

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

LEXICOGRAPHIC STANDARDS OF SELECTED MULTILINGUAL DICTIONARIES
(ENGLISH-OROMO-AMHARIC)

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**Lexicographic Standards of Selected Multilingual Dictionaries
(English-Oromo-Amharic)**

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Abstract

As it is well known the continent of Africa is endowed with its stately splendor- of multilingualism- which, beyond a shadow of doubt, interests scholars worldwide. Likewise, Ethiopia, as a sub-Saharan African country, shares such a feature and potentially has the power to attract the attentions of domestic and expatriate researchers who have the ambitions to investigate such an asset. The long standing writing tradition of the country, via the media of national and international languages, thus, is self-evident. Accordingly, many studies had been undertaken until the present; nevertheless the activity can be persistent. As for this research, the grand objective of it is to evaluate the standards of selected multilingual dictionaries (English-Oromo-Amharic) from the perspective of lexicography. As this would be a dictionary-research, the contents of these publications are thoroughly described, analyzed and criticized to reach on the findings which enable us to unmask these products based on the lexicographic scales- of the maximal standards expected in the light of the art and craft of dictionary-making. Basically, then, it is of qualitative research type. Due to the difficulty and unmanageability of dealing with every aspect of the dictionaries-as the dictum calls the compilation of such works drudgery- representative samples are taken purposively for the optimal results in order to accomplish the study successfully. As a stepping stone, the review of related literature section in this study is used as a frame of reference upon which deep insights into lexicographic principles can be applied for the investigation of the dictionaries liable to criticisms in this case. This study, therefore, reveals that the dictionaries are a nuisance to users and cluttered as far as the quest for up-to-the standard reference is the concern. Their inadequacies stem: first from the lack of appropriate guides in their front matters, second, from the incorrect/non equivalent meanings/translations in their entries, at large, and third, from the inconsistent or inaccurate ordering of the linguistic information in their entries. Undeniably, though, the extent to which these dictionaries are exposed to severe criticism varies and hence they cannot be generally held in contempt out here.

Abbreviations

adj- adjective

adv- adverb

AI- Artificial Intelligence

AID- American Idioms Dictionary

BiD- bilingual dictionary

BM- back matter

CL- central list, i.e. the body part of the dictionary

COED- Concise Oxford English Dictionary

DA- Dictionary Article(s)

FM- front matter

HW- headword

IPA- international phonetic alphabets

L2- second language

MaS- macrostructure of the dictionary

MiS- microstructure of the dictionary

MoD- monolingual dictionary

MuD- multilingual dictionary

n- noun

NLU- Natural Language Understanding

OALD- Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary

pp. -page(s)

SL- source language

TD- translation dictionary

TL- target language(s)

v- verb

**To the memory of
keena**

Chapter One

Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Africa is the most complex part of the world in terms of the number of languages, the size of the communities speaking them, and the area each language covers. This holds true for Ethiopia, one of the African countries which is an exemplary home of multilingual and multiethnic society. As far as this situation is handled as a privilege than disregarded as a nuisance, much can be utilized from such as an asset. However, the pursuit of this becomes futile unless ceaseless effort is undertaken to link the diversified societies making use of potential tools that facilitate and minimize the oral and written communication gap that exists between different ethnolinguistic groups. This could be how multilingualism works.

Moreover, the use of 'ideal language model' that reflects the different dimensions of linguistic reality of a country, is worth considered. This contributes a lot so as to link all societal levels and facilitate communication, knowledge, power- and wealth-sharing, and democratic and participatory governance in such multilingual countries (Ouane and Glanz, 2010:25). Because if such a model is adapted, there will be a system that nurtures inclusion (since language has integrative and instrumental values) by creating awareness among speakers of the local, official and international communities in their respective languages and cultures in stead of amplifying the notion of distance and the feeling of deprivation and exclusion in multilingual contexts.

In this regard Ethiopia has made a considerable progress if we see the different domains (educational, mass media, official, religious and etcetera) in which most of the languages enjoy equal right for written or oral communications. Thus, there is a continuous improvement in the field of education, the literary documents, the technical needs for new expressions by the languages, and the natural development within the languages themselves which in turn have contributed greatly not only to the enrichment of the languages but also to numerous changes within the existing vocabularies. Particularly the preparation of a normative orthography, grammar, and dictionary for the guidance of writers and speakers in a non-homogeneous speech community is aimed at settling and addressing problems related to language use through graphization, standardization, and modernization (Daoust, 2007: 2).

Among the languages used in recording the literary wealth of its nations, Afan Oromo is worthy of special concern to mention out here since the dictionaries selected for criticism in this study are primarily intended to promote the language. On one hand, they attract the attention of the speakers of other languages to learn and use Afan Oromo; on the other hand, they introduce speakers of the language itself to foreign and other Ethiopian language(s). The Oromo language is one of the major languages spoken as a first and second language in Ethiopia. The language has been serving as medium for religious, socioeconomic, education and administrative purposes for a couple of years until now. The Ethiopic script has been serving the language for many years until the Latin script has been introduced as the orthography so as to function in the domains of education, religion, secular works and literature. Most of the people speak Amharic (which is the official language of the government of Ethiopia) as a second language. The use of English, by the nationals in and beyond the secondary level of education is also noticeable. The availability of publication of various reading materials including dictionaries in these languages undoubtedly had played a greater role in advancing multilingualism and literacy.

Local and foreign citizens have had immense contribution for the advancement of literacy in various languages. For example, the colonial legacy of the British, German, Italy, and Dutch encouraged the growth of multilingualism in African languages and bilingualism in African *linguae francae* and their European languages. The citizens of these alien countries were mainly missionaries and have contributed much by devising orthographies, and writing grammars and dictionaries of African languages, as a step towards developing literacy in indigenous languages although, needless to say, they have had their own missions at their disposals (Abdulaziz, 2003: 106).

It is expected that lexicographers must have a background in many fields of linguistics: phonology, grammar, semantics, sociolinguistics, historical linguistics, to name a few. What is more, to use a computer they must have basic computer skills. It helps them to manage a large project. It would seem that the task requires a professional lexicographer. But in spite of such requirements, as it has been already said many dictionaries have been produced by field linguists, anthropologists, language learning specialists, missionaries and others, (Moe, 2007).

Since the nature of lexicography is that each new dictionary draws to a greater or lesser extent on its predecessors, earlier works of the practice of dictionary making in English, Oromo and Amharic generally deserves separate overviews as follows. Lexicography, the writing of dictionaries, is as old as written language. It dates back to Sumerian, the language spoken by the tribes who from the fifth to the second millennium B.C. occupied southern Mesopotamia. If we examine the history of English dictionary, it is said that it started to emerge around fifteenth century. It is the composition, if not yet the actual publication, of the *promtorium parvulorum clericorum*, the supposed product of the anchorite monk Galfridus, or Geoffrey the Grammarian. This work which seems to have been written around 1440 and appeared in print about fifty years later is generally seen as the earliest English Dictionary. It was in fact an English-Latin dictionary- a purely monolingual English lexicon would not have arrived until 1604, (Green, 1996: 33).

Lexicographic works that had involved the Oromo language started to emerge in the recent past (approximately in 19th c.). There had been traces of evidence for this claim as can be observed from Survey of Oromo Literature, (Term Papers, 2011). For instance, one of the binning efforts is that of Lewis Philip who took the initiative by compiling a bilingual dictionary (Oromo-French) in 1839. This is followed by the works of such German citizens as Ludwig Krapf who published “Vocabulary of the Oromo Language” in 1842 and Karl Tutschek, who compiled “Dictionary of the Oromo Language” in 1844. A scholar noted for publishing a trilingual dictionary is Lawrence, who is the author of “Oromo-English-German Dictionary” published in 1844. One of the individuals who had a missionary career is Bishop Andre Jarousseau who is noted for compiling “The Italian-Oromo Dictionary” and “Dizionario della Lingua Oromo” in 1939. One of the recent works is done by Gene Gragg who compiled “Oromo-English Dictionary in 1982. Among others, these were some of the pioneers for compiling dictionaries as foreigners whose intelligence had served as sources of inspiration for the development of lexicography in the language and no matter how they hardly meet issues of comprehensiveness, representativeness and systematic arrangement in terms of the treatment of the language, content and format.

As for the Amharic, dictionary making can be traced back to the time in point when the language had already begun to be used in writing. The making of dictionaries at the moment mostly had

been undertaken with participation of foreign scholars who had the purpose of facilitating different works of translation by using Amharic alongside the foreign languages. The first publication was the Amharic-Latin Dictionary by Job Ludolf in 1698. Following this, the English-Amharic Dictionary by Charles William Isenberg in 1841 could be mentioned; moreover the later years of 1881 resulted in French-Amharic, whereas the year 1917, Amharic-Italian dictionaries among others (•••• •••• •••• , 2001• i).

As the review of the earlier dictionaries indicate, dictionaries, however seemingly venerable, do not spring fully formed from no where since there are always sources-some specified some general and some recent and others can be traced back into antiquity- which underpin their creation. From the history of the dictionaries, we can observe that bilingual dictionary preceded the later invention of monolingual dictionary. Of course the types of dictionaries included trilingual (multilingual) dictionary type. Obviously, thus, the forgone works can be used as a foundation that the later lexicographers could use the opportunity of revising and updating the existing dictionaries to produce new editions apart from taking on the challenge of innovation and hack a fresh path for lexicography. Whatsoever, works of previous generations of lexicographers are the grounds upon which current works are built both in determining the headword list and in deciding the kinds of information provided.

Much has happened, both in respect of the making of dictionaries and in respect of their academic study. First, as commercial publications publishers invest considerable sum of money in their development; and they are tailored to perceived market needs. Like any other book publication, they are subjected to review in newspapers, magazines and professional journals. And, second, as linguistic descriptions they are of interest to language and linguistics scholars, who subject them to academic scrutiny and criticism. Indeed, a specialist branch of linguistic studies has developed whose concern is specifically lexicography. For instance it is stated that academic lexicography, or 'metalexigraphy', is concerned, among other things, with the business of 'dictionary criticism, which proposes methods and criteria for reviewing and evaluating dictionaries (Jackson, 2003:30). Accordingly, to be clear from the outset, lexicographic principles serve this research as a litmus test case for the identification of the standard of the English-Oromo-Amharic (multilingual) dictionaries. On any account, the analysis

of the application of the theory in the works subjected to criticism under this study is a worthwhile thing not to be ignorant of.

2. Statement of the Problem

Any dictionary, apart perhaps from the occasional scholarly undertaking, is a commercial venture. It requires considerable investment in staff, equipment, materials, and time. It has to be planned and managed; it requires the involvement of erudite persons, with a wide range of specialist knowledge and skills. Like marriage, compiling a dictionary is, thus, not something to be 'contemplated lightly'. Lexicographers ascertain that several crucial stages are involved in the process of producing dictionaries that it would be impossible to disregard them on the account of their bearing on the outcome. Reasonably, yet, we are also cautious of their remark that 'dictionaries are not born everyday' since, as they argue, their production is hugely expensive from the scratch (Atkins and Rundell, 2008:18).

In the light of the above points, planning a dictionary involves to identify: what kind of its publication is sought, why, using which language(s), for whom, of what type, size and style. Understandably, so, dictionary-makers need to be considerate of what it all asks before rushing into the activity as for the advices of many theoreticians and experts in the area. A one-volume dictionary that claims coverage of a whole language, for instance, has to compress and prioritize a great deal, and at present, it is a process that has to be carried out by highly-trained lexicographers (Sinclair, 2007:71).

The development of a language is, in one way or another, affected by its repository-a dictionary. Scholarly endeavors of such a study has to explore how well due care has been taken in the making of genuine reference tools for the audience. While it never fails to appreciate the effort of making permanent records in a published volumes which is beyond a shadow of doubt desirable, yet it is curious about their standards because there no such a perfect dictionary. The attempt of reaching perfection is likened to 'chasing the sun' and what's more the lexicographer has been viewed as a 'harmless drudge' while contrarily, others refute the later conception describing the lexicographer as 'drudge triumphant' as interpreter and arbiter of the language itself. The dictionary maker, hence, is proved to be closer to 'deity' than to 'drudge' (Green, 1996:4).

More than any time in the past, currently, there are multitudes of dictionaries in the market ranging from the mini to the big volume, monolingual-multilingual and general-specialized. We are very much accustomed to witness the proliferation of dictionaries whereby a single author, barely assisted by other professionals, may even compile a bunch of them in short period of time though many scholars believe that a lexicographer's task is tedious and exhausting. So in such circumstances whereby the emerging authors hardly win our trust, it needs to unveil the motivation behind such activities which could probably turn out to be either out of innocent ambitions or due to the intent for income-generation.

3. Objective of the Study

One of the crucial issues for dictionary criticism is critiquing and reviewing dictionaries by way of establishing a sound and rigorous basis upon which to conduct the criticism, together with a set of applicable criteria. Though the objective of making a review of a dictionary as commercial publications is, on one hand, to entice and win the favor of the potential audience, on the other hand, apparently as linguistic descriptions, they are of interest to language and linguistics scholars, who subject them to academic scrutiny and criticism which is the concern of academic lexicography (metalexicography) (Jackson, 2003: 174). Of course, we also need to be aware of the fact that this discipline has also the purpose of researching and teaching about the whole business of dictionary making apart from looking at the products of lexicography so as to subject them to rigorous criticism with the effect of resulting them in a review or academic works like this thesis.

By the same token, the grand objective of this study is criticizing multilingual dictionaries (English-Oromo-Amharic) on the basis of lexicographic standards. It is assumed that any of such lexicographic material has essential features. It is clear that a product is judged by its value. Obviously one cannot evaluate a book (hence a dictionary) by looking at its cover. While the user's perspective is one possible option, the information contained in them is also sufficient to make our analysis. There are certain principles followed by which dictionaries can be structured according to how they are meant to function. This study is, thus, intended to see if any of the selected dictionaries fulfill the principles in lexicography based on the way they present the information in them apart from the in depth criticism on the meanings/translations of the

headwords in the articles of each dictionaries. The following points may illustrate the details of the objective of this research work.

- Examining the front/back matters of the dictionaries to see if they qualify the presentation of basic lexicographic information in a way that can be taken respectively as effective guide and essential information for their audience,
- Analysing the organization of the body of the dictionaries and the information coverage of the entries,
- Criticising the meanings/translations of the dictionary articles and
- Coming up with findings on how well the dictionaries really meet the requirements of the working principles in lexicography.

4. Significance of the study

This study is undoubtedly significant with respect to the purpose of the theoretical and practical knowledge gained from lexicographic undertaking. To begin with, let us see the famous quotation by Samuel Johnson (cited in Carter, 1998:150) reads as: “the value of a work must be estimated by its use: it is not enough that a dictionary delights the critic, unless at the same time it instructs the learner.” It follows that, the intention of making this study is with the expectation that it contributes much by practically showing how well the dictionaries stand in a position to satisfy the interest of their users. The difficulties that the authors face in coming up with an acclaimed type of reference, which is assumed to consequently affect the users in general, will, thus, be investigated in this study.

Provided that there is a possibility to access such a research, the compilers benefit from it because it is one way of learning about their weaknesses and strengths. In the long run, no doubt, the study achieves its purpose of solving the problems of the authors and users by inspiring either the revision of the earlier or making of new works that instruct very well. Moreover, the aspiration behind this venture is to bring together researchers, linguists, and any one who share interests in multilingual dictionaries. From the insight into lexicography and dictionary research, the audience (language learners, translators, anthropologists, users with varied interests at their disposals, etc) will be aware of the standards that the references they look for must qualify and

choose the appropriate one, language students and individuals concerned will be motivated to carry out similar researches—as today’s research is tomorrow’s inspiration.

5. Scope of the Study

Dictionary reviews and criticisms vary enormously in their approach and in their scope. There is a need, therefore, for sets of criteria to be established so as to explicitly state what scope this research work has. It is significant to see some sets of criteria for the evaluation of dictionaries where for instance: one set relates to the reference function of dictionaries and the user’s perspective, and is largely about presentation and accessibility; while the other relates to the recording function of dictionaries, and is largely about content (Jackson, 2003: 173-174). Accordingly the second set is chosen as a criterion. Thus, instead of the users’ perspective, the content perspective of the dictionaries is chosen for analysis.

The dictionaries selected for this purpose are three, which are compiled by different authors. The types of dictionaries to be analyzed are multilingual. They are chosen from those publications found between the year 1998-2010 which are: Hinsene Mekuria’s (2010) “*Ellelee*: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary,” Legesse Geleta’s (2008) “*Hirkoo*: English- Afan Oromo-Amharic Dictionary,” and Wossine Beshah’s (1998) “*Jumbo*: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary.” Making the analyses of all the dictionaries that are available at the moment may not be an easy task; hence, it is due to this fact that the researcher is compelled to make certain selections. And since it would make the study unmanageable to use each and every lexicographic issue as yardsticks, the study focuses on certain aspects of the dictionaries. Most importantly the focus would be on matters of areas that are considered to be given priority and inexcusable to be overlooked. The front and back matter of a dictionary should be checked because of their unquestionable importance and because they qualify the concept of content (Kiefer and Sterkenburg, 2003: 353). Therefore, in this study more space is devoted to issues of meaning/translation of the entries and the treatment of linguistic information in the body part of the dictionaries with appropriate examples selected from some of the pages.

6. Research Methodology

As this study is based on researching the content of selected lexicographic references, the research type is of qualitative in nature. On the ground of its typically textual behavior the research is of content analysis which is closely associated with qualitative research. Due to the nature of such research type that makes it is less systematic and standardized in its data collection approach, it is unquestionable to undergo the research with care being selective. In fact the concern is not about how representative the sample is but the selection of samples that could give us rich and varied insights. The goal is best achieved by means of purposeful or purposive sampling. Thus, it requires the researcher to select the most useful out of the bulky data. The aim is then to understand, describe, analyze and criticize the dictionaries using the most important samples that could give varied insights in the study (Dörnyei, 2007: 112-117, 223). As it is well asserted by this scholar also, it can be realized that a very well conducted qualitative research is very labor-intensive and typically takes very smaller samples. Meanwhile, intensive analysis of how the texts are structured and specific data required for the practical purpose of explanation are carefully chosen.

