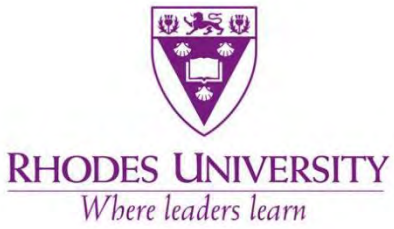

Dictionaries as pedagogic tools: A case study of selected schools in Makhanda, Eastern Cape

A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

by

Zola Wababa

Supervisor: Professor D. Nkomo

Declaration

I declare that the work contained in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge, original. This thesis has not been submitted previously, partly or wholly, for the award of a university degree in any other university.

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ABSTRACT

The importance of dictionaries in society has been confirmed in relevant literature while their specific role in education is underlined by several studies focused on the use of dictionaries in teaching and learning. This study focuses on mother-tongue or first language (L1) isiXhosa learners and their use of dictionaries across subjects in the Intermediate Phase of primary schooling. The research sought to examine how dictionaries are used in teaching and learning and how they could be used more effectively in the teaching and learning processes, with a focus on isiXhosa L1 learners in the Makhanda area of the Sarah Baartman District of education, Eastern Cape.

The general aim of this study was to improve the process and practice of using and producing Language for General Purpose (LGP) and Language for Specific Purpose (LSP) dictionaries across subjects. The study also sought to contribute to improving the functional value and user-friendliness of teaching support materials, such as dictionaries. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) policy document states that dictionaries are essential in teaching and learning of both language and content subjects. In relation to language subjects, the CAPS is explicit about the use of dictionaries in the acquisition of vocabulary, meaning, spelling, pronunciation, and grammar, among other types of information that are integral in language attainment and learning. Nonetheless, the CAPS document does not clearly articulate the use of dictionaries in content subjects.

The study draws on two branches of lexicography – namely, dictionary user research and dictionary criticism – to examine the extent to which dictionaries are problem-solving tools which assist users to meet their cognitive and communicative needs. Thus, the study seeks to influence policy and practice of the use of dictionaries as teaching and learning resource materials that could help teachers and learners better understand key concepts across subjects. A mixed-method approach was used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data using a variety of data collection instruments, viz., observation schedules, questionnaires, and interviews. The study found that although teachers were aware of dictionaries, they did not use them as a resource in teaching. Furthermore, teachers lacked skills in the use of dictionaries, therefore, they were not able to effectively integrate dictionaries in their lessons. The research also found that learners had little

awareness of dictionaries and did not fully understand their role in language acquisition or content. Lastly, the study offered some insights on how dictionaries could be integrated in teaching and learning, and how their use could address some communicative and cognitive problems faced by non-mother tongue English speakers in a context where English dominates teaching and learning at the expense of learners' L1.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACRONYMS	FULL NAME
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CAPS	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement
DBE	Department of Basic Education
FAL	First Additional Language
HL	Home Language
LGP	Language for General Purpose
LiEP (1997)	Language in Education Policy
LSP	Language for Special Purpose
LOLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
LTSM	Learner Teacher Support Material

DEFINITIONS

Bilingual	The ability to use two or more languages in either speech or writing, or a model of schooling that uses two languages.
Corpus planning	Planning to develop the structural forms of a language (e.g., orthographic, lexicon), including harmonisation and standardization.
Equivalent	The translation of the equivalent lemma or other source-language expression into the target language.
Lemma	The lexicographical term for what is popularly referred to as entry word or headword.
L1	First language, mother tongue.
L2	Non-native language, second language, foreign language; may specifically refer to contexts where the language is widely spoken outside of the home, but often used to refer even to situations where there is little contact with the language except through the school or official context.
LGP	It may be seen as being a dictionary written for language for general purposes and synonymous with standard language.

LSP	It may be seen as being a dictionary written for language for specific purposes and refers to the language used by experts communicating within their areas of expertise.
Macrostructure	It is the lexicographical term used to describe the arrangement of the stock pf lemmata in the word list. Macrostructure may be systematic or arranged alphabetic.
Medium of instruction	The language used in teaching and learning curricular content.
Microstructure	It refers to the arrangement of the information provided in the individual dictionary articles.
Mother tongue	First language (L1), native language.
Multilingual	Individual or societal ability to speak more than two languages.
Transition	Shift in the medium of instruction from L1 to L2 or shift in the language of literacy.

Transitional	Schooling that shifts sooner or later from L1 to L2.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The importance of dictionaries in society has been confirmed in relevant literature while their specific role in education is underscored in the South African curriculum. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) syllabi indicates that dictionaries are integral tools for both language and content subjects. In language subjects, dictionaries offer support regarding vocabulary, meaning, spelling, pronunciation, and grammar, as well as providing other types of information that are essential for language acquisition and learning.

Access to and effective use of dictionaries, among other learning resources, may address literacy challenges in South Africa, most of which are linked to the role of language. This applies to both the learners' home language (HL), isiXhosa, and their first additional language (FAL), English, in rural and township schools in the Eastern Cape. Across the curriculum, dictionaries are important tools to explain content, which they should ideally do in an accessible manner, including through the provision of lexicographical assistance in the mother tongue. Challenges in subjects, particularly the content subject areas, are linked with students failing to understand concepts that are often presented using abstract terminology.

This study investigates how dictionaries are used as pedagogic tools by learners, and to a certain extent by teachers, in two (2) schools in Makhanda township in the Eastern Cape Province. The research focuses on dictionary user research and dictionary criticism in the process of teaching and learning during the Intermediate Phase of schooling. This chapter contextualizes the study with background information, the statement of the problem, the research objectives and questions, and the significance and scope of the study. Lastly, it outlines the general overview of the dissertation.

1.2 BACKGROUND

A relationship exists between scholastic achievement and the language of teaching and learning (Howie et al., 2008). Language is not only an instrument for effective social mediation, but also a basis for cognition and dissemination of subject-specific knowledge (Brodie, 1989; Mbude-Shale, 2013; Schleppegrell, 2007; Setati et al., 2002; Setati, 2005). Therefore, in an educational context it is vital to ensure that the language used does not impede the cognitive and communicative processes that underpin learning. South African education policies, such as the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (RSA, 1997) and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (Department of Basic Education [DBE], 2011), regard language as a form of pedagogical capital and a major cause of educational challenges facing learners who speak English as an additional language. Despite the legislative imperative that all official languages should be treated equally, English remains the dominant language in South African education and other crucial public domains. This dominance is considered one of the most prominent contributing factors to low educational achievement at various levels in South Africa.

Content subjects, especially scientific subjects, such as Mathematics and Natural Sciences, pose challenges – even for learners with English as their home language. Language is a major factor contributing to learning difficulties in these subjects. For instance, according to Setati (2005), "part of learning mathematics is acquiring fluency in the language of mathematics which includes words, phrases, symbols, abbreviations, and ways of speaking". Lee (2006) adds, "Unless the pupils know about the way language is used in mathematics, they may think that they do not understand a certain concept when what they cannot do is express the idea in language" (p. 446).

This is magnified in countries like South Africa where subjects are taught in English, a language that many learners have difficulties with. In a study of Aboriginal and European students, (Way et, al.,2020) observed that while students from English-speaking backgrounds had difficulties with using the language registers to discuss scientific ideas, these difficulties were exacerbated among those who spoke little, or no, English.

Thus, communicating in scientific subjects in multilingual classrooms in South Africa means managing – among other challenges – the interaction between ordinary English and scientific language, and the learners' primary language and the language of learning and teaching (Setati et al., 2002). In addition to the use of those languages that learners can understand, there is a need for interventions that support both learners and teachers when dealing with conceptual and linguistic challenges. Interventions include the use of a variety of pedagogical resources and tools, such as dictionaries which have both communicative and cognitive functions (Bergenholtz & Tarp 2003; Tarp, 2008).

As a discipline, lexicography deals with the compilation, use and study of dictionaries (Hartmann, 2016; Hartmann & James, 1998). The compilation of dictionaries constitutes practical lexicography, while dictionary use and their critical evaluation falls under theoretical lexicography Gouws & Prinsloo (2010), which Wiegand (1984) refers to as meta-lexicography. Within the framework of the function theory of lexicography, dictionaries are regarded as problem-solving tools which serve specific communicative and cognitive needs of specific users in specific situations (Bergenholtz & Tarp 1995; Tarp, 2008).

In this research, the learning of content subjects is treated as a context within which the pedagogical needs of isiXhosa-speaking intermediate learners may be addressed using dictionaries. The function theory of lexicography will thus be used to identify cognitive and communication problems – which may be solved using dictionaries – to conduct a study of dictionary use (or its potential), as well as stimulating a critical engagement with the selected dictionaries. This study falls within two branches of meta-lexicography, namely, dictionary user research and dictionary criticism, as described by Wiegand (1984) and Hartmann (2016). Dictionary user research and dictionary criticism constitute the core of a lexicographical intervention that is considered to address some of the challenges in the teaching of content and languages as subjects.

Dictionary user research falls under meta-lexicography, considering user needs before dictionary design. Hausmann et al. (1989) and Gouws (2013) share the sentiment that the production of a dictionary should be approached from the perspective of the user. According to Tarp (2009), dictionary user research seeks to obtain more knowledge about the real needs of the user.

Furthermore, user research incorporates forms of usage which are not relevant to lexicography, but which are necessary skills for the dictionary user Tarp (2009). By studying the way users consult dictionaries, researchers can identify which strategies and methods either fail or assist users in becoming more efficient in their search (Abecassis, 2007). Dictionary user research showed that people used dictionaries as reference works (Wiegand, 1997). This study sought to investigate dictionary use by isiXhosa speaking learners in the Intermediate Phase. Furthermore, the research is intended to investigate how dictionaries could intervene to solve some of the challenges experienced by the learners in selected subjects.

Drawing from dictionary user research, a model could be formulated for the use of dictionaries in the South African education system, especially for communities that speak African languages and where dictionary culture is generally poor. While dictionaries are a major feature of the CAPS documents, educators and learners continue to display rudimentary dictionary skills (Beyer & Faul, 2010; Gouws, 2013; Nkomo, 2014, 2015, 2020). Existing studies have provided insufficient information to effectively formulate a theoretical model that integrates dictionaries in the daily educational lives of the learners. This is made worse in the case of specialised dictionaries, the use of which is undermined by the notion that dictionaries are to be used within the confines of language subjects in schools (Nkomo, 2015).

Dictionary criticism involves an evaluation and assessment of conventional designs of lexicographic products and contributes to the refinement of the design features of dictionaries (Hartmann, 2016). Dictionary criticism is the evaluation, negative or positive, of the design features of dictionaries based on one or more lexicographically relevant evaluation criteria (Swanepoel, 2008). It is crucial for refining and improving lexicographic products (Jackson, 2002). Dictionary criticism focuses on the relationship between dictionaries, on the one hand, and teaching and learning resource materials of content subjects, on the other, following the theory of lexicography. Ultimately, the study aims to evaluate and analyse the design and features of dictionaries used in teaching and learning. This will be achieved by examining the content of dictionaries, their structure, and the extent of their use in classrooms.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Dictionaries are regarded as utility products produced with the genuine purpose of meeting the various needs of potential user groups. In the process of teaching, learners and teachers are the target users of dictionaries to intervene pedagogically and cognitively in daily learning processes. The purpose is to maximize the use of dictionaries by learners in the Intermediate Phase. In many subjects, learners are required to use a dictionary for reading with understanding as conceptual meaning is viewed as central to teaching and learning.

The recognition of the value of dictionaries in content subjects suggests an acknowledgement of the importance of language as a medium of communication in learning situations, as well as the fact that dictionaries can support both communicative and cognitive activities. In South Africa, much practical work has been done in specialised lexicography to intellectualize African languages for use in education in the form specialised dictionaries and glossaries (Abecassis, 2007; Alberts & Mollema, 2013; Mabasa, 2006; Moropa, 2007; Nkomo, 2008; Nkomo & Madiba, 2011; Van der Merwe, 2008). The same applies to pedagogical lexicography broadly, through which a variety of school dictionaries have been produced by commercial publishers. The dictionaries and glossaries produced have not yet been subjected to rigorous analysis for their functional value and user-friendliness in classroom settings, especially African language-speaking communities. Pedagogical lexicography, therefore, constitutes a small part of the academic discourse on South African lexicography. Knowledge from the analysis of all dictionaries and other materials used in schools should contribute to the compilation and improvement of dictionaries used for teaching and learning in basic education.

There is, therefore, a need to investigate how learners and teachers use these resource tools – and address perceptions about their use – to promote cognition and improve literacy skills across all learning areas. A poor dictionary culture is usually accompanied by high levels of illiteracy. As such, it has been reported that most learners in primary schools cannot read and write. The study sought to understand what kind of dictionaries were in circulation for the use of learners and to ascertain whether the dictionaries responded to the needs of teaching and learning in primary schooling.

1.3.1 Main Research Question

The main research question was: How do learners and teachers in selected Makhanda primary schools use dictionaries as pedagogic tools in the Intermediate phase?

1.3.2 Sub-questions

The secondary or sub-questions were as follows:

1. What are Intermediate Phase learners' and teachers' perceptions towards dictionaries as pedagogic tools in the selected schools?

2. To what extent are dictionaries used as pedagogic tools during Intermediate Phase teaching and learning in the selected schools?

3. What is the level of dictionary reference skills of learners and teachers in the selected?

4. How can dictionaries be integrated into everyday teaching and learning activities in the Intermediate?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The study pursued the following research objectives:

1. To investigate Intermediate Phase learners' and teachers' perceptions towards dictionaries as pedagogic tools in the selected schools.
2. To determine the extent to dictionaries used as pedagogic tools during Intermediate Phase teaching and learning in the selected schools.
3. To assess the level of dictionary reference skills of learners and teachers in the selected
4. To formulate a model of dictionary use in the teaching and learning activities in the Intermediate Phase.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study sought to contribute towards practical lexicography by focusing on improving the functional value and user-friendliness of dictionaries. By critiquing existing dictionaries, the study identified strengths that need to be maintained and weaknesses that need to be addressed in the compilation of future dictionaries for South African classrooms.

This research further advances the use of dictionaries as teaching and learning resource materials that can help teachers and learners better understand the content component of all subjects and improve literacy and dictionary user skills. It is important in the sense that it can help education policy makers draft intervention strategies targeting the improvement of literacy skills and understanding of content subjects. Exposing teachers and learners to dictionary use will assist in strengthening the foundations of both mother-tongue and first additional languages, as well as content subjects. Ultimately, this hopefully assists in improving learning and performance in other learning areas, especially for Intermediate Phase learners who speak African languages and who are required to learn in English as medium of instruction.

Furthermore, this research sought to benefit mostly the disadvantaged learners in rural and township schools in the Eastern Cape Province. Through this study a model for a culture of dictionary use was be conceptualised and will be shared with the DBE so that it can be inculcated at an early stage of schooling for learners. In this way, dictionaries may be viewed as essential teaching and learning aids.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study focused on Intermediate Phase quintiles 1 to 3 schools (less resourced and no-fee schools) in one of Makhanda's Townships. In Grades 4 to 6 selected classes were observed in the subjects of Mathematics, Natural Science, and Languages. Learners and teachers in those classes spoke isiXhosa as their home language and English was used as the medium of instruction in all the schools.

1.7 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

- **Chapter 1** provides the introduction, background, problem statement, research questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, scope of the study, and overview of the entire thesis.

- **Chapter 2** conducts a literature review for the study, focusing existing studies on dictionary user research and dictionary criticism with respect to the use of dictionary in schools. The implications of these lexicographical studies and their relevance for this study is considered. Both local and international studies are reviewed to consider how dictionaries as pedagogic tools impact teaching and learning in education.

- **Chapter 3** outlines the theoretical framework within which this study was conceptualised and conducted. This chapter contrasts scholars who regard lexicography as a field of study without a theory, arguing that lexicography as an art or craft belongs to the linguistic domain, with those scholars who argue that lexicography is not an art but an independent field of study with its own theories. Finally, in this chapter it is argued that lexicography is an independent field of study and has a theoretical base. Wiegand's general theory of lexicography and the function theory of lexicography outlined in such works as Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995; 2003) and Tarp (2008) are discussed to show how they inform the current study.

- **Chapter 4** focuses on the research methodology, research paradigm, data collection techniques, sampling, and ethical considerations.

- **Chapter 5** presents, analyses, interpret and discuss data on dictionary user research conducted in the two schools. The data is based on interviews and observation of lessons where chalk and board, and books and dictionaries, were used.

- **Chapter 6** presents, analyses, interpret and discuss data on dictionaries found in the schools where this research was carried out. It also provides a summary of the findings on the condition and quality of dictionaries which were used by Intermediate Phase learners, and on their user-friendliness. This chapter draws conclusions on the relevance of these dictionaries to teaching and learning in the Intermediate Phase of schooling.

- **Chapter 7** This chapter focuses on interventions in the use of dictionaries as pedagogic tools for teaching and learning. Relevant dictionaries were purchased for schools to promote well-taught dictionary user skills for learners. After the training intervention, learners and teachers were asked to reflect on the impact of the training and a training model is proposed.

- **Chapter 8** This chapter concludes the study. It summarises the findings, draws conclusions and provide recommendations. It also gives suggestions for future research.

1.8 SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the background of the study and presented the problem statement, research questions, objectives, significance, scope of the study, and overview of the entire thesis. The next chapter will review the literature on dictionary user research and dictionary criticism.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the review of the literature on dictionary user research and dictionary criticism. The review begins by clarifying what dictionary user research is. It continues to a discussion on how dictionary user research is conducted and policies on dictionary use in schools. Furthermore, the literature on dictionary criticism is considered by defining the very concept of dictionary criticism, its purpose, and how it is conducted. The chapter concludes with a summary of the main insights from the literature and highlights gaps in the available research.

2.2 DICTIONARY USER RESEARCH

Dictionary user research, also referred to as dictionary studies and dictionary surveys, investigates how dictionaries are used by their different users. It is research into who uses dictionaries, what they know about dictionaries, what types of dictionaries are at their disposal, and how these dictionaries satisfy the needs of a variety of users with specific problems related to their situations (Tarp, 2008). For this study, the researcher focused on dictionary usage to evaluate the purposes and degree to which users made use of dictionaries in the context of teaching and learning.

Tarp (2009) argues that in the context of teaching and learning, research should address, among others, the following: (a) the types of user situations; (b) the types of users; (c) the types of user needs; (d) the users' usage of a dictionary; and (e) the degree of satisfaction of the user needs. The present study examined all these issues in relation to intermediate phase learners and several content subjects taught in school.

According to Welker (2006), many studies on dictionary use to support learning have been conducted and he argued that publishers of dictionaries generally strove to make their products useful in any user situation. The ideal, however, would be for each pedagogical dictionary to clarify its main function or functions.

Wiegand (1987) contends that dictionary should be informed through the process of consultation to determine the user's intention for reading and the reason for the word search, which results in their finding the meaning and obtaining information on the lexical item. Therefore, isiXhosa HL learners, who use English as their FAL and, to a certain extent, at second additional language (SAL) level, might consult a dictionary to find the meaning of words across the curriculum.

According to Tono (1998), research studies on dictionary use is intended to change perceptions around school dictionaries so that they are viewed as tools to teach an ever-changing language. Dictionary use is seen as a means of addressing the cognitive, communication, and linguistic needs of learners. This is consistent with the primary goal of this study, which is to discover empirical evidence on the dictionary user needs of learners in primary school classrooms.

The history of dictionary production informs us that in South Africa missionaries were the first authors of bilingual dictionaries that included English and an indigenous African language. The history of dictionary production alleges the some of these early dictionary compilers were motivated by the promise of personal gain, the interest was not to improve the tradition of dictionary production (Tarp & Gouws, 2019) and that tendency leads to misrepresentation of the needs of users. This was due to their failure to distinguish between the users' characteristics relative to the information they needed Tarp (2014), thus it is of significance to know the target use of a dictionary so that user needs can be addressed. The history of dictionaries written in South Africa extends as far back as approximately two hundred (200) years and it was dominated by non-mother-tongue speakers of African languages. The compilation of dictionaries across African languages, including isiXhosa, has been done without promoting a dictionary culture amongst speakers of African languages. Consequently, dictionaries are still relatively unused in schools and students proceed to university with little or no knowledge of what dictionaries are available, especially in African languages, or how to use them to enrich their own education (Nkomo & Wababa, 2013).

Thus, this study is intended to find out more about how emergent dictionary users in the Intermediate Phase use dictionaries and the relevance of dictionary content at this level. In the following section, dictionary user studies conducted thus far are discussed with a view to explaining how they are related to this study. This study would inform, influence, inspire, direct

and shape language-in-education policy to promote additive bilingualism on use dictionary in different languages including home language dictionaries. Thus, the Department of Basic Education should adopt additive bilingualism education or multilingual education which would be effectively supported by the use of dictionaries as resources for learning and teaching both languages as subjects and content subjects as demonstrated by (Ndlovu and Moyo 2021: 294) on relationship between language-in-education and lexicography.

There have been many studies on dictionary usage, both local and international. Since a dictionary is a tool to address lexical matters, many of these studies have focused on linguistic challenges encountered when using dictionaries in teaching and learning. Learners are required to use dictionaries in the African languages lessons which is their HL and English FAL classroom, and English-medium content lessons. Nkomo (2020) argued that the awareness of the pedagogical value of dictionaries needs to begin with curriculum planners and developers so that they can provide guidance to teachers who would then nurture learners.

In South Africa such guidance is lacking in classrooms. Gouws (2010) argued that after three years of Foundation phase schooling learners who speak African languages move on to the Intermediate Phase at primary school where, typically, English dictionaries are used. Later at secondary schools where another English dictionary should be available to them, but there is little access to dictionaries and the ability to use them is lacking. Taljard & Prinsloo (2019) note that in "most instances African language lexicography is not keeping up with international developments in lexicography and the number of challenges for these languages has increased. Dictionaries that are produced do not deal with the needs of users" (p. 427). This is especially true of dictionaries that could support teaching and learning of content subjects in African languages as well as English as a second or additional language.

IsiXhosa HL and English FAL learners are confronted with new and complex concepts in their home language and English. For African language speaking children the sudden shift from learning in their home language in Grade 3 to learning in English from Grade 4 creates major obstacles because the language of textbooks from Grade 4 becomes dense, with many new concepts. Textbooks from Grade 4 onwards demand a reading vocabulary of several thousand words which

most learners have not yet acquired. In this complex language situation, learners should have access to dictionaries and be able to use them effectively.

From Grade 4 onwards, literacy skills – and consequently understanding of content in other learning areas – is negatively affected. Many studies confirm that learners perform below par in literacy and numeracy in the Intermediate Phase (Mabena et al., 2021). Many of the terms and words which the learners encounter daily in various subjects are contained in dictionaries. It is made clear in CAPS (DBE, 2011) that reading in English is important as learners will use this language as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) across all learning areas from Grade 4, and textbooks from the Intermediate Phase onwards are written in English. It follows that Intermediate Phase learners requires high levels of literacy, and especially need to develop a wide vocabulary, in the LoLT. Therefore, a culture of using dictionaries is crucial for South African education.

Nevertheless, Taljard et al. (2011) observed that learners had no more than rudimentary dictionary reference skills and that access to dictionaries varied according to socio-economic status with wealthier schools having access while poor schools did not. The main task of English language lessons is to help learners develop the necessary language proficiency to cope with teaching in English (DBE, 2002).

When compared with developed countries, the lack of dictionary culture is acute in South Africa and Africa in general. For example, in Britain learners grow up with a rich dictionary culture (Taljard et al., 2011). South Africa lacks a dictionary culture partly because dictionary pedagogy is not integrated into the curriculum from the early years of schooling (Nkomo, 2015, 2020). This becomes evident in the Intermediate Phase when a variety of new school subjects are introduced with many unfamiliar key terms or vocabulary. Dictionaries should be made available to learners at the early stages so that they can be a resource to assist learners to develop the cognitive and communicative skills identified in the research (Heugh, 2021; Van der Berg & Gustafsson, 2019).

Furthermore, this study sought to establish if learners had the skills to find what they were looking for in dictionaries, and secondly, whether the dictionaries used in classrooms had the kind of information learners were looking for. While many studies show the importance of learning

through a home language or other familiar language, for most of the African language speaking students there are few learning support materials in their languages, especially dictionaries (Webb et al., 2007).

Ideally, learners acquire dictionary user skills through the process of formal education, where they are taught skills on how to use dictionaries through actual use or practice to meet their language needs during teaching and learning (Holdt et. al., 2016). Unfortunately, very little of this happens in the types of schools where this study was conducted.

According to the 2016 PIRLS results (Van der Berg & Gustafsson, 2019), almost 78% of South African Grade 4 learners cannot read for meaning in the language in which they were instructed in the first three grades (Rule, 2021), in most cases an African language. This suggests that most learners could not read well enough to succeed in subjects across the curriculum in the Intermediate Phase from Grade Four onwards. Pedagogical dictionaries in both the home language and first additional language could assist in addressing the challenge of improving the standards of literacy and help learners develop the vocabulary necessary to read for meaning (Gouws, 1996).

Fuertes-Olivera and Tarp (2011) describe the dictionary user process as follows:

> It is subdivided into two different types of learning, i.e., the learning of 'skills and the acquirement of 'knowledge'. These two fundamental types of learning can be further subdivided into several learning processes in terms of what is learned and how it is learned. (p. 141)

While dictionaries cater for both communicative and linguistic skills, practical skills on how to use a dictionary are a prerequisite for the development of a dictionary culture. Potential dictionary users should learn the prerequisite skills on how to extract information from dictionaries.

Learners need to be taught the skills of dictionary use – a nurturing process –to use dictionaries successfully (Tarp & Gouws, 2012). Such skills lead to a dictionary culture. Without skills in the use of dictionaries, learners cannot access the information contained in the dictionaries and ultimately their cognitive, communicative, and linguistic skills cannot be improved. It is, therefore,

important that curriculum documents explicitly mention the use of dictionaries as teaching and learning resources.

Furthermore, lexicographers should consult teachers and curriculum experts when planning school dictionaries so that the grade, age, and target user needs are at the centre of dictionary development to avoid production of inappropriate dictionaries (Tarp & Gouws, 2012).

CAPS documents make a provision for the use of dictionaries for the teaching and learning of languages (Nkomo, 2014). From the Intermediate and Senior Phase levels of schooling, CAPS makes a reference to dictionaries as resources that are meant to be consulted for various types of information, such as pronunciation, parts of speech, synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms. The CAPS document is, however, silent on the use of dictionaries as resources for content subjects, for instance, Life Skills, Natural Science, and Mathematics. The CAPS document for English as the FAL states:

> By the time learners enter Intermediate Phase, they should be reasonably proficient in their First Additional Language with regard to both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills. However, the reality is that many learners still cannot communicate well in their Additional Language at this stage. The challenge in the Intermediate Phase, therefore, is to provide support for these learners at the same time as providing a curriculum that enables learners to meet the standards required in further grades (DBE, 2011, p. 11)

Since learners are expected to use English as medium of instruction in content subjects, there is a reference in the CAPS documents to the use of a dictionary when learning language as a subject. After the Foundation Phase, when most learners who speak an African language switch from their HL to FAL as a medium of instruction, the value of dictionaries becomes vital for content subjects, the communication of subject matter, and access to knowledge.

Visual and concrete teaching material is mentioned as teaching and learning resources in content subjects, but dictionaries are excluded from these lists. The CAPS states that use of dictionaries in languages as subjects is important to assist learners to build vocabulary, but it does not refer to the use of dictionaries for content subjects, such as Mathematics and Science. Dictionary culture refers to a critical awareness of the value of dictionaries in teaching and a demonstration of the relevance

of user skills to solve cognitive and communication problems. A poor dictionary culture is usually accompanied by high levels of poor literacy skills of learners (Nkomo, 2015).

Beyer and Faul (2010) and Nkomo (2014) indicate that not all university entrants in Namibia and South Africa, respectively, have a basic awareness of various aspects of dictionaries, even in their own languages. If that is the case, this demonstrates a lack of dictionary user culture that stems from early in their education. The educational system, which should impart dictionary user skills to learners and teachers, is failing in this task and many learners at university level do not even know how to look up words in a dictionary. This situation is exacerbated by African language dictionaries which use a stem base for lemmatisation, making it harder to look up words (Hadebe, 2004; McKean, 2000; Van der Merwe, 2012).

In a study on dictionary use, Lew (2013) discusses the opportunities and limitations of user studies, cautioning that,

> …the process of reporting or collecting data often engages the attention of the user, inevitably taking their attention away from the consultation itself. As consulting a dictionary is normally an activity undertaken when assistance is needed during another primary task (such as reading or writing), there are now no less than three (3) tasks to attend to: the primary task, dictionary consultation, and data collection. Since none of these tasks is easy or mechanical, it would be naive to believe that under these circumstances dictionary consultation can proceed normally. (p. 89)

Research of dictionary use cannot take place without interruption and challenges during the process of dictionary consultation. Anyone who undertakes dictionary use research should be aware of such limitations, which may become more challenging when the research is conducted with young learners in the transitional classes of the Intermediate Phase of schooling.

2.3 IMPORTANCE OF DICTIONARY USER RESEARCH

On the development of a dictionary culture for specialised lexicography, Gouws (2013) says that focus LSP dictionaries for school pupils should be included in phases and should run parallel to the acquisition of general dictionary using skills.

As dictionary user skills are not a priority of the Gouws (2013) proposes that a general theory of lexicography was not only directed at developing models for dictionaries aimed at advanced users, but such theory should assist any lexicographer planning any dictionary, including Foundation Phase dictionaries. According to Gouws (2013), studies on dictionary user skills helps lexicographers review and adjust their theories and the guidelines for dictionary compilation, and ultimately makes the information they provide easily accessible for target users. Lexicographers seldom feel obliged to promote the use of dictionaries, hence exacerbating the lack of skills in dictionary use. It is usually the publishers who tend to be more active in promoting the use of dictionaries they produce (Alberts, 2014).

Research reveals that many learners who cannot read for meaning give up easily when they encounter challenging words that they do not understand (Nkomo, 2016). If, however, leaners had been taught dictionary user skills and had access to dictionaries during the Foundation Phase, they would know how to consult a dictionary to find the meaning of words. Furthermore, Nkomo (2016) decries the patchy dictionary culture of African communities and calls for lexicographers to produce user-friendly dictionaries if they are to inculcate the use of dictionaries in teaching and learning.

As part of efforts to promote use of dictionaries in learning, Nkomo (2014) created a lexicography course for honours students which is taught in isiXhosa to hone their dictionary user skills. Some of his students went on to become language teachers and to assist in promoting a culture of using dictionaries in the schools.

The objectives of the course sought to address the following issues:

- the different kinds of information that can be obtained from dictionaries; and

- the functions of dictionaries in language learning, language studies and professional language practices, such as translation and editing (Nkomo, 2014).

While dictionaries have a role to play in literacy activities, they are unfortunately not consulted in all relevant user situations. Studies on the above by several African scholars reveal a lack of dictionary culture (Ebanéga & Moussavou, 2008; Mulaudzi, 2017; Nkomo, 2015, 2017).

Ebanéga and Moussavou (2008) conducted a survey about dictionary user skills among students from Gabon with different home languages who studied at two South African universities. Their study showed that these students started using and acquiring dictionaries in primary school for the purposes of translation and reading textbooks but were less familiar with LSP and electronic dictionaries. The students reported that using dictionaries improved their literacy skills that is, reading speaking, and writing. Thus, early use of dictionaries led to improvements in literacy.

Another study, conducted by Holdt et al. (2016), argues that those who create dictionaries tend to not research dictionary user profiles and skills to understand their target audience. As a result, dictionary producers often provide irrelevant dictionaries which do not address the user needs of learners. Atkins and Rundell (2008) concur with the notion that dictionary compilers ought to know their users. They should conduct research on user profiles and needs to impact or address user needs. Atkins and Rundell (2008) argued that dictionary user profiles and dictionary user research are complementary:

> Generally speaking, dictionary use in the process of education has two (2) goals. On the one hand, it aims to fulfil didactic needs of teachers, e.g., by providing appropriate format and availability of the resource, data that can be easily adapted for teaching purposes or even ready-made teaching materials, and 'motivational' content, such as different types of visualisations of language data, interactive content, links to external resources, etc. On the other hand, dictionary data needs to be properly adapted to the cognitive capabilities of pupils and students, which of course change with age and the level of education. Some important features of the dictionary that need to be carefully considered are for example the structure of entries, the structure and language of definitions, and the presentation of metalinguistic information. (p. 33)

Furthermore, the content of the dictionaries was examined for links between the baseline vocabulary used in the curriculum and the content of the dictionaries in terms of addressing the didactic needs of teaching and the cognitive needs of learners (Atkins & Rundell, 2008).

Dictionaries should be designed to connect with the different educational strengths of learners so that the challenges they experience with text reception can be addressed. Nkomo (2016) argued for an African user perspective in the compilation of English dictionaries that can effectively be integrated into the education systems of African countries.

