should all be clearly and explicitly explained in the classroom context. The use of a dictionary guide as proposed in the chapter concerning the outer texts section will help to serve that purpose.

I did not present a full treatment of the data to be included in the front and back matter of the YFSD. My aim here was not a proposal about the compilation of a dictionary, but to design a model based on theoretical principles. Some aspects have then been examined and others like the dictionary guide and the mini-grammar found in the front matter section will need a further discussion because I think that they need a more detailed treatment, as they can constitute a topic on their own. The goal to achieve here is the promotion and development of the Gabonese languages. The use of outer texts in the YFSD not only facilitate the consultation process but also help the lexicographer to give enough information for the users to be able to have a basic knowledge of both the Yipunu culture and the Yipunu language.

The success of a good dictionary depends on the way this dictionary is planned. The designed model also complies with that rule therefore; a brief survey on how a dictionary such as the YFSD should be planned was done. Showing the importance of planning during the compilation process of a dictionary laid a foundation for a discussion on the frame structure of the dictionary. Because Gabon, as many other African countries, does not have a strong established dictionary culture, it is important to design a model that will improve the quality of the dictionary and reduce the gap between dictionaries for adults and school dictionaries by emphasising dictionary skills for the young users to customise themselves with the way adult dictionaries are made.

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APPENDIX

The following articles are examples on the treatment that could be provided by the Yipunu French School Dictionary. All the letters of the alphabet have not been used here. The focus is on the presentation and application of some of the suggestions mentioned in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 of the last part of the dissertation.

A

a [à] adv. (qui)

Prov. *mwane a ghedji mu beghi o dulombili* l'enfant qui refuse de manger on le met dehors.

angleter [ãglètɛrɛ] n. (angleterre). *Mwan ngudji'ami e nengili o langleter*, ma seur apprend en angleterre. *Be vhosi ingesi o langleter*, on parle anglais en angleterre.

ardwaz [árdwàzɛ]. n. (ardoise). *A tsi sumb ardwas dji ghen*, il a acheté une nouvelle ardoise. *Mbadi e rendi din diandi mu lardwaz*, Mbadi écrit son nom sur une ardoise.

ayi [àyí] adv. (quoi/que). *Ayi ? quoi ?*, *a tsi vagh'ayi urugh e rughi*, elle a dit qu'elle arrive.

B

ba [bà]. préf nom. cl2. *bapundu, batu, bayisi*. Voir mini-grammaire.

babenyi [bàbéni] n. cl2.(beignets^{fg}). *Masigh tu tsi dji babenyi tsi 5000F ombu Hervé* hier, chez Hervé, nous avons manger des beignets pour 5000F, *Wisi a tsi lamb pwel babenyi*, Wisi a fait beaucoup de beignets.

balu [bálù] n. (ballon, balle). *Ni rondi'usan balu na bambatsi bami*, je veux jouer au ballon avec mes amis. *Yes e sani balu na mondi'yandi*, Yes joue à la balle avec son chien. Syn : **ndel**.

basoset [bàsòsètɛ].n cl2. (chaussettes). *Ni dwari basoset mba yiotsi*, je met des chaussettes à cause du froid. Syn : **idwaru yi ditambi**.

-bok [bókɛ] v. (tuer). *Ba tsi bok mondi'andi pa a ma beelang*, ils ont tué son chien parce qu'il était malade. **boksən** (s'entretuer) il faut les séparer sinon ils vont s'entretuer ; **bokis** (perdre quelqu'un^{fg}/avoir un décès dans la famille) *Aminata a tsi bokis mwane katsi'andi*, Aminata a perdu sa cousine.

-botughth [bòtúɣɛ] v. voir rambugh.

bukulu¹ [bùkùlù] n. (généalogie). *Wisi e djabi bukulu bwandi mba kagha'andi a ma mu tsigunlu*, Wisi connaît sa généalogie parce que sa grand-mère la lui a donnée.

bukulu² [bùkùlù] n. (oseille). *Ni rondi bukulu na tsari*, j'aime le plat d'oseille avec des aubergines. *Bukulu a dji nganyi*, l'oseille est acide.

-bumin [búmínè] v. (laisser). *Bumin mwan ngan*, laisse l'enfant d'autrui. *Mu bumini ubeeli e beeli*, laisse le il est malade. ► **Mbumini** ! laisse moi tranquille. *Mbumini nge rondi usan nawu*, laisse moi tranquille je ne veux pas jouer avec toi.