7. Organization of the Study

This research work is organized into five chapters. In the first chapter, background of the study where an overview of the history of lexicography is given as a door through which we step into this study followed by its objective and scope that cannot, also, be excluded. As we unfold the second chapter, which holds review of related literature, issues under the umbrella of lexicography are dealt with but briefly. The third chapter that follows this is, whereas, devoted to the research methodology this study has pursued. Meanwhile, one of the pivotal sections in this work, the fourth chapter (the analysis part), is there to unmask with its rigorous criticism, the dictionaries chosen for the purpose of this study. Last but not least, recommendations and conclusion would be of concerns to the last chapter after which the research paper is concluded with the outlines of the references used from the beginning to end.

Chapter Two

Review of Related Literature

This chapter deals with theoretical issues related to this study. First and foremost, attempt will be made to introduce lexicography. This would be a helpful orientation whereby erudite overview of the field of study is offered. Linguistic insights that could be attributable to the discipline of lexicography are also worthy of discussion. Since lexicography, as a science and/or art, is all about dictionary making, it also requires to see the nature of a dictionary. Following this, the dictionary typology is briefly discussed with separate discussions of monolingual dictionary (MoD), bilingual dictionary (BiD) and multilingual dictionary (MuD) types. Most importantly, at the end, the business of dictionary criticism would be identified.

2.1 Lexicography

Lexicography is, often, misconceived as a branch of linguistics (Hartmann and James 1998:vii). Just like in other disciplines, that are associated with linguistics, lexicography also has problems of positioning itself firmly on a theoretical background due to its history as a field of academic study. Yet there are such scholars who firmly state that, 'lexicography is applied lexicology,' (Jackson and Amvela, 2000:185). However, lexicography is believed to be a discipline in its own right (Hartmann, 2001:33).

If lexicography is not part of linguistics, then it should have its own theories that are not necessarily linguistic theories. Some scholars lament the lack of lexicography theories and they express their concerns that an accompanying theory has been slow in coming; there is therefore not a strong skeleton to attach disciplinary flesh to. No wonder, then, that practitioners working in an academic context still often claim to be part of philology, languages, applied linguistics, media studies, information technology and other subject groups in order to improve their academic respectability (Hartmann, 2001:7).

As can be observed above the concern for a theory of lexicography is being obviously overstated; otherwise, lexicographers have generally been respected for their works regardless of whether it was considered an academic discipline or not. Nonetheless, we do underline the importance of a clear theory on lexicography. This concern of theory; as already stated

previously, is complicated by defining what constitutes lexicography. While some scholars describe lexicography by claiming that it is a science, a craft, part of linguistics and applied lexicology (Newell, 1994:1 and Landau, 1984: 121), others claim that it is “a calculable, analysable, checkable, manageable, testable and teachable practical process, or ‘cultural practice’, aimed at producing dictionaries to satisfy the reference needs of their users” (Hartmann, 2001:12).

It might seem to be ironical that it is problematic to delimit what constitute theory in lexicography, when in fact lexicography is also defined as ‘the theory and practice of dictionary-making’. One assumption that can be drawn here is that any dictionary-making process is informed by theory even if it could not be explicitly stated. Secondly, lexicographers usually comment on their work, either in their dictionaries as front matter or later elsewhere. That could also be taken as forming part of the theory. When lexicographers reflect on their practice and speculate and generalize about joys and limits of their work they move into the realm of theory or metalexicography (Hartmann, 2001:27). Metalexicography or dictionary research has models, principles and methodology from which we can infer the underlying theoretical framework. Thus, for some other scholars ‘lexicography’ is conceived as a discipline in its own, (Halliday, 2002:2-3, Bowker, 2003: 154, and Moe, 2007).

It would be of greater significance to notice that most scholarly endeavors have identified what the aim of dictionary research should be in outlines and their conviction could be that it should answer theoretical, methodological, terminological, historical and pedagogical questions that may arise in the lists given below (Wiegand, 1998) (cited in Hadebe, 2002: 44).

- The design and compilation of new dictionaries
- The care and maintenance of older dictionaries
- The critical evaluation of dictionaries
- The assessment of the dictionary user’s needs and skills
- The use of computers in dictionary-making and dictionary research
- The elaboration of a history of dictionary-making and dictionary research
- The determination of the cultural-historical importance of dictionaries
- The specification of dictionary formats and structures

- The specification of the information categories contained in dictionaries
- The classification of dictionaries into types
- The teaching of dictionary reference skills
- The systematic documentation of dictionaries and the metalexigraphic literature
- The development of a general theory of lexicography (Hartmann, 2001:30).

One can claim that most contemporary dictionary projects would answer these questions in one way or the other. Generally, dictionary research has been in dictionary history, dictionary criticism, and dictionary typology or dictionary use and dictionary structure. The above points can also fit into these major categories. In this thesis, obviously stated, dictionary criticism is the main focus.

2.2 Linguistic Insights for Lexicography

Lexicography is a good example of a domain in which linguistic insights can be directly applied and practical advantages quite readily recognized (Carter, 1998: 150). The fact that many people working in the field of lexicography lack formal training in linguistics, regardless of its invaluable contribution, demands us to raise the discussion in this section.

Therefore, it is on the one hand argued that grounding in linguistic theory is not necessarily a prerequisite for being a proficient lexicographer and less a guarantee of success. Regardless of this fact, on the other hand, the ongoing discussion should not be undermined since basic linguistic concepts are invaluable in preparing people to analyze data and to produce concise, accurate dictionary articles. Besides, an awareness of linguistic theory can help lexicographers to do their jobs more effectively and with greater confidence. In short, a good lexicographer will become a much better one with an understanding of relevant theoretical ideas.

One of the most important tasks of a lexicographer is to capture the ‘meaning’ of a word in a definition. We need to determine first of all what constitutes the ‘meaning’ of a word. The suggestion is that the meaning of a word is composed of a number of features: its relation with the real world, the associations that it carries with it, its relations with other words in the vocabulary, and the regular company that it keeps with other words in sentence and text structure. Many words have more than one meaning; they manifest ‘polysemy’. Ascertaining

how many meanings, or 'senses', a lexeme has, and in what order to arrange them are difficult decisions for a lexicographer to make, and dictionaries may differ quite markedly in their analysis. Lexical ambiguity is a problem that was rarely attacked directly in early works on Natural Language Understanding (NLU) in Artificial Intelligence (AI). However, it is the most important problem facing an NLU system. The goal of NLU is understanding and correctly determining the meaning of the words used, which is fundamental not only to NLU but also to the description of words in dictionary (Cottrell, 1989: 1). The immediate discussion is concerned with the general factors that may apply to any lexeme or sense of a lexeme (Jackson, 2003:15-18, Teubert and Čermáková, 2004: 129-131 and Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 130-159).

Reference- the primary feature of meaning is the association of reference between a lexeme and the entity – person, object, feeling, action, idea, quality, etc. – in the real world that the lexeme denotes. The exact nature of the reference relation has exercised the minds of linguists and philosophers over many centuries. We use words to talk about and make reference to the world we live in, our experience of that world, our speculation about what might have been or could be, our imagination of other possible worlds and possible scenarios.

Connotation- a distinction is often drawn between the 'denotation' of a word and its 'connotation'. While the denotation is the straightforward, neutral relation between a word and its referent, the connotation brings in the, often emotive, associations that a word may have for a speaker or a community of speakers.

Sense relations- a third contributory factor to the meaning of a lexeme or a sense of a lexeme is the semantic relations it contracts with other lexemes in the vocabulary, often termed 'sense relations'. They include: sameness or similarity of meaning (synonymy), oppositeness of meaning (antonymy), the 'kind of' relation (hyponymy), and the 'part of' relation (meronymy).

Collocation- the sense relations between words are 'paradigmatic' relations: a synonym, antonym, hyponym or meronym would substitute for its counterpart in some slot in the structure of sentences. The meaning of a word is also determined by its 'syntagmatic' relations, specifically by its collocation, the other words that typically accompany it in the structure of sentences and discourses. For example, the noun *ban* is typically modified by the adjective *total* or *complete*, is associated with the verbs *impose* and *lift*, and is followed by the preposition *on*. In a sentence with the verb *spend*, the object would typically consists of either an amount of money

(*two hundred pounds*) or a period of time (*last weekend*). The adjective *flippant* typically associates either with a noun referring to something said (*remark, answer, comment*) or with the noun *attitude*. The word 'typically' occurs in all these statements about collocation, because collocation is a matter of the statistical probability or likelihood that two words will co-occur.

Therefore, the components of (the sense of) a lexeme's meaning are: its relations with the 'real world' in the form of its denotation and connotation; its relations with other (senses of) lexemes in the vocabulary; its relations with the other lexemes that typically accompany it in the structure of sentences. It has to be noted, as well that, meaning is an aspect of signs (which may include symptoms, icons and symbols). Meaning and form are, thus, inseparable. Once we take away the form, the meaning vanishes. This is why it is wrong to look at language as a system into which you can encode a message and from which you can decode a message. There is no message without form. It is wrong to say the text contains a meaning; the text is the meaning. We can say that our life has a meaning only if we take it to be a sign, a symbol for something else. The information in a dictionary contains semantic and formal information which the following illustration may describe.

Finally, it also deserves to see that there are several distinctions that we need to make between important concepts. Linguists use the terms 'word', 'morpheme', 'allomorph', 'affix', 'root', 'stem', 'derivative', 'compound', and 'phrase' to refer to various kinds of linguistic units. Lexicographers use the terms 'lexeme', 'headword', 'citation form', 'complex form', and 'variant' to refer to linguistic units that are important for lexicography. They also use the terms 'main entry', 'subentry', and 'minor entry' to refer to various kinds of dictionary entries. It is vitally important that we understand these terms so that we put the correct information in the right field and label the information correctly. It would, also, be relevant to see the following illustration of a dictionary component on meaning and form.

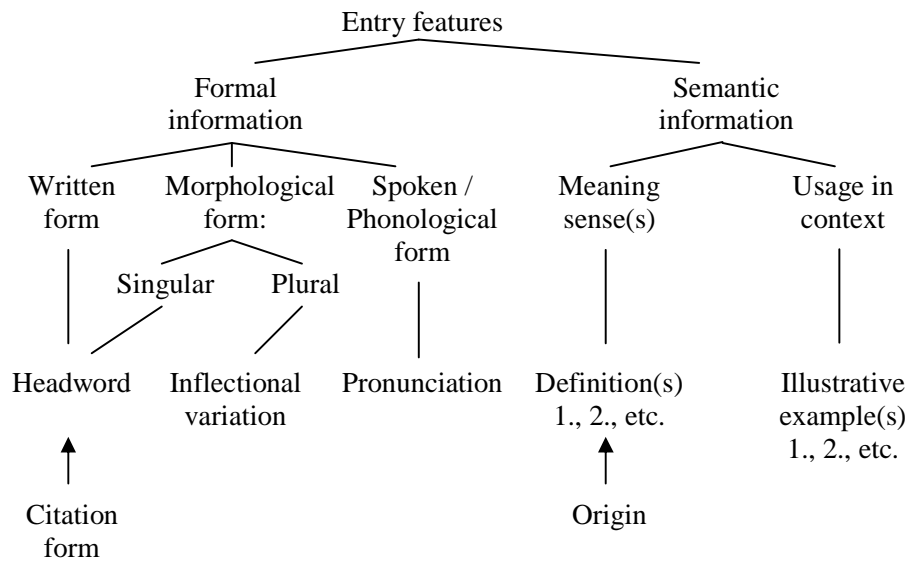


Figure 2.1 Formal and Semantic Information in a Dictionary Entry

2.3 Dictionary Defined

An attempt of finding an adequate and up-to-date definition of dictionary would be hardly ever achieved (Sterkenberg, 2003: 3). This holds true if we review most of the scopes of the literature on lexicography. Thus, it would be an illusion to think that we can find the definition of dictionary, which is excusable though, since there is no way for them to include all dictionaries of different types in one definition. Consequently, this problem has to be resolved by examining the typologies and identities of many of the dictionaries discussed in more or less detail so as to come up with an inclusive definition for general understanding of the issue and most importantly so as to achieve the purpose of this research which focuses on MuDs. Accordingly, it has to be noted that, the following definitions are selected for discussion on the rationale that they can provide clear picture of what kind of information is basically constituted in defining dictionaries in spite of the differences in their typologies. It is also appropriate to subject them to criticism not merely for the sake of criticism but on the accounts of what they fail to take into consideration, at least superficially, and what makes them to be revered to learn from their strengths.

It has, once again, to be noted that scholars have defined dictionary from their own perspectives at various times. Their approach may remarkably vary based on a number of factors like not only the type of dictionary, as has been mentioned so far, but also the users, purpose it accomplishes,

the medium and others. This being the case, it is essential to understand the fact that there is a basic similarity to be shared among their definitions. All of them do for instance agree that a dictionary describes the vocabulary of a language. The following definition by Zgusta, who is considered as the twentieth century godfather of lexicography, is worth looking at.

A dictionary is a systematically arranged list of socialized linguistic forms compiled from the 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 concerning the function of that form in its community (Zgusta,1971:17).

Apparently, as can be observed from this definition, a dictionary is a reference tool which is designed systematically in order to serve a given linguistic community. Yet the definition is criticized for being a little elitist, as it considers the lexicographer's descriptions to be a code, perhaps even a secret code that can only be understood by a well educated user (Sterkenberg, 2003: 3). There is another definition which is thought to be less fragile and much more an explicit definition (Svensén 1993:3–4). It states that a dictionary is a book that in the first place contains information on the meaning of words and their usage in specific communicative situations. It is further explained that a dictionary distinguishes itself from other sources of information in that it does not offer information in a coherent order, but divided into thousands of short chapters or sections which in lexicography usually referred to as articles or dictionary entries, meaning the headwords and everything that is said about them. The user consults it if s/he does not know the meaning of a word, if s/he is unsure of the spelling, or if s/he just wants to fill a gap in his knowledge.

The preceding definitions share common ground with a kind of definition which asserts and also suggests that dictionaries describe the vocabulary of a language and for any given word a good dictionary tells its readers the ways in which that word typically contributes to the meaning of an utterance, the ways in which it combines with other words, the type of texts it tend to occur in, and so on (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 44). For these scholars a reliable dictionary is one whose generalizations about word behavior approximate closely to the ways in which people normally use (and understand) language when engaging in real communicative acts.

Considerably, there is absolutely nothing wrong with the definitions provided by the aforementioned lexicographers from a scholarly point of view but they are criticized for being outdated, because they are based purely on books and do not account for e-books. Besides, they are also less concerned with the question as to whether criteria can be developed which can provide a systematic answer to the question of what requirements must a dictionary meet in order to be called a dictionary.

Thus, having seen all such myriads of definitions we need to resort to the three set of criteria called formal, functional and content in order to provide a better comprehension of the characteristic features that qualify the definition of a dictionary. Consider the following.

The proto-typical dictionary has the form of a static (book) or dynamic product (e-dictionary) with an inter-structure that establishes links between the various components (e-dictionary) and is usually still alphabetically structured (book). It is a reference work and aims to record the lexicon of a language, in order to provide the user with an instrument with which they can quickly find the information they need to produce and understand the language(s) described. It also serves as a guardian of the purity of the language, of language standards and of moral and ideological values because it makes choices, for instance, in the words that are to be described. With regard to content it mainly provides information on spelling, form, meaning, usage of words and fixed collocations (Sterkenberg, 2003: 8).

This definition tells us the possibility of the form in which dictionary can be made accessible to the reader which is in either the form of a book or electronic form. Besides, the definition states the way a dictionary can be structured which is alphabetical, in spite of the existence of other possible alternatives. The definition is somehow broader in its scope that it explains what content and use a dictionary may generally have. Not to say, however, unbiased for we do not miss the fact that the definition's sole concern is the proto-typical type of dictionary--- which is a monolingual general purpose dictionary.

So as to avoid confusions of demarcation as to which definition applies to what type of dictionary, yet it requires a further investigation of other references. Anyway, inevitably, still there may be some sort of partiality in them for some reasons. But, the endeavor of providing a

thorough understanding and an all-inclusive picture of how a dictionary can be understood is finally seen in what follows.

Basically, there is a general consensus among scholars that dictionaries of any kind are consulted by users for information of greater or lesser significance whatsoever and serve as a record of vocabulary of a language. Dictionaries, also share commonalities for instance none would appear without entries and due care should be taken so as not to be ignorant of the information that deserve to be included by lexicographers. To sum up, it is of good intent not to undermine the proceeding remark which illustrates that a dictionary as a repository of facts about a language whatsoever the type is: no matter if MoD or a BiD, or whether it is for translation purpose, or to check a spelling or to settle a dispute in a game of Scrabble, “the dictionary is a trusted and respected repository of facts about a language.” And an important part of its good image is that it has institutional authority (Carter, 1998: 151).

2.4 The Constituent Parts of a Dictionary

Most of the lexicographers never abstain from discussing the component parts of a dictionary. Likewise, we can distinguish dictionaries on the basis of their macro- and microstructural features. In terms of their macrostructure (MaS), dictionaries are compared with regard to the stratum/strata and scope of the vocabulary of a language from which lemmas are selected for lexicographical description in a dictionary; and the principle(s) underlying the ordering of the lemmas (alphabetic, conceptual/ ideological or a combination of both). Taking their microstructure (MiS) as point of departure, dictionaries are compared with regard to the categories of grammatical information provided for each lemma in a dictionary article and the ordering of these information categories within a dictionary article (Swanepoel, 2003: 46-47).

From the perspective of its MaS, there are potentially three parts to a dictionary i.e. the front matter (FM), the central list (CL) (the body) and the back matter (BM) (appendices). The distinctive features of these three parts of a dictionary are discussed in detail below. No matter how the extent and type of information in them varies considerably, these parts cannot be avoided and there certainly exist basic items that serve the end users considerably (Gouws, 2003: 34 and Jackson, 2002: 26).

The outer texts (the FM) of a dictionary play an important role in ensuring a successful retrieval of information. This part usually includes an introduction or preface, explaining the innovations and characteristics of the edition concerned, together with a guide to using the dictionary, which may consist of a single page diagram or some lengthier account.