Such a perspective would be sensitive to the linguistic and socio-linguistic realities that characterise the learning and use of English in the respective communities. If that is not well-thought-out, learners who speak African languages could find the use of dictionaries meaningless if they offer little cognitive benefit. When writing such English dictionaries, language repertoires and linguistic varieties of local communities should be advanced.

Other research on LSP dictionaries in South African secondary schools examined whether the target users possessed the necessary dictionary user skills to make effective use of the dictionaries, and whether the benefit of exposure to definitions of terms in the HL was significant in the decoding of the meaning of scientific and mathematical terms (Taljard et al., 2011). It was observed that the use of dictionaries appeared to be a peripheral activity and the learners demonstrated only elementary skills in consulting dictionaries. The conclusion that there was a need for the training of learners and teachers in the use of dictionaries was supported by other dictionary user studies (Nkomo, 2013; Taljard et al., 2011; Van der Merwe, 2012). Studies agree about the lack of dictionary culture and this needs to be developed throughout the education sector of South Africa.

2.3.1 Studies on dictionary user research

In a study on dictionary use, Lew (2013) examined how Polish dictionary users chose words in bilingual dictionaries with specific reference to Polish and English. This research was conducted using an eye tracking device to gather information about the movement of the eyes from one

language to another, that is, between Polish and English. The study reported that participants who were proficient in both languages tended to spend more time examining definitions in both languages for dual understanding of the meaning. Those participants who were less proficient in the languages stopped looking once they found the meaning they had searched for.

The use of the eye-tracking device contributed to obtaining valid and reliable results about use of the bilingual Polish and English dictionary. In researching dictionary user skills, it is important to take note of such dictionary user habits as noted from Polish students to understand what it is that the learners would be looking for in dictionaries and how they might conduct themselves when searching for the meaning of words.

Dictionary use can serve the purpose of bridging the gap between reference works and their users; hence it is imperative that the production of dictionaries should be informed by user culture or habits (Lew & Dziemianko, 2006). Lexicographic studies should take cognisance of findings emerging from the research because the habits of dictionary users differ when consulting different types of dictionaries (Lew, 2013).

In addition, the level of proficiency of dictionary users can be a contributing factor to their user needs which affects the time they take to use dictionaries. The focus on production of dictionaries should not only be on the appearance of the dictionaries and their marketing appeal but should also address the user needs of the target audience. While it is only natural that dictionaries should be evaluated according to how users interpret the information supplied within, in addition, Hartmann (2000) argued that "(re)search into dictionary use should provide a framework for all lexicographic production" (p. 390).

A dictionary user perspective is critical for dictionary use evolution, and the relationship between dictionary skills and reading comprehension can only be improved through proper dictionary user skills. This point was stressed by Tono (1986) who stated that dictionaries assisted in real situations of communicative deficit by enriching comprehension. A user perspective is seen by Holdt et al. (2016) as one of the important foundations for devising profiles of dictionary users and researching their habits and needs. Hartmann (1987) has identified four major areas of dictionary user research which includes user typology, a level in which a dictionary is targeted; dictionary typology that is

the structure of a dictionary; skills typology which refers to a prerequisite knowledge on how to use a dictionary and needs typology which refers to user-friendliness and a dictionary achieving what it was intended for.

According to Chan (2017), when students were asked to locate words under certain lemmas, they frequently chose the wrong articles. The students appeared unaware of article mis-selections and lacked confidence in the accuracy of their decisions. This contributed to their low self-esteem, with the students doubting their ability to do things correctly, resulting in a higher incidence of guesswork. The misreading or misinterpretation of dictionary information often goes unnoticed. Therefore, it is important that lexicographers anticipate the potential problems that students could face in the process of using dictionaries.

In African languages the challenges of dictionary consultations are amplified for emergent dictionary users because lemmatising of words follows noun clauses. Lemmatising Nguni nouns using the initial letter of the stem has been widely criticised because scholars feel it is less user-friendly, makes the dictionary inaccessible and does not satisfy user-needs and user-perspectives (Ndlovu, 2020).

This is applicable to all Nguni languages, including isiXhosa, making dictionary consultation challenging for the users, especially for learners in the lower grades who are in the early process of developing their linguistic repertoire. The traditional lemmatisation of words in isiXhosa uses the stem base or root of the word. Learners need to know how to use prefixes and suffixes of words before they can search for a word in a dictionary. This is the biggest challenge for emergent dictionary users because at the Intermediate Phase they have not yet been exposed to details of the structure of the language. Speakers of African languages, specifically isiXhosa, are also faced with the transition from HL to English as the FAL.

Mafela (2014) says that finding the relevant sense within an entry is one of the more challenging aspects of the dictionary consultation process. African language dictionary users have the tendency to not examining the initial senses in an entry and stop – or give up – before they reach the relevant sections (Mafela, 2014). This poor strategy of searching for words is a contributing factor of users

failing to navigate to the relevant sense, especially in the case of longer and polysemous entries (Mafela, 2014).

In African languages nominal prefixes and suffixes are important for the derivation of words and nouns. Words are not lemmatised in this manner in a great number of dictionaries, as is the case in Tshivenda dictionaries (Nthambeleni et al., 2014). The need to understand the traditional lemmatisation in African languages disadvantages dictionary users especially learners in lower grades.

If nuances of lemmatisation hinder users in locating the meaning of words, and if a dictionary cannot provide the meaning of a word, it will be regarded as a redundant tool (Vrbinc & Vrbinc 2014). Thus, the words that are included in dictionaries should be well defined so that learners can understand them, including the contexts in which they can be used. Lexicographers should bear in mind that users expect to find the meaning of unknown or unfamiliar words in a dictionary.

Furthermore, the agglutinating nature of Bantu languages that goes hand in hand with a complicated nominal and verbal derivation system, poses challenges for lemmatisation (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). In isiXhosa monolingual dictionaries, learners must understand the linguistic nuances related to root or stem to locate words. Lemmatisation of words in African language dictionaries follow the rules of the language, which some claim is an outdated traditional system. Furthermore, existing school dictionaries for first-language learners vary in form and content, not only from one country or language community to another (Tarp & Gouws, 2012) but even within the same country where different languages and dialects are spoken by different peoples or clans.

This diversity can be explained not only by the different traditions of dictionary making, but also by the fact that school dictionaries have, by their very nature, been designed to serve many different functions in terms of the predicted user group (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). These user groups had to be categorised according to age or grade and the corresponding intellectual, linguistic, cultural, and encyclopaedic development of the learners, and various types of learning situations in which they may need to consult or use a dictionary had to be anticipated as well.

An important aspect of the early phases of developing a dictionary culture is to make users aware that dictionaries should not be seen as isolated tools but as part of a bigger family of reference

tools (Gouws, 2010). One way of doing this is to introduce pictorial dictionaries during the Foundation Phase of schooling to inculcate the culture of using dictionaries as early as possible. Furthermore, the skills of using dictionaries should not be separated from the process of teaching and learning, and learners should also be introduced to other reference tools as well (Gouws, 2010). Unfortunately, the dictionary culture in those communities where dictionaries are available excludes knowledge of using such books. In other words, dictionary user skills are not taken as a requisite skill for the users (Gouws, 2010). The lack of guidance on how to use LSP dictionaries can be seen as a direct result of the linguistic bias that dominated lexicography for such a long time.

Gouws (2010) cautions that producers of dictionaries should not regard dictionary use as something which happens automatically, and that no learner could understand how to use a dictionary simply by reading its introduction. Thus, most communities – including the education sector – need to be taught the skills of using a dictionary. El-Hajj (2017) conducted a study on dictionary use among a group of fifty Sudanese students who were majoring in English. Half of the participants had access to dictionaries as an aid, while the other half had no dictionaries. The purpose was to evaluate the effect of dictionary use on overall dictionary culture.

The finding that no statistically significant differences were found between the two groups could be related to the rudimentary reference skills of the participants. This study demonstrated that the students had no experience of using dictionaries. Dictionaries might be available in classrooms or lecture rooms but, regardless of the quantities of available dictionaries, if the dictionary user skill training has not been embedded in the curriculum, these resource books will be useless as teaching aids. It has been suggested that the use of any dictionary leads to better reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition, which is needed for the grammatical nuances of a language (Atkins, 1998; Knight, 1994).

Sayed and Siddiek (2013) conducted research on the habits of EFL learners when using pedagogical dictionaries in the context of both native and non-native speakers. This research found that dictionaries as teaching tools helped learners build comprehension which ultimately assisted them to construct grammatical sentential structure. It also revealed that there were numerous errors

accompanying dictionary use by EFL students, stemming from the lack of training or awareness of students.

There was a strong correlation between dictionary competence and overall language proficiency, and where there was a strong language proficiency, dictionaries were also available to boost the language. Learners, teachers, and textbook designers should be aware of the importance of the dictionary as an important learning device.

According to Clarke et al. (2014), LSP dictionaries should be designed to help users in a range of situations, and with communicative and cognitive functions on the following matters:

- provide help to translate specialised texts.
- provide help to produce specialised texts.
- provide help to understand specialised texts; and
- provide help to acquire general or specific knowledge about factual or linguistic matters from one or more subject fields.

Thus, specialised dictionaries are lexicographical tools that function as utility products which, through their surface and underlying features, provide specific types of help to specific types of users in specific types of usage situations related to one or more domains and the related domain-specific language.

A user-orientated dictionary should try to empower its users by article construction that facilitates the quick and unambiguous retrieval of information, preceded by a successful identification of the wanted micro structural category (Gouws, 1996). If dictionaries are made and produced this way, they would assist teachers and learners to locate the meaning of words they are looking for within a short space of time. Dictionaries would then assist teachers as effective pedagogic tools during teaching and learning.

2.3.2 Educational policy on dictionary user research: South Africa and other countries.

In the CAPS documents, it is noted that by the time learners enter the Intermediate Phase, they should both be reasonably be fluent in their FAL and have basic interpersonal communicative

skills (DBE, 2011, p. 11). Unfortunately, this not the case for most learners who speak an African language. Instead, the acquisition of cognitive academic language proficiency skills are inhibited because of the early transition to English (Cummins, 2021). The reality is that most learners who speak African languages cannot communicate well in the additional language, which is English, and the medium of instruction across the curriculum. Thus, as an overarching curriculum policy CAPS should strongly emphasise the role of dictionaries and so legitimise dictionary use as an important cultural practice, which is the underlying basis of lexicographic practice (Nkomo, 2012). It is improbable that learners, as expected by CAPS, would be able "to critically evaluate information and communicate effectively using visual, symbol and/or language skills in various modes" (DBE, 2011, p. 5) without such scaffolding interventions as dictionary pedagogy.

CAPS documents are not clear about either the integration of dictionaries in the teaching of languages as subjects, or of content subjects where a conceptual meaning is central to dictionary use (Nkomo 2015, p. 77). Furthermore, Taljard and Prinsloo (2019, p. 204) sees dictionary intervention as a tool to assist users with the understanding of basic concepts, which needs to be appropriate for their age level and in their home language, thus bridging the gap between pre-literacy and literacy. This would be tantamount to the promotion of bilingualism and multilingualism, which is a requirement of the LiEP (DBE, 1997).

As the research notes, the disjuncture between the language of teaching and learning and the home language for most learners who speak an African language, the majority of whom are in Grades 4 to 12, affects their cognition in all subjects (Howie et al., 2012), and that can be supplemented using dictionaries in teaching and learning. Unfortunately, the poor dictionary use culture is affirmed by Nkomo (2012) in his study on dictionary culture in Africa, which reveals that there is a neglect, discouragement and even the prohibition of dictionary use in schools, including in South Africa. Thus, Carstens (1995) claims that the only real evidence available on curriculum and dictionary use, is that students who know their dictionaries well, perform better in language tasks than those who do not. As stated by number of scholars above that dictionary use in teaching and learning is a prerequisite for learning a language and grasping the concepts in all subjects. Sadly, however, most learners in public schools were not familiar with dictionary use, nor had they ever owned a dictionary (Nesi, 2014:38), and these resource books are not prioritized by departments

of education. As students' progress up the ladder from primary to secondary and to the level of university, there is even less exposure to these books.

Most of these studies reveal that the promotion of dictionary culture is lacking and the use of dictionaries in lessons or during teaching and learning is not supported (Nkomo, 2014, p. 55).

A poor dictionary culture is usually accompanied by high levels of illiteracy. In South Africa, the CAPS documents identify dictionaries as pedagogic resources and regard dictionary skills as part of literacy skills (DBE, 2014). While dictionaries have a role to play in literacy activities, it is unfortunate they are not consulted by most learners and teachers for the relevant support they could provide.

2.3.3 Summary on dictionary user research

It is generally agreed that there is a need for more studies on the use of dictionaries for educational purposes. The scenario of dictionary users in most countries revealed the lack of dictionary culture. The studies discussed showed that learners as end users of dictionaries are neither exposed to nor own such resources despite agreement that dictionaries are important in promoting literacy skills. The use of dictionaries at earlier stages of education assisted learners with pedagogical matters. South African studies revealed that learners in the Intermediate Phase – after four years of being taught in their HL – are confronted with challenging concepts and terminology in English, their FAL. Thus, this research sought to find out if dictionaries used in classes assisted learners in retrieving the information they were looking for. The research endeavoured to establish whether the information provided in dictionaries provided relevant meaning to learners and if dictionaries were able to communicate knowledge in different learning areas, such as, Mathematics, English, and Natural Science.

The literature in this section showed that most learners and students lacked dictionary user skills, specifically that they struggled to use conventions of dictionaries to locate the information they wanted. Besides studying the relevance of the content of dictionaries used in classrooms, research has sought to address the lack of dictionary user skills of learners. This appeared to be the big challenge for most users of dictionaries, both locally and internationally. This study intended to

contribute to studies of dictionary use for cognitive, communicative, and linguistic purposes. The next section focuses on dictionary criticism.

2.4 IMPORTANCE OF DICTIONARY CRITICISM

This section discusses why dictionary criticism is important and how it is conducted in the context of teaching and learning. It also reviews key national and international studies about dictionary criticism with a view to situate this study within what has been done in the past.

2.4.1 Studies on dictionary criticism

Dictionary criticism often involves evaluation of a dictionary or other reference work, usually by comparing different works (Hartmann, 2016). According to Hartmann and James (1998, p. 32), criticism is "concerned with the description and evaluation of dictionaries and other reference works". Dictionary criticism is a branch of the theory of lexicography which focusses on dictionary typology, that is, language, size, presentation formats, function, perspectives, and user groups. It aims to improve dictionaries for the benefit of users. Gouws (2017) argues that dictionary criticism is not undertaken for the sole purpose of criticism, but to inform dictionary users and to help lexicographers and publishers improve the quality of future dictionaries. It is also conducted to raise critical awareness of the value and limitations of dictionaries and other reference works in a particular community (Hartmann & James, 1998). This study sought to evaluate dictionaries used in the Intermediate Phase of schooling with a view to understanding their impact on teaching and learning.

The way dictionary entries are captured in the dictionary is crucial to the consultation of dictionary by students. Features of a dictionary are very important in enticing learners and stimulating their interest in utilising it. When a dictionary is conceptualised, dictionary makers should know who exactly they are making it for, so that it is most relevant.

Gouws (1996), argues that:

> Considering the different needs and reference skills of users when consulting a bilingual dictionary, one has to argue in favour of a differentiation within this typological category.

> One bilingual dictionary: cannot be everything to everyone. The collection of Afrikaans bilingual dictionaries, that is bilingual dictionaries with Afrikaans as one of the members of the language pair to be treated in the dictionary, displays a lack of sub typological differentiation. This is a symptom of a more general problem, which influences many dictionaries in many ways, caused by an insufficient linguistic and met lexicographical basis. (p. 18)

2.4.2 The purpose of dictionary criticism

Dictionary criticism is a branch of lexicography which focuses on the critical evaluation of dictionaries, with the specific purpose of improving their content and structure. Dictionary criticism places an emphasis on the functions of a dictionary. Dictionaries are functional tools and lexicography is a problem-solving practice (Nkomo, 2020) and thus it should be a conscious and well thought out process. While dictionary criticism is viewed by some scholars as a process which is not free from bias, the goal should be about improving the quality and usability of dictionaries. Tarp and Gouws (2004; 2010) have set out how dictionary criticism could be conducted with a view to improving the quality of dictionaries. This includes examining the quality of defining lemmas, the target audience of a dictionary, and layout and design nuances. In the critical analysis of Cuban school dictionaries, Tarp and Miyares (2013) also demonstrated that dictionary criticism exposed other dimensions of compiling meaningful dictionaries and ways of adapting good practices elsewhere around the world. Furthermore, the above researchers argued that it should be noted that criticism endeavors are neither meant to belittle authors nor to inculcate a culture of competition – although healthy competition for excellent content could be beneficial.

Tarp (2017) summed up what dictionary criticism entails as follows:

- To raise debate on specific dictionaries among lexicographers.
- To make recommendations to the author(s) of the criticised dictionary.
- To inspire other lexicographers when preparing similar dictionary projects.
- To prepare or improve one's own dictionaries.
- To initiate students into the world of lexicography; and
- To recommend or not recommend a dictionary to its potential users.

The intention of this study is to conduct dictionary criticism to examine the quality of dictionaries used in the Intermediate Phase and how they could be improved. Through the process of reviewing dictionaries their strong points can be described in detail for emulation while their weak points could be avoided by others (Tarp, 2017).

Dictionary criticism needs to be executed in terms of a well-defined genuine purpose and the critic needs to have a specific goal (Gouws, 2017). Swanepoel (2008) argues there are two major goals of dictionary criticism: first, to guide users to find the dictionaries that can best satisfy lexicographically relevant user needs; and second, to guide lexicographers in improving the qualities of dictionaries. Nielsen (2015) sees the purpose of dictionary criticism as a process to ensure fair representation of dictionary functions, dictionary data, presentation of the data, and accessibility of the data. Instead of the word 'criticism', both Nielsen (2009) and Swanepoel (2017a, 2017b) prefer the word 'review'. Dictionary review is an alternative term to refer both to the practice and product (Nkomo, 2020). Despite the method one decides to use, whether a desktop method or a testing method of evaluation (Svensén, 2009), dictionary criticism or evaluation is important because it offers useful insights for both the producers and consumers of dictionaries (Nkomo, 2020).

The intention of lexicography is to provide meanings of words and their use and therefore it is important to critique or strategies the mechanisms of production of such materials. It is important to review dictionary design to improve its use for the translation, editing, teaching, and learning of the writing, spelling, and pronunciation of words. As discussed in section 6.1.1., learners in the Intermediate Phase are in an elementary stage of their education and their HL needs to be developed and strengthened as a platform for better understanding of their FAL or a second additional language. Dictionaries are essential tools to develop comprehension of learners, while dictionary criticism is important to produce quality dictionaries.

Both national and international studies confirmed that learners experienced problems when they used dictionaries. The three most common problems learners experienced when using dictionaries were:

- finding the relevant information.
- having found it, comprehending it; and
- Applying what was comprehended to the specific lexical problem that triggered the dictionary look-up (Swanepoel, 2011).

Thus, it is important for dictionaries to be studied and reviewed so that learners in lower grades can overcome challenges of finding lemmas in dictionaries. Most dictionaries have not been produced with the idea of the learner in the Intermediate Phase of schooling, that is, learners who have only basic linguistic capital. For that reason, the evaluation of dictionaries is crucial to promote user-friendliness of these resources. Furthermore, Swanepoel (2008) suggested that this process was important because:

- It provides clear and lexicographically relevant definitions of concepts, such as evaluation and criticism, and positive and negative values, by specifying how to operationalise them.
- It also provides reviewers with sets of explicitly formulated, generally acceptable, comprehensive and systematic criteria for the evaluation of dictionaries of all types.

Dictionary criticism is important because it asks questions about the effective functional use of dictionaries in circulation. In the case of this study, these are isiXhosa and English dictionaries which provide learners with the lexical support they need in the various receptive, productive, and learning activities (Swanepoel, 2011). Gouws (2017) contends that a dictionary review focuses on both the positive and negative aspects of dictionaries and that this process should be viewed as part of a comprehensive dictionary culture with its own genuine purpose. Furthermore, it considers linguistic aspects of bilingual dictionaries which focus on equivalence relations between fields of lexical units a language pair in this case, between isiXhosa and English. In monolingual dictionaries criticism is aimed at the linguistics and subject the dictionary is intended to teach, for example, mathematics or science.

Dictionary critics, however, go beyond that to complement lexicographers, authors and publishers who produce dictionaries for specific communities or users by emphasising the strengths and pointing out the shortcomings of the end products (Nkomo, 2020).

2.4.3 Approaches to dictionary criticism

Each dictionary contains a range of different texts which are functional components of the dictionary as a larger text. The positioning of the text in a dictionary can be divided into three major areas, that is, the front matter, the central list, and the back matter, which are all subject to criticism (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). These components are evaluated using well-defined criteria to understand the full lexicographic presentation (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). The main aspects to be taken into consideration when doing dictionary criticism are embedded data categories, quantity of included data, quality of included data, data presentation, dictionary design, functionality of the dictionary, and user communication Tarp (2017). The main aspects of dictionary criticism are discussed below.

2.4.4 Dictionary concept

This is examined to establish the genuine purpose of a dictionary, that is, its functions and the user needs which it intends to solve. The following are some of the kinds of questions that Tarp (2017) proposed to develop a full picture about the intentions of a dictionary.

- Who is the intended user group, that is, which phase or grades was it written for?
- What are the users' relevant characteristics?
- Is the dictionary designed to solve communicative problems occurring during text reception, production, or translation?
- Is it designed to meet other types of lexicographic relevant needs?
- What exactly are the users' information needs in each of these cases?

2.4.5 Dictionary data quantity

The quantity of the data determines the user-friendliness of a dictionary. In the process of criticism, the frequency of words is important. Some words might be used repeatedly in different contexts and treated differently in definitions. The following questions could be asked to examine the extent to which a dictionary is user-friendly (Tarp, 2017).

- Is the lemma list reasonably available without too much space?
- Are a reasonable number of units of meaning assigned to each lemma?
- Are a reasonable number of equivalents assigned to each lemma in bilingual dictionaries?
- Are there a reasonable number of collocations for each lemma?

2.4.6 Dictionary data quality

The quality of the data of lemmas is important. Dictionaries are resource books that serve speech communities with the meanings of words and their correct usage. The functional use of a dictionary is vital to fulfil its purpose. The following questions can help in establishing the data quality of a dictionary (Tarp, 2017).

- Do the terms or vocabulary selected in a specialised dictionary belong to the subject field treated?
- Have the grammatical categories been assigned to the lemma correctly?
- Is the inflection pattern assigned to each lemma, correct?
- Are the definitions correct in terms of the subject and linguistically?

Once these questions are honestly responded to, this process can lead to a clearer judgement about the quality of a dictionary.

2.4.7 Dictionary design

Dictionary criticism also evaluates the design and layout of a dictionary in lemmatising words. Design evaluation focuses on matters of the macro- and microstructural aspects of the dictionary compilation. It considers how lexical items and data categories are treated in the whole context of the dictionary. The design of the dictionary is influenced by the arrangement of a central list. Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) argued that the lemmatisation process has its own problems. In African languages, issues like stem versus word lemmatisation must be addressed well in advance.

In African languages lemmatisation approaches, strategies and traditions affect the design of the dictionary in either a positive or negative way, because of the conjunctive versus disjunctive nature of African languages. Furthermore, Gouws and Prinsloo (2010) caution dictionary compilers that a user-friendly dictionary demands that the microstructural entries should not be presented in a haphazard way but rather in a systematic order so that the design of the dictionary can fulfil the aspects of function theory of lexicography. As proposed by Tarp (2017, p. 113), the following questions are noteworthy in relation to design.

- Are metatexts used to introduce sections with specific data categories to facilitate access to the whole content of lemmas?
- Is the font visible enough for the users?
- Are the colours used pleasant and do they attract the eyes of users?
- Is the cross-referencing clearly articulated?

While the lexicographic function theory takes cognisance of the functionality of the dictionary, it should be noted that dictionary users use dictionaries while they are busy doing other things. Dictionary should be design in such way it becomes easy to use it. When a learner searches a for a word, they should quickly be able to find it and the meaning. The design of a dictionary serves a purpose if it is properly designed with target users in mind.

2.4.8 Functionality of a dictionary

The function theory notes that lexicographic works are regarded as utility tools to address the linguistic challenges of learners, thus it is significant that in the process of dictionary criticism this is considered. The evaluation of these resource books should consider whether those needs are met satisfactorily, in that they examine the structural design of dictionaries. Functionality focuses on the micro- and macroscopic structure of the lexicographic product, that is, the content of word articles and outer text that provide data for users. Several scholars have opined on the common criteria to guide the evaluation and review of dictionaries (Bergenholtz & Gouws, 2006; Nielsen, 2009; Svensén, 2009)). Furthermore, scholarly work done on the criteria of dictionary criticism was clearly articulated by Wiegand (1983), and studies by Tarp (2017) and Gouws and Prinsloo

(2010) agreed on the same criteria of evaluating dictionaries. All these studies have the same definitions of the concept of dictionaries and their features in terms of word entries, quality, design, and functionality to achieve their purpose. However, the main difference between scholars working in this area has to do with the different contexts of countries and different languages used in dictionaries which influence different ways in which dictionaries are made and, therefore, different ways in which the criteria for criticism need to be applied to reflect these differences.

2.4.9 Summary on dictionary criticism

Dictionary criticism studies nationally and internationally concur that dictionaries need to be critically examined to gauge their value and limitations so that they can respond to the needs of users and make an educational impact and serve the needs of communities at large. Thus, this section sought to find out the quality of dictionaries used in classes to assist learners in retrieving information, and their relevance to learners of the Intermediate Phase. The literature in this section drew from numerous studies on dictionary criticism. Scholars argued that dictionary criticism would assist in improving the theory of lexicography and ultimately contribute to the production of quality, user-friendly dictionaries which would be relevant to target users. The study of dictionary criticism could guide curriculum planners when choosing subject specific dictionaries to assist learners with cognition, communication, and linguistics.

2.5 SUMMARY

The chapter discussed local and international studies that were conducted on dictionary user skills and dictionary evaluation or criticism. It also dealt with advantages, challenges and difficulties experienced by learners in using dictionaries as pedagogic tools in teaching and learning were reviewed. This chapter also discussed research studies (Primary, Secondary and University levels) on dictionary user skills and dictionary criticism. The chapter also demonstrated dictionary user research and dictionary criticism in informing dictionary making. The following chapter presents a theoretical framework of this study.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter affirms the need for and existence of a lexicographical theory. The theory of lexicography was developed long after the development of lexicography practice. Some scholars view lexicography as the art of producing a dictionary. For example, Singh (1982) views lexicography as the art or practice of writing dictionaries. Rather than referring to theory, Singh uses the words 'art' and 'practice' to talk about lexicography. Not all dictionary writers agree, however, lexicographers or teminographers agree with this characterization as they regard lexicography as a part of linguistics (Fuertes-Olivera, 2010). Nevertheless, most lexicographers understand lexicography to be the scientific compilation of dictionaries and their preparation as functional tools for target users (Bergenholtz & Tarp, 2010).

Bergenholtz and Kaufman (1997) claim that there are two components of lexicography: the first focuses on the development of theories specifically regarding the function, the structure and content of dictionaries; and the second focuses on the planning and compilation of concrete dictionaries and is also known as practical lexicography or lexicographic practice. This research used the first perspective in that it explores how dictionaries are used in schools and evaluated the structure, relevance, and content of dictionaries.

In this chapter the theories of lexicography are discussed and then applied in the process of this research to understand how dictionaries were used for teaching and learning in primary schools. As noted above, it is interesting that on the one hand various scholars are of the view that lexicography is the craft or art of dictionary production without a theoretical foundation (Atkins & Rundell, 2008; Béjoint, 2010, while on the other, Wierbicka (1985) and other lexicography scholars refute that notion.

Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995, 2003), Tarp (2008) and Wiegand (1984) argued that even though lexicography entails elements of art and craft, it requires a theory to be a successful domain.

In this regard, Tarp (2010) argued that lexicographic thinking and theory building during the past hundred years or more have increasingly focused on users and their needs.

Wiegand (1984, p. 13) argued that while lexicography was not a natural science, it was a distinct and researchable field that encompassed lexicographical activities and the results of these, as shown below.

(1) Lexicographical activities can be classified into three fields:

> (a) The first field includes all the activities leading to the drawing up of a dictionary plan. (b) The second field includes all the activities involved in establishing a dictionary base and in processing this base in a lexicographical file. (c) The third field includes all the activities concerned directly with the writing of dictionary texts.

(2) The results of the lexicographical activities in the three fields, namely: the dictionary plan, the lexicographical file, and the dictionary.

Wiegand (1984) cautioned that lexicography was not a sub-discipline of linguistics but a distinct discipline which could not be treated under the guise of another discipline. Furthermore, dictionary production was guided by a theory of lexicography, not linguistic theory (Wiegand, 1984). Through the practical and theoretical work of lexicography, researchers who work with dictionary production daily would become aware that linguistically inspired reflections on lexicography largely contradicted the practice observed and were of little or no assistance when solutions had to be found to the complex problems related to the production of a new generation of high-quality specialised dictionaries (Fuertes-Olivera & Tarp, 2014). In his scholarly work on lexicography, Wiegand illustrated that from time to time the two domains of lexicography and linguistics were collaboratively engaged, or worked in parallel, because they were both concerned with issues of language.

Hausmann (1986, p. 101) stated that lexicography was the science of creating a dictionary. He defined these five domains of Meta lexicography or ways of thinking and talking about lexicography:

- lexicographic theory.
- research on dictionary use.
- criticism of dictionaries.
- research on dictionary status and marketing; and
- history of lexicography.

With reference to Hausmann's science of writing a dictionary, this study focused on two of the five fields of meta lexicography: research on dictionary user skills; and criticism or evaluation of dictionaries used in the intermediate phase of schooling. Lexicography is a scientific practice aimed at the production of dictionaries as resources to promote a culture of using them to enhance cognition in teaching and learning. Lexicographic practice has developed certain patterns and systems unique to specific types of dictionaries. This research aimed to study all kinds of dictionaries used in the Intermediate Phase of schooling to measure the culture of dictionary use.

As mentioned above, in this chapter lexicographical theory is discussed and different schools of thought of lexicography considered. In summary, there are two broad approaches as suggested by Wiegand (1984) on the one hand, and Tarp (2008) on the other. Wiegand argued that theory should be the foundation of the development of lexicography, therefore, dictionary user research and dictionary criticism should be founded on such a theory. On the other hand, Tarp (2008) places users and functions of the dictionary at the centre of lexicography. The concept of accessibility, rather than broad theory, is central to any modern lexicographical approach claiming to be user-oriented (Tarp, 2008). In the context of education, therefore, the use of dictionaries should support teaching and learning through pedagogic lexicographical perspectives. Such perspectives would put at its centre the following: user profiles, user situations, lexicographical challenges likely to be encountered by users, and the types of assistance provided by dictionaries. The following section discusses and contrasts notions of lexicography.

3.2 CONTESTATIONS AROUND LEXICOGRAPHIC THEORY

As alluded to above, lexicography is a highly contested field of study. This chapter seeks to discuss contestations on theory of lexicography which, as in any other field of study, is necessary. The study would, discuss the views of scholars who assert that lexicography is not a science and therefore do not have a theory versus scholars who argues that lexicography is a guided field of study therefore has a theory. The purpose of this section is done to advance scholarly work in the lexicographical domain. This research would consider the lexicographic research about pedagogic learner dictionaries, which encompasses three basic types of user functions or situations, that is, the cognitive, communicative, and operational (Tarp, 2010).

3.2.1 Scholars who argue against theory of lexicography.

This section focuses on views of scholars who assert that lexicography is not a science and therefore do not have a theory. What is theory, Piotrowski (2013) hypothesises in response Béjoint (2010, p. 382), a lexicographer who also disputes the fact that lexicography has a theory. Piotrowski (2013, p. 304) claims that lexicography is above all a craft, specifically, the craft of preparing dictionaries, and, unlike a science which has a theory, a craft does not have one. Furthermore, he questions, how can there be a theory of production of artefacts? Then he made a claim that there is no theory for lexicography.

Piotrowski posits that while natural phenomena needed a theory, how could there be a theory of the production of artefacts? He argues for a different view, that theories of artefacts do exist, and justified his argument by comparing the artefact of a bridge with science, pointing out that to build a bridge a theory is needed. It was, however, possible to write dictionaries without following or being guided by a theory (Piotrowski, 2013). Pym (2014) concurs, arguing that translators, in the same way as lexicographers, need no theory for their work. He also claims, however, that translators theorise all the time (Pym, 2014). They do this whenever they opt for one rendition over another, bringing into play a series of ideas about what translation is and how it should be carried out. Pym's view on translation work could be applied to lexicography, in that theorising in this field takes place in a practical way, without a hypothesis.