D

daar [dáárè] n. pl. *badaar*. (draps). *U gho bents usilm mba vagha daar mu tangi*, tu ne peux pas aller te coucher parce qu'il n'y a pas de draps sur lit. *Ngudji'ami a ntsi sumb badaar ba għon*, ma mère m'a acheté une nouvelle paire de draps.

dyaki [dyáki] n. cl5. pl. *maaki* 1. (œuf). *Koku a tsi bur maaki maryieru*, la poule a pondu trois œufs.
2. (omelette). *Ni u lambi maki ?* je te fais une omelette ?

► **Diaki di koku**, œuf de poule.

diboti [dìbótì] 1. n. cl5. (merci). ► **Diboti di neni**, merci beaucoup.
2. adj. (beau/belle, joli/jolie). *Marjorie an'ilingi iboti*, Marjorie a une jolie robe. *Bapundu ba boti*, une belle paire de chaussure. Syn : **bwedji**.

dikotulu¹ [dikótùlù] n. cl5. pl. *makotulu*. (entrée). Voir *munu ndau*.

dikotulu² [dikòtùlù] n. cl5. pl. *makotulu*. (genou). *A tsi tsungughu mu dikotulu*, il s'est blâssé au genou. *Magalie e lili mu mba makotulu mandi be mu vhaghi bwali*, Magalie pleure parce qu'elle a mal aux genoux.

din [dìnè] n. cl5. pl. *min*. 1.(nom). *Din di'au yi ?* comment t'appelles-tu ?
2. **dina**^g (homonyme). *Ni ma vheghu din di kagh'ami, din di'ami*, On m'a donné le nom de ma grand-mère c'est pour cela que c'est mon homonyme.



Il est dans la coutume des Bapunu, et des tribu du Gabon en général de nommer leur enfants après certains membres de la famille à titre honorifique. L'enfant ainsi nommé devient homonyme d'un tel. Aujourd'hui dina est utilisé par différentes autres ethnies du Gabon.

-djab [dzábè] v. Var, **dziab**. (connaître, savoir). *Nge djabi din diandi*, je ne sais pas comment il s'appelle. *Mwan ngwami aki ngebi, a ghe djabi' urend*, mon frère est encore jeune, il ne sait pas écrire.

F

farmasi [fármàsì] n. pl *bafarmasi*. (pharmacie). *Be sumbi bilongu o farmasi*, on achète les médicaments à la pharmacie. *Vhadji farmasi o karti*, il y a une pharmacie dans mon quartier.

fevhriy [féβiyə] n. (février) *fevhriy mughweli mu bedji ghu ilim*, février est le deuxième mois de l'année. *Fevhriy a ghan pwel bilumbu*, février n'a pas beaucoup de jours.

fofuru [fòfùrù] n. (allumette) voir **limet**

folon [fólòn] n. (folon)^{fs} voir **mupoghu**



Folon est un terme appartenant au Français parlé au Gabon. C'est une variété d'épinard. Le mot vient de la langue Fan et a été intégré dans la plupart des langues gabonaises où l'ancienne forme et le nouvelle cohabitent comme en Yipunu.

G

-ghabugh [χábúχə] v. (retourner, repartir). *Nyu ghabugh o Masang na nyangu*, je repars à Tchibanga aujourd'hui. *E ghabuyi o dimbu diandi mughes*, il retourne dans pays demain.

-ghang [χángə] v. (attraper, tenir). Tiens bien pour que ça ne tombe pas. *Ba sti ghang mudaiti*, ils ont attrapé un voleur hier soir. ► **Nkangi** ! tiens moi !

ghatu [χátù] n. pl. *baghatu*. 1. (gâteau). *Ni djabi ulamb baghatu*, je sias faire des gâteaux.

2. (viennoiseries). *Bamans botsu ngudji'ami e sumbi baghatu o Pelisson*, ma mère achète des viennoiseries à Pelisson chaque dimanches. Syn : **bacrwasan** (croissant)

3. (beignets). *We' ye sumb baghatu ba 200Fcfa*, va acheter des beignets pour 200Fcfa. *Ngudji'ami a ghe rondi ni kə dji baghatu o ikol*, ma mère n'aime pas que je mange les beignets qu'on vend à l'école. Syn : **babedum** (bédoume^{fs})

ghe [χé] loc. (ne...pas). *A ghe rondi udji*. Il ne veut pas manger. *Pa u ghe bwili o gho silm nami*, si tu ne te lave pas tu ne dormira pas avec moi.