The CL, i.e. the alphabetical section or 'dictionary proper' in a general TD or descriptive dictionary, has to be regarded as the text containing the most typical lexicographic treatment. The CL contains all the article stretches, i.e. the articles included under one alphabet letter. The CL is only one of the texts in a dictionary and each article constitutes a partial text of the central list, but each article can also be regarded as a text in its own right. This part of a dictionary contains an alphabetical list of 'headwords' (HW). Each HW is accompanied by a number of pieces of information, which together with the HW constitute the 'entry'. The HW is usually printed in bold type and hangs one or two spaces to the left of the other lines.

The BM is the appendices that immediately follows the body of the dictionary (CL) and contains may be various and even non-lexical; here is a selection: abbreviations, foreign words and phrases, ranks in the armed forces, List of counties, weights and measures, musical notation, alphabets of selected languages, punctuation, works of some notable scholars and etc. Before seeing, further, the dichotomy of the two main structural features in detail, it would be important to have a look at the following figure which illustrates the model of dictionary structure (Hartmann, 2001: 59).

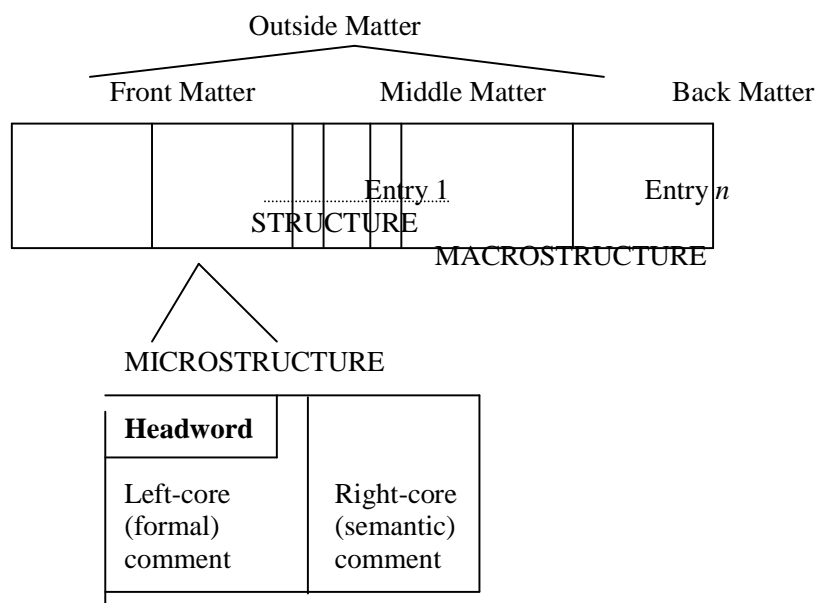


Figure 2.2 Macro- and Microstructure of a dictionary

2.4.1 Macrostructural Features of a Dictionary

The macrostructural features/structures of any dictionary (MaS) are mainly the information contained in the front and back of a dictionary. However, the MaS also refers to the selection of various types of HW described in the body part of the dictionary (CL) and the way in which these are ordered by the dictionary compiler. The front matter (FM) and back matter (BM) of a dictionary can be structured as follows (Newell, 1994: 332-342).

I. The Front matter

Dictionary Preface

This might include the following information

- A brief history of the dictionary project
- Aims of the dictionary, e.g. purpose and audience
- Acknowledgements
- Sponsorship

Table of Contents of a Dictionary

The table of contents should be a complete list of all parts of the dictionary with page numbers, omitting the preface and table of contents.

Introduction to the Dictionary the following information might be included in here:

- Language and dialect
- Sources of lexical material included in the dictionary
- Pronunciation
- The analytical basis of the headword, whole words or roots, stems and affixes
- Organisation of the entry
- List of abbreviations

Grammar Sketch

The particular aspects of the grammar dealt with in the dictionary will need to be included as part of the grammar sketch, such as: phonology, morphophonemics (free and conditioned variants of morphemes), morphology (roots, inflectional and derivational affixations), phrase structure, clause structure, sentence structure and, to a lesser extent, paragraph structure (for a description of a few particles).

II. The Back Matter

Appendices

Some information in the dictionary is better dealt with in an appendix. These are some possibilities:

- Any listing of closed lexical sets.
- An ethnographic sketch.
- An ethnographic inventory of terms in specific fields.
- Thesaurus or semantic classification of lexemes, grouping them into semantic domains.
- Short vocabularies or word lists representing specific fields, domains or lexical sets.
- A short grammar sketch of the source language.
- Map(s) of the general language area including the dialect(s) included in the lexical description.
- Second-language Index to the dictionary.
- Bibliography or references.

2.4.2 Microstructural Features of a Dictionary

The number of lists that lexicographers come up with concerning the information that a dictionary must include in it is not fixed. What we cannot assume, however, is that they may necessarily exclude information that they might expect users will not want to look up because the inclusion of each and trivial elements into dictionary is virtually impossible due to space and time factors. So, at least, most of them do not miss the fact that there should be certain basic qualities they entail. However, for instance, it is suggested that a pertinent dictionary should: be easily consultable by all users, regardless of their native language; contain information about meaning, etymology, image, frequency of use, and use (with examples) (Elena, 2009: 5-6). With regard to their MiS features, accordingly, dictionaries differ in the profile they present of the grammatical features of a lemma. The dictionary articles (DA) of the various kinds contain information on all or a number of the following information categories (Swanepoel, 2003: 47 and Newell, 1994: 255-257).

- **orthographic data** (spelling, formal variants);
- **phonetic data** (pronunciation, stress);
- **syntactic data** (syntactic category, combinatorics, collocates); grammatical designation for each sense is the concern.
- **morphological data** (inflectional morphology, derivation and compounding); on the other hand this has to do with the citation form of the dictionary. A citation form ideally is either a free form (i.e., a word occurring without inflection), or a bound root or stem from which words are constructed through inflection. Various senses are listed under a single citation form; homonyms are listed as separate entries. The subentries of the morphological data may also include in its citation idioms, set phrases, and sayings.
- **Paradigmatic information** all major inflectional affixation of the lexical form should be indicated. This includes plural forms for nouns, degree for adjectives, and tense, case, aspect, and mode for verbs.
- **semantic data** (cross-referencing to other lexemes) which deals with senses and meaning structure, sense relations which would include cohyponyms, synonyms, analogous lexemes, antonyms, generics, specifics, lexemes with other functional relationships, or to lexemes listed in tables and appendices

- **stylistic data** (classification of the lexeme according to speech style) with labels such as formal, slang, archaic, euphemistic, humorous, etc.
- **distributional data** (geographical or sociolinguistic distribution; frequency within a corpus)
- **etymological data** (subfile information) this might include semantic classification of the lexeme for the purpose of developing a semantically-classified lexical display, or a thesaurus. It might also be a place to record the use of this lexeme for translating a source language concept, or to store information such as etymologies or proto-form reconstructions.
- **usage** (sense discrimination) the basic and extended meanings of lexical items are indicated in separate descriptions following sense numbers and/or letters.
- **illustrative data** (verbal and nonverbal examples); for instance one or more illustrative sentences, preferably chosen from natural texts, may occur following a gloss and/or accompanying extended grammatical, semantic, or ethnographic information. Translation (like the gloss) may be in one or more languages.
- **interlingual data** (definition or gloss). For multilingual dictionaries the gloss might be expressed in one, two or three (rarely more) languages so as to provide their translation equivalents.
- **encyclopedic information** such information could be: a) Ethnographic information. Lexemes, when possible, should be observed and described within their cultural contexts. This kind of information, if it is helpful in understanding the function of the lexeme, should be either described within the article or in an appendix and b) Expanded semantic information. There may be unique semantic features of the lexeme requiring a description more extensive than can be expressed in the comment of a gloss or definition.

To sum up, macrostructure consists exclusively of the list of headwords and their choice varies from language to language. The lexical descriptions, of microstructural part of a dictionary, range from simple word lists to various kinds of complex dictionaries depending on the intended users and the projected purposes for which the materials will be used. It is important to bear in mind that it all asks such considerations as: the size of lexical compilation, complexity of the entries, the nature of the entries, the metalanguage, the way the lexical items are ordered, etc.

2.5 Dictionary Types

The classification of dictionaries is undertaken with cognizance of many aspects suggested as follows. These aspects include the dictionary's language, coverage, size, medium, organization, users' language(s), users' skills, and users' purpose for using the dictionary (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 24-26). It would be impossible to see each type, nevertheless the first three, which are based on the language factor, are found relevant and thus discussed separately in this chapter. Let us, first, see the categories as follows for the moment and the three broad categories afterwards.

The dictionary's language(s): a classification that takes into account such an aspect presents the types of dictionaries as,

- I. monolingual
- II. bilingual and
- III. multilingual

The dictionary's coverage: this identifies it as,

- I. a general language dictionary
- II. encyclopedic and cultural material
- III. terminology or sublanguages (e.g. a dictionary of legal terms, cricket, nursing)
- IV. specific area of language (e.g. a dictionary of collocations, phrasal verbs, or idioms)

The dictionary's size: this classifies it as,

- I. standard (collegiate) edition
- II. concise edition
- III. pocket edition

The dictionary's medium: it can be among the following,

- I. print
- II. electronic (e.g. DVD or handheld)
- III. web based

The dictionary's organization: it may belong to these,

- I. word to meaning (the most common)
- II. word to meaning to word (where looking up one word leads to other semantically related words)

The users' language(s): this seeks to typify it according to what it is meant for,

- I. a group of users who all speak the same language
- II. two specific groups of language speakers
- III. learners worldwide of the dictionary's language

The users' skill: it may be categorized based on whom it is designed for as can be seen

- I. linguists and other language professionals
- II. literate adults
- III. school students
- IV. young children language learners

The purpose of the dictionary for users: this could be for one or both of the following,

- I. decoding (which may be understanding the meaning of a word and/or translating from a foreign language text into their own)
- II. encoding (which is concerned with the correct usage of a word, translating a text in their own language into a foreign language and language teaching)

These aspects, mentioned above, have, thus, to be realized in classifying dictionaries before seeing all kinds of typologies of other scholars in many different ways. Their approaches are mostly cognizant of the various aspects listed above. Some of the aspects could be overlapping based upon which the dictionaries are identified; since for instance, a given dictionary can be multilingual, a hardcopy, collegiate edition, and used by anthropologists. Let us now discuss MoD, BiD and MuDs in detail.

2.5.1 Monolingual Dictionary

There are a number of considerations and solutions, frequently recurring, that play a part in decisions regarding the macrostructure, plus some considerations or arguments with a role in the organization of the categories of information in the microstructure that are common ground in by far the greater number of MoD, categories whose presence is on the whole accepted by lexicographers.

The macrostructure of MoD may consist exclusively of the list of headwords. The choice of lexemes in the macrostructure can vary from language to language. Special types of HWs can be included, such as abbreviations and contractions, affixes, conjugations of irregular verbs or encyclopedic information such as proper nouns and phrasal verbs. Sometimes the content of the MaS is shaped by the meaning of a lexeme, the etymology or the fact of belonging to a different morphological class. In the design of the dictionary there should be some indication of how homonymy and polysemy should be handled. A MoD, attempts to use the language to capture the essence and range of meaning and usage in such a way that the foreign, young, uneducated, or semi-proficient can understand and use a term, (Coward and Grimes, 2000:73). Definitions are, therefore, of utmost importance, and must comply with rigorous technical and theoretical principle though they are very difficult to get right (Wierbicka, 1992). However, well-chosen examples can help reduce the complexity of definitions, technical ones for instance.

The macrostructure of a general MoD has to reflect that section of the lexicon of the language relevant to the scope of the dictionary. Lexical items selected for inclusion can be entered as either major entry (also main lemma) or the subentry (also sublemmata). The major entry is the only guiding element in a specific text block whereas the subentry is one of a collection of at least two or infinitely more guiding elements presented in a single text block.

There are different ways in which the entries of a MoD are arranged. The entries might, for instance, be alphabetically ordered or arranged according to semantic relationships or there might be some kind of a combination of both alphabetical and semantic ordering (Newell, 1994: 8). The alphabetic ordering, however, is mentioned as the common and most frequently used ordering. In what follows this kind of arranging the entries is given (Hannay, 2003:145-149 and

Gouws, 2003: 40). Two main macrostructural traditions exist in lexicography of the monolingual dictionary as can be seen below.

- **Onomasiological:** the application of this approach leads to a thematic ordering of the lemmata in a dictionary. This ordering prevails in thesauri and sometimes also in dictionaries dealing with languages for special purposes.
- **Semasiological:** the application of this approach leads to an alphabetical ordering procedure which is used in numerous dictionaries, both general monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and technical dictionaries, is one characterised by an alphabetical ordering of the lemmata ordered vertically as main lemmata. But this ordering is complemented by a sinuous lemma file, resulting from the inclusion of sublemmata, ordered horizontally in lemma clusters. These lemma clusters can maintain an internal alphabetical ordering but they can also deviate from it in different ways.

The most important information types appearing in the microstructure of MoD can be classified into several groups: (a) synchronic identifying information, (b) etymology, (c) style and usage, (d) the definition, (e) information about collocates and phrase structure, (f) information concerning synonyms and antonyms, (g) word formation, (h) phraseology, (i) frequency, (j) pragmatic information, and (k) pictorial illustration (Kiefer and Sterkenburg, 2003: 53-359). Each of these information types are discussed in more detail under 2.4.

2.5.2 Bilingual Dictionary

A bilingual dictionary (BiD) focuses on providing translation equivalents (called 'glosses') with reference to another language (Coward and Grimes, 2000: 70). Such type of dictionary is significantly different from others and we need to be aware of some requirements for dictionaries of this kind. What type of BiD we produce will depend a great deal on what audience we are aiming at. In order to fully understand how and why any one type of dictionary differs from another, one has to view the dictionary as essentially a translation-related problem-solving tool for users with different needs. The user's needs are in the first place determined by the kind of

translation problem they are facing: essentially, whether the SL is their own or whether it is a foreign language.

The needs of the users are also determined to a considerable extent by the level of their linguistic knowledge, both with regard to their first language and any given foreign language, as well as by the wider context of use, that is to say whether she is using the dictionary in, for instance, an educational or domestic or work-related context. All of these factors together will determine the amount and the kind of information which a dictionary needs to provide in order to offer the best possible assistance in solving the problem. The types of purposes fulfilled based on the way BiDs can be designed for different types of users are discussed as follows (Hannay, 2003: 145-150).

A fundamental theoretical distinction must be made between so-called active or production-oriented dictionaries and passive or reception-oriented dictionaries. Typically, the user of a production-oriented dictionary seeks to discover the expression she needs in another language than her own for expressing a given idea in a given context, and may well at the same time wish to establish how she should use the expression in question. By contrast, the users of a reception-oriented dictionary seeks to understand something about a given lexical item in another language than theirs, for instance in order to better understand a text or in order to translate the expression into their language. This has immediate consequences for the content and organization of a dictionary.

Let us first consider the user with a foreign-language production task. Such users are going from the known to the unknown in that they will look up a word in their language and will be offered a number of translation options which they may know relatively little about. This means that of all the information that might conceivably be included in an entry, certain elements are required for the solving of the problem while other elements may in fact be superfluous. The elements of paramount importance are these:

- a. meaning discrimination for polysemous headwords
- b. information which helps the user to decide between two or more translation options;
- c. examples of the headword in use
- d. further relevant information on the conditions of use for each option in context, involving grammatical, collocational, stylistic, discoursal and genre-specific information.

In the case of a reception task, the situation is quite different. Here the user is going from the unknown to the known. What is unknown is a given second Language (L2) item, and the users' main problem is usually that they do not fully understand what the item means in the given context and may wish to translate the item into their own language. It is therefore essential in a reception-oriented dictionary to provide a comprehensive picture of the phonetic, semantic, grammatical, and stylistic features of a word. This can be done by including style labels (e.g. formal, literary), attitude labels (e.g. ironic, insulting), as well as social variety labels (e.g. child's language, soldier language) and a wide range of grammatical details. In addition, there is the opportunity to add domain-specific, culture-specific and encyclopedic information. What is more, because there is potentially a much greater variety in what one might hear or read in a foreign language than what one needs when producing the foreign language oneself, reception dictionaries need to include the following:

- a. regional varieties
- b. alternative forms,
- c. old-fashioned forms, ;
- d. marked grammatical forms,

The content and organization of a BiD entry needs discussion. It would, though, be useless to repeat the arrangement of the entry in a BiD since it has already been described that the alphabetic ordering of a MoD can also be applied in BiD (Gouws, 2003: 40). However, special consideration on the best citation form (of the headwords) in BiDs are worthy of our attention. The selection of the headwords ordered as entries in such type of dictionary must have the following characteristic (Bartholomew and Schoenhals, 1983:36-37):

Simplicity- large number of grammatical features is usually quite unattractive as a citation form and the compiler should avoid an entry form so complex that the root is unrecognizable in the illustrative sentence. Thus, it is advisable to choose a form that has as little affixation as much as possible.

Brevity- the longer the word, the more restricted the meaning because of the addition of various affixes specifying one aspect or another of the context. Lengthy words are often more difficult for new literates to decipher than shorter less complicated forms would be.

Frequency- compared with complex words, simple or less restricted forms of nouns and verbs occur more frequently in normal conversation or text material. The chosen form should be applicable to many types of verbs or nouns and not be unduly restricted semantically. An everyday, frequently occurring form is also more likely to generate satisfactory sentences.

Productivity- the form chosen must be as good a starting point as possible for the construction of the other forms. Representative base form should be chosen to facilitate the derivation of as many forms as possible following the rules in the grammatical sketch. Unpredictable derived forms can be listed as subentries under the basic form.

2.5.3 Multilingual Dictionary

A multilingual dictionary (MuD) (also known as trilingual dictionary and translation dictionary (TD)) is visually cluttered and a nuisance to some users, but appreciated by others. Such a dictionary is generally not recommended for publication, although some communities feel they gain prestige by having the English along with the national language. If done at all, the decision to print a dictionary in trilingual format at the insistence of the local community should occur only after other alternatives have been fully discussed. It is generally better for the various audiences if the lexical database is divided into separate sections or even separate publications (i.e. vernacular-English; vernacular-national language). A triglot format is useful during the drafting and pre-publication stages to check for consistency and completeness, (Coward and Grimes, 2000:71-72).

MuDs do particularly have restrictions, for the information contained in them due to the involvement of more than two languages and can include only selected information types. If we also consider their coverage in translations which is the implication behind multilingual lexicography, they are inefficient and do not provide a full range of possible equivalents (Marcinkevičienė, 2007: 49). Let us see the information coverage of such dictionaries below.