Decisions are taken spontaneously without proof of their effectiveness. In other words, it is not that lexicography does not have a theory, but the ideas practitioners draw on in their work are implicit and taken for granted. There are two distinct understandings of the word 'theory' with reference to lexicography. In the first, lexicography is the study of principles and methods (of an art or science), and in the second, lexicography is a cohesive set of hypotheses (Piotrowski, 2013). Piotrowski concurs with scholars who argue that currently lexicography does not a have coherent theory. Furthermore, he criticised Svensén's book (*A Handbook of Lexicography*) for failing to articulate clearly what he meant by theory and, therefore, putting in doubt whether this existed in lexicography (Piotrowski, 2013).

Atkins and Rundell (2008) also argued that lexicography was an art, and further claimed that it made more sense to view the field in terms of principles that guide lexicographers in their work rather than to think of it in terms of theory. Therefore, in real terms lexicography did not have a theory, they concluded. Even the best lexicographers, when pressed, cannot explain what they are doing, or why (Wierzbicka, 1985). The above scholars argue against the theory of lexicography, suggesting that as lexicography is not a science it does not warrant a theory.

3.2.2 Scholars who argue for a theory of lexicography

Wiegand (1989), deemed the father of the theory of lexicography, argued that the ideas connected with practical lexicography should be regarded as theoretical lexicography. Since it has never been disputed that lexicography is a practical field of study, Wiegand (1989) argued that the term 'theoretical lexicography' can be used if its precise meaning is made clear.

Furthermore, Wiegand (1989) also argued that most lexicographers used the term theoretical lexicography in a reckless manner, in that they often did so without explaining exactly what they meant when using it. He admitted that in the lexicographical literature theory was often used in an unclear and prosaic fashion, without being strictly defined as a scientific category. That did not mean, however, that as a field of study lexicography does not have a theory.

If theory refers to "systematically organised set of statements about an area of objective reality or consciousness", lexicography surely has a theory. That is, lexicography is a field of study which follows empirical research which is necessary to produce quality lexicographical products.

Dictionary work or production is always guided by a set of aims and objectives which are formulated in accordance with the theory of the field. The contestation of the theory of lexicography is based on its practicability, however, when attempting to define a concept as widely used as lexicography, it is important to take cognisance of other existing definitions to detect mutual strong and weak points (Bergenholtz & Gouws, 2012). Bergenholtz and Gouws (2012) assert that lexicography has a theory, illustrating this by drawing attention to the five definitions of the field of lexicography. In essence, however, the definitions of this independent field of study refer to meta lexicography and lexicographic theory.

The theory of lexicography does not frequently refer to lexicography as being an art or a craft (Landau, 2001). Furthermore, Bergenholtz and Gouws (2012) argue that:

> It is important to note that the supporters of a lexicographic theory do not all adhere to the same theory: there are different lexicographic theories, but they all acknowledge the fact that the lexicographic practice is complemented by a theoretical component and that lexicography, with dictionaries as its subject matter, should be regarded as an independent discipline. (p. 6)

This supports the view that there are many theories of lexicography. The fact that there are many competing theories and that there is a lack of coherence should not, however, be taken to mean the field is chaotic. Tarp (2008) affirms that lexicography theory has three sets of distinctions that is, general and specific theories, integrated and non-integrated theories, and contemplative and transformative theories. Tarp argued that these set of theories are thoughtful, fit all kinds of dictionary production situations, and can be used alternatively for lexicography purposes. Having interrogated what lexicographers are saying about the theory of lexicography, the researcher concurs with the view that lexicography has a theory, and it is necessary. At present lexicography is dependent on linguistics Tarp (2008) because the two fields are mutually intelligible in that they both deal with language.

Lexicography should be viewed not only as an independent scientific discipline in general, but as a discipline which displays interdisciplinary, co-operative, and integrating characteristics (Tarp, 2008). The fact that lexicography co-exists and integrates other fields does not mean, however,

that it should not be regarded as an independent field. Therefore, what may be lacking is the convincing formulation of a theory or the use of theory.

This research argued that lexicographers need to defend the theory of lexicography because it exists, more work needs to be done to strengthen the theory and debunk the myth that this field of study does not have a theory. A way of doing this is for lexicographers to clarify the different ways in which they use the term 'theory' regarding different activities of lexicography. As Wiegand (1998) argued, lexicography is a separate discipline for which the object of study is dictionaries and their production and therefore there is a need for distinct theoretical concepts and principles to guide the field.

Atkins and Rundell (2008) strongly expressed that "we do not believe that such a thing [as] theoretical lexicography exists" (p. 182). Landau (2001) concurred with them that lexicography, as an art and craft, was a practical work that did not deserve a theory because it borrowed from linguistics, thus they believed the conceptualisation of lexicographical theories had been influenced by an art and craft.

Béjoint (2010) also argue that principles of lexicography development guides lexicographers in their work, therefore these principles constitute a theory. Furthermore, the theory of lexicography explains the existence of lexicographical needs that arise in dictionary consultation or production and – at the same time – it would then be a body of work on which lexicographical principles were based. The only issue that remains in the argument against lexicographical theory is perhaps that a theory is "put forward to explain [natural] phenomena" (Atkins & Rundell, 2008, p. 33), and that lexicography cannot have a theory since it is not a natural science. This has also been expressed as: "All natural phenomena need a theory, but how can there be a theory of production of artefacts?" (Béjoint, 2010, p. 381). Again, this is not a viable argument since there is a theory of the production of dictionaries, a theory of sociology, and many other social science disciplines.

Atkins and Rundell (2008) acknowledge that although their book is not about theoretical lexicography, it does not mean that they "pay no attention to theoretical issues" (p. 34), and there is no doubt that some of the issues covered in their books draw on elements of various lexicographical theories that have been put forward. This remains true even though they argue that

they are drawn from linguistic theory which, as will be shown, is embraced – albeit not completely – by proponents of lexicographical theory.

In the light of the above, this study argued that theories of lexicography exist. As Nkomo (2012) notes that what is lacking and not convincing thus far, is how certain theories are conceptualised. For scholars who are arguing that lexicography does not have theory and cannot have it because it's part of linguistics, there is a need to refine research methodologies to strengthen lexicography as an independent field. Lexicography can't just be an art of writing a dictionary, the art of writing dictionaries is informed by the theory of lexicography. Thus, the research concurs with scholars that are arguing that lexicography is guided by principles, and therefore principles producing and conceptualising end products of lexicography are as result of a theory. Research over time is strengthening these principles which a manifesting into strengthening the theory of lexicography. The challenges that are a posed by changing of times are critical in discovering new areas of research bolster the ever-developing theory of lexicography. Like all other theories of different disciples, theories are challenged and reviewed so that they are relevant with times.

3.3 MAJOR LEXICOGRAPHY THEORIES

Wiegand (1984) indicated that the relationships of the general theory of lexicography with other theories considers the connections that lexicography has with other disciplines and their related theories. That means although lexicography has its own theory, it is related to the field of study of languages. Smit (1998) demonstrates, for instance, how Wiegand has appropriated semantic theories and concepts from other subject disciplines in developing the general theory of lexicography. He argues that by its very nature, lexicography is interdisciplinary or intertwined with other disciplines.

The study of lexicography and its sub-fields has always been discussed and researched by numbers of scholars with different views about the theory of lexicography. Before the development of Wiegand's theory, too much emphasis was placed on linguistic theories in the production and evaluation of dictionaries. Zgusta (1971) stated that when producing *A Manual of Lexicography*, he was motivated to demonstrate the importance of effectively conceiving lexicographical

problems within the framework of linguistic theory. While this was a great milestone in the establishment of theoretical lexicography, it unfortunately led to the neglect of other aspects of dictionaries by lexicographers, specifically dictionary structures and, more importantly, their functions. This is partly why Wiegand (1984) argued that lexicography is neither a branch of linguistics, applied linguistics nor lexicology, and that it is "more than the application of linguistic theories and methods or the utilisation of linguistic philological findings" (p. 30). Wiegand (1984) argued that a general theory of lexicography is intended to "systematically process and explain the reasons for the knowledge required to enable lexicographers to carry out their work appropriately and as well as possible" (p. 30). This includes lexicographical planning, lexicographical training, research, and actual dictionary compilation using methods that yield user-friendly dictionaries. This cannot be achieved through complete and uncritical appropriation of theories and methods of other disciplines.

The relationship that lexicography has with other disciplines has also been discussed by other scholars (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005; Hartmann, 2016; Tarp, 2000, 2004, 2008, 2010). Since this section focuses on Wiegand's theory, no discourse of the views of these other scholars is offered here. It is important to note that while there may be slightly different opinions regarding the disciplinary status of lexicography – bearing in mind its relationships to other disciplines and theories – Wiegand's development of the general theory and his assertion that lexicography is neither a branch of linguistics nor lexicology inspired many modern metalexicographers. The lexicographical function theory and its specific subsections illustrate this vividly. Accordingly, while this study focuses on dictionary user research and dictionary criticism, lexicography can relate to other disciplines and other theories, and includes the history of lexicography.

The establishment of the theory of lexicography must take into consideration how lexicography relates to other theories or constituent theories, such as lexicology, linguistics, and grammar, even though lexicography is unique in that it has its own theory.

Basic principles that have been followed in lexicography as a field of study are established to connect lexicographical practice with the history of lexicography. This includes which principles were valid for various types of dictionaries in the past, why these principles were useful, and which principles could be applied in the future to new types of dictionaries (Wiegand, 1984).

3.3.1 Wiegand's general theory of lexicography

Wiegand's general theory of lexicography is based upon two main hypotheses: that lexicographic research is an independent scientific discipline; and that dictionaries are utility products. On the first hypothesis, he argued that lexicography was an independent discipline with a theory, and without this theory to guide the discipline, the monumental works produced thus far would not have been possible. According to Wiegand (1984) meta-lexicography is a theory of lexicography which influences research of the discipline, while lexicography refers to the process of producing dictionaries. Although Wiegand generally views lexicography as a discipline that is independent from linguistics, his entire general theory is really a linguistic theory as it approaches lexicography from that point of view (Bergenholtz & Gouws, 2012).

Of course, when lexicography is considered in the form of dictionaries as end products, it is designed to address linguistic matters through utilisation of one of the elements of the linguistic domain that is semantics, which is concerned with the study of the meanings of words. Some scholars, such as Scerba (1995), argue that completely divorcing lexicography from the linguistic domain is unrealistic.

Bogaards (1996) wrote that historical research on dictionaries was significant, highlighting two important issues. The first deals with tradition and innovation, and the influence of older dictionaries on newer ones and new elements that have been introduced by great lexicographers. Secondly, the production of dictionaries needs to be informed by a well-researched and evolving theory of lexicography so that they can remain current. The history of lexicography informs us that eighty years ago there was no theory to guide dictionary production and, as time went by, theoreticians, such as Wiegand and others, set down their ideas in a scholarly fashion. This resulted in the creation of a theory of lexicography. Although the contestation about whether there is a general theory of lexicography continues, there is a growing tradition of lexicography.

The lexicography theory developed by Wiegand (1984) is too broad, for the sake of this study, the research focused on purpose of dictionary and zoom into dictionary user research and dictionary criticism to navigate understanding of a culture in schools. Learners were studied as potential users

and the circumstances in which they required a dictionary in the learning process were examined. Gouws (2009) understands the culture of using dictionaries in this manner:

> "The twenty-first century sees dictionaries as product of a scientific practice with a well-developed underlying theory. The needs of users are constantly changing, and these changing needs should compel lexicographers to continue developing lexicographic theory and improving the quality, relevance, and efficiency of dictionaries." (p. 3)

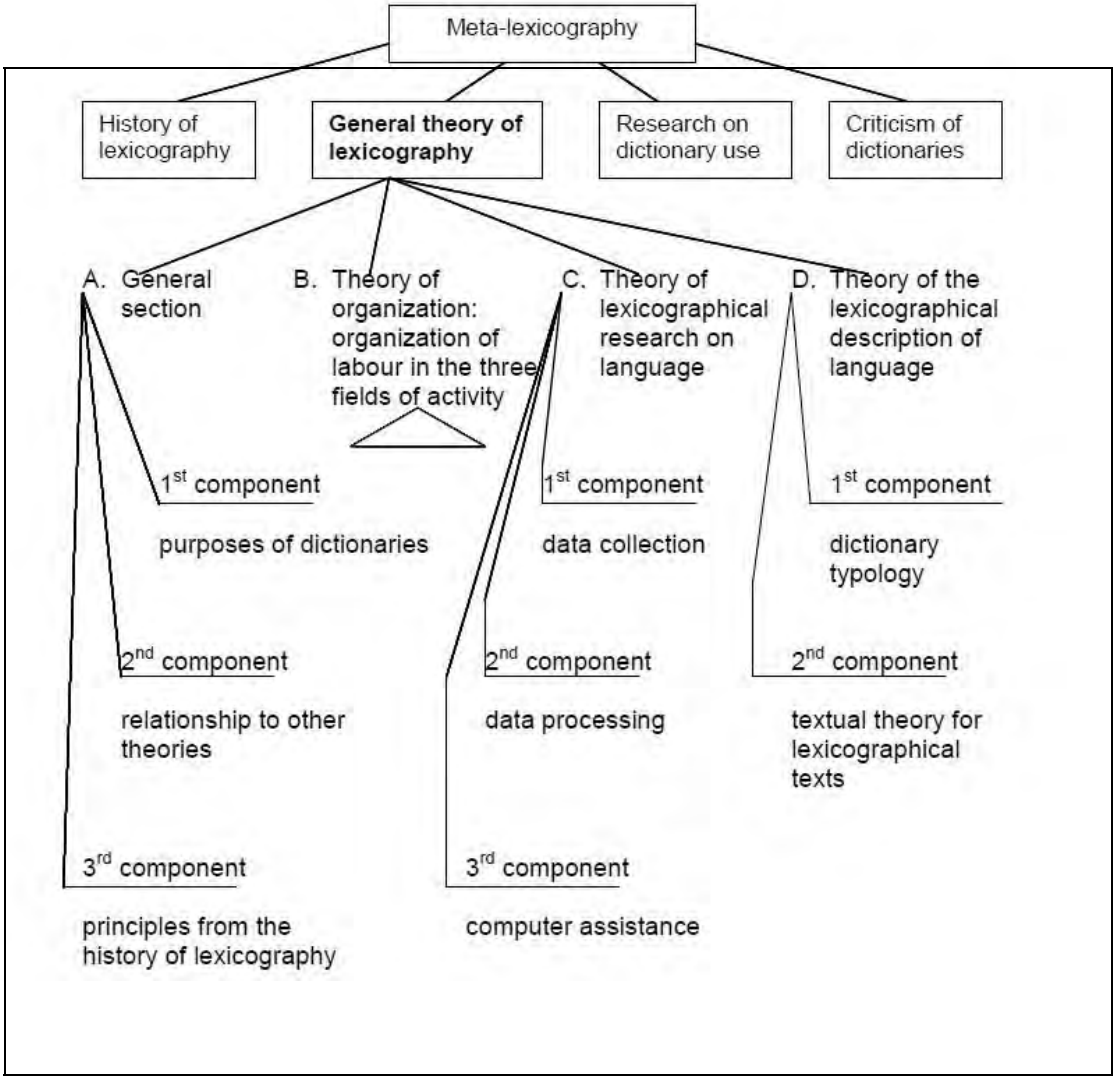
Based on the above arguments by different scholars on lexicography, it is clear that lexicographic work is not static, but is influenced by the times and user needs, and it is guided by ever-developing theory. This study intends to examine the production of dictionaries as pedagogic tools for teaching and learning and the extent to which they meet the needs of learners (users).

3.3.1.1 Wiegand's Meta-Lexicography Schema

Wiegand (1984) provided a comprehensive elaboration of a general theory of lexicography. His meta-lexicography schema provides for dictionary use research and criticism of dictionaries, this study sought to employ these two sub-theories to examine the nature of dictionaries used in teaching and learning in the Intermediate Phase of schooling. This could assist in the compilation of effective dictionaries that could help learners to derive meaning from the content of specific school subjects or disciplines.

The Figure:1 shows the general theory of meta-lexicography to demonstrate how these components, that is, dictionary use and dictionary criticism, are linked to the broader picture of the history and theory of lexicography. Wiegand's (1984) general theory of lexicography is part of meta-lexicography, which is the total meta-domain of lexicographical research (Hartmann, 2016).

Figure 1: Four focus areas of meta-lexicography.



Source: Recreated from Wiegand 1984

While other components of meta-lexicography are important, this research does not dwell much on them, and they do not form part of this study. On purpose of dictionaries the study would focus on what dictionaries are intended for in teaching and learning, on dictionary user research the focus would on data used in dictionaries and processing of meaning from the data found in dictionaries in the Intermediate Phase classrooms and lastly on dictionary criticism focuses on dictionary typology, that is, micro and microstructure of dictionaries and lexicographic texts found in

dictionaries. The next section would briefly discuss purpose of dictionaries with a specific reference in teaching and learning.

3.3.1.2 Purpose of Dictionaries

Gouws (2022) state that in multilingual and multicultural society the general purposes of mono-, bi- and multilingual language dictionaries are derived from the communicative and cognitive needs of the society or societies. Furthermore, dictionaries are viewed as practical tools which the user consults to satisfy practical communicative and cognitive needs (Béjoint, 2010; Gouws, 2001, 2004; McArthur, 1986; Tarp, 2000, 2008). Therefore, different dictionary types serve different purposes. According to Smit (1998, p. 91), the purposes of dictionaries are first outlined in general terms and then the dictionaries are classified in groups so that specific and concrete lexicographical purposes or functions can be determined for each dictionary type.

Hartmann (2016) argued that dictionaries were written to help users extend their knowledge of their mother tongue, learn foreign languages, play word games, compose reports, and read and decode first language texts. He went on to state that general dictionaries served two purposes, that is, they were either academic and normative, or referential and descriptive. So, the above statement by Hartmann is line with the purpose of this research to investigate how dictionaries are used to facilitate understanding of content in the mother tongue or HL, in this case isiXhosa, and English as the FAL for researched learners.

Wiegand (1984) viewed the general purpose of monolingual, bilingual and multilingual dictionaries as derived from the communicated and cognitive needs of society. Depending on whether the dictionary was alphabetical or thematic, the work was organised into three fields of activity (Hausmann et al., 1989, p. 102) as shown below.

- All the activities leading to the drawing up of a dictionary plan. The dictionary plan includes the written plan of the dictionary in all its aspects.
- All the activities involved in establishing a dictionary base and in processing this base in a lexicographical file. The dictionary base includes the complete linguistic material forming the empirical basis to produce a language dictionary and the lexicographical corpus as its set of primary sources.

- All the activities concerned directly with the writing of dictionary texts and thus with the writing of the dictionary. The lexicographical file is a collection of quotations for potential lemma-signs compiled from the dictionary base.

The above, three areas as alluded by Hausmann et al. (1989 are crucial for the types of dictionaries to achieve their purpose. As indicated by Wiegand above, monolingual, bilingual, and Multilingual dictionaries achieve different purposed as per the intentions they are compiled for. Do dictionaries found in the Intermediate Phase classrooms serve a pedagogical purpose for learners of this level. It is significant for a dictionary to achieve cognitive and communication needs during teaching and learning so that learners can understand the content of subjects. The next section discusses dictionary user research and what does it mean for this research.

3.3.1.3 Dictionary user research

This section focuses on data used in dictionaries in the Intermediate Phase for selected schools and how learners of this level process of meaning from the data found in dictionaries used in order for them to understand the content during teaching and learning. Several guiding studies on dictionary user research were conducted on in-depth dictionary use in classes. De Schryver and Prinsloo (2011) examined the issue as to whether dictionaries defined words at the level of their target users, and their study reveals that some of the words were defined above the level of primary schooling. It is vital that lemmas or terminologies included and treated in dictionaries in the Intermediate Phase of schooling should be at the level of learners in terms of content and language used in defining and describing of words. Tono (2001) also proposes that with regards to dictionary use in foreign language learning should focus on reading comprehension. For isiXhosa speaking leaners for whom English is a FAL, therefore regarded as foreign language, it is important that dictionaries used to assist learners to be able to read for a meaning. According to Lew (2002, 2004), the use of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries by Polish learners of English to scaffold them with reading comprehension cannot be overemphasised. Use of a dictionary as a pedagogical resource is important for teaching and learning (Müller, 2002). Ronald (2002) also reflects on lexical growth through dictionary use. Dziemianko (2004) investigated the user-friendliness of sources of verb syntax in learners' dictionaries.

McCreary and Amacker (2006) reported on aspects of the usability of modern learners' dictionaries, and Lew and Galas (2008) investigated the teaching of dictionary skills. This sub-section of Wiegand theory of lexicography has been researched and caught attention of lexicographers as a way of strengthening the theory of lexicography.

Welker (2006) has done a commendable research work on this matter, and he writes, information about users' needs, various forms of user research can be utilised, from the simple and easily handled – but strongly criticised – questionnaires, to more complex and time-consuming methods, such as interviews, protocols, tests, and observation of the consulting process (e.g., through eye tracking or the study of log files in online dictionaries). The relative usefulness of these methods Welker also notes that these studies provide sole systematic overview of user studies published in European languages. Furthermore, dictionary use studies employed various methods to provide data concerning user needs, the consultation process, and the results of this process.

Welker (2006) found that most – but not all – studies suffered from a limited number of informants, in many cases less than twenty. If one accepts the principles of modern statistics, these studies were only representative of the informant group itself and not of a broader group of users. Tarp (2009:293) concluded that most lexicographical user surveys represented "a waste of time and money". Similarly, Bergenholtz and Bergenholtz (2011) maintained that most of these studies had been carried out "in the most unscientific way imaginable, as they were conducted without any knowledge and without use of the methods of the social sciences" (p. 190). It is interesting that Rundell (2012), in opposition to function theory, explicitly disagrees with these statements, and wrote "this does not chime with my experience" (p. 50). He cited a couple of well-performed studies as examples, although he admitted that "there are inevitably some unevenness in quality" (Rundell, 2012, p. 50). Bogaards (1996) made the following important observations when looking at dictionary use from the perspective of language learners:

- Learners often do not like using dictionaries;
- Learners often do not know how to use dictionaries;
- Dictionaries are often too difficult for learners; and
- Dictionary use may hinder reading comprehension processes.

The availability of relevant data, the accessibility of a meaning of lemma treated in dictionaries should be done in an understandable manner to learners and teachers to a certain extent. Using a dictionary is a skill which need to be nurtured and guided, therefore a teacher and learner needs to be capacitated for them to be dictionary users to promote a dictionary culture to schools and societies. According to Wiegand-schema on theory of lexicography, dictionary user research needs to be encouraged thus this study focuses on this sub-field, amongst others, to contribute to lexicography scholarly work and ultimately to integrate dictionaries as a prerequisite of the curriculum. The following section deals with dictionary criticism.

3.3.1.4 Dictionary criticism

This section focuses on dictionary typology i.e., micro and macrostructure of dictionaries and lexicographic texts found in dictionaries. A micro and macrostructure are significant in compilation of a dictionary. The user-friendliness of this resource book depends on how a dictionary is conceptualised, its accessibility of the content to learners and teachers' rests solemnly on how words are captured or lemmatised. This section seeks to provide guidelines in examining the micro and macrostructure of dictionaries used in the Intermediate Phase for selected schools. Wiegand (1984) views dictionary criticism as a mechanism to improve production of dictionaries. Dictionary criticism seeks to improve content and design of a dictionary as pedagogic tool. Hartmann & James (1998, p. 32) states that dictionary criticism is concerned with the description and evaluation of dictionaries and other lexicographical reference works.

It is also conducted to provide information to improve dictionaries so that dictionary users could have access to quality products (Gouws, 2017). From the perspective of the function theory, Tarp (2017) argues that critiquing existing dictionaries should be taken as a significant exercise to improve research of lexicography.

Dictionary criticism that is done well could benefit both the practice of lexicography and contribute to developing and refining theoretical concepts underpinning lexicography. Nkomo (2020) argued that as researchers and scholars, dictionary critics and their works were expected to be "in a different league than ordinary people and ordinary products" (p. 213). It is significant that teachers who use dictionary products can be educated about what a good dictionary looks like, so that they

can be more discriminating when procuring dictionaries for their schools. The dictionary critics should understand both the theory of lexicography and practice to do justice to dictionary criticism. This is affirmed by Nielsen (2009) who argued that knowledge of lexicographic theories, principles and practices is a prerequisite in the entire process.

It is through dictionary criticism that lexicographers can produce user-friendly and relevant dictionaries that can assist learners to deepen their learning. In this research the dictionary criticism sought to focus on the macro- and micro-structure, and the outer text of dictionaries within the context of dictionaries as learning, teaching, and support materials of the broader curriculum.

The Wiegand's schema of theory provides that researchers should choose what is applicable to their studies. The following section discusses a macro and microstructure of dictionaries used in primary teaching. For an ideal dictionary to be user-friendly for a learner in the Intermediate Phase, how a macro and microstructure of a dictionary should look like. It important to note that languages are governed by different rules of writing and spelling. The next section discusses macrostructure of a dictionary with the view of dictionary criticism.

3.3.1.4.1 Macrostructure aspects

Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) argued that the agglutinating nature of the Bantu languages went hand in hand with complicated nominal and verbal derivational systems, which posed challenges for lemmatisation. This ultimately resulted in a situation where learners did not like using dictionaries and did not know how to do so (Taljard et al., 2011). Gouws and Prinsloo (2005) viewed the issue of the lemmatisation of main words versus stem in the case of nouns and verbs as playing an important role in dictionary compilation and for the user-friendliness thereof. This traditional approach of lemmatising main words limits the culture of using dictionaries for speakers of African languages, in this case isiXhosa speakers (Taljard et al., 2011).

The lexical items of a language are regarded as potential lemmas (Gouws, 1991). Words which provide information about nouns or verbs occur only as components of multiword lexical items and should not themselves be regarded as lexical items (Alberts & Mollema 2013). Before selecting lemmas for a specific dictionary, the lexicographer must specify the linguistic criteria according to which lexical items are identified.

Dictionaries have lemmas that include the variant of a lexical item. The treatment of lemmas in the context in which they are used is given in the article of the lemma. Lemmas which have limited lexicographic treatment would be indicated by cross-references to the lemmas where the full treatment is given. It was significant for this research to discover whether learners were able to navigate meaning through cross-references in dictionaries.

Synonym lemmas may also be provided in the word lists. In most dictionaries, only synonyms with a higher usage frequency would receive comprehensive treatment, while synonyms with lesser frequency would be cross-referenced. It was important for this study to find out how learners dealt with words and terms that are spelt the same but not necessarily mean the same thing.

Multi-lexical lemmas are single lexical items consisting of more than one word (Gouws, 1991). This category is constituted by certain loanwords, idioms, fixed expressions, and particle verbs. Loanword groups include words derived or borrowed from other languages without any change in form and pronunciation. In some dictionaries idioms are treated as a fixed group of words with a special meaning that cannot be guessed from the combination of the actual words used (Procter, 1978). In languages as subjects, for instance, idioms and expressions are used to enrich texts and it is important for teaching and learning to find out how dictionaries respond to these.

Lemmas also contain single and complex articles or data. This applies to all types of dictionaries, for example, monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual dictionaries. Furthermore, this data includes search fields regarding pronunciation, items giving morphological data, and items giving paraphrasing of meaning or translation equivalents (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). Dictionaries are not necessarily only responsible for conveying the meaning of words but also teach speech communities how to pronounce certain words using diacritics. It was important to find out if teachers, as the sole guide to learners on the use of dictionaries, were able to understand the pronunciation guide as a dictionary user skill.

In the planning stage of the compilation of a dictionary, lexicographers must decide on the alphabetic arrangement and thematic approach of ordering the lemmas. It is important that the conception of the dictionary considers how best to respond to the needs of target users.

Once the target user is identified and considered in determining the typology of the intended dictionary, this plays a decisive role in determining the type of word arrangement to be used and the dictionary product is likely to respond to the needs of the user (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). The following section discusses microstructural aspects on dictionary criticism point of view.

3.3.1.4.2 Microstructural aspects

The microstructure of a dictionary considers the denotation of lemmas and paraphrases of meaning to make user-friendly lexicographical products (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). The microstructural information is significant for different schooling levels because this is where the actual definition and explanation of lemmas is sourced by potential dictionary users. These categories and descriptions are arranged in the format of morphology, phonetic prescriptions, and etymology of certain works, while some lemmas contain definitions of expressions and idioms (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). For dictionaries to fulfil their purpose, they must be arranged in a certain order so that users can easily extract information, and pockets of information should be clearly articulated. It becomes challenging for learners who are still acquiring language proficiency – whether in their home language or an additional language – to use a dictionary which has been arranged sporadically.

Most learners for whom this study was intended struggled with the LoLT, or English, across the curriculum. Their linguistic repertoire was basic in both their HL, or isiXhosa, and their FAL or LoLT (English) in the Intermediate Phase. Thus, the arrangement of information categories should assist learners in acquiring dictionary user skills which lead to finding the meaning of the words they are looking for. To be precise, this study sought to evaluate the dictionaries in general use in the Intermediate Phase of schooling, looking specifically at lemma content, layout and design, illustration, and back matter information. It looked at how these components promote effective use of dictionaries. The following sections deals with function theory of lexicography.

3.4 FUNCTION THEORY OF LEXICOGRAPHY

According to the function theory, all theoretical and practical lexicographic work should be based on dictionary functions. It represents the uses of the dictionary, by means of its lexicographic data, to a specific type of user, in solving the specific type of problems related to a specific type of user situation (Tarp, 2005). The function theory is explicitly based on the idea that a theory is a systematically organised set of statements about an area of objective reality or consciousness, that is, logical structures reflecting the fact that certain things have certain properties, or that certain relationships exist between these things (Tarp, 2008).

The function theory of lexicography considers dictionaries as utility products that are created to satisfy certain human needs, and, as a result, all lexicographical theories and practical considerations must be formulated to fulfil those needs (Bergenholtz & Tarp, 2003). Dictionaries are viewed as the end products of lexicography that have properties that are clearly distinguishable from other language products, such as textbooks, manuals, and newspapers (Tarp, 2010). Thus, it can be argued that a general functional lexicographical theory can be defined as a systematically organised set of statements about dictionaries and other lexicographical works and their relationship with specific types of social needs, and hence there is a link with other products in general (Tarp, 2004).

Tarp (2004) asserts that the attitude towards this fundamental postulate represents the first dividing line between those who defend the need for a lexicographical theory and those who deny its very existence. According to function theory, dictionaries are regarded as utility tools that share the same essential characteristics as other human-made tools, namely, that they are – or should be – designed with the purpose of satisfying specific types of human needs.

Dictionaries are created for specific target users and therefore the dictionary product always represents a relationship between at least two people, that is, the compiler and the user. In the context of this study, the user is represented by the learner and teacher. Teachers act as agents to transfer knowledge from dictionaries to learners. According to Tarp (2008), the lexicographical function is to meet the specific types of lexicographically relevant needs of specific types of potential users in specific extra-lexicographical situations.

Different dictionaries are suitable for different users and specific user situations. Challenges of dictionary interventions differ from situation to situation, from language to language, and from subject to subject. According to the functional theory of lexicography, through the process of teaching and learning, learners need to understand certain information or gain knowledge in different learning areas or situations. Dictionaries are utility tools that assist a learner in understanding the various types of information provided through different teaching and learning processes. This information is related to subject matter and to languages as subjects or content subjects.

This theory therefore concentrates on extra-lexicographic user situations of which two main types can be distinguished, that is, communication-related and knowledge-related. Communication-related situations are those in which users wish to solve problems that may arise during the communication process to make it go as smoothly as possible. Knowledge-related situations are those where the user searches for knowledge of a certain type, for example, linguistic, general, or specialised knowledge. Therefore, the first type of situation deals with communication, while knowledge-related situations are about adding to existing knowledge base. It is in this last case that the specialised dictionary may display a pedagogical function providing LSP or specialised information to the user (Tarp, 2005).

The function theory of lexicography also looks at types of dictionaries, taking into consideration in which subject areas they are used, whether learners can use the dictionaries, whether they can get the information they are looking for in the dictionary, and how big or small the dictionaries are (Tarp, 2010). The availability of baseline words used in the curriculum are often used to see if they are catered for in the dictionaries utilised.

The complexity of language used in explaining or defining lemmas at the level of a learner needed to be examined to determine whether the learners were able to extract words from the dictionaries without taking too much time to locate the meanings. The above considerations assisted the researcher to critically evaluate the functional use of dictionaries used in primary classrooms. This study sought to find out if dictionaries used in the Intermediate Phase classrooms satisfied the linguistic and cognitive needs of the learners, and whether they were user-friendly.