I

ikol [ikólè] n. pl. (école). *Ni rondi ikol*, j'aime l'école. *Dine di ikol yami Martine Oulabou*, le nom démon école est Martine Oulabou.

ikwang^{ch} [ikwáj] n. cl. pl. (manioc) voir **mughum**

ilasi [ilási] n. cl. pl. *bilasi*. (verre). *A tsi bulu bilasi bi ranu*, il a cassé 5 verres en faissanst la vaisselle. *Mam a tsi wend o dikiasi mu sumb bilisi bi ghon*, maman est allée au marché pour acheter de nouveaux verres.

ilumbu [ilúmbù] n. cl. pl. *bilumbu*. (jour). *Vhadji bilumbu bi sambwali mu tson*, il ya 7 jours dans la semaine.. ► **Ilumbu i tab**, fête du mouton.

irendulu [iréndúlù] n. cl. pl. (stylo à bile/à plume). Il me faut un stylo rouge et un stylo bleu pour l'école. *Nin pwel birendulu mu trus'ami*, ma trousse est pleine de stylos. Syn : **bik**.

J

jedi [zédì] n. pl. *bajedi*. (jeudi). *Nin bamath bajedi*, j'ai cours de math les jeudis.

jiyi [zìyì] n. (juillet). *Ni rondi jiyi mba ni ma burulu jiyi*, j'aime le mois de juillet parce que je suis née en juillet

K

kafi [káfi] n. inv. **1.** (petit déjeuner^{fg}). *Ni nwangi kafi mba ni wend o ikol*, je prend mon petit déjeuner avnat d'aller à l'école.

2. (café). *Katsi'ami e rondi unu mwa kafi*, mon onle aime prendre du café.



Au Gabon boire le café équivaut a prendre le lait au petit déjeuner ou au souper. Le terme café emprunté au français à été transféré pour toute boisson chaude prise plus particulièrement durant le petit déjeuner. Cela peut être de la citronnelle, du thé, un bol de chocolat chaud, etc.

kal¹ [kálè] n. pl. *bakal*. (crabe). J'ai préparé un paquet de crabes. *Vhadji pwel bakal o Immaculée Conception*. Il y a plein de crabes dans la cour de l'Institution Immaculée Conception.

kal² [kàlè] n. (passé).

klandu^{fg} [clándù] n. pl *baklandu* (clando). *Ni bongi klandu tsi bedji mu wend o ikol*, je dois prendre deux clandos pour alller à l'école. *Tadji'ami e conduit klandu*, mon père est chauffeur de clando.



Le clando est un moyen de transport urabin utilisé au Gabon. Il a été emprunté au sens premier du terme français clandestin parce que les chauffuer de clandos ne sont pas des taximen

L

-lab [lábè] v. (voir). *Ni tsi lab*, j'ai vu l'éclipse de lune hier soir. Nadine a vu une soris sous le lit. ► **Labghom**, avoir peur

lambreni [lámbrénì] n. (Lambaréné). L'hôpital Albert Sweitzer se trouve à Lambaréné. *Ni we mu bavhankans o Lambreni*, je vais passer mes vacances à Lambaréné

larmwar [lárèmwàrè] n. cl. pl. (armoire). *We'ye sunts sak'awu o djulu larmwar*, va ranger ton cartable sur l'armoire. *Vhadi larmwar dji neni o ndau ngudji'ami*, il y a une grande armoire dans la chambre de ma mère.

limet [límètè] n. cl. pl. *balimet*. (allumette). *Mpe balimet ni kə bantsi mudji*, donne moi des allumettes pour que j'allume le feu. Il est dangereux de jouer avec des allumettes. Syn : **Fofuru**

M

malungu [màlungù] cl4. inv. **1.** (sang). *Malungu ma batu botsu vhadji beng*, tous les humains ont le sang rouge. *Malungu ma djesu ma ma dek mu pègh monyu*, le sang de Jésus a coulé pour nous donner la vie
2. (menstruations). *A tsi lab malungu mandi*, elle a eu ses premières menstruations. *Nge rondi'udwar bim bi vhem pa nin malungu mami*, je n'aime pas m'habiller en blanc quand je suis en période de menstruation. Syn : **Baregl**

matmatik [mátmatikè]. n. pl. *bamatmatik*. (mathématique). *Bamatmatik badji obligatwar o 6^{ème} na terminal*, les cours de mathématiques sont obligatoires de la 6^{ème} en Terminale. J'ai un prof de mathématiques pour mes cours particuliers. Syn : **bamat**

matsi [mátsì] n. cl. inv. **1.** (huile). *Vha gha matsi o ndau*. Il n'y a plus d'huile à la maison. Ngudji'ami e lambi na matsi ma AgroGabon, ma mère ne prépare qu'avec l'huile agrGabon. ► **Matsi ma ngatsi**, huile de palme
2. (lait de toilette). *Matsi dji ghon dji mam djin muyombu uboti*, la nouvelle lotion de maman sent bon. *Matsi ma Nadia manyingu*, Nadia utilise les manyigu comme lotion.
3. (crème pour les cheveux). *Matsi ma Sulfure ma boti*, Sulfure est une bonne crème pour les cheveux.