The basic aim of MuD is to co-ordinate with the lexical units of one language those units of another language which are equivalent in their lexical meaning (Zgusta, 1971: 274). On the MiS level this function is realized by providing for a lemma in the source language one or more

translation equivalents in the target language. Accordingly, the following are specified as the kind of information that translation dictionaries should (ideally) provide with regard to their MiS level (Swanepoel, 2003:67-69).

- a translation equivalent for every word in the source language;
- full coverage of the vocabulary of the source language;
- grammatical, syntactic and semantic information;
- information on language variation;
- proper names;
- special vocabulary items;
- guidance on spelling;
- guidance on pronunciation.

Some of these requirements relate to the macrostructure of MuDs (TDs), the others to the kind of information to be provided on the microstructural level. Very small sets of lexical items from the various languages are incorporated in these dictionaries. Generally, though, TDs often do not include all the information listed above, or do so in an inconsistent way. The fact that dictionaries often do not conform to these requirements is brought about by the fact that lexicographers are led in their decisions on the MaS and MiS level of a TD by such considerations as:

- ❖ the assumed linguistic proficiency of target users in the target language (What words in the target language will they not know? What information will they need to choose the correct translation equivalent in the target language?);
- ❖ the intended functions of the dictionary (Will it only be used to decode texts in the target language or also to encode texts in the target language (so-called passive and active uses)?);
- ❖ to whether the dictionary will be used only in one direction (from source to target language) or also bidirectionally (from target language to source language).

On the microstructural level the simplest translation dictionary articles consist of a single main lemma from the SL with one or more translation equivalents in the TL. More complex articles

consist of a main lemma and a set of sub-lemmas between which relations of various kinds can exist.

In some dictionaries all sublemmas are arranged in a strict alphabetic order, irrespective of the relationship of the sublemmas to the main lemma; in others the sublemmas are grouped according to the principles explicated above and then alphabetically. Where more than one translation equivalent exists for a lemma from a source language, these equivalents are listed with or without further disambiguating grammatical information (syntactic class, style, fixed collocations) or usage notes. The more polysemic a word in the SL is, the more translation equivalents it may have in the TL and the more there may be a need on the user's part for such disambiguating information.

2.6 Lexicographic Function

Even though there arises a need for the discussion of the purposes for which dictionaries are compiled in what follows, it is also important to unveil the fact that lexicographic function is developed as a theory by Danish Scholars led by Bergenholtz and Tarp at the Aarhus School of Business Center for Lexicography, (Nkomo 2008:52). It is stated that once lexicographers know the user and its specific characteristics, the type of user situation and specific user needs related to these situations, they can proceed to determine the lexicographic functions of a particular dictionary (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2003: 176). A lexicographic function of a given dictionary is described as “to provide assistance to a user group with specific characteristics in order to cover the complex needs that arise in specific type of user situation” according to these scholars. The cognitive and communicative-oriented functions, for example can be given as the use of a dictionary for its user. It is notable, however, that the functions that could be listed may be found general and that not all of them would be relevant to every dictionary.

In determining the functions of a dictionary, the views of the scholars, of course, vary based on the types of dictionaries dealt with and the specific language(s) involved in compiling them. Obviously, as well, the type of users is also a determinant factor to identify its use. For instance some do only focus on the use of BiDs (Bartholomew and Schoenhals, 1983: 257-259). Others tend to consider other special issues; for instance on the function of a general purpose MoD (Stenkerberg, 2003: 3). On the other hand, others identify different uses of a dictionary based on

the purpose for which it is made and suggests that the lexicographer must determine both the primary user of the dictionary as well as the primary purpose(s) for which they will use the dictionary (Newell, 1994: 9-13). It is generally suggested that we need to consider what dictionaries need to take into account in order to be used by learners (Jackson, 2003: 84).

The problem of trying to equally meet everyone's needs is that the needs of the diverse users are so varied that they are virtually incompatible. The result is often a dictionary not ideally suited for anyone, especially not for the foreign user. No matter how there is differences in the ways a dictionary's use are forwarded; undeniably there exist common issues raised by the scholars. Based on the review of the scholars specified under this section, the following are supposed to be the major functions a dictionary may have in general.

A Reference work- concerning this lexicographer claim that the a dictionary can be used (especially general-purpose dictionary) whether in the form of a folio edition or an electronic dictionary for human users, is a reflection of social change and is used to find systematized information quickly. It is therefore in the first place a source of information that answers basic if not all kinds of questions from users on words.

Recording lexicons of a language- it is also stated that one of the functions of a dictionary is to record the lexicon. It provides the user quick and abundant assistance in finding information on all aspects of the most current words and their collocations, and in understanding ordinary, rare and, in particular, difficult scientific and technical words. The user primarily wants to find the meaning of those words quickly and favors a compact packaging. Therefore, a dictionary is not only used as a reference work, it also often serves as a kind of storage facility, a storeroom for a language in which we can find much of what once existed and what exists today.

Prestige- often the local dialect gains in prestige if there is concrete evidence that the language used by a given society in several competing major languages can be written, that its vocabulary is adequate and even extensive, and that books can be published in hitherto unwritten languages. Probably the BiD and accompanying grammar provide the best tangible evidence that the indigenous people speak a real language, a language that is not inferior to the major languages of the country.

Language learning – There has been considerable interest recently in the part played by dictionaries in language development, particularly in the learning of second and foreign languages. Some scholars claim that this is one of the most practical purposes of a BiD: to help the member of a particular group gain fluency and vocabulary in the language they are interested in. As their education progresses, learners become eager to acquire fluency and vocabulary in their language use. Obviously, a classroom situation will not provide them with all of the words the situation demands. They require a place in which they can find the equivalents in their second language for the thoughts they wish to express. Others explain that for a language learner, a bilingual dictionary has two basic uses such as diagnostic tool for aural and reading comprehension in the object language, and a generating tool for object-language expression in speech or writing. Some suggest that dictionary makers should consider learners' decoding needs, which are not vastly different from those of native speakers, and more particularly their encoding needs. This means that learners' dictionaries need to contain more explicit, more comprehensive and more systematic information about the syntactic and lexical operation of words than a dictionary for native speakers

Intellectual growth of individuals- Some members of the local community will collaborate as language helpers in the preparation of the dictionary. These people will grow intellectually as they are trained by the linguist. Some individuals trained in the dictionary project will be able to proceed further to the preparation of curriculum materials for bilingual education programs. Some who are trained through collaboration on the dictionary will grow in ability to more fully collaborate in various translation projects and may develop the skills necessary to do independent translation work and author original literature for their people.

Contribution to bilingual/bicultural education- the historical and traditional uses of a dictionary included making several types of information available to the general population. These include an authoritative pronunciation guide, the meaning of obsolete words as found in literature, and definitions of foreign or other difficult words that had been adopted into the languages of the dictionaries. In a country that is characterized by a large immigrant population, an expanding public school system and popular education, and exploding commercial opportunities, the demand of inclusion of such information has no doubt helped users in acculturating them. Besides, in the era of globalization, inter-lingual communication is becoming

increasingly important. Although nearly 7,000 languages are in use today, most language resources are mono-lingual or bi-lingual (Gordon, 2005). In multilingual societies like Africa, no doubt the making of effective trilingual dictionaries (MuD) benefits the communities in fostering intercultural relations.

Language standardization- major publication in one of the variants of a given language area will result in an increasing knowledge of that particular variant on the part of individuals from the whole area. The net result may be that the dictionary exerts a unifying influence on the wider region and it becomes easier to prepare school materials for, and communicate across the whole area which was formerly fragmented. Especially if the dictionary has included the various local dialect differences, speakers of all such dialects will broaden their vocabulary in, and become conversant with, the main variety of the local language as presented in the dictionary.

A record of cultural roots- a dictionary plentifully supplied with illustrative sentences, adequate sense discriminations, and sufficient qualifying comments becomes a record of the folk wisdom and cultural heritage of a given group of people. Even though we may not be able to approach the ethnographic and encyclopedic style of a few of the dictionaries discussed in the supplement dealing with the history of BiDs, we can preserve a substantial record of the local system of ethnobiology, mathematics, scientific lore, and the folk taxonomy of shapes or textures through a well constructed dictionary.

An important tool for translation- lexicographers claim that there are two kinds of translators who are beneficiaries. The translator may be a native speaker of the object language who needs the dictionary to help in reading comprehension of the SL. Basically this would be a dictionary describing the SL, using the translator's native language as the language of description (the metalanguage). Ideally, the vocabulary of the dictionary chosen for description would include the vocabulary of the source text. A second kind of translator is one who is translating materials into a foreign language. For this purpose the needs are quite different. The translator will need a dictionary that can be used as a generating tool for writing compositions in the target language. In addition, if the SL is not the native language of the translator s/he, like the native translator, will also need a dictionary describing the SL, using the translator's native language (or at least a language in which the translator is proficient) as the language of description.

2.7 The Business of Dictionary Criticism

Dictionary criticism is “the description and evaluation of a dictionary or other reference work in comparison with others.” (Hartmann 2001: 172). The reviewing of dictionaries is not like that of other books. It would, for example, be impossible for a reviewer to read the whole text of a dictionary that contains million words of text. Properly done, dictionary criticism should be systematic if it is to be useful (to the compiler and to the user, in particular). Academic lexicography or ‘metalexigraphy’ is concerned, among other things, with the business of ‘dictionary criticism’, which proposes methods and criteria for reviewing and evaluating dictionaries (Jackson, 2002: 31). Therefore, the following methods are valuable and worthy of our attention.

Dictionary reviewers must find other methods, such as sampling, or having a carefully selected checklist of items and features to investigate. One approach is to take the claims that a dictionary makes about itself, in the blurb on the cover or book-jacket or in the front matter, and check these against the practice of the dictionary as reflected in its content, as well as against the accumulated insights and judgments of the scholarly community.

An alternative approach establishes a set of criteria that arise from the academic study of lexicography and applies these to the dictionary under review. It is often useful to have a team of reviewers, each of whom takes a separate aspect for critical scrutiny, e.g. the treatment of pronunciation, grammar, meaning, etymology, etc.

A further consideration in dictionary criticism is the perspective from which the review is conducted. The academic metalexigrapher’s primary focus is probably on the adequacy of a dictionary as a lexical description. An alternative focus might be that of the user, particularly where accessibility and comprehensibility of the information could be an issue, as with a learners’ dictionary, or where a specific set of users is being targeted, as with a children’s dictionary.

All in all, dictionary criticism is an important activity. It not only provides reviews of dictionaries for potential users, it also contributes to advances in lexicography and to improvements in dictionaries. Unless we are in a position to taste it, we can’t judge that a certain

food is good or bad, which in a like manner enables us to say that dictionaries deserve the attention of critics. A poetic expression of the lexicographic fieldworker (Rene van den Berg, 1996) illustrates the business of criticism which starts by a look into the kitchen of lexicography (the market, our shelves, libraries etc of dictionary products). A good dish (same as good lexicographic reference material) often raises question about ingredients, the cooking (making) process and the timing of it all. Thus, the critics present their findings for the dictionary cooks. You will see raw meet, smell uncooked fish and freshly picked spices, but you will also notice dirty dishes, cumbersome utensils, and wet hands. However, there is also a situation whereby one will be able to enjoy a good spicy dish.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

This chapter deals with the methodological issues of the study. Thus, issues related to the research design, data selection and their procedures are discussed in detail herein.

3.1 Research Design and Method of the Study

The concern of this study is to analyze the contents of multilingual dictionaries based on the criteria of dictionary criticisms. Therefore, a qualitative research design is employed to achieve the goal. Qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomenon in terms of the meanings people bring to them Maczewski (2003). Thus, a qualitative approach is appropriate for use when problems need to be explored and when a complex, detailed understanding is needed. It is also described that as a research method in applied linguistics, qualitative research works with a wide range of data including various types of texts that may be documents of any kind (Dörnyei, 2007: 20).

From different qualitative methods, content analysis is selected and utilized in this study. Content analysis in general (either qualitative or quantitative) is the most hallowed and most widely used method to analyze linguistic data based on the expertise of the above scholars. A qualitative content analysis beyond simple counting of words for the purpose of classifying large amounts of text provides knowledge and understanding of how the phenomenon under study takes place. Thus, in this study, qualitative content analysis as a research technique is used for such interpretation of the content of the messages through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes and other patterns.

3.2 Research Procedures

In order to analyze this data, of which content analysis is a research method used, it needs to start by selecting a body of data as a primary procedure. Furthermore, the data selection process needs prerequisites in the identification of data sources and data collection steps which is explained below.

3.2.1 Data Sources

The sources of the data in this study are the three selected English-Oromo-Amharic, multilingual dictionaries. Their Selection is simply done for qualifying the researcher's aim of study since they are the prominent existing trilingual dictionaries from 1998 to 2010. Several MuDs (English-Oromo-Amharic) have been produced so far. For the purpose of this study, the following three are selected: Hinsene Mekuria's *Ellelee*: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary, Legese Geleta's *Hirkoo*: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary and Wossine Beshah's *Jumbo*: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary. It would be practically impossible to subject all such dictionaries into criticism because of the difficulty of the vast amount of information a dictionary contains which makes it unmanageable and time consuming.

When it comes to dealing with the content of the dictionaries under inquiry, again a need arises as to be systematic since the effort of analyzing each of the information in them would be an illusion. The expertise of lexicographers asserts that it would be impossible for a reviewer to read the whole text of a dictionary with countless words (Jackson, 2002: 31). Therefore, this research work is based on purposive sampling method and hence of there would be selected entries to be investigated in each of the dictionaries.

3.2.2 Data Selection

The data of this study is selected systematically based of the requisite features that a dictionary criticism should involve. Accordingly, first and foremost the front and back matters of the dictionaries will be evaluated as a category of the MaS feature so as to know whether they qualify lexicographic standard. Second, in depth analysis of the dictionaries' CL (body part) will be evaluated to further see their appropriateness for fulfilling the treatment of basic structural features of each dictionary entries. Special attention is given to the lexical items way of rendition of meaning into the TLs (Oromo and Amharic) from the SL (English). The selection of such lexical items in the dictionaries' article is by way of purposive samples selection. For instance Hinsene's Ellelee: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary's method of data selection is done as follows. The Macrostructure of the dictionary: the front matter possesses data of limited information in few pages, eight and the back matter seventeen pages which are analyzed briefly. The microstructural part, which is the body part of the dictionary contains comparably enormous

amount of data: 71,000 words of 927 pages. The samples are chosen by dividing the total number of pages into 10 and thereby purposively selecting samples from the dictionary entries, of more than two items at least in each example, based on their relevance for the reasons of belonging to the concerned same lexical item under investigation or simply for deserving particular attention. The same pattern is followed in selection of data from the other two dictionaries.

3.2.3 Data Analysis and Presentation

The data in the dictionary is analyzed and presented by the types of information a dictionary should exhibit itself. Therefore the following are the types of information in the dictionaries and ways in which they are subjected to evaluation.

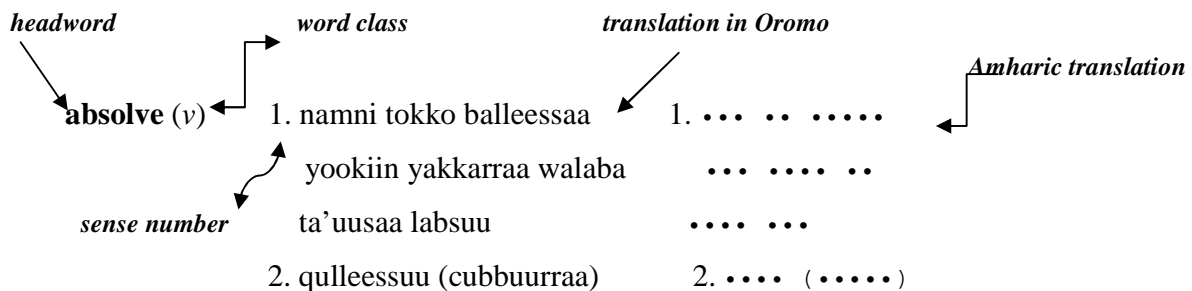
- Introduction
- Analysis of the Outside Matters
- Analysis of the Entries
- A Compendium on the Analyses of the Dictionaries

Chapter Four

Analyses of the Dictionaries

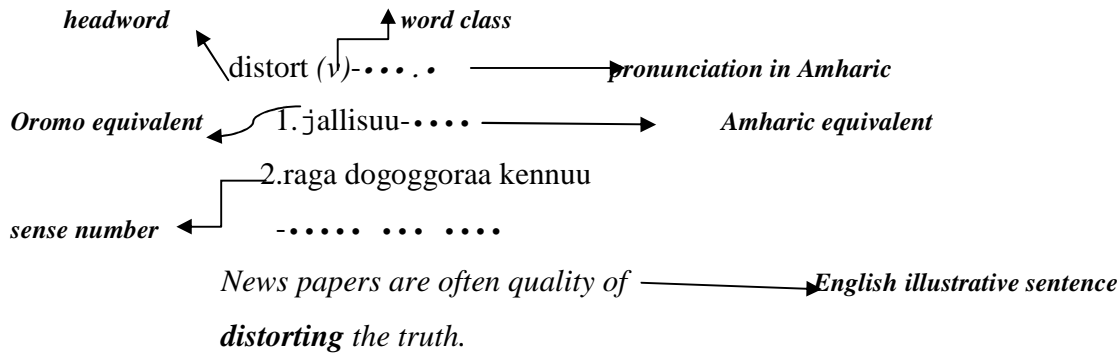
4.1 Introduction

In this Chapter we find three MuDs of big-volumes. In all of them, English language is used as the SL, their entries, described in the two TLs, metalanguages, Afan Oromo and Amharic respectively. The first lexicographic text selected for academic scrutiny, *Ellelee*: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary is compiled by Hisene Mekuria. With several impressions that preceded it, this one is the latest one which is published in 2010. If we look at its coverage of information, the outside matters, the front matter (FM) of the dictionary, from page i-viii, contains: *preface* to the dictionary and *user's guide*, and the back matter (pp. 928-945) presents to its users information on limited facts of our *world's countries*, *English language irregular verbs* and *metric conversions*, among others. The body part (CL) contains a considerable amount of English entry-words (71, 000 words) described into the Oromo and Amharic metalanguages. As we browse for the types of information in this part, we encounter very limited linguistic information as can be seen here. The horizontal placement of the citation form across a page is observed.