The structure for each dictionary – that is, how lemmas were presented to learners – was examined for easy access by learners during teaching and learning. Dictionaries as utility tools, should be used as required and also should meet the lexicographically relevant needs of learners. When users use dictionaries as resources, they should benefit cognitively from doing so. If dictionaries are properly utilised, users develop skills in dictionary use, and become competent users of other dictionaries. Learners need to be trained to advance their dictionary user skills. Through dictionary use, learners can address their needs and ultimately develop their vocabulary across all learning areas.

From an early age, learners can be trained as potential users of different types of dictionaries which address different cognitive needs in teaching and learning situations. When addressing the lexicographical needs of learners, it is advisable to consider the different skills levels of the learners so that they can learn how to use dictionaries independently. Users always consult a dictionary to learn something, that is, to get information which can later be used for other purposes (Tarp, 2010). Therefore, this research was interested in understanding to what extent learners in the Intermediate Phase of schooling used dictionaries as pedagogical tools.

Using general purpose language dictionaries in a specialised learning area, such as mathematics and natural sciences, cannot always address the user needs of learners effectively. This is because such dictionaries might have limitations in the treatment of words for specific subject areas and, as a result, fall short in addressing the content needs of those learning areas. Thus, learners must be made to understand that different dictionaries serve different purposes and that a single dictionary will not suit all purposes.

Furthermore, it is imperative to note that the specialized dictionaries for learners are not textbooks designed to be read from cover to cover. They are tools for timely consultation; thus, it is important for learners to have dictionary user skills so that they can quickly and easily access and retrieve the information they need (Tarp, 2010). Thus, both learners and teachers should have the prerequisite dictionary user skills to use them effectively during teaching and learning situations.

The function theory suggests that for a dictionary product to have the necessary impact, lexicographers need to understand the target user of the dictionary and the user situation.

Therefore, methods and mechanisms in selecting data, explanations, and definitions are crucial in response to the types of needs of the users, and to solve their communicative and cognitive challenges (Bergenholtz & Tarp, 2003; Fuertes-Olivera, 2010).

To determine the functions of specialised learners' dictionaries, a starting point is the analysis of the various types of user situations, which are informed by cognitive, communication and practical imperatives. To determine the information needs a dictionary is designed to solve, it is also necessary to draw up a user typology where the relevant criteria rely on different types of user situations (Tarp, 2010). In most cases, however, this type of research is considered as too complex, time-consuming, and costly to constitute a relevant method for providing the necessary information on the intended users and their needs for each new dictionary. The general information about user needs provided by a few serious studies, designed according to genuine scientific principles, is clearly not sufficient to guarantee that a particular dictionary turns out to be of a high quality and can meet the concrete needs of the predicted user group.

This goes to the core of the South African problem: the lack of dictionary culture implies zero to little interaction between dictionary quality and user skills. Enhancing the quality of dictionaries in the process of creating the perfect dictionary should be the mission of the lexicographer. Even if the dictionary is good, if the user does not know how to use it, it won't serve its ultimate purpose. The ideal is to improve dictionary skills of the target user with the mission of developing the ideal user (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

The three main types of lexicographically relevant situations may be referred to as cognitive, interpretive, and operative situations (Tarp, 2010:39). Many dictionaries have, however, traditionally been conceived for consultation with a view to solving problems of text communication and ultimately address cognition to learners. Most dictionary products are carbon copies of dictionaries which were published before. Words that are used loosely in speech by communities need to be recorded properly because, as time goes by, they evolve. It is worth noting that no one holds the intellectual property of public concepts.

Tarp (2008) argues that there is nothing wrong with improving on good quality work if the previous work is acknowledged. Also, as noted by Wiegand (1984), the history of lexicography is important for understanding and learning from previous experiences and to avoid repeating earlier mistakes.

3.5 COMMUNICATION SITUATIONS

While dictionary may have the simultaneous benefit of improving the learners' proficiency in English language, the language used as medium of instruction, the purpose of dictionaries is also to promote the use of the home languages of the learners, which is isiXhosa with specific reference for this research. Dictionary also assist learners in internalising basic science and mathematics concepts in languages that they understand better. Fuertes-Olivera and Tarp (2014) argue that dictionaries can be categorised into four main types which are based on communication, cognition, operation, and interpretation. On communicative matters, they argue that dictionaries serve communication functions to assist users in solving problems related to written and oral communication.

Therefore, the communicative function of a dictionary in the South African context is that of a second or foreign-language text reception and, to a lesser extent, foreign-language text production, since tests and examinations are carried out through the medium of the foreign language, that is, English. It follows that for isiXhosa speaking learners' dictionaries assist in the promotion of cognitive development because they are designed to transmit knowledge to their users (Tarp, 2018). The communication function of the specific dictionary should have an influence on the nature and the extent of the additional entries given to complement and support the translation equivalents especially in bilingual isiXhosa and English dictionaries to assist understanding of a lesson content (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005, p. 161).

3.6 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed two schools of thought on the discourse of lexicography. The first cohort of scholars argued that lexicography did not have a theory, while the second viewed the lexicography study field as guided and has a theory. The chapter discussed Wiegand theory of lexicography and argued that lexicography is guided by theory, and part of that theory is on dictionary user research and dictionary criticism which forms part of Wiegand Schema, which

formed the basis of this study in exploring how dictionaries as teaching and learning resources could be used to promote cognition to learners. The research link dictionary user research to macro and microstructure of dictionary, and furthermore these two matters form a basis of dictionary criticism to improve quality of dictionaries to make meaning to learners. The research also integrated function theory illustrates that dictionary are utility products that are created to address human linguistic needs. Lastly, the chapter synthesises dictionaries as communication tools which are meant to improve learners' proficiency.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter details the methodology of this study. It presents the steps that were taken in the process of the collection and analysis of data and provides justification for the methodological procedures. The methodological procedures were linked to literature, and scholarship on the research methods are discussed. The chapter starts with an introductory section and the chapter is divided into five sections. Section 4.2 deals with the research design of the study, which situates the study as action research, indicating both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. Section 4.3 deals with data collation instruments, profiling of participants and their appropriateness for the present study, and the criteria that were used to sample them. Section 4.4 discusses the data collection process and the procedure the study followed in analysis of the collected data. In conclusion, Section 4.9 deals with ethical considerations, validity, and reliability of the methods used in the study.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This is a case study which adopted an interpretivist research paradigm, which considered interpretations and self-interpretations of the social actors in relation to the use of dictionaries as tools for teaching and learning. This research relied on the participants' views of the situation being studied and recognised the impact of their background and experiences on the results (Creswell, 2012). Various research methods, both quantitative and qualitative, were used to pursue this study and to answer the research questions. Furthermore, this study entails more intensive intervention on dictionary user research and dictionary criticism, which was conducted in the Intermediate Phase of schooling.

4.3 OVERALL METHODOLOGY

The overall methodology of this study relied on the collection of data through questionnaires, interviews, observations of teaching and learning, and the collection of dictionaries in classrooms for analysis.

This mixed method research approach used these complementary data collection methods to realise the objectives of the study. Qualitative research seeks to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, rather than the frequency, of certain phenomena which occur naturally in the social world (Van Maanen, 2008). The qualitative approach aims to understand the meaning of human action. Qualitative research, as explained by Peshkin (1993) in Leedy & Ormrod (2005), serves one or more of the following purposes:

- Description – this reveals the nature of certain situations, settings, processes, relationships, systems, or people. In this research, dictionary use in the Intermediate Phase of schooling was studied.
- Interpretation – this enables a researcher to gain new insights about a phenomenon, develop new concepts or theoretical perspectives about the phenomenon, and discover the problems that exist with the phenomenon.
- Verification – this allows the researcher to test the validity of certain assumptions, claims, theories, or generalisations in real-world contexts.
- Evaluation – this provides a means through which a researcher can judge the effectiveness of policies, practices, or innovations.

Of these, description and interpretation were probably the main purposes served by the qualitative and quantitative approaches to this study.

The data obtained from the interviewees and the observations made contributed to a richer picture of the problems and challenges encountered by both learners and teachers in the process of using dictionaries as tools of teaching and learning. After collecting the data using a variety of methods, they were analysed and interpreted in the light of the lexicography theory based on a review of the literature. The interpretation of the findings enabled the researcher to gain new insights on how lexicography interventions could be implemented across the curriculum. Furthermore, the researcher was also able to evaluate the situation and devise a model of intervention to improve teaching and advise the department on the best dictionaries to be used to improve learner comprehension. Finally, this case study provided an in-depth understanding of the integration of CAPS documents with the use of dictionaries as resources.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

The following data collection tools were used as part of the phenomenological approach to this study:

- semi-structured interviews.
- lesson observations.
- collection and analysis of CAPS, dictionaries.
- teachers' scheme of work and
- reflection interviews of learners and teachers.

4.5 QUESTIONNAIRES

The main advantages of questionnaires (see Appendix:2 & 3) are that they can be administered to many respondents and are relatively easy to analyse, especially in the case of closed questions where no subsequent coding is necessary (Tarp, 2009). The questionnaire was drafted for teachers and the reflection on dictionary use questionnaire was meant for both learners and teachers. Gall et al. (2007) defined a questionnaire as a document that asks the same questions of all the individuals in the sample. Respondents record a written response to each question. According to Leedy & Ormrod (2005), the main advantages of questionnaires are that they enable the researcher to access data buried deep in the minds or attitudes of the respondents, while at the same time they can be less expensive than an actual physical visit to the source of the data.

Data that is beyond the physical reach of the observer can be obtained by administering questionnaires. Questionnaires have the added advantage that they ensure the privacy of the respondents by allowing them to remain anonymous. Thus, for the sake of this research, questionnaires for both learners and teachers were conceptualised and drafted. As research tools, the questionnaire sought to determine how dictionaries were used in the context of basic education in South Africa, with a specific focus on how teachers viewed dictionaries and responded to curriculum requirements regarding dictionaries. As with the research design, the focus of the study was on dictionary user research and dictionary criticism.

In this research, questionnaires were used to generate information on the impact of dictionaries in the teaching and learning processes. The standard questionnaire for learners was comprised of 10 open-ended and closed-ended questions, which were also translated into their home language, isiXhosa from English. The questionnaire for teachers contained 15 open-ended and closed-ended questions on the use of dictionaries in lessons and was distributed randomly to teachers. Leedy & Omrod (2005) noted that there were two types of questions that a researcher could use in a questionnaire, namely, structured, and open-ended questions. Structured or closed-ended questions confine the respondent to a limited choice of possible answers. Open-ended questions give the respondent latitude to express personal opinions, feelings, attitudes, and experiences and, as a result, can draw out emotions, which give a fuller response. Both types of questions were included in the design of the questionnaires for the learners and the teachers who participated in this study.

As noted, closed-ended questions restrict the respondents to a choice of responses designed by the researcher. This inevitably helps the researcher obtain responses within the focus of the study. Such focus helps the researcher do a proper analysis of the collected data. Hence, the questionnaire was designed and used to dig up information on dictionary use in teaching and learning situations.

Bryman (2006) suggests that questionnaires assist in offering alternative solutions for the research question under investigation. The researcher used qualitative and quantitative techniques as a way of getting answers on research sub questions. Due to the flexibility of questionnaires as a source for primary data collection, they also offered an opportunity for learners and teachers to give their views and understanding of dictionaries. The questionnaires were designed in such a way that they did not restrict responses to the questions only. In this study, the researcher tried to ensure that the questions were well formulated to guide responses towards generating valid data that answered the research questions and met the study objectives. As Creswell (2012) noted, the design of the questionnaire affects the response rate, reliability, and validity of the collected data.

The responses provided by questionnaires are arguably of better quality than those during face-to-face interviews. This is due to the latter often being characterised by rushing through the material which may lead to the omission of important information. Questionnaires, on the other hand, allow for plenty of time for respondents to provide in-depth responses. (Leedy & Ormrod,

2005), supported this view by highlighting that data collected through questionnaires could be valid, accurate, and objective if the questionnaire was properly structured. Questionnaires can, however, present the challenge of respondents deliberately not returning the questionnaire or avoiding answering some of the questions, leaving them blank (Weissman, 1980). In such situations and where the need arises, the researcher could follow up on the completion of the questionnaires. Having evaluated the shortfalls against the benefits of using questionnaires, the researcher decided to employ this strategy of collecting data to realise the objectives of the study.

An additional disadvantage of questionnaires lies in the process of constructing the questions, which is not an easy task since different words mean different things to different people. The interpretation of these words tends to be subjective and is dependent on the experiences, background, and professions of the individual respondents concerned. Hence the researcher also relied on their experience as a compiler of dictionaries and prepared follow-up question should answers be unsatisfactory. Another disadvantage of questionnaires is that the researcher had no way of ascertaining whether a respondent understood the questions or not (Leary, 1990). Thus, it was important to use a mixed methods approach in this study to close possible gaps.

A disadvantage of closed-ended questions is the limitation it places on respondents to select only one of the researcher's given responses. This does not enable the respondent to contribute further information which could enhance the research. To mitigate this, the researcher provided space at the end of the questionnaire for respondents to write any other information that they considered relevant and vital to the research.

4.6 TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

The CAPS documents for languages and other learning areas throughout the General Education and Training and Further Education and Training schooling systems encourage the use of dictionaries together with other educational materials. Teachers are key to the interpretation of policy documents for teaching and learning.

The questionnaire (see Appendix: 2) that formed part of the research tools of this study sought to establish how dictionaries were used in the context of basic education in South Africa, with a specific focus on how teachers viewed dictionaries and responded to curriculum requirements regarding dictionaries. The researcher emphasised that there were no right or wrong answers to questions, and that the identity of teachers who participated would be protected. The research findings of this project would provide useful insights on how the use of dictionaries could be blended with the pedagogy of teaching in South African schools.

In summary, the teacher's questionnaire was conceptualised to elicit the availability of dictionaries at schools and their user-friendliness. It went further to find out if teachers used them when they prepared lessons, at home outside of the classroom, when they taught, and whether they allowed learners to use them in the process of teaching and learning. Furthermore, it tried to understand which subjects had dictionaries, and in which language. Lastly, the questionnaire sought to determine teachers' experiences and views about using dictionaries in general.

4.7 CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

This subsection is about the general observation (see Appendix:1) of lessons. Tarp (2009) argued that the observation could be carried out directly in relation to the usage of the dictionary, or afterwards if the consultation process was videotaped. Furthermore, the observation could take place in a research laboratory or at the informant's normal work site. For this study the classroom was the site of this work, observation were disclosed, in that the permission was requested from a school and teacher(s) to be observed. For this research it was important for the researcher to describe the teaching and learning support material available to understand the resourcefulness of each class and school. Classroom observation was important to the researcher to clarify what resource materials, that is, books and other print materials, were available for use in the respective classrooms.

For each teaching lesson observed, a rich description of the set-up of each classroom was given. General print rich materials were taken, to draw of all resource materials involve in teaching and learning in general. Observation is the technique of gathering data through direct contact with an

object – usually another human being. The researcher watches the behaviour and documents the properties of the object (Potter, 1996).

Marshall and Rossman (1995) defined observation as "the systematic description of events, behaviours and artefacts in the social setting chosen for the study" (p. 79). Observation is often used in qualitative research. This strategy is used as a principal data gathering strategy in qualitative research because researchers are interested in the ways in which people usually make sense of or attach meaning to the world around them (De Vos, 2001).

This research used the observation method to study how the selected educators and learners used dictionaries as pedagogic tools to understand the content of subjects. According to Sherman and Webb (1991), there are two types of observation in qualitative research, namely, simple observation where the researcher remains an outsider, and participant observation, where the researcher is simultaneously a participating member of the group under study.

As the researcher did not take part in teaching and learning, they observed the processes without influencing them. Participant observation might have jeopardised the authenticity of the interactions and responses the researcher was looking for. For each lesson, the researcher had planned classroom observation schedules and took notes in a structured and consistent manner. The observation schedule was based on the following categories and lesson elements: learning area or subjects; classroom set-up; summary of the lesson; decoding of meaning; challenging words; reading, writing and process of spelling words; dictionary use; and overview of observations.

According to Babbie (2021), several advantages of observation can be identified. Observation can be done anywhere. If possible, the researcher should take notes on their observations as events unfold. This forces the observer to familiarise themselves with the subject. Through observation, previously unnoticed or ignored aspects can become apparent. Furthermore, actions speak louder than words, and so observing participants can provide valuable information. Observation is generally unobtrusive, but even when it is obtrusive, the effect wears off after time. Another advantage of observation is that it allows simultaneous recording of both behaviour and

circumstances, yielding information which could not have been obtained from the interview questions alone.

On the other hand, observation is not without its problems. During classroom observations, the researcher found that the presence of the observer could alter the behaviour of the participants. This meant that if the participants were under observation, their normal behaviour was affected and this change in behaviour had a negative effect on the reliability of data being collected. This is known as the "observer effect". Gall et al. (2007) defines the observer effect as an action by the observer that has a negative effect on the validity or reliability of the data being collected.

According to Wilson (1987), it is necessary for researchers to produce positive arguments for the status of their data so that any conclusions based on such data do not turn out to be unfounded. Observing and recording events at the same time could be problematic. Written notes are often insufficient to capture the richness of what one observes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). For this reason, the researcher engaged the services of an assistant researcher. At the conclusion of each classroom observation, the two sets of observations were reconciled, and this ensured reliable and complete information was obtained.

Classifying observation for the purpose of comparison could be difficult, owing to the absence of standard sequences of behaviour as each event was unique. Also, the observer's own perceptions, beliefs and biases could influence the way they observed and interpreted the event. This disadvantage was minimised by using an observation guide (see Appendix:1). To overcome problems of memory, the researcher could have video-recorded the lessons and reviewed their observations afterwards. This option was discarded as it would have made the participants feel uncomfortable, which would have hampered obtaining reliable observation data.

4.7.1 Dictionary analysis

The research evaluated all dictionaries used by schools, including Language for Special Purpose and Language for General Purpose dictionaries. The availability of dictionaries at schools, the purpose of those dictionaries or their intended purpose, was also examined. The researcher used the lexicographic functional approach in their analysis by studying the design and content of the

dictionaries, considering lexicographic strengths and weaknesses, and assessing their functionality. Definitions, explanations, the examples offered, and illustrations were all critiqued.

This critical examination determined the user-friendliness of the dictionaries collected, and the researcher was able to make informed conclusions about their strengths and weaknesses. In carrying out this critical analysis, the researcher also drew on their experience as a compiler of specialised dictionaries for mathematics and science. Furthermore, the researcher compared all dictionaries used in the classrooms, whether LGP, bilingual isiXhosa and English subject specific dictionaries, or any other dictionary. While evaluating the dictionaries, the researcher was cognisant of the cognitive and conceptual development of learners, the pedagogy of teaching, and lexicographical intervention in teaching.

4.7.2 Sampling

According to Oppenheim (2000), a sample is a smaller group of the research population, which is representative of the population. This is the actual group of respondents from whom the researcher obtained data. To be representative, the sample must have the same characteristics as the population from which it was chosen. The selection of the sample is dependent upon the distribution of the entire population. For a population that has a normal distribution, a random selection would suffice.

In this study, the sample was comprised of two hundred (200) learners and ten (10) educators in two (2) chosen schools, from two (2) Grade 4 classes in each school, to make a total of four (4) research focus classes in the Intermediate Phase of schooling from the selected schools. The Grade 4 classes which was one as to 35 leaners, were selected purposively because this was where the medium of teaching first changed to English, which is the FAL for the learners in the participating schools. Grade 4 is a transitional phase where most learners need a dictionary to develop their comprehension in both HL, or isiXhosa, and FAL, or English. The selection was purposive to obtain data from relevant individuals and to maximise broad representatively of both learners and teachers of the researched situation. The two schools were in the semi-urban and rural areas of the Sarah Baartman Education District, the reason why both schools were sampled they were close to one another in order the research could just walk-in in both of them without waiting time. The

district was chosen because in the past, it participated on the dictionary user skill projects conducted by University of Fort Hare and Rhodes University. This district was dominated by speakers of isiXhosa, however there were communities who spoke Afrikaans and English.

4.7.3 Data analysis

The data for this research was collected using different instruments to achieve the goal of the study. Babbie (2021) pointed out that when analysing qualitative data, the researcher seeks to discover patterns and possible causal links between variables. Thus, the semi-structured interviews and classroom observations on dictionary user skills were used for collecting data in this study. Furthermore, dictionary criticism analysis was employed to understand the quality of dictionaries used in teaching and learning.

The qualitative data from the interviews of learners and teachers on dictionary use were coded. Schwandt (1997) regarded coding as a procedure to disaggregate the data, enabling it to be broken down into manageable segments and then to be re-grouped under categories, themes, and patterns as these emerge. The responses of both learners and teachers were grouped to allow for discernment of trends. This allowed the data to be broken down into discrete parts and compared for similarities and differences between the responses of learners and teachers to questions about dictionary use (Babbie, 2021).

The interpretation of data that was obtained from dictionary user skills was based on the following aspects:

- a critical assessment of the functional value of dictionaries in teaching and learning.
- an assessment of the user-friendliness of dictionaries in the classroom; and
- The formulation of strategies to integrate dictionary use across the curriculum.

Particular attention was paid to specific questions for learners on their use of dictionaries and how they responded. These questions are listed below.

- Do learners know of a dictionary?
- Do they have any dictionaries at home?

- Had they ever used a dictionary and when?
- How often did they use a dictionary at home?
- How often did they use a dictionary in their class?
- Were they ever taught how to use a dictionary?
- Learners were asked to give the name of a dictionary that they knew.
- Did they find dictionaries helpful in understanding the content of their lessons?

Particular attention was paid to specific questions for teachers on their use of dictionaries and how they responded:

- Were teachers aware of any dictionaries available at their schools?
- Did teachers use a dictionary in preparation of their lessons?
- Did teachers use a dictionary during teaching?
- How often did teachers use a dictionary outside of their classrooms?
- How often did they use a dictionary in their classrooms?
- Did teachers allow their learners to use a dictionary and if they did use them, how; and if not, why?
- Teachers were asked to name any dictionary that they knew in any language.
- Did they regard a dictionary as a teaching aid?
- They were asked to give their experience of using a dictionary.

The information was thematised in such a way that it could be easily analysed. Some data, which was recorded during the process, was transcribed. Particular attention was paid to the following themes which were used during the analysis of the data:

- learning area or subject taught to learners.
- description of a classroom set-up.
- summary of the lesson taught for the day.
- how meaning was decoded.
- identification of challenging words.
- observation of the process of reading, writing and spelling words.
- how dictionaries, if they were any, were used by learners and teachers; and

- lesson overview observations.

Thematising of responses meant that data from different interviews could be compared. Thus, the above approach was applied when analysing the notes from both interviews and classroom observation where dictionary use was observed. Attention was paid to the content analysis of questions for interviewees and grouping observations from different classrooms. This assisted in the categorisation of verbal and behavioural data for purposes of classification, summarisation, and tabulation (Hancock, 2002). The following basic procedure was used to analyse the data.

- The categories of data were compared. As patterns started to develop, some items of data were perceived differently and could be better sorted into an alternative category.
- The stages above were repeated for the next transcript. As work was done through the second and subsequent transcripts, new categories of information were identified, but some items of data seemed to belong to previously identified categories. Eventually, new categories ceased to emerge.
- All the extracts from the transcribed interviews that were put into one category because they appeared to bear some relationship to each other, were collected. Each of the extracts was examined in turn to check whether they belonged together, or whether there were any extracts that at that time looked as though they did not fit and could belong to a different category.
- When all the relevant transcript data were sorted into categories, data contained in each category were examined again. As data were reviewed within the developing system of categorisation, some items of data were moved from one category to another. Some of the information was in the right categories, in that they fitted together, but the terms used to name or describe the categories were sometimes found to be inaccurate or inappropriate.
- Once all the categories were sorted out and the researcher was sure that all the items of data were in the right category, ranges of categories were examined to see whether two or more categories might fit together. If so, major themes were formed in the research.
- Original copies of the transcripts were revisited. Text that had not been highlighted because it had not appeared relevant at the time, was examined. At this stage themes, major categories,

and minor categories were clearly sorted. Some of the previously excluded data were found to be relevant and were included in the results.

Lastly, dictionary user training was designed as an intervention with a few questions for learners and teachers. This was done to understand the impact of the use of dictionaries purchased for learners and their user-friendliness. The responses were also analysed to get the insights necessary for the promotion of a culture of using dictionaries and its significance in pedagogy of teaching.

4.8 LIMITATIONS

Limitations are foreseeable challenges of research studies that cannot be controlled by the researcher (Simon, 2011). The limitation of this research was that it was conducted in one (1) district out of twelve (12) in the Eastern Cape. The reason for this is that in 70% of the province the schools were in rural areas and fell into quintiles 1 to 3. These schools had less resources and, as poor schools, did not have the luxury of a budget to purchase dictionaries. Schools in the semi-urban district selected were likely to be fully functional and well-resourced schools, which allowed random selection for this study. The circumstances of the socio-economic situation of the province and ultimately that of the country reflected these limitations for certain other studies undertaken, so this research was no different.

4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

To conduct this research in the selected schools the researcher sought permission from the Eastern Cape Department of Education. Thereafter, the researcher presented the research schedule to the management of the schools identified for this study. The researcher also gave the assurance to the school that all learners and educators who took part in this research would be treated with confidentiality. Names of learners and the identity of the school would be coded for the sake of anonymity.

Assurance was given that the research project would be carried out in strict accordance with an ethical code of conduct and the rights and privacy of all involved would be respected (Henning et al., 2004). This study needed to be conducted without unwelcome intrusion, as well as with honesty, objectivity, and without causing any harm to the respondents (Yin, 2003). The findings

were, therefore, a clear reflection of the study, without any form of bias which could mislead the intended beneficiaries of the study (Bryman, 2006).

To fulfil the ethical code of conduct, the researcher provided a letter to the participants explaining the purpose of the study and thereby overcoming their reservations about providing sensitive and confidential information. Participants were assured the information they gave would remain confidential and their privacy would be maintained, and that at no time would their identities be exposed to the public. It was clearly highlighted that their participation was voluntary, and they had the right to withdraw at any time during the study. Learners and teachers were also asked to provide their names only if they wanted to as a measure of fostering a confidential and bias-free environment. In addition, teachers were allowed to ask any questions and clarify any ambiguities before answering the questionnaire to mitigate faulty responses.

4.10 VALIDITY

The validity of a study is the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Anderson & Burnes, 1981). Furthermore, it is the extent to which measurements are useful for making decisions relevant to the given purpose (Sax, 1989). Validity seeks to establish the accuracy of the evidence produced by the instrument. Thus, this study relied on various research instruments for data collection to ensure the validity of the findings of this research.

For the validity of the research product, the researcher made efforts to ensure that the questionnaire and focus group interview questions were within the scope of the study. The questionnaire and all other research related items directed the respondents to provide objective responses. The researcher studied the items in the questionnaire and posed questions in such a way that they did not initiate defensiveness on the part of respondents. During conceptualisation of the research tools, the researcher avoided the use of complicated terms or words to ensure that the respondents understood all the questions. The questions for interviews were framed in simple and clear language and were provided in English and isiXhosa, the learners' home language.

4.11 RELIABILITY

The design of the research instruments for this study were reliable enough to provide the same clear results each time they were used under the same conditions. Reliability is the extent to which research instruments can be depended upon to provide consistent and unambiguous information (Sax, 1989).

When used in other districts, the same interview questionnaires would yield the same results. Standard research questions for all learners and teachers were designed as reliable instruments to produce consistent measurements (Robbins, 1993).

Reliability is the ability of the instrument to deliver accurate results when administered to random samples of the same population or to the same population over time (Shaughnessy et al., 2011). Joppe (2000) supported this by defining reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time. If the results can be reproduced under similar conditions, then the instrument is said to be reliable. Using well-structured questionnaires that targeted the carefully selected population, this research sought to produce reliable data. It is believed that if the same methodology were employed, similar results would be generated in other studies without much deviation.

4.12 SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the methodology that was adopted during data collection for this research, it discusses the research design, data techniques, sampling techniques, data collection instruments and their validation, as well as data analysis used in the research. The researcher elaborated on the sensitivity of the study and ethical considerations. The validity and reliability of the data collected for an accurate reflection of the results was also discussed. It was explained what design would be adopted and the strengths and weaknesses of the case study as the chosen design. It was also explained who the participants were and why they were important role players for this study. The role players were learners and teachers who were studied on their use and understanding of dictionaries and their significance in teaching and learning.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DICTIONARY USER RESEARCH

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a detailed presentation and discussion of data obtained through the questionnaire survey and observations on the use of dictionaries by teachers and learners at the selected schools. Firstly, the data is presented from the teacher questionnaire survey, with personal details and dictionary usage questions, and the teachers' responses. This is followed by observation data from lessons where dictionary use by learners and teachers appeared relevant. The research used the triangulation method of analysis to draw conclusions on findings from the research questionnaires and observations. As outlined in Chapter 4, questionnaires and observations were used to obtain a clear picture about the use of dictionaries as pedagogic tools by teachers and learners during the lessons.

5.2 BACKGROUND ABOUT SCHOOLS

The study was conducted in 2 primary schools in the Joza township of the Sarah Baartman District of Education. The schools were coded as schools A and B. They were chosen randomly from poor schools with less resources. The area where these schools were situated was predominantly populated with speakers of isiXhosa, but a few of the learners spoke Sesotho. The schools were categorised as Quintile 1 schools, which means that they were non-fee-paying schools. This township is in a poverty-stricken area where most of the people, especially young people, are unemployed, and all the expenses of teaching and learning are covered by Government. Many households are dependent on social grants. Some of the people residing in this township own small businesses. At the time of data collection, several women had stands by the entrance to the schools and sold food to learners. Some residents of the township worked for the municipality, and a few were government employees. Through observations, this research was interested in finding out what language challenges learners were confronted with during their lessons, and whether dictionaries played a role in assisting learners to address language and communication challenges in those situations.

5.2.1 Language Distribution

Both schools had a transitional model of teaching, where during the first three years (Foundation Phase) the medium of teaching and learning was isiXhosa in all learning areas, and from Grade 4 onwards English was introduced as the medium of instruction. Consequently, Grade 4 was the foundation of the transitional period and the start of the Intermediate Phase of schooling. The researched schools used HL isiXhosa in the Foundation Phase, transitioning to the medium of English from Grade 4 to Grade 7. Both schools were established in the mid-1980's as public schools, catering for isiXhosa-speaking learners.

This research was to critically assess the functional value of dictionaries in Grades 4, 5, and 6 as the first 3 years after the transition of learners from HL or isiXhosa instruction, to FAL or English as the medium of teaching. Both schools had predominantly isiXhosa-speaking learners, with a small number of learners who spoke Sesotho but who were also conversant in isiXhosa. Learners were conversant in their mother tongue, which was isiXhosa, and in this language most learners were proficient and had strong verbal skills.

This research was interested in determining the language challenges learners were confronted with, and whether dictionaries played a role in assisting them to address language and communication challenges in those situations. When seated in the classroom, the desks were arranged in such way that learners could work in groups and both genders were fairly represented in these groups.

5.2.2 Teaching and Learning Support Materials

This section focused on teaching and learning support materials that were available in classrooms in the form of books, textbooks, and dictionaries that were used to advance cognition and conceptualisation of isiXhosa speakers. The focus was on keywords and glossaries in the textbooks and in other learning support materials such as dictionaries. The interest of this study was to understand how teachers and learners dealt with lexicographically relevant problems posed by these materials. The next section focuses on the survey and analysis of teachers' questionnaire on dictionary use.

5.3 QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY FOR TEACHERS

The questionnaire was drafted for teachers to establish how dictionaries were used in schools, with a specific focus on how teachers viewed dictionaries and responded to curriculum requirements regarding dictionaries when preparing and conducting their lessons. The researcher asked 35 teachers from different primary schools in the Sarah Baartman Education District to complete the questionnaire. The research findings of this study provided useful insights on how the use of dictionaries could be integrated within the pedagogy of teaching in South African schools.

5.3.1 Profile of teachers

5.3.2 Home language(s) of teachers

As shown in Table 5.1, 91.4% of the teachers participating in the study indicated that they spoke isiXhosa at home. Only 3% of teachers indicated that they spoke Afrikaans at home. Most of the teachers, therefore, used isiXhosa at HL level and English, which was the medium of teaching from the Intermediate Phase, as FAL.

Table 5.1

Home Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	IsiXhosa	32	91.4	91.4	91.4
	Afrikaans	3	8.6	8.6	100.0
	Total	35	100.0	100.0	

5.3.3 Teaching experience

The teaching experience of teachers who took part in the study ranged between 2 and 33 years. As shown in Table 5.2, the data indicated that most of the teachers, or 75%, had between 25 and 33 years of teaching experience.

Table 5.2

Teaching experience

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Years in teaching	33	35	2	37	18.45	9.388
Valid Number of teachers	35					

5.3.4 Highest qualifications

The highest qualification among the teachers who participated in the survey was a Doctor of Philosophy degree, and the lowest qualifications were Teachers' Diploma. Most teachers had obtained a Bachelor of Education degree. About 14.8% of the teachers indicated that they had achieved the Bachelor of Education Honours degree.