mbat [mbátè] n. cl9. pl. *mambat*. (coups). Voir **kub**. ► **udimb mbat**, frapper

mu [mú] **1.** adv. (dans). *Ba ghe vhayi makak mu ilasi*, on ne met pas les doigts dans le verre.
2. préfixe nominal de classe 1. *Mutu, mulumi*

mughum [mùxúmè] n. cl3. pl. *mighum*. (manioc). *Kagh'ami e lambi mighum mi boti*, ma grand-mère fait du bon manioc. *Baghetu ba dikiasi di Kebi be sumb mighum mi mambamb*, les femmes du marché d'Akébé vendent du manioc Obamba¹⁸. Var : **Mulembu, Ikwang**

mulembu^{Ndé} [mùlémbù] n. cl3. pl. *milembu*. (manioc). Voir mughum

N

nan [nànè] adj. (comme). *Saku'andi ajdi nan djau*, ton cartable est comme le sien. *U ghe bentsu'vhagh nan batu botsu !* ne peux-tu pas agir comme tout le monde !

-nangulu [nángúlù] v. (porter, soulever). Mon grand frère est très fort, il peut soulever un cas de riz de 50kg. *Mu naguli, a ki beb*, porte la, c'est encore un bébé

ndau [ndáu] n. cl9. pl. *mandau*. (maison). *Mandau ma Cité Damas ba buedji*, les maisons de la Cité Damas sont joyes. *Tadji'ami e rungi mwa ndau o Mwil*, mon père construit une maison à Mouilla. ► **Munu ndau**, porte ; **Mandau ma dür**, maisons en dur^{fg}

ndel [ndèlè] n. cl9. inv. (Ballon/football). Voir balu

ndosi [ndósi] n. cl. pl9. *mandosi*. (rêve). *A sti ndor ndosi di biv*, il a fait un mauvais rêve. *Pa mutu e ndori muyisi, tsi diambu diboti*, quand on rêe d'une sirène c'est mauvais signe. ► **-NDor ndosi**, rêver

ntsil [ntsílè] n. cl9. pl. *mantsil*. Var ; **nzil** (chemin, route). *Mantsil ma marik badji u sakəm*, les routes en Amérique sont grande. *Be vhayi o Ndendi vhadji mantsil mwin*, On dit qu'à Ndende il y a neufs routes mystiques.

O

o [ò] prep. (à/au). *Ni wend o ikol bilu'biotsu*, chaque jours je vais à l'école. *Ye vhol tsungu o dulombili*, va fumer à l'extérieur/ va fumer dehors.

octobr [òtòbrə] n. (octobre). *Octobr mwa dji bibedji mu mupumu*, octobre est le dixème mois de l'année. *Bo band ikol o octobr o lunivhersite*, les cours reprennent souvent en octobre pour les universités du Gabon

P

-pantsigh [pántsìxə] v. (déchirer, gaspiller). *Ilingi yami dji tsi pantsigh*, ma robe s'est déchirée pendant que je dansais. ► **Papantsigh** broyer, déchiqeter.

pembi¹ [pémbi] n. cl. pl. *bapembi 1*. (pain). Le pain est un aliment cpmplet. *Bangebi be rondi pembi*, les enfants aiment bien le pain.

2. (sandwish). *Ni rondi pembi na jambu tumba nge rondi pembi na konfitür*, j'ai les sandwishes au jambon mais je n'aime pas ceux à la confiture.

pembi² [pémbi] n. cl. pl. *bapembi*. (caolin blanc). *Baghetu pa be yini ikoku be vghahi pembi mu yinsti*, lorsque les femmes dansent le Ikoku elles se badigeonnent le visage de caolin blanc. *Ngudji'ami e gardi pembi mu larmwar'ani a ghe rondi na tuk dji bemb*, ma mère conserve du coalin balcn dans un coin de son amroir et elle pour qu'on y touche.

pidjam [pídžàmə] n. cl. pl. *bapidjam*. (pijama/chemise de nuit). *Pa ni wen yili ni dwari pidjam, tumba mbatsi'ami e we yilu na ilingi yandi*, je dors en pijama tandis que mon ami se met au lit avec n'importe quelle robe. Var, **pindjam**.