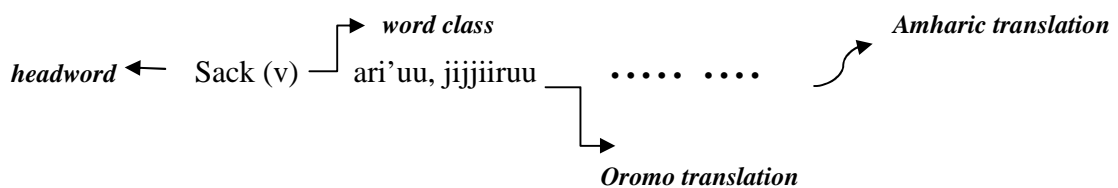


The second dictionary subjected to criticism is *Hirkoo*: English-Afan Oromo-Amharic Dictionary by Legesse Geleta which is the first edition of 2008. Comparably, quite few information is given in the front matter of this dictionary in just four pages. With separate statements of acknowledgments, preface and little grammatical information are included. Considering the back matter, (pp. 1120-1144), we realize that it is devoted to language issues, particularly of English and other similar factual world information like the former dictionary. As

to the CL, similar order is pursued with completely different citation form, in two columns, as can be observed in the following illustration. The dictionary article contains additional information like pronunciation, illustrative sentence and pictures. The total number of words described are assumed to be 88, 000.



The third dictionary, finally, discussed is *Jumbo: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary* by Wossine Beshah which is of 2008 edition. This dictionary, in its FM, contains preface, introduction and pronunciation guides in 19 pages. Distinction is made, as compared to the two dictionaries, for its inclusion of information, days, months and biography of the writer. The CL is also unique for its broader coverage of encyclopedic, language and other factual information. The CL is again, also apparently different for its separate treatments of extensive, general language entries followed by limited terminological entries. While the use of pictorial illustration is viewed, limited linguistic information is seen in this dictionary as it is seen below.



Generally the dictionaries can be viewed in this way. It would be impossible and beyond the scope of this research to discuss everything. Followed by this introductory information, though, the outside matters (Fm and BM) to a certain extent and the middle matter (CL) in each dictionary are separately discussed with emphasis on the meaning of their entries for which citation examples chosen and extensive coverage is given.

4.2 Analysis of *Ellelee*: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary

4.2.1 Analysis of the Outside Matters

The front matter starts with the *Preface*. In the chapter devoted to the review of the literature it has been indicated the preface of a dictionary might include information on the brief history of the dictionary project, aims of the dictionary (e.g. purpose and audience), acknowledgements and sponsorship. Accordingly, the treatment of such necessary elements is checked as can be seen in the following paragraph.

The dictionary project took the author twelve years until it is published (1995-2007). He claims that the aim of the dictionary is primarily to help Oromo and Amharic speakers who desire to study English. Besides, he also states that it addresses English speakers who would like to learn Afan Oromo and/or Amharic. Furthermore the status of Oromo and Amharic languages in Ethiopia is discussed briefly, various individuals are acknowledged for their moral and professional assistances and the kind of information uniquely contained in the back matter of the dictionary are specified.

Such are the information the dictionary provides in its *preface* just in two pages of much less than A4 size. There is a lack of detailed information on the history of the dictionary project. The Author only states the years it took for him for compiling the dictionary, while he could have shared his experience in the process of making the dictionary. Except for this, the preface has included all the relevant information briefly.

The heading *User's Guide* is used in the dictionary instead of *grammar sketch* but they both help the user obtain information on the grammar of the dictionary's language. The particular aspects of the grammar dealt with in the dictionary will need to be included as part of the grammar sketch, such as: phonology, morphophonemics, morphology, phrase structure, clause structure, sentence structure and, to a lesser extent, paragraph structure (for a description of a few particles). Based on this, let us see the contents of this section which are listed as follows.

- ✓ Pronunciation- of the Oromo alphabets known as *qubee* (k'ubé)
- ✓ Abbreviations- in English and Oromo
- ✓ Entries in the dictionary- states that it is organized alphabetically based on the source language used (English)

- ✓ Headwords – that the entry begins with headword followed by grammatical information and translation into the metalanguages (Oromo and Amharic)
- ✓ Grammatical information: the labels of the grammatical class to which the headword belong are indicated
- ✓ Translation- the fact that the dictionary provided equivalent translation into the languages or otherwise elaborate definitions where this could not be achieved

The user’s guide as can be seen has included grammatical information and other information for the reader. There should have been a separate section under the heading ‘Introduction to the dictionary’ preceding this section to separately treat such information as language and dialect, sources of lexical material included in the dictionary, pronunciation, the analytical basis of the headword, whole words or roots, stems and affixes, organisation of the entry, and lists of abbreviations. Therefore, ‘what is supposed to be discussed where?’ is not considered very well here, and mixed types of information are contained in it.

If we see the pronunciation guide, the Oromo alphabet is given in IPA. There is no adequate illustration of its usage in examples. There is also no practical method used on how the Amharic language’s pronunciation is made. Let us see the following quotation from under *the pronunciation guide* with its following example for illustration.

The Amharic and the Oromo writing system are as close as pronunciation. However in Amharic writing system gemination is not marked. In Oromo, vowel lengthening and consonant germination, both are marked by doubling the letter.

Examples:

<i>eat</i> (v)	<i>nyaachuu, raamuu</i>	-.....
<i>lamp holder</i> (n)	<i>gorroo</i>	-.....
<i>lamentation</i> (n)	<i>gadda, boo’icha</i>	-..... (Mekuria, 2010: 4)

In a condition where, no method is used to transcribe the words in Oromo and Amharic, it is really difficult to instruct the reader very precisely by simply using such example as a guide. Besides, the fact that there is no guide of pronunciation for Amharic makes it an illusion to think of its intelligibility to non proficient users of the dictionary (especially on gemination, long and short sounds, pitches etc). Generally speaking, except for the transcribed alphabets in Oromo, no

attempt is made to offer effective guide for the users of the dictionary. In the *User's Guide*, the author gives little information on the entries and headwords discussed separately. The reader is only informed that the entries are arranged alphabetically.

As a MuD, which involves different languages as metalanguages, the discussion of the method of translation is important. The author, has not, however provided the insight into the principles involved with the right kind of example. He has simply indicated that in places where equivalent words for the SL are not found, a more elaborate definition is given, whereas, if the headword has equivalents, they are given separate words in the TLs. Before concluding the discussion of the FM, it is important to mention that this part of the dictionary misses 'introduction' and 'table of contents'.

The *back matter*: the information in the BM of the dictionary might include: any listing of closed lexical sets, an ethnographic sketch, an ethnographic inventory of terms in specific fields, thesaurus or semantic classification of lexemes, grouping them into semantic domains, short vocabularies or word lists representing specific fields, domains or lexical sets, a short grammar sketch of the source language, map(s) of the general language area including the dialect(s) included in the lexical description, index to the dictionary and bibliography or references. The dictionary has the following information in it, and to the amazement of the reader, takes few of the issues stated here into consideration.

World in Summary

Under this title this part of the dictionary offers the major languages spoken, the capitals and way of addressing nationalities in countries of the world.

Irregular Verbs

The simple present, past and past participle forms of the English are listed

Geographical Features: Continents, Mountains, and Major Bodies of Water

- This section provides the Continents and their coverage in terms of sq km
- Principal natural lakes, rivers, oceans, waterfalls and mountains separately
- Facts about planet earth

The Seven Wonders of the World

Metric and Measures conversion Charts

The contents of the BM as can be seen is not devoted to satisfy the interest of particularly foreign readers since the information in it is a matter of international concern. No information representing related to the indigenous languages and culture is provided. Therefore, this part has not included any unique information for the English learners who need to get information about any of the two languages and the speakers.

4.2.2 Analysis of the Entries

The CL presents the lexical items in alphabetical order which covers pp.1-927 of the dictionary. The headwords (HW) of the entry are listed in English as a source language and the translations into Oromo and Amharic as target languages are offered. Let us see the purposely selected data to see the kind of information this the dictionary contains and how well the dictionary handles and incorporates relevant information and more particularly how well meaning/translation is expressed in the metalanguages in detail.

Example 1

abide (<i>n</i>)	1. obsuu	1.
	2. baka tokko turuu	2.
abiding (<i>adj</i>)	yeroo dheeraa kan turu, waara'aa

(pp. 1-2)

As can be observed the dictionary provides the word class of the English, headword, its Oromo translation in Latin script and Amharic translation in Ethiopic Script. When we analyze the way this part of the dictionary is structured throughout, first we understand that no pronunciation in IPA is used for the English entry and their translations as well. The word class for the headword is indicated in parenthesis, as (*n*) in the above example. In some cases the translation of the headwords are presented in different senses, while various forms of their inflection are treated in separate entries. The citation of the dictionary article is limited to these kinds of information which, in a way, enables us to say that it hardly satisfies the users.

The analysis of the entries particularly with regard to the translation and grammatical information requires the use of a dictionary as a reference. Let us begin with the definition of the word abide¹. As can be seen the two translations of this word can be taken as equivalent when they are used in the senses ‘obsuu/’ which is equivalent for ‘tolerate’ and in its other sense ‘bakka tokko turuu/’ when the intention of the translations are to ‘live or dwell’. The dictionary, however, labels the word class of this entry as a ‘noun’ which is incorrect since its noun form is rather ‘abidance’ whereas ‘abide’ is a verb. Let us see the second example.

Example 2

chair (<i>n</i>)	barcuma	-
chairman (<i>n</i>)	dura ta’aa, duree	-

(pp. 92 & 93)

In this example, the word ‘chair²’ is displayed as category of noun. However, it is also possible that the word belongs to a verb class. While there are many senses of definition for the word, as we can see, only one definition is given here. Besides, the translation may be ambiguous since ‘barcuma’ no specific type of such a seat is identified in spite of its manifestations with a back/without and which has three/four legs. “What do the Oromo/Amharic linguistic communities for instance call a three legged seat without a back? The answer could possibly be ‘barcuma/.....’ and other possible words are also used based on their cultures. While these two terms are used commonly among the TL speakers, the equivalent term for this word is given as ‘.....’ in Amharic. So in this case, do we take it as the equivalent term for ‘barcuma’ while there are other alternatives like ‘teessoo’? To be followed is, yet, another example.

Example 3

ecclesiastic (<i>n</i>)	luba, qeesii	-
efficacious (<i>adj</i>)	faayidaa/bu’aa qabeessa	-

(pp. 184-185)

¹ **‘abide (v)’**: (abide by) accept or act in accordance with (a rule or decision). Other senses: ‘tolerate- which is informally used in negative expressions like ‘can/ could not abide’; “archaic live; dwell.” The derivatives: ‘abidance (n)’, and ‘abidingly (adv)’, COED (2003: 3).

² **‘chair (n)’**: ‘a seat, typically with back and four legs’ **(n)**: ‘a person in charge of meeting, a professorship, electric chair (US)...(v)’: ‘act as chair person of, carry some one aloft in a chair...’, COED (2003:233)

This third example provides a correct exegesis of the source language word ‘ecclesiastic’³ into the target languages and right in labeling it as a noun class. Of course, this dictionary does not state the fact that the word can also be used as an adjective, regardless of missing the other possible alternative ‘ecclesiastical (adj)’.

The second entry word, ‘efficacious’⁴ is inappropriately translated into the target languages and belongs to a category of adjective. It would also be hardly possible to distinguish for users whether ‘faayidaa/bu’aa qabeessaa’ is used as a single compound word or alternately. Because, it is intended to mean ‘faayidaa-qabeessa’ or ‘bu’aa-qabeessa’ and thus these are interchangeably used. These Oromo words can only be understood as ‘useful’ or ‘valuable’ in the right sense, whereas ‘efficacious’ denotes ‘effective’. The Amharic translation is also not the right equivalent for the English SL word. The Amharic counterpart ‘...’ is similar with the Oromo word ‘faayidaa’ and commonly used among the speakers which imply that one of the languages has borrowed from the other. So near equivalents for the word could have been in the Oromo ‘milkaawaa’ and in Amharic ‘...’. Now let us proceed to the next example.

Example 4

harvest (<i>n</i>)	makara	- ...
(<i>v</i>)	kassabuu, sassaabuu	-.....
harvesting (<i>n</i>)	makaruu	-... ..

(pp 276)

The above example presents the word class of the word ‘harvest’⁵ as noun and verb and offers their supposed equivalent translations. The word is translated as ‘kassabuu, sassaabuu’ which, though, may confuse the readers since ‘kassabuu’ is not uniformly used across the different dialect speakers of the Oromo language and ‘sassaabuu’ which is to mean ‘to gather or collect’ is applicable for usage when it co-occurs with other words. Likewise, in the Amharic translation ‘.....’ can co-occur with other words, which in this case the right usage of the intended definition is not identified. Moreover, ‘harvestable (adj)’ and ‘harvestor (n)’ are derivatives that

³ ‘ecclesiastic (n)’: ‘a priest or clergyman’. derivatives: ‘ecclesiastic (adj)’ ‘ecclesiastically (adv)’ ‘ecclesiasticism (n)’, COED (2003:452)

⁴ ‘efficacious’ (adj): ‘effective’, derivatives: ‘efficaciously’, ‘efficaciousness’, and ‘efficacy’. COED (2003: 456).

⁵ ‘harvest (n)’: ‘the process or period of gathering in crops, the season’s yield or crop,’ ‘harvest (v)’: ‘gather as a harvest.’ (v) ‘remove (cells or tissue) from a person or animal for experimental or transplantation purposes.’ derivatives: ‘harvestable (adj)’ and ‘harvestor (n)’, COED (2003:651).

are not included. The word has also other sense of definition which is not also provided here. The Amharic equivalent for the word given as ‘...’ is incorrectly spelled since it should be ‘...’. Further example is given as can be seen hereafter.

Example 5

kleptomania (<i>n</i>)	dhukkuba sammuu	-.....
	hannaaf nama kakaasu
kleptomaniac (<i>n</i>)	nama dhukkuba sammuu	-.....
	hannaaf nama kakaasuun qabame

(pp. 368)

As can be seen above, the headword, ‘kleptomania⁶’ is defined as into Oromo and Amharic as ‘a mental illness that urges a person to steal’ when its back translation is given in to the SL, English. The word doesn’t necessarily mean the two translations given here since nothing is mentioned if we see its definition whether the urge to steal is due to mental illness which is the way it is translated above in the two languages in this case. But if we study the etymology, the translations could be taken as near equivalents of the word. The origin of the word is from Greek ‘kleptēs’ which is ‘thief’ and combined with the psychological morpheme ‘-mania’ which is (a special type of mental abnormality) it is used as kleptomania/c. The second entry in this example is given a label of noun though the word is also used as an adjective. These being said, we move on to the following instance.

Example 6

myth (<i>n</i>)	himtee	-.....
mythical (<i>adj</i>)	waan dhugaarratti hin hundoofne, Kan afaan qofaadhaan dubbatamu qabatamaa kan hin taane	-.....
mythology (<i>n</i>)	qu’annoo (kan amantiilee durii), himtee	-.....

(pp 460-461)

⁶ ‘kleptomania (n)’: “a recurrent urge to steal.” Derivative: ‘kleptomaniac(adj/n)’, COED (2003:783).

The word ‘myth’⁷ is given translations which are used ordinarily by the speakers in the two languages. However, the definition of the word requires explanation beyond its substitution in a single word. The translations in the two languages are just provided in just a word without any explanation which deserves further elaboration. The second derivative “mythical” is intended to match the meaning ‘a widely held but false belief, though it is not that equivalent since the back translation is ‘in Oromo, something that is not based on truth, that is only heard spoken, which is not tangible, and the Amharic, unclear in its definition ‘•• •••• /afá tarikawi/’ in the first sense while in its second sense the meaning intended is ‘a story that is not supported by fact- probably also ‘superstitious’. Such a conceptual term by its nature is not one that is easily understood by readers unless it is explained in detail. The Oromo word ‘himtee’ for instance is not a familiar term and may not be taken to legitimately stand as equivalent for ‘myth’. The distinct ways of writing the Amharic words ‘•••••’ and ‘•• ••••’ also deserve our attention since difficulty may arise whether they are separate words or one (compound noun). Now let us see the following citation.

Example 7

plunder (<i>v</i>)	saamuu	- ••••
plunderer (<i>n</i>)	saamtuu	- •••

(pp. 552)

The word ‘plunder’⁸ is translated into Oromo and Amharic languages accurately and belongs to the ‘verb’ word class. The word can also have a second sense, as a noun, which is missing as can be seen from the example. The following major entry in the example is the right kind of derivative for ‘plunder’ and transferred correctly in the two languages. It is, though to be noted that the context of the word ‘plunder’, which is *as in time of war or civil disorder*, is not indicated in the two translations. It means that ‘forcibly stealing goods’ can be readily used irrespective of the contexts understood by the SL speakers. We, now direct our attention to another instance.

⁷ **‘myth (n)’**: ‘1. a traditional story concerning the early history of a people or explaining a natural or social phenomenon, and typically involving supernatural beings or events,’ ‘2. a widely held but false belief,’ COED (2001:944).

⁸ **‘plunder (v)’**: ‘forcibly steal goods from, especially in time of war or civil disorder’, **(n)**: ‘the action of plundering, property acquired in this way’ .COED’s (2001:1101).

Example 8

rite (<i>n</i>)	sirna amantii,	-
	mooteffannoo fi kkf
ritual (<i>adj</i>)	gochaalee wal fakkaatoo ta'an	-.....
	kan hoggayyuu yeroo murtaa'etti
	raaw'ataman (kees. kan amantii)	(.....)

(pp. 643)

The word ‘rite’⁹ is a noun word class and the translation in the two languages is appropriate. The following derivative, ‘ritual’ can be used as a noun or adjective whereas the example from the dictionary presents it as an adjective word class only. Yet, the two translations cannot be judged as the right equivalent since they don’t express the quality of the word as an adjective. But the definitions in the example work whenever the word class is a noun. The following instance deserves our observation, as well.