5.3.5 Subjects

The 35 respondent teachers taught in the learning areas of Natural Science, Life Skills, and Mathematics, as well as languages as subjects.

5.3.6 Aspects of dictionary culture

This subsection presents and discusses some aspects of dictionary culture as reported by the teachers who completed the questionnaire. These aspects relate to their general awareness of dictionaries and their use in teaching and learning activities.

5.3.7 Teachers aware of dictionaries at the school

Teachers were asked if they were aware of available dictionaries at their schools. Only one 1 (2.9%) teacher was not aware of the availability dictionaries. Most teachers, or 97.1%, indicated that they were aware of the availability of dictionaries at their schools. This is shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

Awareness of dictionaries at the school

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Yes	34	97.1	97.1	100.0
	Total	35	100.0	100.0	

5.3.8 Use of dictionaries in preparing lessons

Only one teacher (2.9%) indicated that they did not use a dictionary when preparing lessons. Most teachers (97.1%) indicated that they used dictionaries in lesson preparation. This is shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4

Use of dictionaries in preparing lessons

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Yes	34	97.1	97.1	100.0
	Total	35	100.0	100.0	

5.4 PREPARATION FOR LESSONS

5.4.1 Use of dictionaries during teaching and learning

Teachers were asked if they used dictionaries in their teaching and learning activities. The research revealed that although most teachers indicated they were aware of the availability of dictionaries, 45.7% responded that they did not use dictionaries during their teaching, and 54.3% responded that they did use dictionaries during teaching. The data revealed that there was a small margin between teachers who said they were not using dictionaries and those who said they were using dictionaries during teaching activities. This can be seen in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5

Use of dictionaries during teaching

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	16	45.7	45.7	45.7
	Yes	19	54.3	54.3	100.0
	Total	35	100.0	100.0	

5.4.2 Allowing learners to use dictionaries

Teachers were asked whether they allowed learners to use dictionaries during their teaching and learning. Twenty-seven (77.1%) of the teachers indicated that they allowed learners to use dictionaries during lessons. Only 8 teachers indicated that they did not allow learners to use dictionaries in their lessons. This showed that while 22.9% percent of the teachers were not using dictionaries while teaching, a much larger percentage of the respondent teachers allowed learners to use dictionaries in class. This is shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6

Allowing learners to use dictionaries.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	8	22.9	22.9	22.9
	Yes	27	77.1	77.1	100.0
	Total	35	100.0	100.0	

5.4.3 Dictionary as a teaching aid

On the question of whether teachers viewed dictionaries as a teaching aid, an overwhelming 34 of 35 respondents indicated that they viewed a dictionary as a teaching aid. Only 1 respondent indicated that a dictionary was not a teaching aid. These findings are shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7

Dictionary as a teaching aid

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Yes	34	97.1	97.1	100.0
	Total	35	100.0	100.0	

5.4.4 Dictionary use outside of classroom

Most teachers, or 97.1% of the participants, indicated that they used dictionaries outside the classroom when preparing lessons. For example, they used a dictionary when reading to understand the content of the learning area and when they needed explanations of words, when they looked for the meaning of a word when preparing lessons, and when they checked synonyms of words. Only 2.9% of the teachers indicated that they did not use dictionaries at all outside their classrooms. This is shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8:

Dictionary uses outside the classroom.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Yes	34	97.1	97.1	100.0
	Total	35	100.0	100.0	

5.4.5 Use of a dictionary in the classroom

On the question which sought to find out how often teachers used dictionaries in the classroom, about 11.5% of respondent teachers indicated that they never used a dictionary in the classroom. This represents a huge margin between the 2% of teachers who indicated that they never used a dictionary outside their classroom. Only 20.2% indicated that they used dictionaries quite often in their classes. Again, there is a discrepancy between teacher's responses with 97.1% who indicated they used dictionaries outside the classroom, but only 45.9% sometimes used dictionaries in the classroom. The researcher was expecting a correlation with the question on dictionary use outside the classroom. However, there was a great discrepancy between the responses to these questions. In teaching and learning, teachers are expected to use dictionaries quite often during their lessons, but this data revealed the opposite. Of the respondent teachers, 22.4% gave an indirect response to this question, for instance, some indicated that their schools did not have dictionaries, suggesting they were not using dictionaries in their classrooms.

Table 5.9

Use of a dictionary in the classroom

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Never	3	11.5	11.5	11.5
All the time (often)	8	20.2	20.2	31.7
Sometimes	12	45.9	45.9	77.6
Other	12	22.4	22.4	100
Total	35	100	100	

5.4.6 What do learners use dictionaries for?

When teachers were asked what learners use dictionaries for, 22.9% indicated that none of their learners used dictionaries. This answer did not come as surprise to the researcher because many teachers (45%) indicated that they only used dictionaries occasionally in their teaching and learning activities. Of the teachers, 43.5% indicated that their learners used dictionaries to look for the meaning of words and 8.7% indicated that learners used dictionaries when they were engaged with writing activities. The data revealed that a high percentage of respondent teachers (24.9%) indicated that learners used dictionaries when doing such activities as reading magazines, newspapers, or books. Some teachers indicated that their schools did not have dictionaries, therefore, this meant they could not use a resource they did not have. The responses are captured in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10

What do learners use a dictionary for?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
None	8	22.9	22.9	22.9
Look for meaning	15	43.5	43.5	66.4
Writing	3	8.7	8.7	75.1
Other	9	24.9	24.9	100
Total	35	100	100	

5.4.7 Naming dictionaries

Table 5.11 presents the names of dictionaries teachers provided when asked what titles of dictionaries they knew.

Table 5.11

Name of a dictionary that you know

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
None	0	0	0	0
Oxford	27	77.3	77.3	77.3
Isichazimagama isiXhosa	0	0	0	0
other	8	22.7	22.7	22.7
I don't know	0	0	0	100
Total	35	100	100	

Most teachers knew of an "Oxford dictionary". They could not clarify which of the many dictionaries produced by Oxford University Press they were referring to. Some teachers mentioned the Pharos English Dictionary, *woordeboeke* for Afrikaans, Macmillan, the Cambridge dictionary, and the indigenous isiXhosa dictionary. *Isichazimagama sesiXhosa* was the only monolingual isiXhosa dictionary, and one would expect isiXhosa-speaking teachers to be aware of it. The 77.3% of teachers revealed that they only knew of the Oxford dictionaries, and 22.7% of the teachers did not know dictionaries by their titles.

5.4.8 Teachers' knowledge of mathematics dictionaries

The question asked participants if they knew of a mathematics dictionary, to which 5.8% indicated that they knew of a mathematics dictionary in isiXhosa, and 88.4% did not know of a mathematics dictionary written in isiXhosa. This showed that most teachers did not know about the availability of dictionaries of mathematics in isiXhosa. Some respondent teachers were not sure whether there were dictionaries for mathematics available in English or isiXhosa, representing 5.8% of the data.

The responses of teachers who were not sure about any availability of mathematics dictionary in their classrooms shows that mathematics dictionaries were not used in teaching and learning for this content subject.

Table 5.12

Do you know any mathematics dictionary?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Yes	2	5.8	5.8	5.8
No	31	88.4	88.4	94.2
Not sure	2	5.8	5.8	100
Total	35	100	100	

5.4.9 Purposes of dictionary use by teachers

On the purpose teachers use dictionaries for, 14.3% of the respondent teachers indicated that they had no experience of using dictionaries. Of the respondent teachers, 8.7% responded that they used dictionaries when they were reading, and 5.8% that they used a dictionary when they did research on language related matters, when looking for the spelling of words, and when they looked for the meaning of a word. The number of participants who understood the main function of a dictionary in teaching and learning was less than those who did not have any experience of a dictionary and who ultimately did not know the function of a dictionary. Most respondents, or 71.2%, gave vague answers about their experiences of using a dictionary.

Table 5.13

What purpose using a dictionary for

	Frequency	**Percent**	**Valid percent**	**Cumulative percent**
None	5	14.3	14.3	14.3

Reading	3	8.7	8.7	23
Research, spelling & meaning	2	5.8	5.8	28.8
Other	25	71.2	71.2	100
Total	35	100	100	

5.4.10 Views of teachers on use of dictionaries in teaching

Teachers were asked how they viewed dictionaries in relation to teaching and learning. Of the respondents, 23.2% indicated that they used dictionaries as tools for teaching. Dictionaries were also viewed as a source of information and as a resource from which information could be retrieved, and 11.6% of the teachers viewed dictionaries as helpful resources for learners and teachers. The table 5.14 below, demonstrates that the highest number of respondents (50.8%) did not have clear views on the use of dictionaries in teaching.

Table 5.14

Views of teachers on use of dictionaries in teaching.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Teaching	8	23.2	23.2	23.2
information	5	14.4	14.4	37.6
Dictionaries are helpful to learners and teachers	4	11.6	11.6	49.2
Other	18	50.8	50.8	100
Total	35	100	100	

The next section focuses on lesson observations. The researcher observed how often teachers used dictionaries with learners as pedagogic tools to assist learners to understand the content of subjects across the curriculum.

5.5 LESSON OBSERVATIONS

Thematic presentation and analysis were employed, with specific themes adopted across the observation schedule lessons. This approach was adopted to make it easier for the researcher to identify common language and learning challenges related to dictionary use. The researcher had an agreement with identified teachers, who were willing to have their lessons observed. The researcher was a non-participant observer in the classes. He observed the teachers' methods of delivering lessons and how dictionaries, if any, were used. In this way, the researcher sought to study dictionary use during teaching and learning, whether dictionaries were available in classrooms, and what kind of dictionaries were available. A total of ten (10) lessons were observed in accordance with the agreement with the school senior management team, and six (6) lessons with a high concentration of glossary use were selected for analysis. Three (3) lessons were chosen from school A and three lessons from school B. Each lesson observation took about 35 to 40 minutes. Three lessons were chosen from each of 2 schools, and these lessons were conducted by 3 different teachers. Observations of 2 language lessons and 4 content subject lessons were collected for analysis.

The following thematic indicators were employed during observation of lessons: teacher; learning area; topic of the lesson; decoding of meaning; challenging words; writing and spelling of words; dictionary use; and other teaching resources. Lessons present the trends that were identified across the lessons which are linked to communication and how dictionaries, if at all, were used during teaching and learning. The researcher coded the lesson observations using the teacher and the lesson as a key (T = teacher, L = lesson, therefore, TL1 refers to teacher and lesson number 1). The study used this coding system throughout discussion of the analysis of observation. The following are the reflections of the 6 lessons observed with overviews which the researcher regarded as findings for each lesson. The first 3 lessons were collected from school A, and the last 3 were collected from school B.

5.5.1 Lesson reflections from school A

Lesson 1 (L1)

Learning area: Language

Topic: A story about a street dog called Shezi.

Classroom set-up

This was a class of about 46 learners. All of them spoke isiXhosa as their first language and English as their second language. Since the lesson was for English as a subject, there were enough copies of the story books containing the material to be used in the lesson. Nine groups of 5 to 6 learners read from a copy of the book. As teaching resources to assist learners with understanding, a few printed posters were displayed on the walls of the classroom, all of which were in English only. There were also two English dictionaries available for the class. The classroom was too crowded to prevent the teacher from moving freely between the rows while conducting the lesson.

Summary of the lesson

The teacher introduced the lesson by asking the learners, "Do you have dogs at your home? If you have them, how often do you feed them?" Most learners responded in chorus, saying they had dogs. Some learners went further to say how they were the family member responsible for feeding and sometimes bathing the animals. A few of the learners said they did not have dogs at their homes. Then the teacher asked learners whether they had ever seen wandering dogs in the streets of Joza township, particularly in the streets where they lived. Learners responded, "Yes!", agreeing that there were many dogs wandering the streets. At this stage, the teacher introduced the learners to the story of a township street dog called Shezi. Learners listened to the story as the teacher read aloud. The teacher read the story twice, emphasising several words in the story to make sure the learners understood the content. Through telling this story, the teacher referred to the learners' daily experience of their social lives, thereby tapping into the learner's prior knowledge and bringing their experiences of the outside world into the classroom.

Decoding meaning

The teacher said the story was to prepare society to prevent cruelty against animals. In the story, somebody saved Shezi, the street dog, from the street. The teacher told learners to think about adopting a street dog and giving it food and shelter. The teacher asked learners to think about the moral of the story and identify a person they can regard as "hero" in the story. The teacher mentioned that the SPCA rescued street animals and asked learners what the acronym stood for. She assisted learners and gave them the meaning of the acronym: S = Society; P = Prevention; C = Cruelty; A = Animals; meaning the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

Challenging words

The following were the words that needed to be decoded, not only in English but in the learner's HL, so they could understand the exact meaning of the words. The teachers listed the following words so that learners could later provide meaning and equivalence in their home language: *moral, hero, scratch, yowl, decision, cruelty, prevention.*

Reading, writing, and spelling of words

The teacher asked learners to read the story in groups. Each group identified someone to read on behalf of the group to make meaning out of the story. The teacher asked the groups to identify difficult words that needed to be checked in the dictionary. In groups, learners identified the following words: moral; hero; scratch, yowl; decision; cruelty; prevention. Not all nine groups identified the challenging words in time.

Dictionary use

The teacher informed the researcher that the lesson was extracted from an English language book, which the researcher managed to find. The teacher asked the learners to give the meaning of some of the words they had identified: hero, moral, and scratch. Learners had to search for these words in the dictionary. There were two floating dictionaries available, namely the *English Oxford School Dictionary* and the *Oxford English Dictionary*. Groups had to look for the meaning of one or two words and pass the dictionary on to another group. There were not enough dictionaries for groups

to share. Learners were given the choice of providing their answers in isiXhosa. It was observed that the teacher wanted to scaffold learners using isiXhosa in an English language lesson. However, there was no bilingual English and IsiXhosa dictionary for learners to consult if they did not understand the challenging words in isiXhosa. One learner attempted to explain the meaning of 'moral' in isiXhosa, saying, "*yinto enxumlumene nento ewrongo okanye eright*" (the equivalent of something linked to a wrong or right).

Learners took time to find the meaning of these words in the dictionaries, struggling with the alphabetical order in which these words belonged. Those who managed to find the meaning in a dictionary could not tell what it meant in their home language. For example, the *Oxford English Dictionary* explained the word 'hero' as a person who is admired for their courage or outstanding achievement. There was a long debate amongst learners about their understanding about the word.

Then, with the assistance of the teacher, the following words were located by learners in the dictionary. The teacher assisted learners by writing the examples on the chalkboard as shown below.

1. Hero – a man or boy (what about a women or girl?) admired somebody for doing something very brave or great, *English Oxford School Dictionary* and *Oxford English Dictionary* defined as follows: a person who is admired for their courage or outstanding achievement.
2. Moral (noun) – a lesson in right behaviour taught by story or event in first meaning, the second meaning as adjective for the word was never referred to in the discussion.
3. Scratch – a mark made by scratching – this word was also defined in three senses in both dictionaries: a verb, noun and adjective. Only the noun meaning sense of the word was discussed or looked at.

Overview of observation 1

When learners were instructed to look for the words, they struggled to find them in an English monolingual dictionary. They appeared to be unfamiliar with dictionaries, and the teacher had to assist them to locate these meanings. Challenging words were defined in different ways in both dictionaries, and different senses for these words were provided.

When the teacher asked the learners to give the equivalent meaning of the words in isiXhosa, learners also found this difficult. During the lesson, the teacher asked them what the words meant in English. Receiving no answer, the teacher switched to isiXhosa and asked the learners to give their understanding in that language. Learners kept guessing until she referred them to, and assisted them with, searching for these words in an English dictionary. Tarp (2008) suggested that to teach English as FAL, bilingual dictionaries were needed to assist second language speakers of English with understanding language skills. Not only did learners struggle to provide the meaning of the words in both English and isiXhosa, with poor dictionary user skills the learners took a long time to locate the words in an English monolingual dictionary. When the teacher asked the learners to identify words that they thought should be in the dictionary, the task was executed well, and learners knew exactly what the challenging words were. However, when they were asked to find the meaning in a dictionary, it became challenging for them to do so. When learners were asked to locate words in the dictionary, they were not sure under which letter of the alphabet to search. The researcher took note of the challenges learners experienced in giving the meaning of words and then of locating the words in a dictionary.

Lesson 2 (L2)

Learning area: Technology

Topic: Magnetism

Classroom set-up

This was a class of about 40 student learners. All were isiXhosa first language speakers and second language English speakers. This was a Natural Sciences lesson in Technology. Each learner had a Science and Technology textbook. For this lesson, the teacher needed the maximum attention of learners, and she was the only one who carried and referred to a textbook. In terms of the teaching resources and given the Natural Science themes of life and living, and energy and change, one would expect to have a variety of print material in the form of posters on the wall to display the key terminology of the subject being taught. The classroom had a few posters on the wall, most of which were not relevant to the lesson. One poster dealt with types of energies and contained an illustration and text on the concept of magnetism. The brief explanation was insufficient to help

learners understand this concept and was also monolingual English. There was no material with isiXhosa translations. It also appeared that there were no dictionaries available.

Summary of the lesson

Introducing the concept, the teacher referred to magnetism as a process which occurred when an object repelled and pulled another object. She spoke about objects that have magnetism that pull or push. She said all objects attracted and repelled other objects. The teacher instructed learners to take out their textbooks and look for the meanings of the words ‘repel’ and ‘pull’. She told the learners that metal objects attracted other metal objects and those magnets have two direct ends, or a north and south pole.

Decoding meaning

The teacher used metal objects to demonstrate the concept of magnetism. She said that metal objects had magnetic fields. Furthermore, the teacher used a metal object and a bar magnet to demonstrate magnetism. She also used a bar of a sunlight soap to demonstrate the concept of repulsion. She spoke of magnets as having permanent magnetic fields. She demonstrated with different kinds of permanent magnets, that is, a bar-shaped rectangular magnet and a horseshoe (or U-shaped) magnet. The teacher said the word ‘attraction’ was derived from the word ‘attract’, and the word repulsion was derived from the word ‘repel’.

Challenging words

During the process of the lesson, the researcher noted all the words they felt needed to be decoded in both English and isiXhosa for learners to properly understand the concept:

> *magnet, magnetism, magnetic field, permanent magnet, repel, repulsion, pull, push, object, attract, metal, bar shape, rectangle, U-shape*.

Reading, writing, and spelling of words

The teacher used a chalk and talk strategy to explain the process to learners. The teacher adopted a translanguaging strategy where they used English and isiXhosa interchangeably. Writing on the

chalkboard the teacher explained the meaning of the words: magnet, magnetism, repel, repulsion, pull, push.

Dictionary use

While the teacher took note of the need for learners to understand certain words in both English and isiXhosa, she relied more on concrete objects to illustrate her points, such as the bar magnet bar, metal, and soap. The textbook used, *Platinum Natural Science and Technology Grade 5*, contained a glossary at the back of the book, however, terms were poorly defined. For example, *magnetic* was defined as "attracted to a magnet". Magnet was not defined at all. Most of the challenging words were not contained in the glossary. The only dictionary available at the teacher's disposal was the *Oxford English Dictionary*. The teacher also relied on explanations in the glossary of the textbook which were not defined in detail and used her own interpretation and understanding. During the lesson, learners could not be referred to dictionaries as there were none available to them. There were no specialised or bilingual isiXhosa-English material that the learners could refer to for equivalent scientific words in isiXhosa. Learners relied solely on the explanations of the teacher. No dictionaries were integrated with the teaching of this lesson. The *Oxford English Dictionary* defined *magnetic* as an adjective, giving the first meaning as "having the property of magnetism", and a second meaning as "very attractive magnetic poles". This dictionary included most of the challenging terms according to their senses, but the teacher and learners struggled with dictionary user skills.

Overview observation 2

Although the teacher took note of the needs of learners to understand certain words in both English and isiXhosa, she relied more on concrete objects to illustrate her points. There was a lack of dictionaries in this classroom, especially bilingual English and isiXhosa for this content subject. The researcher noticed that because the lesson dealt with a content subject, the teacher did not see the need to provide dictionaries. Learners relied on the teacher's explanation of key words and the explanations in the glossary, which was in English only.

Lesson 3 (L3)

Learning area: Technology

Topic: Concept of electricity

Classroom set-up

This was a class of about 46 learners. All were isiXhosa first language speakers and English second language speakers. The lesson fell under the theme of Energy and Charge in Natural Sciences, explaining the concept of electricity as a source of energy. Learners had a Science and Technology textbook.

The teacher brought an electric circuit to teach learners how electricity was generated. A printed poster about different kinds of energy was attached to the wall to assist the teacher in explaining the concepts of electrical current, and the sources and use of electricity. This same poster could be found, together with a few others, on the walls of other classrooms visited. This poster, shown in Figure 5.1, also had an illustration and brief text about the concept of magnetism and was in English only. In this class the dictionaries available were the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary*.

Figure 2: Poster provided as additional teaching and learning resource material.

Summary of lesson

Introducing the lesson, the teacher asked the learners what the word ‘electricity’ meant. Getting no response from the learners, she explained that electricity was a form of energy, elaborating that we cannot see electricity, but we only feel it. After explaining the concept of electricity, she introduced an electric circuit to the learners. She then asked the learners what the phrase ‘electric circuit’ meant. She instructed learners to look for the meaning in their textbook. Still receiving no response from learners, she told them that electric circuit stood for the flow of energy in the electric diagram. The teacher showed learners batteries that were used as sources of energy in an electric

circuit. In an electric circuit, electricity changed in stages, that is, it changed into sound energy, heat energy, and light energy.

Decoding meaning

The teacher explained that the electric diagram showed the flow of energy in an electric circuit. She then asked the learners, "What is energy?" The response was that "energy was the ability to do work". She said batteries were used as sources of energy in an electric circuit. In an electric circuit, electricity changes in several stages, that is, into sound energy, heat energy, and light energy. The teacher relied on illustrations in the textbook and at times would refer to electrical plugs and lights in the classroom.

Challenging words

The researcher noted the following words during the lesson that should have been contained in a glossary:

> *electric circuit, electric source, electric diagram, energy, battery, cell, sound energy, heat energy, light energy, series, series connection, parallel, parallel connection*

Most of these words were not contained in the glossary.

Reading, writing, and spelling of words

The teacher used a chalk and talk strategy to explain the process of generating electricity. Most of the writing was in English, however, the teacher did employ a translanguaging strategy and occasionally used isiXhosa. By writing on the chalkboard the teacher verified the meaning of certain words with the learners.

Dictionary use

The teacher relied on illustrations from the textbook during the lesson. There was no apparatus to demonstrate an electrical circuit. In the middle of the lesson, the teacher referred to the word *electricity* as a noun, asking the learners what kind of noun it was. When learners were clearly

guessing the answer, the teacher assisted them and informed them that electricity was an abstract noun. She explained that it was an abstract noun as it could not be seen, and that it could only be seen through its effects. She then asked learners to look for the meanings of a series connection and a parallel connection in the textbook. The textbook, *Day-by-Day Natural Sciences and Technology Grade 4* had a defined glossary at the back. Neither of the two terms were defined in the glossary of the textbook. When the learners were unable to find the meanings, the teacher asked them to look for the meanings of the word's *series* and *parallel* in the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary*. After some time searching in the single roving dictionary, the learners were unable to give the proper meanings of the word. The above dictionary was available for the teacher and the learners during teaching and learning. Both words, series and parallel, were defined in this dictionary but the learners struggled to locate them.

Overview observation 3

The teacher asked learners to look for the meaning of the word *electricity* in the textbook and then later in a dictionary, and also asked learners what part of speech it was. Learners managed to locate the word in the dictionary but were unable to provide an answer about what kind of noun it was. Learners took time to locate the words *series* and *parallel* and could not give the proper meanings of these word in either English or isiXhosa. While the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary* was available during teaching and learning, it was clear to the researcher that the learners had been asked to do something they were unfamiliar with, and they could not use the dictionary properly. The fact that this dictionary was a pocket dictionary in small print posed another challenge for the teacher and learners. Besides the lack of practical resources to reinforce understanding of words, there was only the poster shown in Figure 5.1. At no stage did the teacher attempt to explain the text of this poster, although the availability of dictionaries and posters could help to illustrate concepts and terms. Explanation of certain words accompanied by illustrated pictures could serve as a substitute for the lack of concrete objects in this lesson. It was clear that learners were unfamiliar with the use of dictionaries during their lessons.

5.5.2 Lesson observation from school B

Lesson 4 (L4)

Learning area: Mathematics

Topic: Algebraic expression

Classroom set-up

This was a class of about 40 learners. All were isiXhosa first language speakers and English second language speakers. This lesson fell under the theme of Algebraic Expression, focusing on the application of different mathematical operations. Learners had mathematics textbooks, but they were not allowed to use them in this lesson. On the classroom wall there were several posters, among them one with number times tables, maths operations, and number wording. Other charts were scattered on the wall in a way that was confusing and difficult to follow. The illustrations and text of the charts dealt with basic mathematics activities that had nothing to do with algebraic expressions. The charts were monolingual English, as can be seen in Figure 5.2. The researcher found *The Penguin English Dictionary* and the *Oxford Mini Skoolwoordeboek/School Dictionary*, a bilingual Afrikaans-English dictionary, in the classroom.

Figure 3:Scattered arrangements of resource material displayed in the classroom.

Summary of the lesson

Introducing the lesson, the teacher explained the algebraic expression *x* represented an input and *y* was regarded as an output. Thus, *x* multiplied by *y* gave the product of the calculation. In algebra, there are constant numbers and variables. The teacher asked, "What is a constant number?" The teacher went on to explain, "A constant number is a number that does not change, it remains the same", also explaining that "the variable is the changing number". At this stage, the teacher gave learners a word sum and asked learners to write it in numbers: "Three *a* multiplied by one quarter plus one fifth". The following was the first response from a learner, and it was not correct: 3*a* × 3 + 1/5.

The second answer from a learner was right: 3*a* × 1/4 +1/5. The teacher told learners they tended to confuse whole numbers with fractions, explaining that 3 was not equal to 1/3, or in words, three is not equal to one third.

The teacher also said there was nothing called one over three in mathematical terms, and the right way of putting it – mathematically speaking – was one third, or 1/3.

Decoding meaning

The teacher gave the learners number sums and asked them to write them as word sums, for example, $x \times 3 + 3y =$. The answer, "multiply three adding three its *equal* (*sic*)" was incorrect. The teacher took time to assist learners get the word sum correct. Three learners were given the chance to write this sum in words. Beside the omission of the word "by" (multiply by) as a mathematical operation, the learner misspelled the word "equal". The teacher said they were not teaching language, and that learners would learn grammar and spelling of words from the language teachers but understanding the mathematical statement was important to do correct calculations.

Challenging words

The researcher noted the following words during the lesson that should have been contained in a glossary: *algebra, input, output, product, constant number, variable, double, calculate, calculation, subtract.*

Dictionary use

To express the algebraic expression as word sums could require the consultation of a dictionary. The teacher did not have a dictionary, relying on the glossary in the textbook which unfortunately only had a few keywords for each chapter. All the words used were not defined in the glossary apart from the word "operation", which was explained by giving examples of operations, that is, addition, subtraction, and so on. The reference was *Platinum Mathematics Grade 4 book*. When the researcher searched located the word "algebra" in the dictionary available in the classroom (*The Penguin English Dictionary*) it was defined as "a branch of mathematics dealing with the properties of and relationships between quantities by means of general symbols". The *Oxford Mini Skoolwoordeboek/School Dictionary* did not have a definition for this word. The definition from *The Penguin English Dictionary* was too advanced for Grade 4 learners. At the end of the lesson, the teacher told the researcher he recognised a need for the use of dictionaries during the lessons, but the school did not provide these.

When asked what maths dictionaries were available, the researcher indicated that they were there to observe, however, they would try to supply a dictionary as they progressed with their research.

Overview observation 4

When a learner forgot the spelling of a word (spelling "equal" as "equly"), the teacher said learners would be taught the spelling of words by their language teachers. The teacher did not attempt to assist learners in writing the mathematical terms correctly, contradicting themselves by saying that understanding the mathematical statement was very important to do the calculation correctly. In mathematical equations, the converting of maths signs into the correct words for interpretation is important. Part of the algebraic expression was word sums, for which learners sometimes needed to consult a dictionary. The teacher did not have a mathematics dictionary at their disposal, neither in English nor in isiXhosa. The teacher relied more on the glossary in the textbook, in which some of the challenging maths terms were not explained. At the end of the lesson the teacher told the researchers that they saw the need for the use of dictionaries during the lessons, but the school did not have these dictionaries. The teacher asked for a favour because they knew that the aim of the research was around the use of dictionaries in teaching and learning. The teacher asked the researcher to provide them with a maths dictionary. The researcher indicated that they were there to observe but would do so once the research was completed.

Lesson 5 (L5)

Learning area: Social Science

Topic: Nation building

Classroom set-up

This was a class of about 38 learners. All of them were isiXhosa first language and English second language speakers. This was a Social Science class with Nation Building as the theme for the lesson. Learners had a Social Science textbook, *Platinum Social Sciences for Grade 5*. There was a poster of the South African flag on the wall, as shown in Figure 5.3. Other posters referred to parts of speech and other grammatical nuances, all in English only.

None of the posters referred to different cultures or illustrated different languages as spoken in South Africa. The researcher felt that there were many possible concrete teaching materials that could have made the lesson meaningful. The researcher only found the *Oxford English Dictionary for Schools* and *Isichazi-magama sesiXhosa*.

Figure 4: Poster of the South African flag displayed in a classroom.

Summary of the lesson

Introducing the lesson, the teacher said nation building was about accommodating different cultures, backgrounds, and languages, and that South Africa had a rich and diverse cultural heritage. Culture evolves, and it was not static, it changed with the times. South Africa has several public holidays, one of which is Heritage Day which is celebrated on 24 September. On this day the people of South Africa observe their cultural heritage through, for example, dress, food, language, and music.

Decoding of meaning

As a symbol of nation building, South Africa has a coat of arms which displays the national symbols of a spear, a secretary bird, Khoisan images, a protea, and the rising sun. The teacher asked learners what the national symbol of the South African cricket and rugby teams were. The teacher also told learners that animals and plants indigenous to South Africa appear as national symbols, for example, the blue crane, galjoen, yellow wood tree, and the protea. Because of reconciliation, some of the national symbols were abolished during the new democracy. Thus, when some people use the flag of the old apartheid government, people of the democratic South Africa become annoyed or offended by that.

Challenging words

The researcher noted words that needed to be looked up in a dictionary: *heritage, culture, symbol, commemorate, observe, abolish, dissatisfied, reconciliation, quarrel, disperse, demonstrate, massacre.*

Reading, writing, and spelling of words

As learners read from paragraphs of the lesson, the teacher explained that “a commemoration can also honour an event, like Freedom Day, Heritage Day, and Youth Day. A commemoration is a celebration of someone or something, usually in the form of a ceremony”. Learners struggled with the pronunciation of certain words, for example, commemorate. The teacher then asked learners to look for the word commemorate in the dictionary and talk about its meaning.

Dictionary use

While learners were busy with the activity, the teacher said, “In fact, you must look for meanings for all the problematic words”. Learners struggled to find commemorate in the *South African Oxford School Dictionary*. *Platinum Social Sciences for Grade 5* had a glossary in which the word was not defined, however, learners did not attempt to search for meanings of words in their textbooks. The researcher noticed that learners were not sure about the alphabetical order of the word, specifically, whether ‘n’ preceded ‘m’, spending time juggling between these two letters which had nothing to do with the first letter of the word concerned. The teacher asked a learner what they thought the word meant in isiXhosa but did not get the correct answer. Every time the teacher asked learners to find the meaning of the word, they provided alternative ways in which the word was used, for example, “there was a commemoration of June 16”. They repeated what the teacher had said instead of giving the meaning of the word and struggled to understand parts of speech. The teacher read out the meaning of the word commemorate, a verb, which meant a celebration of a past event, or a contribution made by a person. In the *South African Oxford School Dictionary,* the word *commemorate* was defined the way the teacher articulated it, but she didn’t go further to explain other senses in which this word could be used.

Overview observation 5

In the process of observing the lesson, it appeared that the teacher was trying to impress the researcher by instructing learners to do an activity with which they were not familiar. They were asked to look for a word in a dictionary. In the process of looking for the word “commemorate”, learners struggled to find it in the *South African Oxford School Dictionary*. Learners were not sure how to follow alphabetical order and, instead of going to the letter ‘c’, many learners went straight to the ‘n’ and ‘m’, trying to locate the word under a letter which had nothing to do with the first letter of the word. Let alone that learners struggled to understand the meaning of this word in English to start with, when the researcher asked a learner what they thought the word meant in isiXhosa, no answer was given. Each time the teacher asked learners to find the meaning of the word, they read the context in which the word was used instead of giving the actual meaning of the word, and they also struggled to understand parts of speech for the words. Although learners

had access to *Isichazi-magama sesiXhosa,* it may as well not have existed at all as no reference was made to it.

Lesson 6 (L6)

Learning area: Language

Topic: A drama story, *Remote control* by Sue Murray.

Classroom set-up

This was a class of about 42 learners. All were isiXhosa first language and English second language speakers. This was an English language lesson, the subject being a drama. Each learner had a copy of the story books to read from. There was no poster, nor could a dictionary be found in this class. The teacher relied on chalk and talk but had what was called a word bank. Before the lesson, the teacher wrote all the challenging and key words of the lesson on the chalkboard. As the lesson progressed, the teacher referred learners to these words and unpacked them.

Summary of the story

A story entitled *Remote control* by Sue Murray was used. The teacher started the lesson by introducing learners to the story, telling them that in a drama story there are characters (people who are the actors in the story), characterisation (what people are like), plot (the story), conflict (disagreements), background (the history), setting (the main ideas), and sometimes a narrator (a person who tells the story). The teacher introduced the word bank to learners, stating that these were the words that were going to appear in the story and which they would need to understand. These words are mentioned in the discussion below.

Decoding of meaning

In reading the story, the teacher asked learners to note words that needed to be explained. Learners were told that the story was about a professor who wanted to perform the miracle of changing a monkey into a human being, and he wanted to be the first person to ever do that. He spoke about keeping proof of performing this miracle.

Keeping the proof of converting the monkey to a man to prove his critics wrong, was his first step. All this work needed to be performed in the laboratory to preserve the evidence.

Challenging words

The following were noted as challenging words: *proof/evidence, convert/change, uncertain, gadget, discard, to exit, laboratory, charge, cage, scientist, capture, state capture*.

Reading, writing, and spelling of words

The teacher asked learners to read the meaning of the following words from the word bank which were written on the chalkboard: remote control; precisely; genius; morph; bimolecular; reversible; reconfigures; petty; bureaucrats; device; rue; mobile; liberate; guinea pig.

Dictionary use

The teacher asked learners the meaning of challenging words, also wanting to know if certain words, such as proof and evidence, had the same meaning. Learners struggled to provide meanings of words until the teacher emphasised that synonyms, such as proof and evidence, could have the same meaning. The teacher then asked the learners what these two words meant in isiXhosa. One learner responded that it meant *ubungqina*. The teacher did the same for the words change and convert, with the learners providing the isiXhosa equivalent as *ukutshintsha*. Through this activity, the teacher wanted to demonstrate how to use a dictionary to look for the meaning of a word, but no dictionaries were available during this lesson. IsiXhosa equivalent words were provided in some instances, but these were not verified using dictionaries. All answers were provided without consulting dictionaries. The teacher depended on their word bank for some of the key words. Key words needed to be unpacked in the learner's home language for them to grasp the meaning. This is where the issue of bilingual English and IsiXhosa dictionaries could play a role.

Overview observation 6

During the lesson the teacher wanted to know if learners knew the isiXhosa meanings of challenging words. Learners struggled to provide the meanings of the words until the teachers used the synonyms interchangeably, for example, telling learners that proof can also mean evidence. Only then did the learners realise that the equivalent isiXhosa word was *ubungqina*.

When the teacher explained that to convert meant to change, the learners responded with the isiXhosa word *ukutshintsha*. With the assistance of the teacher, learners provided equivalent words in their home language. Those words could not be verified as there was no dictionary available in the classroom. This activity was not properly coordinated because of the unavailability of dictionaries in the classroom. It was clear that dictionaries were not used in teaching and learning in this classroom.

Lesson 7 (L7)

Learning area: Language

Topic: Reading lesson, Library Day.

Classroom set-up

This was a class of about 40 learners. All were isiXhosa first language and English second language speakers. This was an English lesson. All learners had English reading books. Among the posters that decorated the classroom, one was entitled *Fall in Love with Books* and suggested learners develop a passion for reading. This poster is shown in Figure 5.4. No other posters or charts that demonstrated good readers or that modelled reading were available in the classroom. In this class there was an *Oxford English School Dictionary* and *Isichazi-magama sesiXhosa*.

Figure 5: Poster on reading books displayed in the classroom.

Summary of the story

The teacher read a story. Each week all children went to the library after school. They loved to go to the library. A teacher read to them at the library. Pam and Busi helped in the library at playtime on Tuesdays and Thursdays. They packed the books neatly on the shelves. They put a date stamp on the books that children took home. “You can take two books home every week,” the teacher read, “and bring them back before you can take more books. Busi and Pam read two books every week. They also go to the library to do their homework. It is very quiet at the library.”

Decoding of meaning

The teacher told learners that this story taught learners to take note of the use of libraries. Libraries are important in the school life of learners. Learners need to visit libraries often to improve their reading and writing skills and to do homework. The teacher emphasised that libraries have rules, for instance, on how books are borrowed for reading, that no one was allowed to eat in the library, and people should not make a noise. Learners were given the chance to assist in the packing of books in the library. Learners should know that a library is a space in which to read.

Challenging words

The teacher asked learners to identify words from the story that they did not understand and wanted explained. The following words were identified by learners: to stamp; aloud; quiet; pack; computer; library; homework; shelves; love.

Reading, writing, and spelling of words

The teacher asked learners for the meaning of the above words in isiXhosa. Most learners guessed the meaning but at last one learner got one of them right. The teacher asked learners to volunteer to write the meaning of the words on the chalkboard. The first 2 learners bungled the spelling of the word, with learner 1 writing, "aloud = ukugxola", while learner 2 wrote, "aloud = ukuxola".

A third learner wrote, "aloud = *ukungxola*", which was the correct spelling. The researcher deduced from this exercise that, beside the meaning of words, learners needed to be taught spelling and writing skills.

Dictionary use

The researcher expected that words considered challenging by learners would be easy words for Grade 5 learners, but this was not the case. The teacher instructed learners to find the words *okuxoxa* and *ukungxola* in the *Isichazi-magama sesiXhosa* dictionary. Learners struggled to find these words in the dictionary because of their lack of understanding of alphabetic order and the skills to locate isiXhosa words in this monolingual isiXhosa dictionary. Their semantic understanding of the structure of words was at too early a stage of development for them to

understand prefix lemmatisation of words in isiXhosa monolingual dictionaries. It was clear to the researcher that learners needed to learn how to use monolingual isiXhosa dictionaries and practice daily to develop their dictionary user skills from an early age. The words listed as challenging were found in the dictionary with the assistance of the teacher.

Overview observation 7

Most learners guessed when they were asked the meanings of the challenging words in isiXhosa, apart from one learner who got one correct, which was the equivalent of "to make noise". The teacher asked learners voluntarily to write the meaning of the word on the chalkboard. The first 2 learners bungled the spelling of the word: learner 1 wrote, "aloud = ukugxola" and learner 2 wrote, "aloud = ukuxola". The third and last learner wrote, "aloud = ukungxola", which was spelt correctly. The observation informed the researcher that, besides the meaning of words, learners needed to be taught spelling and writing skills. The researcher had assumed that the above challenging words learners would be easy words for Grade 5 learners, but this was not the case. The teacher instructed learners to find other words in the dictionary. Learners struggled to find these words because of their lack of understanding that words are registered according to alphabetic order. Their semantic level in understanding the structure of words needed to be developed, as did their understanding of the prefixing and lemmatisation of words in dictionaries. It was clear to the researcher that dictionaries were not often used as part of the core curriculum and challenging words were not located in the dictionary when learners struggled to understand meaning in either English or isiXhosa. Even when learners were asked to write the words on the board, they failed to get the spelling right. In this case consistent use of dictionaries could assist them.

5.6 SUMMARY

This chapter provided a brief overview of the major findings which emerged by triangulating various data sources used in this research, namely the teacher, learner questionnaire, and observation schedule. The chapter concludes by reflecting on the observations of the conduct in the identified research schools.

The research used various sources of data collection and observation of lessons as a non-participant observer, and these sources of data helped to substantiate and validate the critical value of dictionaries in teaching and learning. Concisely, the data on this chapter revealed that teachers were aware of dictionaries, but they had different understandings about the use of these resource books in teaching and learning. Although teachers regarded dictionaries as important for teaching, they were not using them. This was confirmed by learners who indicated that they did not frequently use dictionaries, either at home or in their classrooms. The study found that both teachers and learners did not often use dictionaries. The lesson observations also revealed that there was a lack of dictionary culture in teaching and learning. Learners were seldom referred to dictionaries during the lessons. When they were referred to a dictionary, they struggled to retrieve information from these dictionaries. They lacked the dictionary user skills that would enable them to use the dictionaries effectively during teaching and learning. This chapter brought together a variety of information on the value of dictionaries in teaching and learning. The next chapter will focus on dictionary criticism and offer a critical description and assessment of the dictionaries that were found in some classes in relation to the user-situations and needs of the learners and teachers in the observed classrooms.

CHAPTER 6

DICTIONARY CRITICISM – DICTIONARIES FOUND IN THE CLASSROOMS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a critical evaluation of dictionaries that were found in the schools where the study was conducted. Data was collected during specific lessons when teachers and learners used dictionaries to enhance teaching and learning. The chapter examines if the dictionaries provided learners and teachers with appropriate information required by the syllabi and at the level of the Intermediate Phase. It begins by discussing different kinds of dictionaries used in the lessons that were observed and proceeds to examine the extent to which information contained in the dictionaries was relevant to learners. Tarp (2018) described dictionaries as utility tools, which were conceived for consultation with the genuine purpose of meeting punctual information needs experienced by specific types of potential user.

6.2 DICTIONARIES FOUND IN SCHOOLS: A BRIEF TYPOLOGICAL DESCRIPTION

This section presents the findings and addresses the objective of evaluating and analysing the content, structure and design features of dictionaries that were available for learners and teachers whose lessons were observed. Dictionary criticism is conducted based on observing teaching and learning and the types of dictionaries collected, with a view to evaluating their pedagogic value in helping learners to better understand their lessons. Table 6.1 presents a list of dictionaries found in the researched classrooms. Some dictionaries were used regularly and over many years and had become tattered. One dictionary had deteriorated to such a degree that the date of publication could not be ascertained without an internet search using the information on the spine. Another 5 were reported to have been used in the same classrooms for the past 16 years.

Figure 6: List of dictionaries.

Dictionary title	**Publishing company**	**Year of publication**
Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (Dictionary 1)	Maskew Miller Longman	1978
South African Oxford School Dictionary (Dictionary 2)	Oxford University Press	2006
The South African Oxford School Dictionary (Dictionary 3)	Oxford University Press	1996
Oxford Mini School Dictionary (Dictionary 4)	Oxford University Press	2017
The Penguin English Dictionary (Dictionary 5)	Penguin Books	1984
Colour Oxford English Dictionary (Dictionary 6)	Oxford University Press	2001
Oxford Mini Skoolwoordeboek/School Dictionary (Dictionary 7)	Oxford University Press	2007

The dictionaries were categorised according to type, language, size, publisher, and the year of publication and are discussed in relation to teaching and learning in the Intermediate Phase. According to Tarp (2011), the terms *pedagogical dictionary*, *school dictionary*, and *learner's dictionary* are not used in the same way, but in subtly different ways by lexicographers and

publishing houses. Misunderstandings arising from the interpretation of these terms has led schools to procuring dictionaries unsuitable for t certain users in specific situations, leading to frustration and the reluctance of learners to use dictionaries. Hence, it is not only important that dictionaries are categorised appropriately, but that users understand how to use the categories of dictionaries most suited to their needs. The needs of the user do not only influence the contents and the structure of a dictionary, but the typological classification of a dictionary should also be the direct result of the needs of a specific speech community (Gouws, 2004). This section is important to give a clear picture in which category of definition the dictionary belongs.

The dictionaries listed in Table 6.1 were evaluated according to the criteria and features of the category in which they belonged. Criticism of the dictionaries will make clear distinctions between them and indicate where there are overlaps. Tarp (2010) and Welker (2008) argue that borders are very useful and necessary in pedagogical dictionaries and, therefore, typologies should make a clear distinction between dictionaries for first-language learners or HL users (in the case of this study, isiXhosa HL users) and dictionaries for second or third language users. Tarp (2008) defines a learner dictionary as one where the genuine purpose is to satisfy the lexicographically relevant information needs of learners in a range of situations. The typology of the above dictionary has features that serve the needs of isiXhosa speaking learners who are FAL (commonly referred to as their second language) users of English. While dictionaries display some common features, each dictionary type has distinctive lexicographic features to serve its specific purposes.

6.3 TYPES OF DICTIONARIES EVALUATED

In this section dictionary typology is applied to describe the dictionaries found in circulation at schools. The research presented an inventory of dictionaries in Table 6.1 which listed three subcategories of dictionaries, namely, comprehensive dictionaries, pedagogical dictionaries, and pocket dictionaries. Most of these were English monolingual dictionaries with except for the English-Afrikaans bilingual dictionary.

6.3.1 Comprehensive Dictionaries

The *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* was the only comprehensive dictionary found in School A. As a monolingual English comprehensive dictionary, it endeavoured to include the most representative selection of lexical items (Gouws, 1996). The treatment of the entry items is aimed at a comprehensive transfer of information categories and within each category the treatment is extensive. For example, some lemmas have up to 6 definitions explained in detail. Comprehensive dictionaries give an account of the full spectrum of the lexicon, including lexical items of the non-standard varieties (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). These types of dictionaries are well known for their inclusion of a variety of lexical items, dialectal items, words with a limited use, and the vocabulary commonly used in urban and rural areas. This dictionary relied on spoken English, with American and British spoken English as the corpus, stating, “we have relied on our authentic data from American as well as British English” Procter (1978, p. vii). The dictionary reflected real language usage and provided vocabulary that was relevant to general communication in an Anglo-American situation. It had one thousand and sixty-eight (1668) pages, and the text was produced in a small font, probably to fit in the encyclopaedic information about each lemma. The cover jacket cover was not in good condition because this dictionary was first published in 1978. The condition of this dictionary told the story that it had been in circulation for some time, with formerly white paper pages that had darkened over the years.

6.3.2 Pedagogical Dictionaries

Pedagogical dictionaries which are referred to as school and learner’s dictionaries (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005) were designed to serve cognitive functions across all subjects, including content subjects. Welker (2010) argues the following on pedagogical dictionary:

> Sometimes it is claimed that pedagogical dictionaries 'teach' languages, but this is an imprecise statement. Obviously, pedagogical dictionaries do not teach languages … What they do — or try to do — is to assist the learning of a (foreign or native) language. Furthermore, pedagogical lexicography studies problems related to pedagogical dictionaries and that practical pedagogical lexicography produces such dictionaries. (p. 733)

Therefore, pedagogical lexicography includes all dictionaries conceived for learners of either a foreign language or the mother tongue (Welker, 2008) to deal with all the practical didactic needs of teachers and learners of a language (Hartmann & James, 1998). A dictionary for so-called native speakers is referred to as a school dictionary and one for non-native speakers as a learner dictionary. Some dictionaries discovered in classes were labelled as school dictionaries but that does not mean those that were not labelled as learners' dictionaries could not be used for teaching and learning. Thus, Tarp (2010) argued that this kind of distinction is unhelpful and that dictionaries that support learning, regardless of who uses them, should fall in the broad category of pedagogical dictionaries. Furthermore, he argued strongly that the term "learner" refers not only to non-native learners and native learners when learning language, but also to non-native and native learners when learning content subjects. During this study, only two (2) of the dictionaries found in the classrooms were explicitly identified as school dictionaries on their covers. The other three (3) were standard, desktop dictionaries with no reference to being a school dictionary on the covers, while the last two (2) were pocket dictionaries. Based on the length and size of these dictionaries, the typology of pedagogic dictionaries is discussed below.

6.3.3 Pedagogical Pocket Dictionaries

Two (2) pocket pedagogical school dictionaries were collected and found in circulation in classrooms. The first was a monolingual English dictionary, called the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary*, published by Oxford University Press in 2017. The other pocket dictionary was the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary/Skoolwoordeboek*, a bilingual English-Afrikaans dictionary published by Oxford University Press in 2012. Both dictionaries were designed to fit into a pocket and to be carried around. Due to their portability, their size limited their scope and depth. They deal with lexical items in a brief and precise manner. The first pedagogical pocket dictionary evaluated was the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary* with 688 pages.

An example of a lemma treated in this dictionary is *abdomen*, the meaning of which is given as "the lower front part of a person's or animal's body containing the stomach and intestines" and this type of definition was appropriate for the learners in the Intermediate Phase of schooling. This monolingual English dictionary was written for learners and was meant to be used as a reference tool in the home and at school, therefore it was user-friendly for learners of this level.

The second pedagogical pocket dictionary examined was the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary/Skoolwoordebek* with 706 pages. This was a bilingual English and Afrikaans dictionary. This dictionary treated both languages at the same time and was not bidirectional. This dictionary was also meant to be used by learners to improve both languages English and Afrikaans, but Afrikaans was not offer at the school.

Standard pedagogical school dictionaries are different from other dictionaries used in schools, such as comprehensive and encyclopaedic dictionaries, in that they focus on including only those words with an attested high frequency usage in the curriculum baseline vocabulary and across the curriculum (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). Although general in nature, they often include common words from such content subjects as mathematics, natural sciences, and life skills. These dictionaries contain medium-sized articles which do not display a comprehensive nature in monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual form (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

Three monolingual English dictionaries published by Oxford University Press and a fourth published by Penguin Books were found. Of the Oxford dictionaries, two were described as school dictionaries, that is, the *Oxford South African School Dictionary* published in 2004 and another tattered copy of the *Oxford South African School Dictionary* which may also have been published in 2004. These dictionaries were the same in scope and size, and both had 550 pages. Both dictionaries were written for primary and secondary school learners. In both dictionaries it is stated that they were a resource to identify and define frequently used words in the context of the classroom and in written language. So, this implied that words in these dictionaries were judged the most frequently used words. Although published by Oxford, the dictionaries reflected local South African sensibilities and usage.

This was indicated by the inclusion of words borrowed from South African languages, such as isiZulu (e.g., *mamba*, *zol*, *tshwala*) and Afrikaans (e.g., *klaar uit*; *boerewors; boerekos*). The third

dictionary published by Oxford University Press, the *Colour Oxford English Dictionary*, was published in 2002. This dictionary was also a monolingual English dictionary. It was bigger in size than the *Oxford South African School Dictionary*, with approximately 823 pages. The headwords were coded in blue so that they could be easily identified against the definitions, which were in black. In the preface it was stated that "This dictionary will be particularly useful for school students, and in the UK is ideal for students at Key Stage 3 National Curriculum" Angus & Julia (2001, p. ii), roughly the equivalent of the South African Grades 7, 8 and 9. The monolingual English dictionary, *The Penguin English Dictionary*, was published in 1984. This dictionary was dense with a great number of lemmas, a small and fine print size, and approximately 842 pages.

Figure 6.1

The Penguin English Dictionary.

abandoned [*aband*ond] *adj* forsaken; given up to evil influences; immoral, profligate.
abandonee [abandon*ee*] *n* underwriter who accepts the salvage of a wrecked vessel.
abandonment [*abandon*ment] *n* act of abandoning.
abase [*abays*] *v/t* degrade, humiliate.
abasement [*abays*ment] *n* state of being abased; humiliation.
abash [*abash*] *v/t* cause to feel shy, disconcert.
abate [*abayt*] *v/t* and *i* lessen, reduce; grow less, weaken, become null and void; (*leg*) bring to an end ~ **abatable** *adj* capable of being abated.
abatement [*abayt*ment] *n* decrease, deduction; (*leg*) annulling, destruction; (*her*) a mark of dishonour in a coat of arms.
abattoir [*ab*atwaar] *n* (*Fr*) slaughter-house.
abb [*ab*] *n* yarn for the woof or weft in a web.
abba [*aba*] *n* father; title of a bishop in the Syriac and Coptic churches.
abbacy [*ab*esi] *n* office, dignity, jurisdiction or tenure of an abbot.
abbatial [*abaysh*al] *adj* pertaining to an abbacy, abbot, or abbess.
abbé [abay] *n* title given to a French priest.
abbess [*ab*es] *n* mother superior of a convent.
abbey [*ab*i] *n* religious house of either men or women celibates, ruled over by an abbot or abbess; buildings housing such a community; church formerly part of an abbey; dwelling house converted from abbey buildings.
abbot [*ab*ot] *n* male superior or head of an abbey or monastery ~ **abbotship** *n* abbacy.
aberrant [*abe*Rant] *adj* wandering from right path; (*biol*) with characteristics not in accordance with type; abnormal.
aberration [abe*Ray*shon] *n* deviation from the normal; moral or mental disorder; (*astron*) variation in the apparent position of a star or heavenly body, due to the motion of the observer with the Earth; (*opt*) failure of parallel rays of light to converge to a single point focus when passing through an optical system >PDP, PDS ~ **aberrational** *adj* eccentric.
abet (*pres/part* **abetting**, *p/t* and *p/part* **abetted**) [*abet*] *v/t* encourage, incite (*esp* to wrong-doing); instigate (a crime) ~ **abetment** *n*.
abettor, abetter [*abet*er] *n* one who abets (another's crime).
abeyance [*abay*ens] *n* temporary inactivity, suspension; **in a.** (*leg*) without a claimant ~ **abeyant** *adj* dormant.
abhor (*pres/part* **abhorring**, *p/t* **abhorred**) [ab*hawr*] *v/t* shrink from with disgust, loathe.
abhorrence [ab*ho*Rens] *n* act of abhorring; loathing, disgust.
abhorrent [ab*ho*Rent] *adj* repugnant, hateful; feeling abhorrence (of) ~ **abhorrently** *adv*.
abidance [ab*I*dens] *n* remaining, continuance; **a. by** conformity to.
abide (*p/t* and *p/part* **abode, abided**) [ab*Id*] *v/i* and *t* remain, stay, dwell; **a. by** hold to, remain faithful to; await; endure, stand up to; **I cannot a.** I cannot put up with.
abiding [ab*I*ding] *adj* permanent, enduring.
abigail [*abi*gayl] *n* (*obs coll*) lady's maid.

In the introduction to *The Penguin English Dictionary*, it is mentioned that it was a general English dictionary which contains, and records, modern English and a selection of its vocabulary is meant to reflect usage in the mid-twentieth century. Furthermore, it says it drew from both British and American English corpora as "the foreign reader frequently finds himself faced with Americanisms without necessarily realising their origin and understanding their meaning" (Garmonsway & Simpson, 1984, p. vii). Furthermore, this dictionary emphasised that "the indication (US) means that a word, or a particular meaning of a word, is not, at present, assimilated into British usage" (Garmonsway & Simpson, 1984, p. vii). This dictionary is the same size as the *Colour Oxford English Dictionary*.

The DBE explicitly underscores the need for dictionaries to support teaching and learning in language subjects. The challenge is that the emphasis is not made regarding the content subjects in order for learners to access the meaning of social sciences, mathematics and physical science terminology, learners in the Intermediate and Senior Phases need to be able to use dictionaries effectively, and dictionaries should focus on a South African corpus instead of United Kingdom and American corpus which is less familiar to most students in these phases.

IsiXhosa speaking learners, who are second language speakers of English, need access to appropriate dictionaries at the beginning of the Intermediate Phase, that is, Grade 4. This is because it is during this grade that they will, for the first time, be taught all their content subjects in English and their HL will be limited to the relevant language lessons. CAPS is, however, not explicit on the use of dictionaries in content subjects in all subjects beyond the Foundation Phase, for instance in Natural Science and Mathematics. For content subjects, CAPS only requires every learner to have a textbook as a resource.

English FAL learners are still at the early stages of developing their basic communication skills in English at the start of Grade 4 and are simultaneously required to develop a cognitive academic language proficiency in English (Cummins, 2021). Appropriate dictionaries could assist in mediating the switch from learning through a home language in the Foundation Phase to learning through a second language in the Intermediate Phase and develop a cognitive academic proficiency.

The following section evaluates the identified dictionaries to determine whether they could meet the needs of English FAL learners. It considers the following aspects: relevance of lemmas defined in dictionaries; parts of speech; singular and plural forms for nouns; and example usage to illustrate meaning of certain word for the learners in the Intermediate Phase. Table 6.2 provides a list of key words extracted from lessons in classes and are discussed according to dictionary user needs of learners.

6.4 CHALLENGING WORDS FROM LESSONS

Dictionaries should meet the needs for which they are designed. As noted earlier, the focus of this chapter is to evaluate and analyse whether dictionaries found in the classrooms meet the cognitive needs of learners in the Intermediate Phase. Tarp (2010) argued that a learner's dictionary should present entries that satisfy cognitive, communicative, or practical needs of target users. Learners' cognitive needs can be addressed if the dictionary includes and explains the meaning of words related to the content of a particular learning area. In contrast to dictionaries, neither textbooks nor other information sources were primarily designed to assist learners with punctual and situation-dependent information needs (Tarp, 2010).

Challenging words and vocabulary issues arising from texts used in the classroom during teaching and learning were documented during lesson observations. Lesson observation as discussed in this chapter differed from that in Chapter 5 where teachers were encouraged to use any or all dictionaries available to them during a lesson. The purpose was to gather information about the types of dictionaries teachers used, and to find out if the learners were able to use dictionaries. Learners were encouraged to keep written journals of difficult words they encountered during lessons. The researcher worked with learners to check if the words were contained in the dictionary and whether the definitions clarified the words so that learners understood them. Table 6.2 presents lists of the vocabulary collected from the written journals during observation of the 6 lessons.

Table 6.2

Words collected from the written journals of learners during observation of the 6 lessons.

Column:1	**Column:2**	**Column:3**	**Column:4**	**Column:5**	**Column:6**
English Lesson	**Technology Lesson**	**English Lesson**	**Life skills Lesson**	**Maths Lesson**	**Maths Lesson**
Outgoing	diagonal	Affectionately	Belief	measure angles	acute
Saved	Depth	procedure	Attitude	constructing angles	obtuse
*Confront	Width	transform	Values	measure line	*straight angle
Resolve	Height	fan	Conform	Angles	right angle
Concern	*dimensions	Follower	peer pressure	*line segment	
	measurements	dermatology	Stealing	Round, around	
	*two (2) dimensional	Wrinkles	Bullying		
	*three (3) dimensional	Pigmentation	Drinking		
		*line-up	bad sexual behaviour		
			Aggressive		

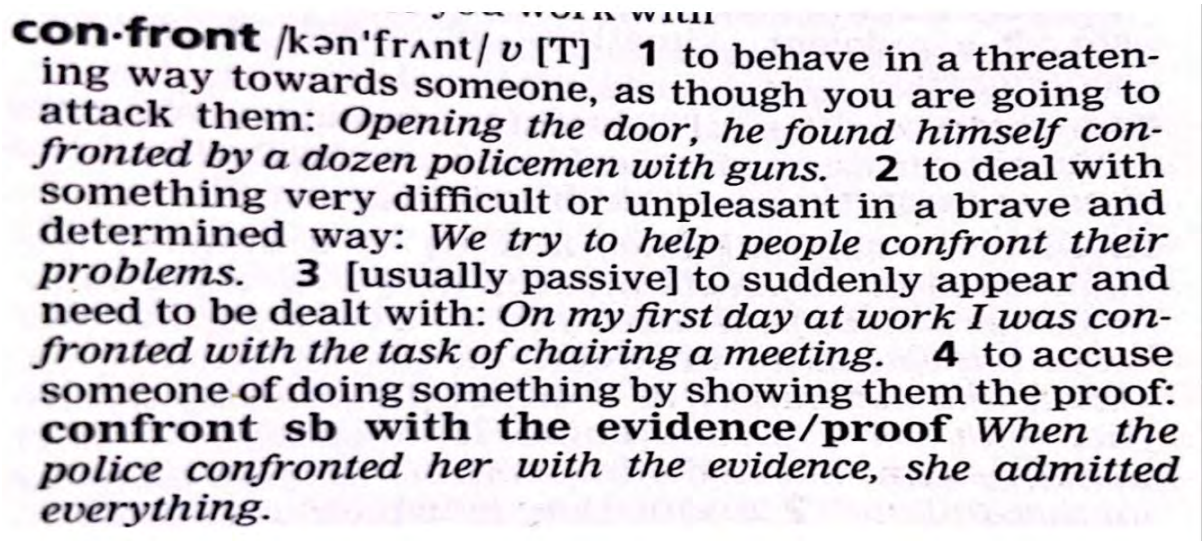
Title of Dictionary used to look for words	Title of Dictionary used to look for words	Title of Dictionary used to look for word	Title of Dictionary used to look for word	Title of Dictionary used to look for word	Title of Dictionary used to look for word
1. *Longman Contemporary ENGLISH Dictionary* 2. *Oxford School Dictionary*	1. *The Penguin English Dictionary*	1. *Oxford ENGLISH Dictionary* 2. *Pictorial English Schools Dictionary*	*Colour Oxford English Dictionary*	1. Oxford School Dictionary 2. Oxford School Dictionary	1. *Pictorial English & Afrikaans dictionary* 2. *Oxford School Dictionary*

6.5 DISCUSSION OF THE AVAILABILITY OF WORDS IN DICTIONARIES

During Lesson 1 the teacher used an English story. During the lesson learners came across words they did not know. The teacher instructed learners to look up the words listed in *(see column 1 in Table 6.2 for the entire list*) a dictionary. The teacher used the dictionary as a resource to support language teaching and learning. The teacher divided learners into two groups of twenty-five (25) learners each, and each group had a dictionary, the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary* and the *South African Oxford School Dictionary* respectively. Learners took a long time to look up the words, which suggested they were not familiar with using dictionaries. The teacher assisted learners to locate the words. After some time, the first group of learners managed to locate the word "confront" in the Longman dictionary, which offered four (4) senses in which the word could be used.

Figure 6.2

Longman Contemporary English Dictionary.



con·front /kən'frʌnt/ *v* [T] **1** to behave in a threatening way towards someone, as though you are going to attack them: *Opening the door, he found himself confronted by a dozen policemen with guns.* **2** to deal with something very difficult or unpleasant in a brave and determined way: *We try to help people confront their problems.* **3** [usually passive] to suddenly appear and need to be dealt with: *On my first day at work I was confronted with the task of chairing a meeting.* **4** to accuse someone of doing something by showing them the proof: **confront sb with the evidence/proof** *When the police confronted her with the evidence, she admitted everything.*

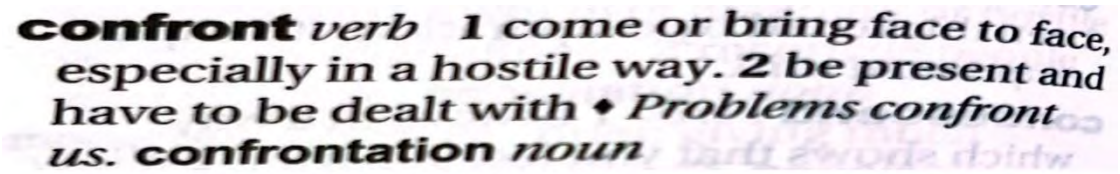
The group selected sense (1) of the entry word "confront", giving the meaning as "to behave in a threatening way towards someone as though you are going to attack him/her" Longman Contemporary English (Procter 1978, p. 286).

While this was the correct way in which the word was used in this context, when the teacher asked the group to explain the word "threatening", they could not do so. The teacher then asked the group to explain the word in their first language (isiXhosa), but it was too difficult for them, and they could not explain the word. The second group used the Oxford dictionary and located the word "confront" immediately after the first group. The Oxford dictionary is less dense than the Longman one, but this group took as long as the first group to find the word, again pointing to the fact that the learners' dictionary user skills were lacking. Resistance to dictionary use is a world-wide tendency, especially among school pupils, and it is fact that most students lack adequate reference

skills (Carstens, 1995). The Oxford dictionary provided two (2) senses in which the word "confront" was used. The first was, "come or bring face to face, especially in a hostile way". The teacher asked the learners to explain the word "hostile" in isiXhosa and one learner was able to give the isiXhosa equivalent, "*ndlongondlo*".

Figure 6.3

South African Oxford School Dictionary.


confront *verb* **1** come or bring face to face, especially in a hostile way. **2** be present and have to be dealt with ◆ *Problems confront us.* **confrontation** *noun*

The two dictionaries explained the word "confront" in slightly different ways. `The entry from the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*, shown in Figure 6.2, provided four (4) explanations with examples, with sense 1 preceded with "*v*", the abbreviation for a verb. In the entry from the *South African Oxford School Dictionary*, shown in Figure 6.3, the explanation is precise and to the point with only two (2) senses given, the first for the word as a verb and the second as a noun. Unlike the entry shown in Figure 6.2, the parts of speech were written in full. Learners struggled equally with both dictionaries, and they needed help from the teacher to locate the words and to understand the explanations given in the dictionaries.