Example 9

sponge (<i>n</i>)	liifaa, sarphaphuu	-
sponging (<i>n</i>)	kajeeltu, kajeelaa, kajeellaa	-.....

(pp. 738- 739)

The two translations in this example except for the Amharic ‘.....’ which is a loan word from the English ‘sponge’¹⁰, are uncommon if we see the meanings given in Oromo. The word is used among the Oromo and Amharic speakers as ‘ispoonjii/’ borrowed from the English. The second entry ‘sponging/spongeing’ is labeled as a noun class incorrectly. Thus, the two translations are not correctly expressed since they never match the SL usage. The translation rather is intended to match the informal usage ‘sponge off’ which is not specified in the

⁹ **‘rite (n)’**) ‘a religious or other solemn ceremony or act,’ and also ‘a body of customary observances characteristic of a church or a part of it’. **‘ritual (n)’**: ‘a religious or solemn ceremony involving a series of actions performed according to a prescribed order’ and also ‘a series of action habitually and invariably followed by someone’ (**adj**) ‘of, relating to, or done as a ritual’, COED (2001: 1235)

¹⁰ **‘sponge (n)’**: ‘a piece of a soft, light, porous, absorbent substance originally consisting of the fibrous skeleton of a sponge but now made of synthetic material, used for washing, as padding, etc.’ other senses as: ‘a sedentary aquatic invertebrate with a soft porous body supported by a framework of fibers or spicules,’ ‘a very light cake,’ ‘a person who lives at someone else’s expense,(informal)’ and ‘a heavy drinker(informal)’. **‘sponging/spongeing (v)’**: ‘wipe or clean with a wet sponge or cloth,’ and also ‘(often *sponge off*) obtain money or food from others without giving anything in return (informally)’COED (2003: 1387)

dictionary. Last but not least, the following is analyzed.

Example 10

transmigration (n)	du'aan boodatti lubbuun nama du'ee	-
	gara nama fayyaatti ce'uu
		(pp. 828)

This final example ‘transmigration¹¹’ is not given its accurate equivalence into the metalanguages. If we see the translation into Oromo the meaning of the word is expressed (back translation into English) as ‘the passing of a soul of a dead person to a living person’ and if we also see the Amharic which is ‘the passing of a dead person’s soul to another body’, there is one common problem observed which is the erroneous expression ‘a dead person’s soul’ (lubbuun nama du'ee/... ..). Such translations no doubt confuse readers for conveying such absurd information as if the dead has soul. That which passes *into a different body* (which is again inappropriately translated as ‘into a living person’ in the Oromo, exactly though in Amharic) is not *the dead persons soul* but *the soul* (after death). The other thing we need to criticize the dictionary is that it doesn’t offer another sense of the word though the absence of the derivatives is not a matter of big concern.

4.3 Analysis of *Hirkoo*: English- Afan Oromo- Amharic Dictionary

4.3.1 Analysis of the Outside Matters

The Front Matter, (from page i-vi), of this dictionary contains the following information

Acknowledgement

The author acknowledges individuals who have contributed in various ways here.

Preface

It is claimed that the purpose of the dictionary is:

- to contribute in the development of Oromo language,
- to help students and teachers who use Afan Oromo as a medium of instruction and any individual interested in studying the language
- providing a reference tool for professionals, scholars and foreigner who carryout

¹¹ **‘transmigrate (v):** ‘1. (of soul) pass into a different body after death. 2. (used rarely) migrate. Derivatives: transmigration (n), transmigrator (n), transmigratory (adj), COED (2001:1524).

research.

What makes the dictionary unique is also stated as follows

- the number of headwords included
- types of words contained: phrasal words, idiomatic expressions, contextual Usage of words, legal terms, etc
- designed for users of irrespective of their difference in educational level, needs and objectives

How to Use the Dictionary

- explanation on the citation form of the dictionary entry
 - the English headword followed by its part of speech, then its pronunciation in Amharic(using Ethiopic script), what follows is the definition in Oromo and Amharic consecutively
- The alphabets of Afan Oromo and their form in IPA
- Grammatical Information
- gemmination and vowel length examples
- Abbreviations and signs used in the book

The FM of the dictionary as can be seen starts with ‘acknowledgement’ preceding its ‘preface’. However the author have for the second time stated his acknowledgement in the preface. The preface contains information on the purpose of the dictionary and in what way the dictionary is unique. But nothing is stated regarding the brief history of the dictionary in its preface. The heading on ‘How to use the dictionary’ contains information which guides the reader use the dictionary’s entry by giving example. The Oromo alphabets and their IPA are also given with some example, no matter how relevant it can be. The following heading is the grammatical information which is only limited to the gemination and vowel length in Oromo. No transcription is used in the examples used to illustrate this.

On the other hand, the BM (pp. 1120-1144) has the information outlined below:

Appendix

- Irregular verbs in English
- The Punctuation types and usage in English

- Words and their masculine vs feminine distinctions
- Terms of occupations
- Countries, area in sq km, population in number, capital city
- Letters and numbers in sign language
- Numbers in English, Arabic and Roman symbols
- numeration
- measurements

Though, the BM has included many information in it, which is perhaps intended to aid the Ethiopian users primarily, there is nothing done in helping the foreign users of the dictionary who do not know anything about the indigenous languages and some of the facts in the Country.

4.3.2 Analysis of the Entries

This CL of the dictionary (pp. 1-1119) contains of major entries in English (headwords) in alphabetical arrangement (A-Z). The number of the words in this part is supposed to be more than 88, 000 words which cover a total page of 1119. As can be seen, in the form of citation, the parts of speech for the English headword are given in parenthesis followed by their pronunciation in Amharic script. Under the major entries, the definition in Oromo is given after which example is found in English. The following line is the definition in Amharic. The pronunciation in Amharic script is perhaps included with the intention that the user must be able to read Amharic. But it is not wise to do so, since the transcription of the word may not provide efficient pronunciation guide for the reasons that the unique phonetic systems in languages which results failure to be used by others.

The rationale of favoring English has not been justified by the author though such scholars like Bartholomew and Schoenhals (1983: 69) state that good sentences need to represent a cultural setting familiar to the speaker of the vernacular meanwhile such information is also of interest to the outsider wishing to increase his knowledge of the area. Moreover contradictory, irrelevant, or rambling references are identified in the sentences. However the expectation is that succinct, unambiguous and informative statement should be the mark of a good illustrative sentence. Let us now see the first example for analysis.

abandone (v)-

osoo hin xumurin dhaabuu, gatuu, dhiisuu

Example 1

she abandoned the love affairs she has with me.

.....

(pp. 1)

In this example, the headword is misspelled while it is supposed to be written as ‘abandon¹²’. The word, of course, is assigned to a verb word class correctly. However, more or less the two translations are acceptable in the sense of ‘giving up’ and ‘deserting’ expressed as ‘dhaabuu, dhiisuu, gatuu’ in Oromo and ‘.....’ in Amharic. The example has irrelevant piece of information, which could be said a problem of circularity, in it since ‘love affair’ and ‘she has with me’ means there is obviously a relation between the two. Rather, it is supposed to be put as ‘she abandoned our love affair.’ Still another better example could have been used in stead of this. The second example is to be followed. Moreover we can observe inconsistencies (as compared to the other entries) due to the misplaced the Amharic translation that in this case is given following the illustrative sentence.

bulimia (n)-

Example 2

dhibee garmalee nama nyaachisu

(pp. 112)

.....

bulky (adj)- ...

1. guddaa- ...

2. bal’aa- ...

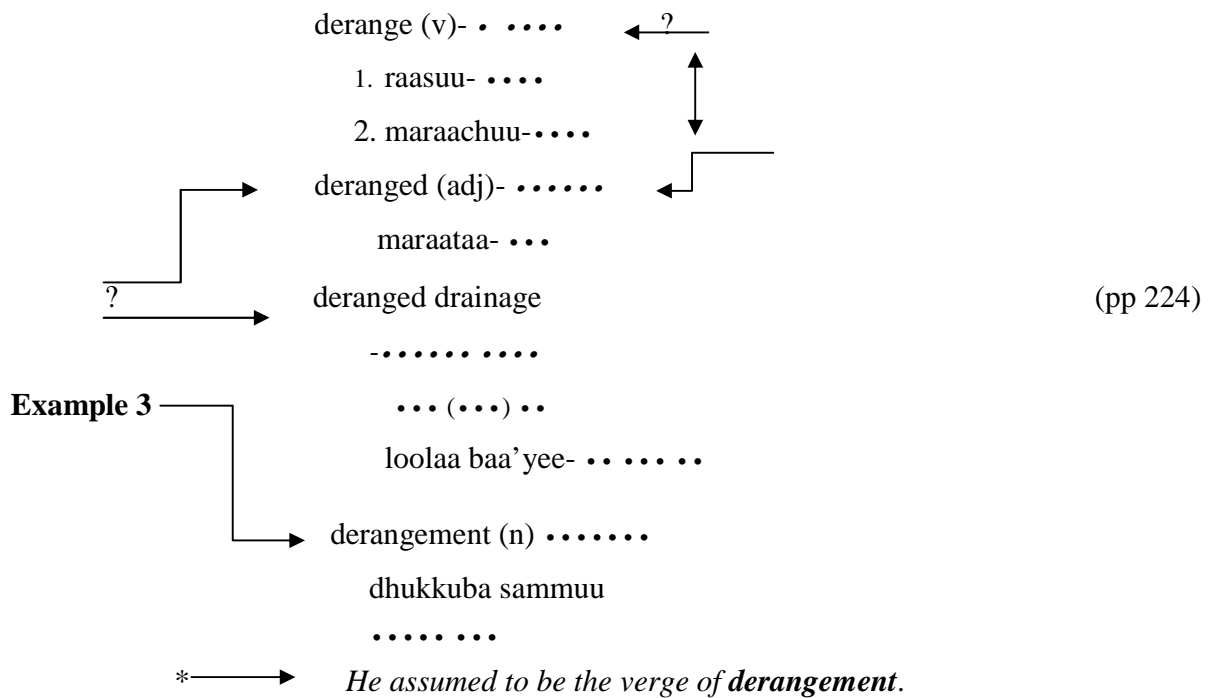
His research paper appeared to be bulky.

The first entry word, ‘bulimia’¹³, in this example is closely translated into Oromo. If we give the back translation of the Oromo, it will be ‘a problem that initiates overeating’. The Amharic translation is, however, not accurate. ‘.....’ by itself can be understood as ‘a desire of

¹²‘**abandon (v)**’: ‘give up (an action or practice) completely’ and also ‘desert or leave permanently’ phrase: *abandon ship* – means ‘leave a ship because it is sinking’. COED (2001: 2)

¹³The definition is given as ‘an emotional disorder characterized by bouts of overeating, typically alternating with fasting or self-induced vomiting or purging’ according to COED (2003: 183).

eating (appetite)’ ‘which when combined with ‘...’ gives the meaning of ‘a disease of desire for eating’. Such a definition might cause ambiguity since we cannot know whether it is meant to be ‘lack of appetite’ or ‘a problem of eating too much’. The second entry, ‘bulky¹⁴’ can be defined as ‘large and unwieldy’ which is a noun class word meant to refer to the mass or magnitude of something large. Accordingly its translation as, ‘guddaa’ in the example is ‘large’ and ‘bal’aa’ is ‘wide’. If we see the translations in Oromo and Amharic, both do not qualify the meaning of the SL for their lack of making distinction between the amounts of something and size in terms of height. The Oromo word ‘guddaa’ and the Amharic word ‘...’ for instance can’t express the bulk of something. Thus the use of the headword in the sentence is pointless. Next to this is given the third example.

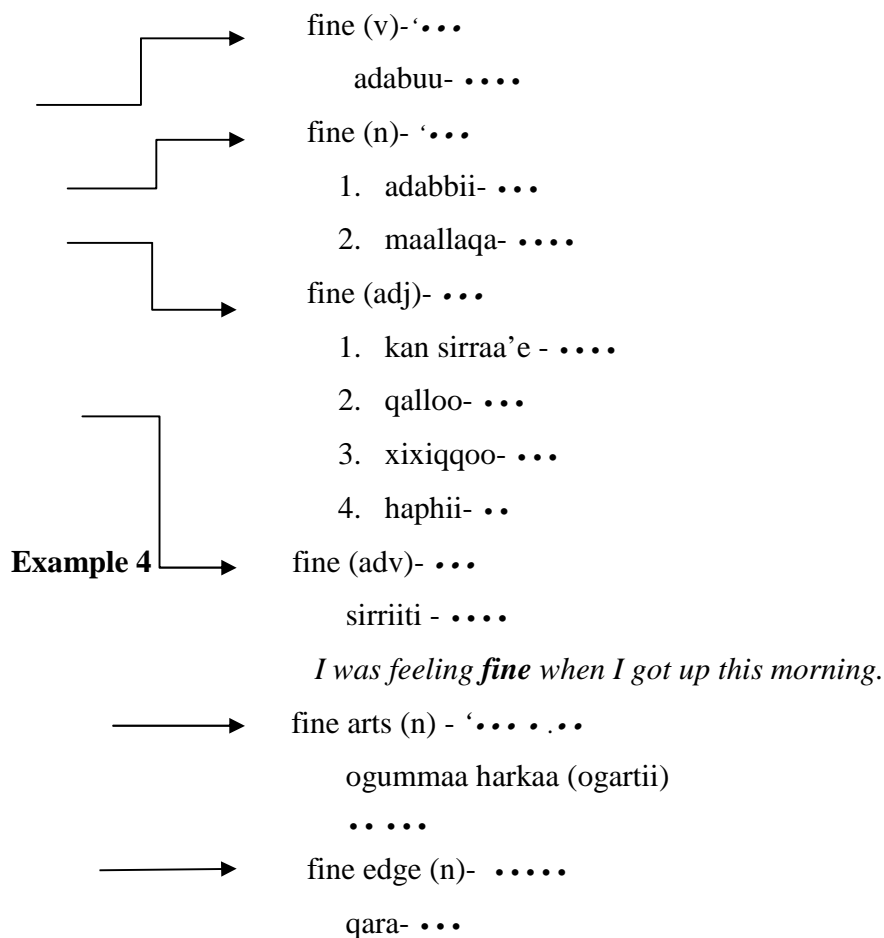


The first translations in the two languages of the word ‘derange¹⁵’ cannot be taken as the word’s equivalent. Besides in the case of this example from the dictionary incorrect for its graphology of the Amharic pronunciation tag (. or? see the difference compared to the rest). The word ‘raasuu’ in Oromo is ‘to shake’ and the Amharic word ‘...’ is literally ‘he caused

¹⁴ ‘bulky’: ‘large and unwieldy’ COED (ibid)

¹⁵ ‘**derange(v)**’: ‘cause to become insane, throw into disorder, intrude on; interrupt (archaic)’, COED (2003: 385).’

turbulence’ which has the sense of disorder and confusion (not calm) and irregular and disorderly flow (of liquids). The second sense of the word’s definition can be taken as the right kinds of equivalents. In its adjective form, the word is supposed to mean ‘one who is made insane’ rather than just ‘insane’ as the incorrect translations in the dictionary as ‘maraataa’ and ‘...’. The straight arrow with a question mark is intended to indicate the insertion of a different major entry (phrase) before getting done with the derivatives of ‘derange’. Such kind of a phrase could have been treated as a subentry or could have been left out instead of creating inappropriate order that could not have any special relevance other than creating confusion. The illustrative sentence is also not correct syntactically which would result in semantically incorrect meaning than it was meant to be. It is hardly possible to say that the author has the mastery of capturing the syntactic behavior of items if we analyze such pattern in the sentence. Non-native learners should not be misled by the use patterns that do not conform to the SL. Now let us see the fourth example.



finely (adv)-.....
 of' eegannoon-
 finer (adj) - '.....
 xixiqqoo -
 finery (n) -
 faayaafi uffata darbee darbee pp 336
 qofa uffatamu, naqaa

This dictionary presents the definition of the headword ‘fine¹⁶, as major entries (main lemmas). The reader may be confounded with such endless lists that are given now and then while some of them could have just been discussed in a main lemma. The inclusion of the two major entries indicated with the straight arrows before finishing the different forms of the derivation of word is also problematic.

Concerning the meanings in the entries given in the two languages, for the first entry ‘adabuu’ and ‘.....’ cannot be taken as the right equivalent for ‘fine(v)’ because these words can also be used as any kind of punishment unless it is stated that it is used in the context of penalty executed in terms of money. The second entry for which definitions given in the two senses ‘adabbii/.....’ ‘maallaqa/.....’ also exhibit the same problem. The illustrative sentence given for the word labeled as an adverb for one of the entries does not have relevance. As an adverb the headword (translated as ‘sirriitti/.....’) is in contradiction with the SL (fine) in the way it is used in the illustrative sentence whereas the usage of the word in the example refers to the state of health which subjects the word as an adjective. The fifth example is discussed as follows.

heart (n)- ... ←
 1. onnee - ..
 2. miciraan dubbii-

¹⁶ **‘fine (adj)’**: ‘of very high quality,’ ‘satisfactory’ and ‘in good health’ (and also feeling well).) ‘fine (adj)’: (of gold or silver) containing a specified high proportion of pure metal, (of weather) bright and clear, (of a thread, filament, or hair) thin, consisting of small particles, of delicate or intricate workmanship,’ **(adv)**: ‘in satisfactory or pleasant manner’. **(n)**: ‘a sum of money exacted as penalty by a court of law or other authority’, **(v)**: ‘punish by a fine’. **‘finery’**: ‘ostentatious clothes or decoration’ in its first sense and ‘a hearth where pig iron was converted into wrought iron (historical)’ COED (2003: 531).

heartache- (n)- ←

gadda guddaa

.....

? → heart and soul -

onneerraa- ...

Example 5 heart attack (n)- ← (pp 447-448)

onneen namaa dhaabachuu

.....

heart beat (n)- ←

rukutaa onnee -

heartbreaking (adj)-

1. baay'ee kan nama gaddisiisuu

.....

2. mararsiisaa -

*It is **heartbreaking** to see her wasting her life like this.*

The idiom ‘heart and soul’¹⁷, means ‘the central core (of someone or something (also literal))’.

To begin with, let us see the different ways in which the dictionary gives the pronunciation¹⁸ of the word ‘heart’¹⁹, throughout the entries, as is indicated with the right hand arrows. But as can be seen from the example, in spite of the creating a question for the relevance of expressing them in Amharic, this author makes the mistake of giving various pronunciations as he wished as (..... ..). The ‘heart’ in its second sense in the Amharic translation as ‘.. ...’ is worthy of our attention since such a usage is uncommon and vague. The other thing is with the ordering of the entries, the left hand arrow is used to show the insertion of idiom in the middle of these entries which could have been treated as sub entries or at the end after the treatment of the different forms of ‘heart’ as entries. There is also a problem of graphology which is observed in writing ‘heart beat’ with a space while it is a single word that is supposed to be written as

¹⁷See AID (2000: 191)

¹⁸ ‘heart’ /ha:t, NAmE ha:rt/, OALD (2005: 721) .

¹⁹‘heart (n)’: ‘1, a hollow muscular organ that pumps the blood...,’ ‘2. the central, innermost, or vital part of something’ ‘heartache (n)’: ‘expresses emotional anguish or grief’. ‘heart attack (n)’: ‘a sudden occurrence of coronary thrombosis, typically resulting in the death of part of a heart muscle’, ‘heartbeat (n)’ ‘a pulsation of the heart and an animating force or influence’. ‘heartbreaking (adj)’: ‘causing overwhelming distress’. COED (2003: 656-657).

‘heartbeat’. When it comes to the meaning of this word ‘... ..’ probably idiomatic, is not the right equivalent that could be given but ‘... ..’ which is expressed correctly as ‘rukuttaa onnee’ in Oromo. The translation for the entry ‘heart attack’ which is noun class is not given close TL equivalents. For one thing the translations cannot be subjected to noun class since they are given as explanation of the headword as ‘the failure of heart’. However there are other options in the languages like ‘dhukkuba onnee’ in Oromo and ‘(.).. ...’ in Amharic. The observation of such meanings in the entry reminds us the remark made by Teubert and Čermakova (2004: 130) who informs us that some people may speak as if it is the dictionary or lexicographers who assign meanings to words. But the lexicographers only document the meanings that are already assigned. It is the discourse community that assigns meanings to words (or, rather, to lexical items). The sixth instance is analyzed as can be seen below.

kin (n)- ..
 fira - ...
 kind (n) -
 gosa, akaakuu -.....

*They sell all **kinds** of things.*

Example 6 * *The regions differ in size, but not in **kind**.* (pp. 560)

*I need to buy paper and pencils,
 that **kind** of thing.*

* *kind (adj) -
 jorgoo, gaarii, bayeessa, garaa
 laafaa -*

With regard to the meanings, appropriate definitions are given for the headword ‘kin²⁰’, in the two languages and also for the two main entries ‘kind²¹’. The problem is, while many lists of words are used in Oromo to define the entries, their equivalents in Amharic are comparably few. For instance, in the case of the final major entry one can find difficulty in finding which one of these translations (jorgoo, gaarii, bayeessa, garaa laafaa) is equivalent for (..... ..). When it

²⁰ **‘kin(n)’**: ‘one’s family and relations (noun, treated as plural) (**adj**): ‘(of a person) related’ COED (2003: 779-780).

²¹ **‘kind (n)’**: ‘1. a class or kind of people or things having similar characteristics’ ‘2. a character; nature,’ **‘in kind** (phrase)’: ‘1. in the same way’ and ‘2. (of payment) in goods or services as opposed to money’. **‘kind (adj)’** ‘considerate and generous, and affectionate; loving’

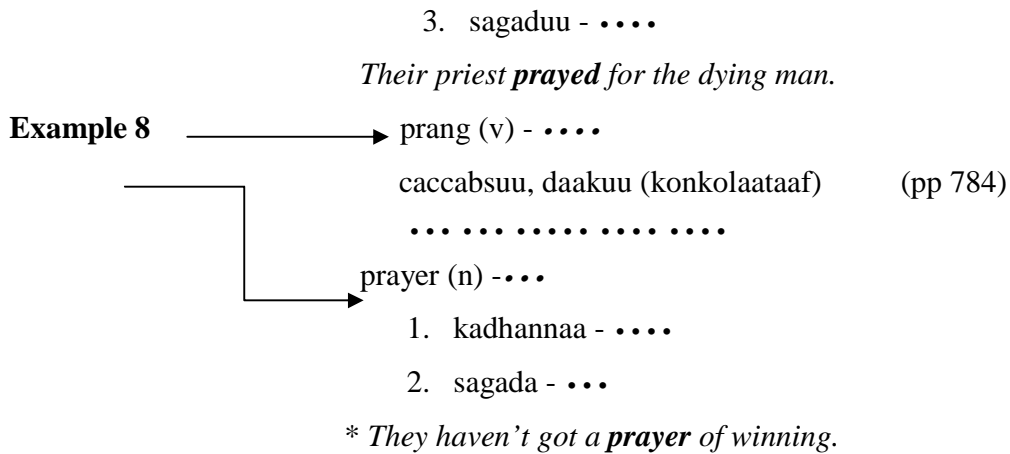
(Teubert, 2004: 83). If we stick to this argument we realize that dictionaries capture this ambiguity by assigning two or more word senses to a word. As shown above, the dictionary writer is confronted with the ambiguity of single words to translate into the SLs. The reader may be puzzled on which of the translations to choose between the options, of which is acceptable even in cases where alternatives are given. However, provided that we find them appropriate when we read the illustrative sentence we cannot be misled, under normal conditions, by any ambiguity. Usually we have no problem understanding what a sentence means. This is because we do not look at the words in isolation, but embedded in a context. But here, we can't see the application of such a principle if we examine the entries and illustrative sentences given above.

The word 'mutant'²⁴, an adjective, means 'resulting from or showing the effect of mutation', while, the noun form, mutation is 'the action or process of changing, a change. In its second sense it also means 'a change in the structure of a gene resulting in variant form which may be transmitted to subsequent generations'. Whereas 'mutate, a verb, is to 'undergo or cause to undergo mutation'. The last entry in the example 'mutilate' as a verb is used to mean to 'injure or damage severely, typically so as to disfigure'.

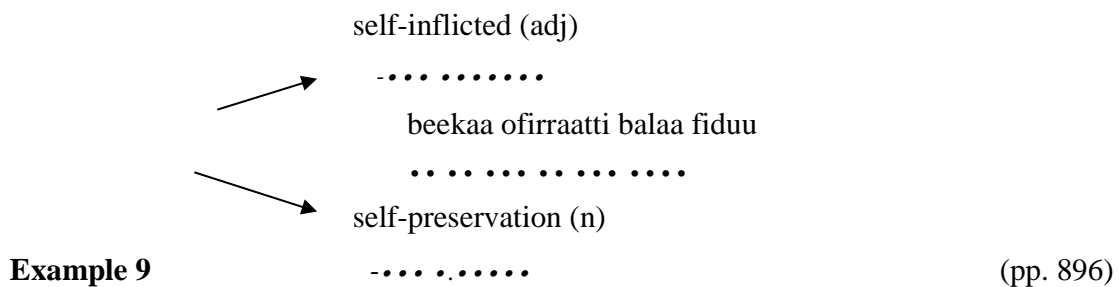
So 'muster' has got the translations (walitti qabuu,) in Oromo and Amharic. Though, these can't be the nearest equivalents that could ever be given. For the English word 'gather, and collect' could have also be translated in a like manner. So, there should have been given its contextual usage to give its right sense in the languages. The illustrative sentence used for this purpose in the entry also lacks clarity. Perhaps, the intention is 'we could get enough support for the plan.' The word 'mutant' is given an incorrect word class, verb, while it is an adjective. The two translations given are incorrect as well. The translations of 'mutilate' are also not the precise equivalent since the Oromo 'kukkuutuu' and Amharic '.....' needs context of usage otherwise they only mean 'cutting repeatedly' where as the SL word has meaning beyond this. The analysis to be followed, example eight, is also considerable.

- _____ → pray (v) - ...
1. waaqeffachuu -
 2. kadhachuu -

²⁴ See COED (2003: 941)



The first major entry, pray²⁵, has got three senses of definitions as can be seen from the example. They can be taken as the near equivalents though such Oromo words as ‘waaqeffachuu’ and Amharic ‘.....’ can be translated back into English giving the meaning of ‘worshipping’ which cannot be synonym for ‘pray’. ‘Sagaduu’ and ‘.....’ can have the meaning ‘pray’. Yet these two translations cannot be taken as the equivalent of one another. Since sagaduu ‘to bow down, to pray’ is ‘.....’ in Amharic. Still there is a difference between ‘sagaduu’ and ‘pray’. If we analyze the organization of the entries articles in this example, we notice an inappropriate insertion of the entry word ‘prang’ in the middle of ‘pray’ and ‘prayer’ marked with a straight arrow. The word ‘pang²⁶’ is of a British informal usage meaning to ‘crash (a motor vehicle or aircraft), or strike against. It can be used as a verb and/or noun. See also the illustrative sentence, which has difficulty of getting what meaning is intended by the dictionary writer. What is a ‘prayer of winning’? This could be an indication of lack of the SL proficiency which results in loss when it comes to collocation. Now comes one of the two last examples below.



²⁵ ‘**pray (v)**’: ‘1. address a prayer to God or another deity’ and, ‘2. wish or hope earnestly for a particular outcome.’
 ‘**prayer (n)**’: ‘1. a solemn request for help or expression of thanks addressed to God or another deity, and 2. (prayers) a religious service at which people gather to pray together.’ COED (2003: 1124).
²⁶ See COED (2003:1124)

of baasuuf -
 self-respect (n)- ‘.
 of kabajuu - ‘.
*No self-respecting doctor would refuse
 to treat a sick person.*

There is a problem in translating the first entry ‘self-inflicted²⁷, as a ‘deliberate action to infliction of harm on oneself’ by the inclusion of ‘beekaa...’ and ‘.’ which is not stated in COED’s definition. The translations for ‘self preservation’ are incorrectly expressed in the form of infinitives in the two languages ‘of baasuuf,’. The two arrows are used to indicate the deviation of the place where pronunciation is indicated from the rest. The last example is given as follows.

there!- . .
 eci! - . . .
 there and back -
 achi gahee deebi’uu
 (pp. 1008)
 there he goes-
 kunoo, achi, garas
 . . .
 there are you-
 dhuftee, kunoo dhume!

Example 10

Probably the entry word ‘there²⁸, quite strangely with exclamatory mark is intended to express defiance in the translations, which is though informal if need be to chose it as if of prime importance. As a lexicographer, due care must be taken on the ordering and selection of the vocabulary so as to meet the expectation of the reader. The dictionary has not, for instance,

²⁷ COED’s (2003: 1300-1301) definition for ‘self-inflicted’ is ‘(of a wound or other harm inflicted on oneself’, and ‘self-preservation’, ‘the protection of oneself from harm or death, especially regarded as a basic instinct in human beings and animals’. while ‘self-respect’, is ‘pride and confidence in oneself.’
²⁸ **‘there (adv)’**: ‘1. in, at, or to that place or position and in that respect or issue 2. used in attracting attention to someone or something.’ ‘3. (there is/are) used to indicate the fact or existence of something.’ **‘(so there)** used to express defiance (informally), COED (2003: 1486).

included any of its definitions relating to *a reference to place*. There is no indication of the word class, which is supposed to be labeled as (adv) as well. There is no such English expression like ‘there and back’ unless it is the invention or misconception of the dictionary writer to be chosen inconsiderably. There is a problem of order for the last entry as ‘there are you’ which is appropriate as ‘there you are’ only.

4.4 Analysis of *Jumbo*: English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary

4.3.1 Analysis of the Outside Matters

The dictionary’s FM offers its information in 19 pages after which the central list (body) is found covering total pages of 805 (80.% of the dictionary’s part) followed by the back matter which is extended until the final page, 1004. The compiler gives the number of words described in the dictionaries in approximation, as ‘over 87,000 words’ as can be seen right just on its front cover page before turning the next page while on its backside cover he happens to be precise as to when he offers the figure ‘99, 000’. Let alone, in the view of lexicographic knowledge, when compared to the earlier dictionaries, it is reasonable to judge this one absurd if we start with the way the front matter is structured. Next to the cover page is stated the dictionary’s use in Amharic while English is used for the description of the remaining information except for the history of the project on page vii. The claim is that it is intended for workers, students, universities, translators, experts, journalists, authors and any researcher. In reality, however, there is no such a dictionary that satisfies the varied interests of different groups of people in just one volume.

As we move on to the third page, acknowledgement is due to few individuals who participated in helping him collect words. Details on: how and from where have never been stated, though. What follows is the introduction. Under this section the author presents ethnographic information, of Oromo language and speakers. As can be observed here what motivated him to prepare such trilingual dictionary is the realization that the greatest majority of Ethiopian people (40 million) who speak Oromo as their first and second language. The source of this figure is not mentioned however. Thus follows his intention stated “...this general estimation encourage the writer of this book to prepare this trilingual dictionary, designed primarily for those persons who wishes to learn Afan Oromo through English and Amharic or vice versa.” The underlined bits of information for the purpose of reflection in this study are worthy of our attention and should be

scrutinized. The truth is that dictionary making deserves careful planning than just being carried out spontaneously (with ‘estimation’ like the instance marked here). Moreover, we need to be curious on how learning one language in terms of the other could be actualized. Under the introduction section the pronunciation guide comes (even though it could be taken as a ‘guide’) for Oromo words.

Yet there is another statement of this author’s purpose in the middle of the front matter of his dictionary (probably addressing this speakers but without any heading). Let us now examine what is claimed again in the following quotation.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
....., (Beshah, 2008: vii)••

Leaving aside the issue of *relevance* for its inconsistent way of presenting information what is more we notice dichotomy of motivations that inspired the compilation of the dictionary. In the Amharic quotation, we come across different stated motivation that instigated the project, which remains covert to those users whose proficiency may not enable them to access the information if need be. The dictionary project which took him ten solid years and almost whose entire part is completed in three years of serving prison still poses a question is the setting is suitable to produce such a ‘infallible’ reference claimed by the compiler.

The preface of the dictionary is placed to the end of the front matter’s section. Again and again as can be evident in here the author laments the use of his publication as if it is “...meant to practically respond to our timely need in learning and developing the languages unanimously.” As if it is intended not to offend the Oromo language speakers, pronunciation guide is given separately under the heading *Haala Itti fayyadama Jechoota Afaan Oromoo*. To this as well the importance is not clear since such illustration “aara- /aa-ra/-smoke” doesn’t have any contribution as a practical guide for the native speakers and the second language speakers who use the dictionary.

The subsequent sections until the central list given under the headings *Days of the Week, Months of the Year, Numbers and About the Writer* are not placed in the right place- the front matter of the dictionary. Finally, the remaining outside matter –the BM’s content- is discussed. As it is claimed by the compiler this dictionary included in it a considerable coverage of encyclopedic information mainly at the back in 179 pages (which shares 17.8% part of the dictionary). Therefore, apart from the common issues treated in this part like: measurements, maps, demographic information and language use (terminologies, literary expressions etc) among others we also find biographies of notable individuals of our world (scientists, artists, politicians, philosophers etc).

4.4.2 Analysis of the Entries

In what follows, rigorous criticism is given due to the entries found in *Jumbo:English-Oromo-Amharic Dictionary*. Examples are selected from some of the pages in a way that has taken cognizance of their even distribution. Thus the data are not confined to specific kind of alphabets or pages. Now let us see them each.

Example 1

Abducts (v)	hawwachuu	••••
Aberration (n)	kan akka sirriitti laalame	••• •••• •••••

(pp. 21)

The first example, which has to be written as ‘*abduct*²⁹’, in the right sense of description, obviously lacks the slightest knowledge of the compiler for its inappropriate inclusion of the plural marker ‘-s’ to the headword. Not only in these entries, can we also see that the headwords begin with initial capital letters throughout the dictionary. When it comes to the definitions given in the Oromo and Amharic glosses, we recognize totally inaccurate meanings. The Oromo word ‘hawwachuu’ given its Amharic equivalent ‘••••’, both do not qualify the appropriate equivalents that can do justice to the meaning of the SL- as far as *abduct* is concerned. The Oromo and Amharic glosses, rather, have the meaning ‘attract’. If need be, we can take ‘butuu’ and ‘••••’ as the close equivalents of the word. The following headword, ‘*aberration*,³⁰’ is also given inaccurate meanings, which rather are seen as standing in exact opposition of the SL.

²⁹ **abduct** v. to take somebody away illegally, especially using force **syn** kidnap >**abduction** n. OALD (PP. 2)

³⁰ **aberration** n. a fact, an action or a way of behaving that is not usual, and that may be unacceptable, OALD (PP.2)

While the Oromo expression ‘kan akka sirriitti laalame’ can be translated as ‘which is considered right’ the Amharic closer to this one is ‘one that is taken as correct’. Hence, as it is indicted in the footnote for comparison, the two translations fail to give proper meaning. Let us now move to the next example.

Example 2

Castle (n)	kabii, dawoo
Castrate (v)	tumuu; kolaasuu
Castrated	tumaalessa

(pp. 100)

In example two, we find the word ‘castle’³¹, is relatively given near equivalents in the two languages though still *kabii* is not the standard referent of it and *dawoo/...*, for both mean ‘fortress’, define the purpose of a castle though they still lack specific description of the right sense of the word defined. ... (but ... as well) also is of course better to express the SL-castle. To be precise, however, we should have been given the precise meaning, since any of the later Amharic word do not necessarily refer ‘castle’. The following entry, ‘castrate’³², is given its proper translations in the two languages. Nevertheless, the inclusion of the following related word ‘castrated’ is questionable. Moreover the two translations appear to be specific to ‘sheep’ as ‘tumaalessa’ and ‘...’ regardless of the application of the SL to male human or any animal. Yet the Amharic expression taken as a whole is senseless. To be followed is seen the entries under the alphabet D.