In the Technology lesson, the goal was to teach learners about the dimensions of shapes. The teacher used a white board, first informing learners he was going to draw diagonal lines. After he had drawn the lines, he asked learners to point out dimensional measurements, such as *depth*, *width*, and *height*. Most learners struggled to understand the idea of a diagonal line. The teacher explained it as a "line in which the measurements emerged", without alluding to depth, width, and height which a diagonal line could be used to measure. At that stage, the teacher asked the learners to search for the word "diagonal" in the *Penguin English Dictionary*, the only one available during the class. He also asked the learners to look up other words which he felt were important to understand (see column 2 in Table 6.2). He told learners that the subject of Technology did not have its own dictionaries and hence he relied on a general dictionary as well as on drawings to

help clarify difficult ideas. In this lesson learners used and passed around the sole dictionary available in the classroom, the *Penguin English Dictionary*. As in the English lesson, learners struggled to locate the word "diagonal" in the dictionary. Although English, unlike isiXhosa, has a relatively less complicated system of lemmatisation of words, for learners in this Grade searching for the words was still a difficult task, and when they managed to find the word, they often did not understand the grammatical aspects. They also found it difficult to provide equivalents in their home language. In this case, learners failed to locate the word in the dictionary, and the teacher did not help them. The *Penguin English Dictionary*, however, defined it as an adjective and as a noun and noun.

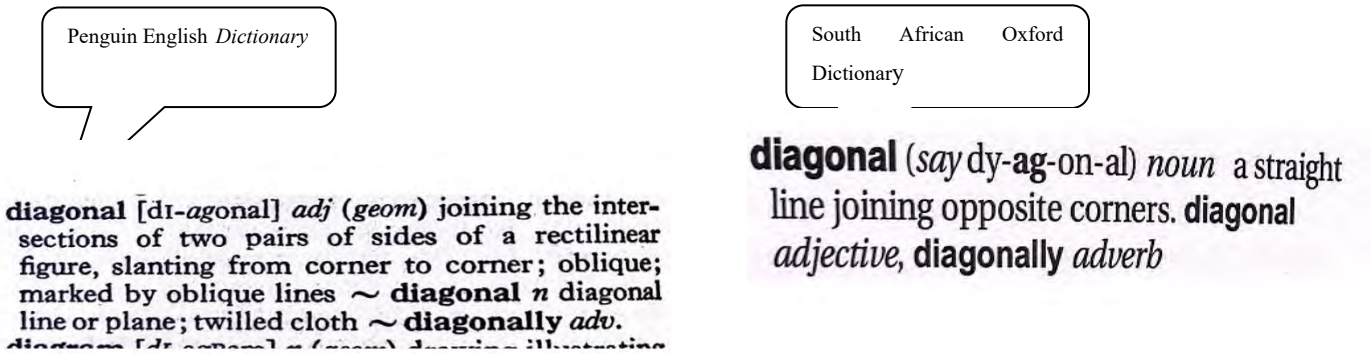


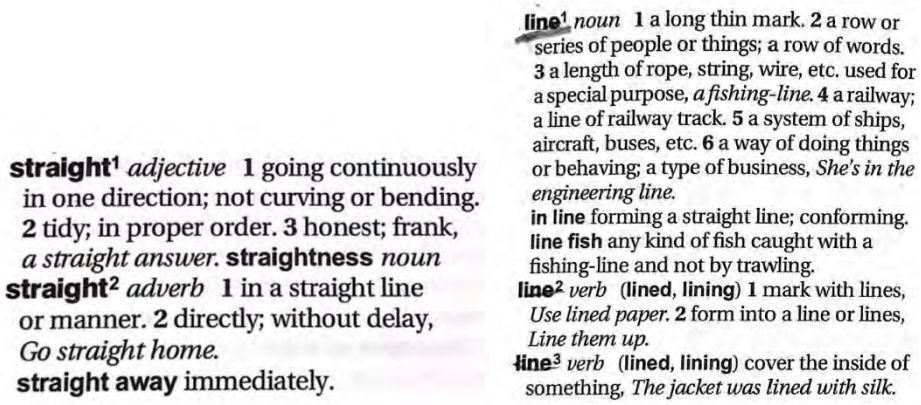
Figure 6.4: *Penguin English Dictionary & South African Oxford School Dictionary*.

As with lessons, some dictionaries give the meaning of words with other difficult words that then need to be explained to second language users of English, in particular learners. After the lesson, the researcher checked the word "diagonal" (noun and adjective) in the *South African Oxford Dictionary*, a dictionary which was not available during this lesson. In this dictionary the word was explained as a noun referring to "*a straight line joining opposite corners*" (author, date, p no), ahead of the adjectival sense. The definition was not that different from the explanation in the *Penguin English Dictionary*, but it was presented in a simpler manner. The quality of explanations varies from author to author. In Figure 6.4 it can be seen that the *Penguin English Dictionary* was definitive and gave long explanations whereas the *South African Oxford Dictionary* was short, precise, and more relevant to learners. The level at which the meaning of words is provided is crucial as primary school learners are at the emergent stage of language development.

Lessons 5 and 6 dealt with mathematics and the teachers also asked learners to look up words. During these lessons, learners could not find some of the specific mathematics terms in the available general dictionaries. To illustrate this claim, the researcher picked up two compound terms which were not located in the dictionaries, specifically, "line segment" and "straight angle". These words were neither explained in the two (2) textbooks provided (*Platinum Mathematics for Grades 4*), nor in the *South African Oxford School Dictionary* which was in circulation during these lessons. For instance, the entry "line" in the above dictionary was explained in three (3) senses. The first was as a noun, meaning "1. A long thin mark 2.a row or series of people or things", listing about six (6) contexts in which this word could be used. The second sense was as a verb "(lined, lining) 1. Mark with lines, use lined paper 2. Form into a line or lines, Line them up" and third one as verb as well.

Figure 6.5

South African Oxford School Dictionary.



straight[1] *adjective* **1** going continuously in one direction; not curving or bending. **2** tidy; in proper order. **3** honest; frank, *a straight answer.* **straightness** *noun*
straight[2] *adverb* **1** in a straight line or manner. **2** directly; without delay, *Go straight home.*
straight away immediately.

line[1] *noun* **1** a long thin mark. **2** a row or series of people or things; a row of words. **3** a length of rope, string, wire, etc. used for a special purpose, *a fishing-line.* **4** a railway; a line of railway track. **5** a system of ships, aircraft, buses, etc. **6** a way of doing things or behaving; a type of business, *She's in the engineering line.*
in line forming a straight line; conforming.
line fish any kind of fish caught with a fishing-line and not by trawling.
line[2] *verb* (**lined, lining**) **1** mark with lines, *Use lined paper.* **2** form into a line or lines, *Line them up.*
line[3] *verb* (**lined, lining**) cover the inside of something, *The jacket was lined with silk.*

The semantic extension of the word "line" to explain a "line segment" could not be located under the entry. The same applied to the compound word "straight angle", with only the word "straight" located in the dictionary as an adjective with three (3) senses and as an adverb with two (2) senses. Thus, the researcher concluded that both textbooks and dictionaries available in these classes did not meet the cognitive needs of learners in understanding the content of mathematics. While useful, some dictionaries were not written for English second language Intermediate Phase learners. The

definitions contained too many words that themselves needing explanation, thus triggering a potentially endless process of looking up words. While the general dictionaries used in the classrooms contained some specialised terms used in the technology and mathematics lessons, there were not enough of them.

6.5.1 USER-FRIENDLINESS OF DEFINITIONS

Dictionaries should meet the needs of target users and be accessible to them. Users should be able to utilise dictionaries to, for instance, extend their knowledge of their mother tongue, learn foreign languages, or decode languages (Hartmann, 2016). Typically, the language, metalanguage, and content of a dictionary reflects the knowledge, communication, and educational level of the intended target user group. Some dictionaries found in the classrooms were monolingual English dictionaries in which neither the use of language nor the content were calibrated for FAL learners, except for the South African Oxford school dictionaries which, however, also needed to be reviewed. The researcher noted that some dictionaries were too advanced for learners of the Intermediate Phase (see Figure 6.1, the *Penguin English Dictionary*, and Figure 6.2, the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*). This speaks to the issue of the user-friendliness of these dictionaries which made it difficult for the teachers to retrieve information, becoming more challenging for the learners. As the research illustrated in Figure 6.1. and Figure 6.2 of extracted text from these dictionaries, some lemmas were treated 4 to 6 times in some dictionaries and with several word senses, which made it difficult for learners to select the most appropriate meaning. Furthermore, the *Longman, Penguin, and Colour Oxford* dictionaries had detailed definitions or explanations as indicated above which were too advanced for primary school learners.

Some had sentence examples in which the target entries were used, which is generally a good thing, but the examples were often too complicated to achieve the purpose of illustrating the meaning of the word or entry. The issue of dictionary culture and lack of user skills of both teachers and learners contributed to difficulties with the dictionaries. Thus, most learners found it difficult to understand symbols or abbreviations which represented parts of speech, for instance, ‘n’ for noun, and ‘v’ for verb. This was due to the lack of dictionary user skills. Even though this information was explained in the front matter of the dictionaries, because of a lack of dictionary

culture in the schools, the learners did not have the knowledge and understanding of the grammatical information of the lemmas in the dictionaries. The layout and design of some dictionaries made them difficult to read, with the metadata too dense and the lemmas printed in a small font size. Some entries in several dictionaries made brief and clear definitions but failed to provide clear examples of usage or illustrations to support understanding.

One of the dictionaries had no cover, while another had a dark and dull cover which would not appeal to emergent users of dictionaries. Most dictionaries were outdated, having been published more than sixteen years previously, with the implication that they may be out of touch with current language usage. The fact that the dictionaries, with exception of an Oxford dictionary, drew only on Anglo-American corpus meant that South African – especially Black South African – varieties of English were not represented in the dictionaries. This had the effect of making English even more difficult to understand than it already was for learners who used isiXhosa as their primary language.

6.5.2 CULTURAL DATA IN THE DICTIONARIES

According to Roberts (2007), culture refers to heritage, belief, and sense of belonging based on shared geographic territory and language(s). Language is closely linked to culture and the implication of this for dictionary making and use is argued clearly by (Xue 2017):

> "When the conception represented by a L2 lexical item does not belong to the cultural universe of foreign learners, it is necessary to make such part of cultural data apparent to them and help them into the cultural dimension associated with the word for better understanding." (p. 583)

Dictionaries must consider the culture of the user because the meaning of words might be different in the spoken English of isiXhosa-dominant learners. As indicated above, the dictionaries collected from the classrooms were monolingual, unidirectional English dictionaries, apart from a bilingual English-Afrikaans dictionary. In the preface to the *South African Oxford School Dictionary*, it was stated that words from other languages were included, for example:

> …impala from Zulu, kloof from Afrikaans, nyala from Venda and Tsonga, abacus from Greek, bovine from Latin, ubuntu, songololo and stokvel which are commonly used in Nguni languages. (Victor, 2004, p. vii)

The selected words and phrase from the lessons shown in Table 6.2 illustrates the need for awareness of how isiXhosa culture can influence the way that English items found in a dictionary could be interpreted by isiXhosa users. From Lesson 1, the word "confront" is equivalent to *ukunqangisa* and would not be used by isiXhosa speakers in this context because children are not expected to be confrontational with their elders. A more appropriate word here would be *ukuxoxisa*, which means to begin an argument with someone. The understandings of the words "confront" or "confrontational" are associated with disrespect in African cultures. From Lesson 4, the clause "bad sexual behaviour" is derogatory, especially for women, with various connotations given, such as *ihule*, *isifebe*, *isikhebereshe*. These all imply a loose woman, although it was not explained in the lesson nor was this available in the *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* which was available during teaching (see column 4 in Table 6.2). The researcher searched for the word "*ihule*" in *Isichazi-magama sesiXhosa*, which was not part of this lesson, and found the meaning given as "*ihenyukazi, isifebe, unondindwa okanye ibhinqa elinamadoda amaninzi*" *(*Tshabe et al. 2008, p. 230). When applied to men, on the other hand, the phrase "bad sexual behaviour" could have the opposite meaning, suggesting words like *udlalani*, or playboy. In *Isichazi-magama sesiXhosa* the term "*udlalani*" means "*umfo oneentokazi eziliqela ngexesha elinye ancuma nazo*" Tshabe et al. (2008, p. 119) giving a positive connotation for a man of the same phrase. If dictionaries were sensitive to the culture of users in this way, it might not only help learners find accurate meanings but also to be critically aware of their own culture and how some of harmful practices are embedded in the ways in which language is used. Unfortunately, most English dictionaries take the Western world view as universal.

Mavoungou et al. (2003) observed that cultural gaps between Gabonese and European languages (French, in particular) played an important role in the changing of meaning of numerous words in French in dictionaries used in Gabon. He warns lexicographers that alienating the cultural way of understanding our world and environment is tantamount to producing culturally insensitive

dictionaries that do not fulfil user needs. It also indicated that vulgar words were marked with the warning that they could be highly offensive to most social groups. This was a crucial feature for users, especially for emergent learners in the Intermediate Phase of schooling, so that words could be used in context. One wonders if dictionaries for this level need to have vulgar words at all, as most words in such dictionaries should be curriculum-based.

6.6 DESIGN AND STRUCTURAL ASPECTS OF THE DICTIONARIES

Dictionaries as lexicographic tools are designed to cater for the needs of users, so both the design and the structure of a particular dictionary should be shaped to fulfil those needs. Therefore, during the conceptualisation stage of a dictionary, the lexicographer must always keep the target user of a dictionary in mind. For a dictionary to cater for the needs of users the lexicographer must carefully consider the front matter, microstructural and macrostructural features, and the back matter. This section discusses these issues in relation to the dictionaries found in the Intermediate Phase classrooms that were observed for this research. During the critique and contrast of the dictionaries listed in Table 6.1, the researcher considered their relevance and user-friendliness for the learners at this level, taking the user needs into account in interrogating the features of these resources.

6.6.1 Front matter of dictionaries

The front matter of the above dictionaries was included an introduction as a guide to the user. Some dictionaries preferred to refer to this as a preface and the material was treated in different styles and with different structures. In the ways they were explained or illustrated, the content of the introductory matter differed significantly. The user guides of the following dictionaries differed from dictionary to dictionary, and the front matter of these dictionaries will be discussed in this section: *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*; the *Penguin English Dictionary*: *Colour Oxford English Dictionary*; the *South African Oxford School Dictionary*; *Oxford Mini School Dictionary*; and *Oxford Mini Skoolwoordeboek/School Dictionary*.

According to Gouws (2004), a distinction is made between primary frame structures and secondary frame structures, and attention is drawn to the use of complex outer texts and the need of an extended complex outer text with its own table of contents to guide the user to the relevant texts. As lexicographic products produced by different lexicographers and published by different

publishers with different in-house publishing styles, dictionaries have different ways to approach the front matter which forms part of the outer text.

On the front matter, the *Longman Contemporary of English Dictionary* has a brief introduction which states that throughout the dictionary solutions were found for problems experienced by teachers of English and students from intermediate to advanced levels. Briefly, the front matter of this dictionary deals with the following amongst others:

> it provides (i) explanatory chart which gives pronunciation of words, parts of speech, words that spelled the same but belong to different classes etc. (ii) it also provides the guide how to find kind of words you are looking for i.e. compounds, homographs and idioms, teaches also about understanding meaning of words (iii) collocations, frequency of words (iv) Grammatical nuances, word classes, inflections (v) spelling differences of British and American English.

The emphasis is placed on four lexicographic matters. Firstly, rapid access is important and users, especially students, should not have to wade through several irrelevant meanings. Secondly, the dictionary emphasises spoken English, catering for variety of spoken English and including American English with the British English corpus. The coverage of the corpus, therefore, is Anglo-American English. Thirdly, it is emphasised that Longman had built up a frequency corpus for these countries for the 10-year period prior to publication, and those frequently used words included in the dictionary relied on authentic data from these two countries. Fourth and lastly, the introduction placed more emphasis on how the lemmas are treated in this dictionary in that it had catered for phrases and collocations because the English language is mostly expressed through the combination of words. In conclusion of the introduction, the authors of this dictionary expressed the hope that users would find the resource useful and informative. A dictionary guide was included in the front matter, providing the contents of the dictionary, and dealing with such matters as how to find compound words, phrasal verbs, and other types of headwords.

It also provided detailed information on how lemmas, definitions, example sentences, collocations, ways of finding the meaning of words, how frequency words are treated and a great deal of grammatical information on word classes, inflections, verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs, pronunciation, and spelling differences. All this information was dealt with in a comprehensive

and specialised grammatical manner. Therefore, one had to study the guide of the dictionary carefully to understand and use grammatical nuances correctly.

Copies of both the second and third editions of the *South African Oxford School Dictionary* were found in the classrooms for the use of the learners. It was interesting to note in the introduction that this dictionary was written for South African learners in the Foundation Phase, General Education and Training, and Further Education and Training phases. The front matter for both dictionaries provided for the following, amongst others:

- They emphasised that they were dealing with South African English, which is the second language for most learners, which serves as a lingua franca for most students who speak African languages. It also emphasised that some of the entries came from a variety of languages, including South African languages.
- Both dictionaries provided a guide on how to use the dictionary which outlined finding words and definitions, more information about the words, for example, parts of speech, inflections, and plurals, and also illustrative examples on the use of words. The dictionaries also provided information on issues of spelling on certain words and pronunciation.
- The dictionaries also provided user activities, for example, a science vocabulary quiz and vocabulary chains activities.

The corpus of these dictionaries was selected from different learning areas, such as mathematics, natural sciences, social sciences, technology, arts and culture, and languages. The *South African Oxford School Dictionary* considered English in two ways. When English was viewed as a global language, it catered for British, American and Australian English, as well as South African English. In the introductory matter, it was mentioned that the corpus included words of Greek, Latin, and French origin, for instance, physics, compute, radius, architecture, educate, and history.

Furthermore, it stated that learners were assisted with pronunciation of difficult words in a simple way and without using special symbols which the learners would otherwise have found difficult to understand. Difficult concepts were clearly defined and many example sentences were provided in which the words were used in context. Although this dictionary was characterised as a general language dictionary, it included several items borrowed from other South African languages, such

as toyi-toyi, kraal, songololo, tshwala, mampoer, boeresport, and mamba. It is also mentioned that an attempt was not made to include slang words in entries. This dictionary chose words from sources based on the likelihood of senior primary and secondary pupils encountering these words in general print. The guide on how to use this dictionary was simple and clear, unlike the comprehensive *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*. Instructions on how to find words and definitions were illustrated by a few examples which related to grammatical senses that the user needed to know, that is, it showed words that were used as both verbs and nouns. For example, the words "peer" and "jump" were used as both nouns and verbs.

A first sense was provided for polysemous words together with examples for the use of the word. It also included the example of words that were defined by using phrases, for instance, the word "jump", which was used as a noun and a verb in phrasal explanation. Parts of speech were also shown, and it was explained how to find the meaning of words, abbreviations, derivatives from verbs, and nouns. This dictionary also provided user notes on how to avoid confusing certain words, for example, "complimentary" is an adjective which should not be confused with "complementary". This was a simple and straightforward guide for a learner with elementary dictionary user skills.

The abridged small pocket dictionaries found included one monolingual English dictionary and a bilingual English and Afrikaans dictionary. The contents page of the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary* showed the page numbers of the preface and other dictionary sections. In the preface, it was stated that the dictionary was written for learners aged ten (10) and above, while in the introduction it was mentioned that it was a useful tool which could be used in the home and school, emphasising that because it was small, it was portable. Furthermore, it explained that it contained a wide range of curriculum vocabulary.

The function of the dictionary was to help learners develop English language skills, and equip them with excellent reading, writing, and speaking skills. On the front matter, it also provided the dictionary features, as shown in Figure 6.6.

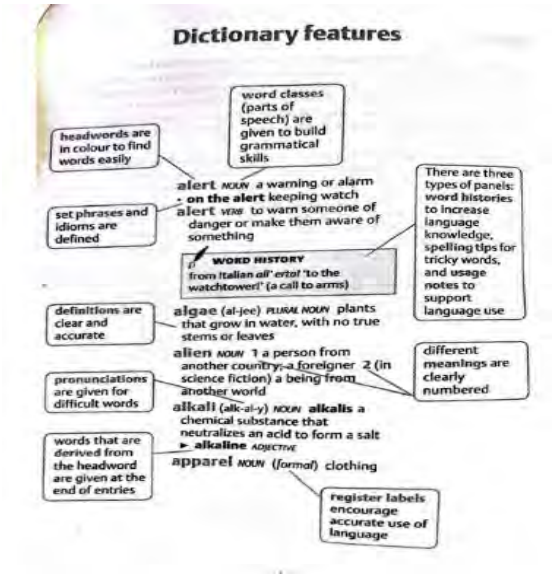
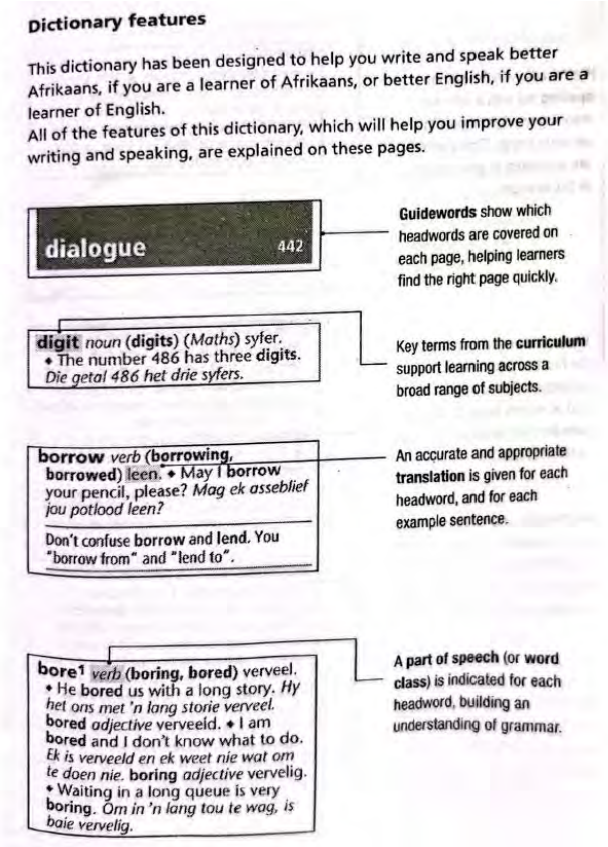


Figure 6.6 *Oxford Mini School Dictionary.*

The *Oxford Mini Skoolwoordeboek/School Dictionary* was a bidirectional Afrikaans and English dictionary. This copy was well used and was in poor condition, with the preface page torn off and missing, and without a cover. Some pages had also been lost as the first page began with a description of the features of the dictionary, that is, headwords, different meaning of words, parts of speech, pronunciation, and examples of use. The features of both the mini-English and bidirectional Afrikaans and English dictionaries were identical as both were produced by the same publisher, albeit for different purposes.

The specific purpose of the mini dictionary of Afrikaans and English was to assist Afrikaans learners with English and vice versa, to assist English learners with Afrikaans. On the front matter, it also provided the dictionary features as shown in Figure 6.7.

Figure 7 : Oxford mini Skoolwoordeboek/ School Dictionary.



Dictionary features

This dictionary has been designed to help you write and speak better Afrikaans, if you are a learner of Afrikaans, or better English, if you are a learner of English.
All of the features of this dictionary, which will help you improve your writing and speaking, are explained on these pages.

dialogue 442

Guidewords show which headwords are covered on each page, helping learners find the right page quickly.

digit *noun* (**digits**) (*Maths*) syfer. • The number 486 has three **digits**. *Die getal 486 het drie syfers.*

Key terms from the **curriculum** support learning across a broad range of subjects.

borrow *verb* (**borrowing, borrowed**) leen. • May I **borrow** your pencil, please? *Mag ek asseblief jou potlood leen?*

Don't confuse **borrow** and **lend**. You "borrow from" and "lend to".

An accurate and appropriate **translation** is given for each headword, and for each example sentence.

bore[1] *verb* (**boring, bored**) verveel. • He **bored** us with a long story. *Hy het ons met 'n lang storie verveel.* **bored** *adjective* verveeld. • I am **bored** and I don't know what to do. *Ek is verveeld en ek weet nie wat om te doen nie.* **boring** *adjective* vervelig. • Waiting in a long queue is very **boring**. *Om in 'n lang tou te wag, is baie vervelig.*

A **part of speech** (or **word class**) is indicated for each headword, building an understanding of grammar.

In the preface the *Penguin English Dictionary* emphasised that the aim of the dictionary was to capture and record modern English (at the time it was published in 1979) and to present a selection of its written and spoken vocabulary in the mid-twentieth century. It provided the following, amongst others: a pronunciation guide table on how to pronounce consonants and vowels; and a list of abbreviations of certain grammatical words. Furthermore, there was an emphasis on the selection of contemporary and colloquial vocabulary and thus a shift from archaisms and obsolete words. Some older vocabulary was included to help the reader understand the writings of past centuries that did not demand specialised knowledge of obsolete forms and phrases.

The preface also indicated that it catered for American vocabulary, with some denoted with (US), meaning that the word, or a particular meaning of the word, was not present or assimilated into British usage. In this dictionary, in the same way as in the *Longman Contemporary English*

Dictionary, the emphasis was on the use of American and British English, unlike the *Oxford South African School Dictionary*. Although these dictionaries refer to the English universal language, the emphasis is placed on South African English and assimilation with other South African languages. The user guide focused on the pronunciation of words by Anglo-American speech communities on issues of accent, hyphens, and other diacritic marks. The dictionary presented a pronunciation table showing the phonetic pronunciation of words and example words, and vowel phonetic prescriptions and examples of words in use. The abbreviations for all grammatical speech forms used in this dictionary were also provided in the preface. The dictionary had comprehensive front matter on how words were treated in this dictionary but little guidance for the user on how to use the dictionary. Unlike the Longman and other Oxford dictionaries, this dictionary did not have a user guide which could assist the user to locate lemmas.

The preface of the *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* stated it provided definitions that were easier to understand than previously. It informed us that this dictionary was intended for British and American English-speaking communities, and the corpus of this dictionary was based on these countries:

> it provides (i) a guide to use this dictionary, it highlights headword, sense number, example of use, it also shows phrases and compounds, it also illustrates usage of words (ii) it also gives geographical labels of words and searches etymology of words (iii) it shows cross references (iv) it also provides pronunciation of words, spelling rules, grammar nuances.

The user guide was defined by using a lemma with headword, meaning of word, part of speech, numbers that define the senses, spelling note, example sentences, pronunciation, cross references, and phonetic prescriptions on the use of vowels and consonants. The introduction also stated this dictionary would be particularly useful for school students and, in the UK, was ideal for students at Key Stage 3 of the National Curriculum. The dictionary dealt with the UK formal, informal, dated, old use, historical, literary, technical, humorous, and dialect.

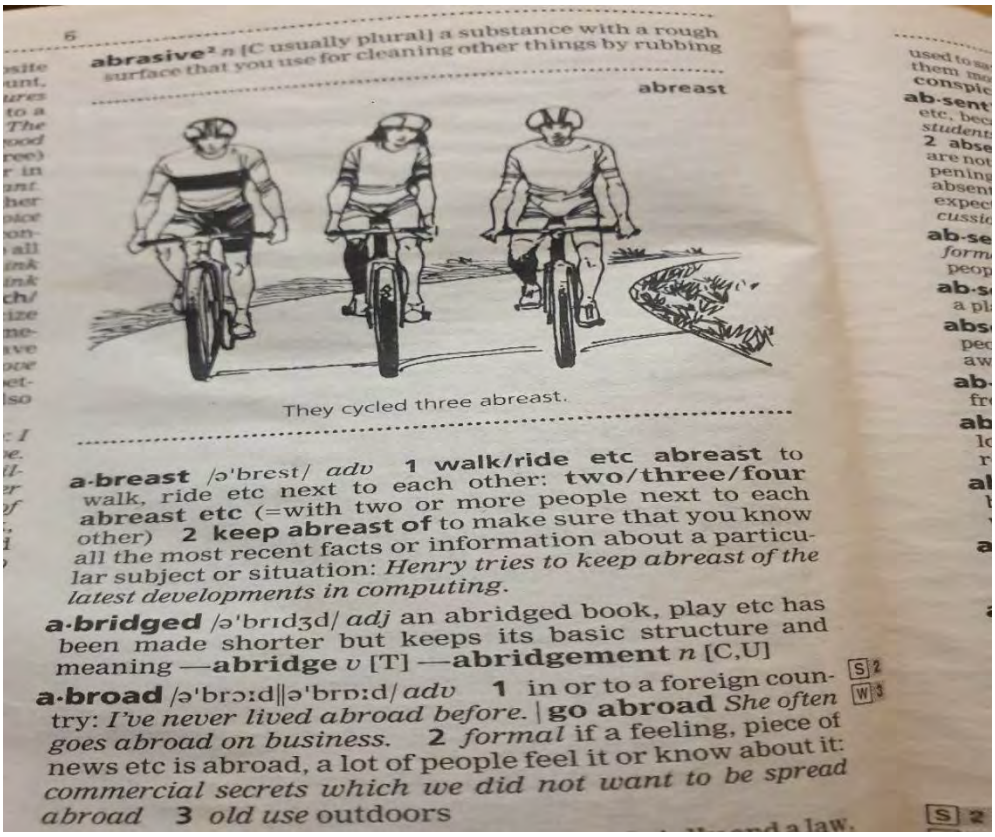
In the same way as the *Penguin English Dictionary*, this dictionary mentioned that it also catered for offensive and vulgar language, but also dealt with other registers as offered by the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary* and *Oxford South African School Dictionary.*

6.7 Macrostructural aspects of dictionaries

In this section the organisation of the lexical items, that is, the lemmas or headwords, in the dictionaries collected during the research are discussed. Any dictionary should be organised in such a way that users can easily retrieve information. Here, the way lemmas were arranged or treated in the dictionaries collected are evaluated for their ease of use by learners in classrooms. While dictionaries were generally available in African languages, lexicographers agreed that those dictionaries generally lacked proper lexicographical planning and, therefore, were not viewed as user-friendly products (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005). The dictionaries evaluated in Table 6.1 are lemmatised following English alphabetic order.

Considering the macrostructural perspective of dictionaries, the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary* was first evaluated. The content of this dictionary was based on corpus data, so it had the most frequently used words in the UK and US, as mentioned in the front matter of the dictionary. Lemmas were arranged alphabetically, and headwords were in bold, arranged vertically, with the polysemy senses of the lemmas arranged horizontally. With the numbers, the arrangement of the content gave the dictionary a cluttered look, with not enough space between the lines. Each lemma was in bold print under the alphabet it belonged to guide the user. This is illustrated in Figure 8.

Figure 8 : *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*.



Headwords were written in lower case letters, except for proper nouns, such as the names of places and people. Each headword was followed by a pronunciation transcription which was hyphenated and separated from the headword and part of speech with forward slashes. Parts of speech were abbreviated, and some lemmas had examples of how the words were used in italics. Senses of words that were the same as the headword were in bold. The example in Figure 6.8 illustrates how the dictionary dealt with definitions of a single entry with different meanings. Figure 6.8 shows an example of the illustration for the entry lemma "abreast", depicting cyclists riding apart from but next to each other. Some pages contained clusters of illustrations, for example, on page 689 black and white pictures of household kitchen utensils were displayed. The illustrations were generally good interpretations of the concepts for learners; however, colourful pictures would be more appealing than black and white and would be more likely to draw the attention of learners. For some entries explanatory notes were provided to avoid misinterpretation of words and confusion with other words, for example, complimentary versus complementary.

This dictionary catered for collocations of words, compound words, and inflections of nouns and verbs, that is, the plural form of nouns and past tense of verbs. It is important to note that not all the compound words were catered for, for example, the phrase "line segment" was not found under the lemma "line". The words "line" and "segment" were treated as separated entries, which meant that for a learner to obtain the meaning of this compound term, they needed to search for both words. Emergent dictionary users, such as the learners who used this dictionary, could find it challenging to use because of the density of content and highly specialised explanation of words.

Contrary to the above dictionary, which had a comprehensive treatment of lemmas, both copies of the *South African Oxford School Dictionary* treated headwords or lemma the same way and were identical, apart from their condition. These dictionaries were written for school use with alphabetised lemmas. Lemmas were arranged in a vertical order. On top of each page in the centre of the header area, the alphabetical letter of the lemmas on that page was written in bold. Lemmas of these dictionaries were explained in a short, brief and to the point form. Headwords were lower case and bold. Lemmas that had the same spelling, but different meaning senses were separated with a number, for example:

> "**design1**: *noun = a drawing for something and* **design 2**: *verb = draw a design for something*" Victor (2004, p. 126)

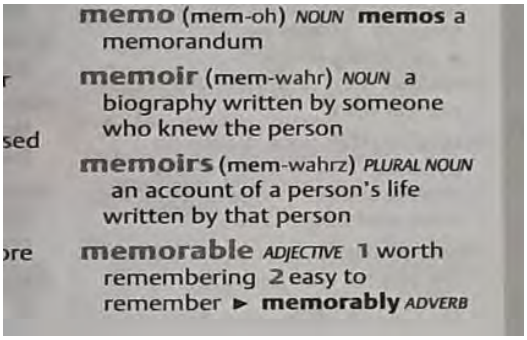
Some dictionaries enter homographs together, while others deal with them as separate lemmas. The Oxford dictionaries treated homographs in the same way as the Longman dictionary by listing the different meanings as separate entries. Parts of speech were written in full instead of abbreviating them and were given in italics. This was because these dictionaries were designed for learners, some of whom might struggle to understand abbreviated parts of speech. Most learners found it easier to comprehend parts of speech when they were written out in full. Some of the lemmas of this dictionary had pronunciation prescriptions, which were given in brackets, the pronunciation of the words divided by hyphens. For example:

desert1: *noun = to pronounce it (one must say, dez-ert)*

This format would then apply for the second meaning of the lemma "desert" as a verb. Verbs were treated with their past verbs which end with (ed). Senses of lemmas were horizontally arranged and in numerical order. Example sentences were in italics so that users could easily identify them.