Example 3

poor devil (dj)	garraamii
Devout (adj)	sagaduu, onneerraa, macaanu
Dewlap (n)	maala, mala

(pp. 180)

³¹ **castle** n. 1. A large strong building with thick high walls and towers, built in the past by kings or queens, or other important people to defend themselves against attack. 2. (also **rook**) (in CHESS) any of the four pieces placed in the corner squares of the board...OALD (pp.230)

³² **castrate** v. to remove the TESTICLES of male animal or person, OALD (230)

The entries in the above example, under the alphabet 'd' from the dictionary, introduces its readers with the idiom *poor devil* that immediately follows its preceding headword *devil*. Perhaps, such organization of the entries is unwisely pursued for its lack of taking into consideration of the users who may finds it uneasy to find the meaning of the idiom that is misplaced here since it starts with a different alphabet. Besides, whenever the inclusion of such different entry is faced by the users as they look for the information they seek there is no doubt they are distracted so much as the convenience of alphabetical ordering is used purposely. The idiom has nothing to do with *devil* for that matter. The meaning of the idiom is right in the sense 'some one you feel sorry for,' but *garraammii* doesn't express this for it is only meant to be 'kind'. The Amharic gloss '.....³³' is appropriate in one sense of its definition. Again if we see closely, it is quite strange to find unwanted use of grammatical designation nonsensically given as (*dj*). The following headword 'devout'³⁴, while its an adjective word class, is given a verb class Oromo gloss *sagaduu* which, yet, is not the right equivalent because it means 'pray' (manifested through the action of bowing down, on one's knees). The first gloss of the Amharic equivalent can be taken as the nearest equivalent. The third headword *dewlap* meaning 'a hanging fold of loose skin on an elderly person's neck' is, on the other hand, found to have nonsense translations in the two languages. Next, in example 4, we find, different entries belonging to the alphabet 'g'.

Example 4

Go ahead	durse	..
Go along with	wajjin deeme
Goings -on	gochaa

(pp. 260-261)

In what precedes, we find the idioms containing go³⁵, the first two in particular among few of them included in the dictionary even though countless of these exist in fact. Here comes, then, the question of what criteria are used to use the entries as the representative samples of the

³³ 1. 2. (.....)..... 3. (..... 79)

³⁴ **devout** adj. (of a person) believing strongly in a particular religion and obeying its laws and practices... OALD (419)

³⁵ **go ahead** 1. to travel in front of other people in your group and arrive before them...2. To happen; to be done **SYN PROCEED**. **go along with sb/sth** to agree with sb/sth... OALD (662). **goings-on** n. [pl] (informal) activities or events that are strange, surprising or dishonest...OALD (666).

language, English, in addition to their significance to the two TL. As an equivalent translation that can be rendered into Oromo, *durse* is acceptable in a certain way. Instead of such expression whose root is marked for a masculine gender (*durs-e*), *dursuu* should have been taken as a neutral expression. But still, the users may not find the other sense of the SL headword. For the Amharic ‘••’ nothing is assumed to be intelligible to the naïve language learner. Perhaps, if we are asked to fill in the gaps of the missing spellings (just like a word game) ‘•••’ is intended.

The following entry, *gong along with*, is not appropriately translated since its literal meaning is all that could be analyzed by compiler yet misunderstood that the two metalanguages fail to express it. Moreover the recurrent problem of Amharic spelling is observed if we see ‘•••• ••’. The subsequent entry in the example, also, fails to give the right kind of translations because *gochaa* and •••• are imprecise as long as the exact meaning of the word goes beyond a type of *action* which can be made precise as *strange/dishonest actions*. The other thing is that the fact that the word lacks grammatical designation-noun as its word class. Let us now proceed to the following example.

Example 5

Lobby (n)	galma, dirree	•••• (•••)
Lobe (n)	gogaa gurraa	••• ••
Lobster (n)	akaakuu qurxummii	••• ••••

(pp. 340)

As we come to the evaluation of the entries cited above, lobby³⁶, the first headword is given near equivalents as far as *galma* and •••• are necessarily understood as a *hall*. Whereas ••• is incorrectly used in parenthesis as if it also means the preceding expression added to its misspelling. The next entry, lobe³⁷, is not given accurate translations in the two languages in that which opens criticism for failing to make distinction between the part of the ear (ear lobe, in this case) and the whole. Having said these in general, now we direct our attention to the next entries under the alphabet *p*.

³⁶ **lobby** n, v. n: 1. a large area inside the entrance of a public building where people can meet and wait... 2. a large hall that is open to the public...3. v. a group of people who try to influence politicians on a particular issue. OALD (902).

³⁷ **lobe** n. 1. =EAR LOBE 2. a part of an organ in the body, especially the lungs or brain, OALD (902)

Example 6

pliable (adj)	kan laayyeettidabu
plosive (n)	dhoosa, tamsaasa
plot (n)	caasaa barruu
point less (adj)	miiraan ala

(pp. 420-421)

As we reach here, *pliable*³⁸ the first entry is some how correctly transferred into the two languages except for the typographic error in Oromo for joining two separate words, *laayyeettidabuu*. Besides, the close look into the former word raises the question of which variant to use: *laayyee* or *laayyoo*? No consideration is made by the dictionary-writer as to how to choose and apply the standard or as to offer variant usages, at least in such cases. Moreover, it has to be noticed that the other sense of the SL meaning is not identified, which may also apply for almost every entries. *Plosive*³⁹, the second headword, which is of phonetic domain of use, is seen translated in way that gives such a clue and may completely mislead the users. If we observe the word class, also, the word while it can be an adjective class to, this however is not indicated. In either case the expressions in the two languages never qualify the right meaning. The Oromo words *dhoosa* can be 'explosion', *tamsaasa*, 'transmission'. Whereas *....* is understood in two senses: *explosion* in its first usage and informally, refers to *a person* (who is markedly different from acceptable norm). If we see the following head word, *plot*⁴⁰, we still cannot be directed to the right expression in the two TLs. For an advanced user who already is the clue, it can be discovered that the translations are intended to give the meaning sense in literature, in spite of the other equally important senses, though still inadequately expressed. The fourth one in the example is still problematic due to the SL typography and TLs inaccuracy of meaning. The turn is now taken to see the headword in the example to be followed.

Example 7

³⁸ **pliable**. adj. 1. easily bent; flexible. 2. easily influenced or swayed. COED (1099)

³⁹ **plosive**. *Phonetics* .adj. denoting a consonant that is produced by stopping the air flow...**n**. a plosive speech sound. COED (1100).

⁴⁰ **plot**. n. 1. a plan made secretly by a group of people to do something that is illegal or harmful. 2. the main sequence of events in a play, novel, or film. 3. a small piece of ground marked out for building, gardening, etc. 4. A graph showing the relation between two variables, COED (1100).

sperm (n)	bulaa, madha
spiritual (adj)	ayyaana

(pp. 500)

Not commonly understood used by Afan Oromo speakers, across ages and regions, the word *sperm* (also semen), is given a strange kind of meaning, and never heard of as to the researcher's knowledge also. Since the word is, perhaps, one of those language issues excluded for being taboo from the discourse of its society, adaptation is likely to occur in whenever such a word is encountered. So, why not *spermii*? Of course *xaraxara* is a word introduced into the science educational texts from the experience of the researcher. the Amharic translation, also, is quite defective. For one thing is not the right way of writing for usage. Added to this, the meaning of the word in its correct form is 'sin' in English. As far as we know, then, recently there the word has not changed its only meaning. The following entry, spiritual-in the sense applicable as of *human spirit and/or of religion belief* as an *adjective* is rendered as *ayyaana* in Oromo which is not though an adjective and may be confused for its another sense of definition 'holiday'. But, the Amharic expression is acceptable. Let us see the following for a further analysis.

Example 8

Tidy (adj)	qindeessaa
Toast (v)	bashaashuu

pp. 520 & 521

The word 'tidy'⁴¹, is given an inaccurate meaning into Oromo, *qindeessaa*, which has the meaning of (organizer) as a noun class naturally. But the word is an adjective as can be seen. The Amharic is again fallible for there is no such usage at all unless it is a fabrication of the dictionary-writer. What is rather likely to do justice to the two translations can, however, be *qindaa'aa* and The second head word, toast⁴², is too given a quite strange meaning *bashaashuu* in Oromo. On the other hand, even if, the Amharic expressions, , ,

⁴¹ **tidy**. adj. 1. arranged neatly and in order. >inclined to keep things or one's appearance neat and in order. >not messy, neat and controlled. (COED 1497-1497).

⁴² **toast** .n 1. sliced bread browned on both sides by exposure to radiant heat. 2. an act or instance of raising glasses at a gathering and drinking together in honor of a person or thing.> a person who is toasted or held in high regard: he was the toast of the baseball world. .v. 1. cook or brown by exposure to radiant heat. >warm oneself or part of one's body beside a fire or other source of heat. 2. drink a toast to. COED (1504).

describe what is in the scene of raising glasses in an honor of a person or thing, they never can precisely depict the picture of a *toast*. The other sense of this very word is also what is missing while its importance is, beyond a shadow of doubt, unquestionable.

4.5 Findings: a compendium on critical analyses of the dictionaries

At this stage, a general impression of the dictionaries is given as findings based on the rigorous analyses already made in this chapter. To start with, the content of the outside matters in these multilingual dictionaries hardly ever could be taken as of extreme practical value for the users in general. It is expected that such dictionaries, in their introductory sections, set as standard reference type designed to facilitate their use by the readers. However these dictionaries do not somehow meet the requirement of guidance in the mechanics of using such a volume to the extent that the assumed users, of various types they claim, need.

Particularly, while sophisticated scholar needs orientation to the language area and the distinctive features, the grammatical sketches of these dictionaries serve very little purposes as to offer guide on pronunciation of the SL and TLs. On the other hand, to a much larger extent, it is believed that the appendices, also offer an arena in which to display the creativity and special interests of certain types of information. Nevertheless, the compilers have never used to the best of their intelligence to include any vital information to the general audiences. Thus we observe that the information included in the back matter are elementary and outside the context of the Oromo and Amharic readers to be consumed by the English readers. There is, for instance, a doubt as to whether such specific type of information should be presented in the back matter, if we see the wide coverage of biographic information by Wossine Beshah.

The lists of entries that are subjected to analysis in this study are found to be imperfect in many respects. Some of the imperfections are technical ones and can be improved by better tagging, but there are also problems caused by linguistic competence and inadequate lexicographic knowledge. When compared to the two dictionaries, in terms of the treatment of meanings of the entries, Hinsene's dictionary is better. The problem is that the reader finds the difficulty of getting the meaning of some entries since for one thing their senses may not given and

illustrative example is not used at all for their contextual usage. In spite, of their use, illustrative sentences are not included the citations except in one of the three dictionaries by Legesse Geleta. Moreover, if we see the entries, we also witness that treatment of pronunciation of the headwords e the distinctive feature of this latter compiler's dictionary-*Hirkoo*. The problems in the entries of the dictionaries can be generally categorized into the following outlines.

Grammatical Information: *misused or not used*: some of the entries of the dictionaries contain either only bare words, without grammatical information or one that is wrongly tagged. Also, the missing of collocations and usage examples expose the dictionaries to criticism. The citation in example 10 (the headword *there* and the following phrases in analysis 4.3) shows that no grammatical information is used for the entries. Besides, the words are not expressed by illustrative sentences to understand the contexts of their occurrence. The other instance we could take is the incorrect tagging of part of speech for the headword *align* in Elelle (pp.19) as if it is a 'noun', while it is a 'verb'. Additional instance can be taken form this same dictionary (pp 463) if see the entry 'narrowly' tagged incorrectly as an *adjective* while it is actually supposed to be an *adverb*.

Meaning/Translation Problems: the translated equivalent may differ in category that he TL translation equivalents belong to other classes of words different from the SL. For instance 'mutant' (*see example 7*, in analysis 4.3). We can also observe that some of the translations could be idiomatic expressions which the SL never intends to express. The noun class, heartbeat, is for instance given its idiomatic translation in Amharic '... ..' (example 7, of analysis 4.3). In the dictionaries, we can also get very strange correspondences like 'eci!' and hence '...' in Oromo and Amharic respectively for the adverb 'there' in analysis 4.3. Similarly observed, in analysis 4.4, the headword 'tidy' is given strange equivalent 'qindeessaa' in Oromo and '..... ..' in Amharic. In cases where the English words have a broader sense, we may also get restricted senses in their translations. The words *chair* in the analysis (4.2) of the first dictionary, and *plot* in the third one (4.4) are good examples. Sometimes we also observe that the dictionaries contain some English words that are difficult to translate or whose translations are not good candidates for entries in a dictionary. The headwords 'myth, mythical, mythology' in analysis 4.2 can be taken as an instance. Such words do hardly have any correspondent in the target language, and their translation seeks detailed information. If we also analyze the sole usage in of illustrative sentence (in 4.3), we may observe contradictions between the headword

and the way it is used in the illustrative sentence. This misguides the users in getting the appropriate meaning. For example, the adverb *fine* is misused in the sentence used to illustrate it (example 4, 4.3).

Inconsistent Entry Organization: Two of the dictionaries are found to have similar ordering of the information in their middle matter while the second appears to be unique. This being the case, yet occasionally we cannot distinguish the headword and can place the entry incorrectly. As an instance see the following:

Shrove
 Tuesday (*n*) -soomii qabaa -...
Elelee (pp 700)

It would also be important to see inconsistent citations whereby we see, mostly, illustrative sentences at the end, while it is not so in this case. In addition we cannot be able to identify what the Amharic text at the end intends to represent.

abandone (v)-
 osoo hin xumurin dhaabuu, gatuu, dhiisuu
she abandoned the love affairs she has with me.

Hirkoo (pp. 1)

Moreover, the special inclusion of phrases and idioms in some of them due to lack of any labeling, may confuse the readers as they appear different from the other headwords, (see examples 5 and 10 under 4.3 and example 4 under 4.4). Finally, from the analysis of the dictionary by Wossineh Beshah, we can observe an aberrant organization for the treatment of different terminologies in the middle matter after the description entries of the general language. Such kind of reflection of personal interest for that matter cannot be taken of any purpose and value to the reader. If need be discussion of terminologies deserve separate publication.

Style and Domain of Usage Problem- it is almost the case that thought each of the dictionaries style and domain of usage is not identified. It is expected that dictionary-makers label the domain and style in which the words they describe are used (like formal/informal, euphemized, archaic, and other terminological specifications). Almost of in all the dictionaries, nothing like their

usage style is marked. Particularly, as can be seen in the following examples, the bare description of such euphemistic (taboo) words in most cultures no doubt leads to their misuse.

buttock (*n*) fagaara, hudduu, duuba
Hinsene (pp. 79)

Penis (*n*)-'...

Qasara, wagala, tusuu,

Qunxurroo- ..

Legesse (pp.745)

Defecate (*v*) udaan haga

Wossine (pp. 171)

Chapter Five

Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations of the research based on the findings of the study, to which in depth scrutiny and rigorous criticism is made due to each of the three

multilingual dictionaries. So to speak, let us begin by the conclusions after which we would proceed to the recommendations, finally.

5.1 Conclusion

Even though both the macrostructural and microstructural aspects of the dictionaries, under this investigation, equally gained keen analytical observation, the later necessitated extensive coverage due to the relevance and extent of its content. Accordingly, from the findings, on one hand, the out side matters of the dictionaries appear to be defective and hence inefficient for their lack of offering their readers with the kind of appropriate guides so as to be used effectively and efficiently. From the outset, while our expectation is to have well trained lexicographers whose linguistic and various academic expertise are readily enough to equip them with the skills which enable them to produce a legitimate and authentic reference types for the users, contrarily we witness their language deficiencies and lack of proper experiences in the field they are engaged. This can mainly be seen in their composition of the issues discussed in the front matters: introduction, acknowledgement, preface and so forth. Of course, to pursue perfections, can liken our futile attempts to the first inhabitants of Arcadia, whom Samuel Johnson-the notable lexicographer-used as an instance in 1755 for their persistent action of *chasing the sun*, that resulted in nothing (as to find where the sun rested) but the fact that it was still beheld at the same distance from them as they reached the illusive hill. However, from the maximal expectations that rests on the duties and responsibilities vested upon lexicographers, no doubt the task requires due care to produce the standard reference type that satisfies the interests of its audience(s) which these dictionaries, though, do not seem to fulfill to a greater extent. On the other hand, as we analyze the entries, we still observe diverging gaps in their knowledge and experiences. Consequently, the lists of the entries that we get are found out to be imperfect in many respects. Some of the imperfections are technical ones and can be improved by better tagging, but there are also problems caused by the gaps of knowledge already stated. Some of the problems are listed below:

- Entries contain only the bare words, without grammatical information, without collocations, register notes, usage examples, styles and domains of usage etc.
- The translated equivalents of some entries differ in category.
- The TL equivalents belong to other classes of words as opposed to the SL words.

- Some of the translations are idiomatic expressions and do not express the SL meaning.
- We get very strange correspondences.
- Some of the English words have broader senses than their translations.
- In one or both languages, there are given explanations of the meaning rather than their translations.
- At some points we cannot distinguish the headword and can place the entry incorrectly.
- The dictionaries have included some of the English words that are difficult to translate or whose translations are not good candidates for entries in a dictionary.

5.2 Recommendations

Right from the very beginning of this study, is stated the conviction that multilingualism is the gift of the continent Africa and hence Ethiopia. And this gift has to be maintained through the revitalization of the languages by the continuous effort of their description in dictionaries whether with or along side other international languages. That is the promising move towards the development of our national languages so as to compete equally with the privileged international languages. At the advent of globalization era, Ethiopia can achieve her goal of enhancing better communication among the resident ethnolinguistic groups and furthermore between these and immigrants in the country so as to maintain peace and stability of the ongoing democratization process through the tradition of producing standard multilingual lexicographic references that create multicultural awareness. The analysis made already in this research work reveals that the practice of multilingual dictionary making still deserves improvement and greater attention. But at least the efforts of those few compilers cannot be undermined at all since they are serving some users with all their limitations. Therefore, it needs to take into consideration the following recommendations in general:

- We need to create a wide scholarship accesses for individuals interested in language and research as these could serve foundations to produce well acquainted lexicographers.
- Governmental and non-governmental organizations like universities/institutions, research centers and scholars should take responsibility in the capacity building schemes so as to create awareness by the training and sharing of experience as for dictionary-making.

- The research findings so far reached on the dictionaries (including this one) should be accessed by the compilers of these dictionaries and interested apprentices for the updating of their earlier works and/or the making of better references.
- And finally, further trends of dictionary criticism needs to be encouraged and supported since it could be one way in which the development in the area is best achieved.

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Declaration

By submitting this thesis, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the owner thereof, and that I have acknowledged the sources I used throughout.

Beniyam Jembere

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