The content of *Oxford Mini School Dictionary* was arranged with the dictionary entries in a particular order and the headword was bold and in a light grey which was difficult to read. If the headword had another sense, this was highlighted in bold and solid black. The font size of the dictionary was too small to read easily. The layout of the dictionary was in accordance with the aims and usage of the dictionary, which was ultimately to make it portable. In the same way as other dictionaries, lemmas were arranged vertically with numbers if words looked the same but meant different things. The different senses of an entry were arranged horizontally and were numbered if the lemmas had more than one sense. On the left margin of each page of this pocket dictionary the letters A to Z were displayed, with only the letter of the alphabet to which lemmas on the page belonged being highlighted. This dictionary catered for pronunciation of entries, which were shown in brackets parallel to the lemma. Parts of speech were written in full and in bold. It also had a spelling note for some entries, for instance, "mechanization" as noun could also be spelled as "mechanised". Some singular and plural forms of entries were treated separately, as the image from the dictionary in Figure 6.9 shows.

Figure 9 : *Oxford mini–School Dictionary*



Since there are several ways of arranging entries in dictionaries, the O*xford Mini Skoolwoordeboek/School Dictionary* used a different arrangement because this dictionary was a bidirectional Afrikaans and English dictionary.

This dictionary catered for the need of both Afrikaans and English-speaking users, and those users who spoke other African languages. Headwords were arranged alphabetically and listed vertically. Unlike the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary*, the headwords in this dictionary were printed in a clear

solid black and in bold. On the left and right top edge of each page the first letter of the lemma was shown. Entries are treated the same as the *Oxford Mini School Dictionary*, except that this dictionary included Afrikaans and English only sections.

In the *Penguin English Dictionary* lemmas were distinguished with bold and were lower case. The entries from A to Z were arranged vertically, but sub-lemmas, which were also in bold, were arranged horizontally. Words with the same spelling but different meanings were numbered, but lemmas with different senses were marked or divided by a semicolon. In other words, this dictionary identified polysemy with a semicolon rather than a number. Parts of speech were abbreviated with symbols and phonetic pronunciation was provided for most of the entries. Explanation of entries were printed in a small font size which was difficult for the user to read. From the left to the right of the top edge of each page, the first lemma on the page was written in full. This dictionary defined words comprehensively for UK and US speech communities, with some entries carrying a symbol which referred to one of these countries to demonstrate that the entry was commonly used there. The grammatical and phonetical nuances used in this dictionary, as with the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary* made them difficult to use for an ordinary person without a good linguistic repertoire.

Amongst dictionaries collected from schools, the *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* was the only one showing the lemmas in colour, as indicated by the title. This dictionary was arranged alphabetically with lemmas printed in blue. This bright colour attracted the interest of users and made the dictionary user-friendly. Like the Penguin dictionary, it began with the alphabetical letter of the lemma on the top edge of a page, in both capitals and lower case. Headwords were arranged vertically, like the other dictionaries, and words that were written the same but had other meanings and different senses of lemmas were assigned numbers. It also provided spelling and meaning notes for certain words to avoid meaning and orthographic confusion. Parts of speech were written in full, in bold and black, so that the user could find the entry as quickly and easily as possible. The size of the font of this dictionary was large enough to be easily legible.

Pronunciation and cross reference symbols were used to assist the user. Spelling notes were also provided to avoid confusion of certain words. The example sentences of definitions were in italic to be differentiated from the definition or explanation of the lemma.

6.8 THE MICROSTRUCTURAL ASPECTS OF DICTIONARIES

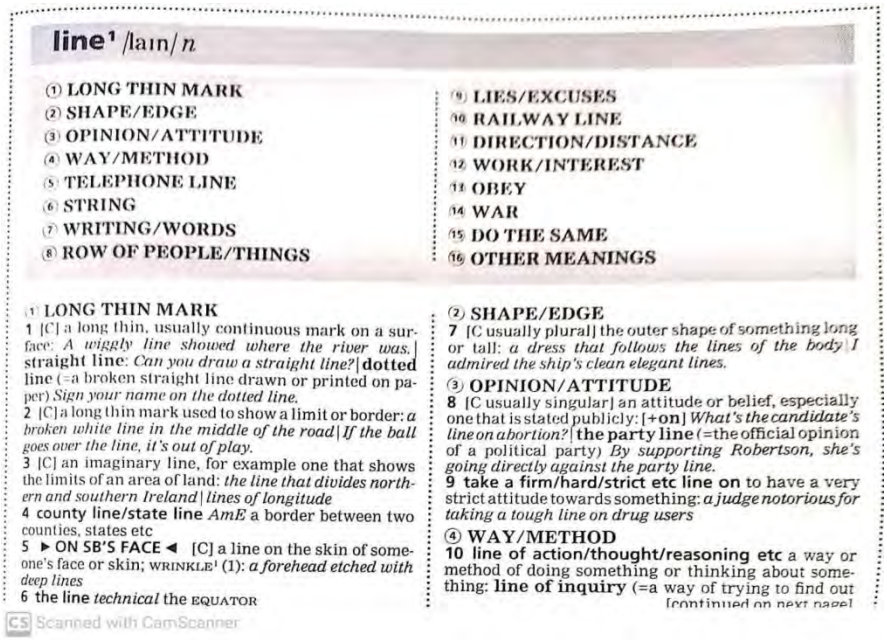
6.8.1 Lemma content: Meaning, parts of speech and example sentences.

This part of the research evaluated the treatment of lemmas in the dictionaries to find out if the dictionaries used in teaching and learning met the cognitive, communicative, and user skill needs of learners in the Intermediate Phase classes. It sought to evaluate how the entries were treated in the collected dictionaries. As resource books for teaching and learning across the curriculum, dictionaries include information on meaning, including definition, explanation and paraphrasing of words, spelling, pronunciation, etymology, example usage of words, and parts of speech. Dictionaries varied on the number of fields included in the microstructure, and number of languages, that is, bilingual dictionaries included equivalent words while monolingual dictionaries included definitions or descriptions of the meaning of the lemma (Humbley, 2018). Furthermore, the general lexicon of the given language would be the subject matter and the treatment allocated to the lemmata would include a variety of data types as indicated in the above explanation (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005).

The focus was on the user-friendliness of these dictionaries in providing relevant microstructural content, and the arrangement of the information with the lexical entry (Jackson, 2002). In the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary* lemmas were defined comprehensively by giving all the related meanings of the entries, which were arranged alphabetically. Where lemmas had more than one meaning, each meaning was treated separately. Since this dictionary was corpus-based, the most frequently used meanings were given first, and other connotations or figurative meanings followed. All grammatical forms of lemmas were treated in this dictionary but, since it was published so many years ago, it had gaps. For instance, as shown in Table 6.2, during Lesson 2 the learners had to locate the meaning of the compound noun, “line segment”. This was not treated as a single entry, forcing learners to search for the entries for the words “line” – which had other collocation meanings attached to it – and “segment”.

The word “line” was explained in this way in the dictionary: “it is a long thin, usually continuous mark on a surface” (Procter, 1978, p.827). The lemma had forty-nine (49) different meanings in this dictionary.

Figure 6.10: *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*



line[1] /laɪn/ *n*

① LONG THIN MARK
② SHAPE/EDGE
③ OPINION/ATTITUDE
④ WAY/METHOD
⑤ TELEPHONE LINE
⑥ STRING
⑦ WRITING/WORDS
⑧ ROW OF PEOPLE/THINGS
⑨ LIES/EXCUSES
⑩ RAILWAY LINE
⑪ DIRECTION/DISTANCE
⑫ WORK/INTEREST
⑬ OBEY
⑭ WAR
⑮ DO THE SAME
⑯ OTHER MEANINGS

① LONG THIN MARK
1 [C] a long thin, usually continuous mark on a surface: *A wiggly line showed where the river was.* | **straight line**: *Can you draw a straight line?* | **dotted line** (=a broken straight line drawn or printed on paper) *Sign your name on the dotted line.*
2 [C] a long thin mark used to show a limit or border: *a broken white line in the middle of the road* | *If the ball goes over the line, it's out of play.*
3 [C] an imaginary line, for example one that shows the limits of an area of land: *the line that divides northern and southern Ireland* | *lines of longitude*
4 **county line/state line** *AmE* a border between two counties, states etc
5 ► **ON SB'S FACE** ◄ [C] a line on the skin of someone's face or skin; WRINKLE[1] (1): *a forehead etched with deep lines*
6 **the line** *technical* the EQUATOR

② SHAPE/EDGE
7 [C usually plural] the outer shape of something long or tall: *a dress that follows the lines of the body* | *I admired the ship's clean elegant lines.*

③ OPINION/ATTITUDE
8 [C usually singular] an attitude or belief, especially one that is stated publicly: [+on] *What's the candidate's line on abortion?* | **the party line** (=the official opinion of a political party) *By supporting Robertson, she's going directly against the party line.*
9 **take a firm/hard/strict etc line on** to have a very strict attitude towards something: *a judge notorious for taking a tough line on drug users*

④ WAY/METHOD
10 **line of action/thought/reasoning etc** a way or method of doing something or thinking about something: **line of inquiry** (=a way of trying to find out

[continued on next page]

Learners in the region where the study was conducted were English first and second additional language speakers and were still at a basic level in the use of English. This made it challenging for them to understand words that were used to define the meaning of entry words before they could even understand the actual meaning of the lemma, for instance, long, thin, continuous, and surface. Thus, the issue of illustrations and example sentences comes into play.

The example sentences used to illustrate the meaning of the word "line" had so many definitions that were confusing for learners in the Intermediate Phase to understand, for example, "a wiggly line showed where the river was" and "can you draw a straight line". There was no cross reference for many words, such as "wiggly" in the dictionary.

This was exacerbated for learners who came from a poor dictionary culture and lacked user skills. As mentioned, the entry for "segment" was treated separately and was also polysemous, with the first meaning given as, "a part of something that is in some way different from or affected, differently from the whole" (Procter, 1978, p. 1286). This definition also contained words that needed to be explained to emergent users of dictionaries, with even the example sentence being

too advanced for learners to understand, that is, “a large segment of the public is against the new tax” p.1286. Both words are nouns, and in this dictionary parts of speech were abbreviated (n = noun, v = verb, adj = adjective, adv = adverb). When learners were asked what these symbols stood for, it was challenging for them to articulate or to give their understanding. This dictionary treated nouns in their singular form, with the plural form of a word being treated under a singular form of the lemma. In the same way, verbal extensions, and past tenses of verbs were treated under the same lemma. The way in which the structure of lemmas was organised was too advanced for the Intermediate Phase learner.

The microstructure of the *South African Oxford School Dictionary* is concise in defining and describing lemmas. Few words were used to define lemmas, making the meaning immediately clear to the learner with English as a second or third language. Although this dictionary had compound entries, when learners were instructed to search for the same compound entry of a “line segment” during the mathematics lesson, this word was not available in this dictionary.

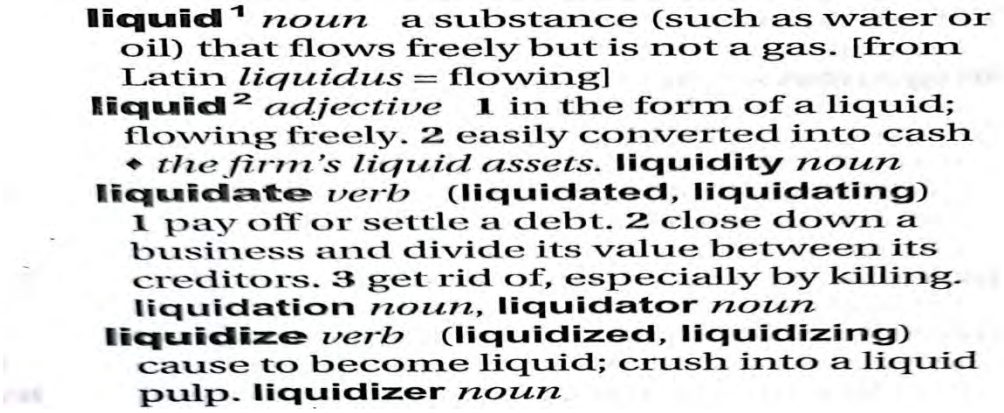
The word “line” had three (3) senses which were polysemous, the first lemma being a noun, and the second and third ones being verbs. The definition of lemmas was short and precise, for example, line, *a* noun= sense 1: a long thin mark, sense 2: is paraphrased, a row or series of people or things; a row of words (Hawkins, 1996, p. 257). The packaging of this lemma was much easier to read and understand when compared with *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary* which was detailed and comprehensive in explaining meaning of entries. Parts of speech were written in full in this dictionary so that learners could easily identify figures of speech. The word “segment”, as a noun, was treated briefly with no extended meanings and additional senses, that is, “a part that is cut off or separates naturally from other parts” (Hawkins, 1996, p. 397).

A clear example of the use of this word was provided, that is, the segment of an orange. As an adjective, “segmented” was also given so that the learner could link the extended meaning of the noun to the adjective.

The *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary* dealt with inflections of nouns (singular, plural, adjectives) and verb extensions (past tense (-ed), continuous (-ing)) in a combined system instead of separating them. The *Oxford Mini School Dictionary* and *Oxford mini Skoolwoordeboek/ School Dictionary* also treated the meanings in a brief and precise manner, and lemmas were lower case and in bold. Like the dictionaries discussed, if the lemma had more than one meaning and

was polysemous, all the different connotations were given. All other extensions, meanings and different senses of this lemma were explained. In the same way as the *South African Oxford School Dictionary*, parts of speech are written in full and bold. This made it easier for learners to read and understand the meaning of the word and its speech form without taking too much time over the entry. For some lemmas, the definitions and sense in which words were used were listed and the spelling notes given so that the learner could understand words that might be spelt the same but mean different things. For example, the word "liquid" as a noun and adverb and all other extension of this word as shown in Figure 6.11.

Figure 6.11 *South African Oxford School Dictionary*



liquid[1] *noun* a substance (such as water or oil) that flows freely but is not a gas. [from Latin *liquidus* = flowing]

liquid[2] *adjective* 1 in the form of a liquid; flowing freely. 2 easily converted into cash ◆ *the firm's liquid assets.* **liquidity** *noun*

liquidate *verb* (**liquidated, liquidating**) 1 pay off or settle a debt. 2 close down a business and divide its value between its creditors. 3 get rid of, especially by killing. **liquidation** *noun*, **liquidator** *noun*

liquidize *verb* (**liquidized, liquidizing**) cause to become liquid; crush into a liquid pulp. **liquidizer** *noun*

The structural indicators of the entries assist the dictionary user in identifying the different types of items, data categories and search fields in a dictionary article (Gouws & Prinsloo, 2005, p. 116). Where speech forms and spelling rules are dealt with in the same lemma, this makes it easier for a user to understand the meaning of the word and other grammatical nuances.

The *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* makes use of lemmas which are highlighted in blue to be identical to a definition or explanation of a word. Different colours other than black and white makes a dictionary attractive and appealing to the user and its lemmas can be easily identified. Two senses of meaning were given for the lemma "line", and for sense 1 the lemma was treated with fourteen (14) different senses. This entry was also treated in its plural form – or "lines". Furthermore, the compound word "line-up" was explained as "arrange in a row" (Angus & Julia, 2001, p. 405). This is indicative that this dictionary provided too much detail in the explanation

of lemmas. Lemmas that have so many senses or meanings can create confusion for learners of lower grades who are looking for accurate and correct meanings of a specific word.

The style and the way lemmas were organised in the *Penguin English Dictionary* was less user-friendly. The font size was difficult to read, with headwords in small bold black text, and definitions in small italics. It was hard for the user to identify the meaning of words. Parts of speech were abbreviated and were not in bold, which made it difficult for the user to see them. This dictionary defined words with highly specialised language, for instance, "line" as a verb was defined as "a string, thin cord, indentation" (Garmonsway & Simpson, 1984, p. 444). These words needed to be cross-referenced for a user to understand the meaning. All lemmas were treated in detail and were comprehensive in explaining the meaning and the different senses, sometimes to the degree that it was hard for even the teachers to understand and use because of the deep linguistic nuances.

The *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*, *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* and *Penguin English Dictionary* were comprehensive in presenting the morphological, semantical structure of the grammar in their lemma presentation, whereas *South African Oxford Schools Dictionaries*; *Oxford Mini School Dictionary*; *Oxford mini Skoolwoordeboek/ School Dictionary* were concise and brief in their explanations, and sometimes paraphrased the meaning of an entry. The *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*, *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* and *Penguin English Dictionary* were definitive and comprehensive with figurative and broad connotations of meaning, whereas *South African Oxford Schools Dictionaries*; *Oxford Mini School Dictionary and Oxford mini Skoolwoordeboek/ School Dictionary* were paraphrased and simplified, with less figurative meanings, making them much easier to use for the user with some dictionary user skills.

The layout of lexicographic data is crucial when distinguishing between dictionaries of different schooling levels and for HL and FAL users. Layout design demonstrates whether the dictionary is intended for children or is designed for adult users. Most of the dictionaries discovered in the classrooms revealed that the layout and design was not suitable for learners at this level. Visible, large fonts and ample space between the words are generally used in young children's dictionaries. This feature was only available in the two *South African Oxford Schools Dictionaries* and to some degree in the *Colour Oxford English Dictionary*.

The vertical presentation of lemma articles and horizontal layout of different senses of words was commonly used and accepted as standard practice in all the dictionaries. In the layout and design of four of the dictionaries found in classes, the lemma information (headword, definition, pronunciation, and example sentence) was presented in a cluttered and dense format, with data closely packed together and in a small font. These dictionaries had a common layout and design feature which was less user-friendly to learners, who peered at the page because the print was too small for them to read.

This was typical of the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*, *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* and *Penguin English Dictionary*. Nonetheless, it was understandable that pocket dictionaries be printed with a small text size because they were designed to be portable. The standard desktop dictionaries of Oxford University Press, that is, *South African Oxford School Dictionary* and *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* were created with a font size that was larger and more legible and the space between entries made the definitions easily legible. These dictionaries had letters of the alphabet on top of each page to guide the user to the correct lemma when perusing the dictionary.

Only the *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* complemented the lemma definitions with a bright colour of headwords, with the definitions and other supplied data categories in black so that the user could identify them easily. The other dictionaries examined were designed in black and white with head words in bold. It is worthwhile noting that the layout and design of a book contributes to arousing the interest of the learner and encouraging them to consult it.

Thus, the cover of a school dictionary or any other book is a crucial feature. Bright illustrations and colourful contrast are the best mechanisms to assist with cognition and communication of learners. Two (2) out of six (6) dictionaries found in the classrooms had a satisfactory layout and design that suited the needs of learners in the lower grades of schooling. The other dictionaries had no cover jackets, and during evaluation of these dictionaries the researcher could not imagine the original design of the cover jacket. Given the life span of the publications, it is doubtful that the covers were ever attractive. The layout and design of a dictionary should be considered as key features which contribute towards extracting the meanings of words.

6.8.2 Illustrations

Drawings and pictures are regarded as useful supportive material in dictionaries (Swanepoel, 2017a). The role of illustrations in conveying cultural information in monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual dictionaries, is dealt with by (Zgusta, 1988). Illustration facilitates cognition and can assist with the meaning of concepts. A general and universal challenge for any language is the difficulty of illustrating many concepts using a single picture (Gouws et al., 2014). Of the studied dictionaries, only the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary* used some black and white pictures and drawings to illustrate certain lemmas. None of the other dictionaries used illustrations as tools to assist with the explanation of meaning of a lemma.

Illustrations may serve as vehicles to clarify or disambiguate the meanings of culture-specific words (Gangla-Birir, 2005). In the *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary*, some illustrations, for instance, those of household kitchen utensils, were placed on one page, which meant the user was required to cross-reference the location of the illustration. In many cases, labelled illustrations would have made it possible to shorten definitions considerably. The meaning would become easier to understand once the user saw a drawing or picture. This was lacking in the dictionaries used in the classes observed. The only dictionary found to have some illustrations was the Longman dictionary, as indicated above and shown in Figure 6.12.

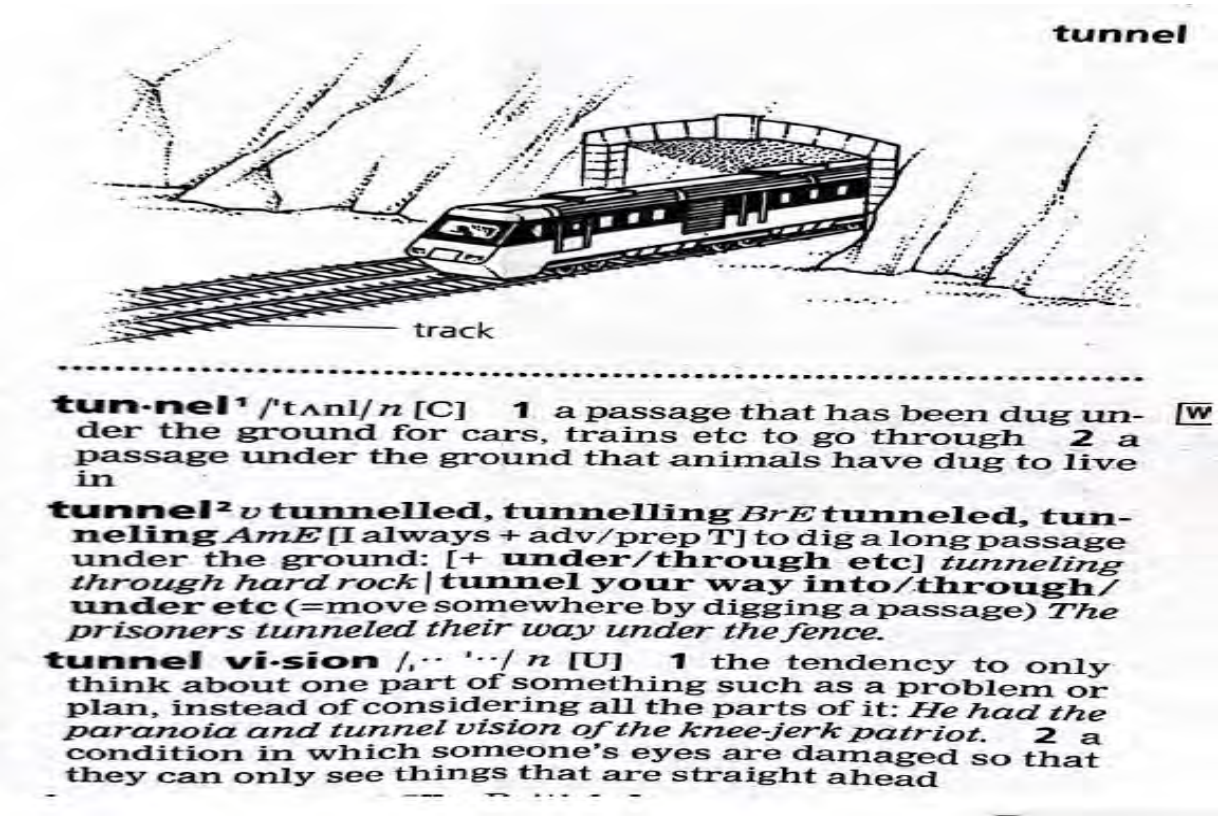


Figure 6.12 *Longman contemporary English Dictionary.*

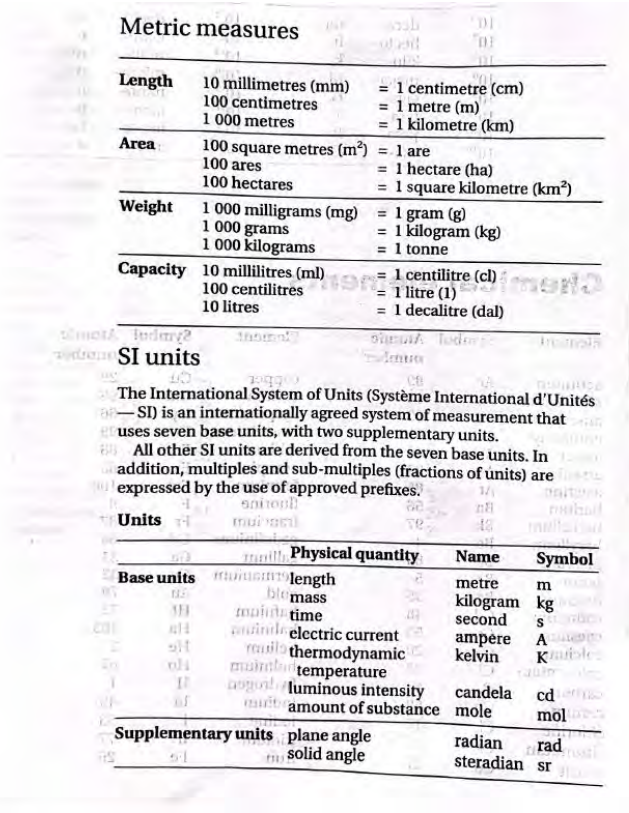
This type of creativity was lacking in the inventory of the used dictionaries collected. Table 6.2 lists examples of words that were searched for by learners in dictionaries. Some of these could have done with illustrations.

Illustrations were less used in dictionaries to denote paraphrases of meaning, appearance, and usage in context of words. Concepts of meaning of words are better depicted by illustrations to assist the learner in understanding the subject content. Users of these dictionaries, especially learners in the Intermediate Phase classes, struggled to understand the meaning of some of these words as the research indicated in Chapter 5 (refer to Table: 6.2), might have found it easier to decode if illustrations were available or used consistently.

6.9 BACK MATTER OF DICTIONARIES

This section of dictionaries deals with the linguistic and encyclopaedic information which is dependent on the size and scope of a dictionary. Pocket dictionaries, which are not broad and

detailed in defining of lemmas, are examples of dictionaries where linguistic and encyclopaedic information is less treated in an outer text. The evaluation of the structural approach of a dictionary is made with the assumption that the central list can be complemented by back matter texts functioning as outer texts (Gouws, 2004). Thus, the research studied the meta-information at the back of the dictionaries collected from the classrooms. The only dictionary which had educational information as the back matter was the *South African Oxford Schools Dictionary*, for example, see Figure 6.13.



Metric measures

Length	10 millimetres (mm)	= 1 centimetre (cm)
	100 centimetres	= 1 metre (m)
	1 000 metres	= 1 kilometre (km)
Area	100 square metres (m^2)	= 1 are
	100 ares	= 1 hectare (ha)
	100 hectares	= 1 square kilometre (km^2)
Weight	1 000 milligrams (mg)	= 1 gram (g)
	1 000 grams	= 1 kilogram (kg)
	1 000 kilograms	= 1 tonne
Capacity	10 millilitres (ml)	= 1 centilitre (cl)
	100 centilitres	= 1 litre (l)
	10 litres	= 1 decalitre (dal)

SI units

The International System of Units (Système International d'Unités — SI) is an internationally agreed system of measurement that uses seven base units, with two supplementary units.

All other SI units are derived from the seven base units. In addition, multiples and sub-multiples (fractions of units) are expressed by the use of approved prefixes.

Units

	Physical quantity	Name	Symbol
Base units	length	metre	m
	mass	kilogram	kg
	time	second	s
	electric current	ampère	A
	thermodynamic temperature	kelvin	K
	luminous intensity	candela	cd
	amount of substance	mole	mol
Supplementary units	plane angle	radian	rad
	solid angle	steradian	sr

Figure 6.13: *South African Oxford Schools Dictionary.*

The *South African Oxford Schools Dictionary* offered information on punctuation and writing to help the learner when writing formally and in informal conversation. Punctuation marks were given, and the symbols put in brackets, for instance, a full stop was shown as (.) and an explanation provided of what a full stop was. The example sentence on the use of the full stop was also used and written in italics, for instance, *I knocked at the door.* Other instances where a full stop may be used were explained as well. All other punctuation marks, such as, colon, semicolon, question mark, exclamation mark, and apostrophe, were explained in detail. This dictionary also taught the

learner about the structure of formal and informal writing in English, and this grammatical information was linked to the use of lemmas in full sentences. The concept of numerical order, whole numbers, fractions, percentages, decimals, numbers in time, numbers in measurements, information on weights and measurement, chemical elements, South African languages and peoples, South Africa's capital cities, provinces, and public holidays, were catered for in the back matter of this dictionary as a complement to the central list.

The *Penguin English Dictionary* also contained information in the back matter which had nothing to do with the central list but was more about marketing of the product. This dictionary had quotations of people giving their views about this product, for instance, the dictionary quoted Cyril Connolly of the *Sunday Times* "Penguin Reference Books are becoming indispensable; they are easily to travel with and, if they wear out, cheap to replace" (Garmonsway & Simpson, 1984, p. 845). Furthermore, the text information in the back matter had nothing to do with enhancing cognition, pedagogy, communication, or dictionary user skills. It contained general information on certain quotes from some prominent people who might have contributed to conceptualisation of this dictionary, that is, Edward de Bono is quoted as saying, "could you make an educated guess at the downside-risk of a marketing strategy?" (Garmonsway & Simpson, 1984, p. 845). Lastly, Cohen and Cohen (1975) viewed the *Penguin English Dictionary* as a dictionary of modern quotations. When the researcher looked at the publication date of this dictionary, it was last reprinted in 1984.

It could not be that modern quotations of English were still modern after thirty-six (36) years. The *Oxford Mini School Dictionary* also had elements of marketing in the cover jacket texts. Written in bold letters on the cover was, "The world's most trusted dictionaries", and beneath this, "clear and simple definitions help you find the right meaning quickly". It also emphasised that it explained and clearly defined all the vocabulary that needed to be used at school. The *Longman Contemporary English Dictionary* had no pedagogic information in the back matter.

The *Colour Oxford English Dictionary* has also had no information in the back matter apart from the brief information on the back cover which indicated that the dictionary contained 85 000 words, phrases, and definitions, and that the colourful design of words made it easy for learners to locate them. It also said it provided hundreds of notes on spelling and usage. All this information was

contained in a few words and cannot claim to teach learners any communicative and functional skills on the use of a dictionary. Other than that, there was no back-matter information.

The back matter of the *Oxford mini Skoolwoordeboek/ School Dictionary*, similar to *Oxford Mini School Dictionary*, contained no pedagogical information to assist a user or to complement the central list of the dictionary. Most of the dictionaries used by learners did not have back matter to fulfil pedagogical needs for the learners researched, most of whom were emergent users of dictionaries.

6.10 CONCLUSION

Most of dictionaries used in the Intermediate phase did not meet the needs of learners they were used for. The level of description and explanation of words of words in English was so advanced for learners in primary schooling, thus in some dictionaries indicated that they were meant for UK and American English speakers. The font in which lemmas were registered in dictionaries was small and faint, and that pose challenges to learners to quickly find a meaning of words they were looking for. The layout and design of the dictionaries in exception of Oxford schools' dictionaries were not user-friendly to learners of this level. In terms of illustrations and pictures to assist learners to understand concepts, dictionaries lack colourful illustrations to depict concepts in order learners easily understand linguistic meaning of words. The front matter and back matter of the dictionaries were not assisting learners to meet the cognitive needs of learners in the Intermediate Phase. The dictionaries find to be used in classrooms were not assisting learners to understand content of subjects bilingually, in learners HL which IsiXhosa nor in English the FAL and a medium of instruction. No bilingual English and IsiXhosa dictionaries were found in classrooms.

CHAPTER 7
TOWARD A MODEL FOR DICTIONARIES AS PEDAGOGIC TOOLS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reflects on intervention strategies to integrate dictionaries as pedagogic tools of teaching. Dictionary use training was provided to both teachers and learners to demonstrate how dictionaries could be used during teaching and learning. After the dictionary user skills workshops, a questionnaire was administered to learners and teachers to elucidate the depth of their dictionary user skills to derive a model for dictionaries as pedagogical tools. The views of teachers and learners on the use of dictionaries were categorised taking into consideration what was common and what was different about their experiences on dictionary user skills. It began by discussing different kinds of dictionaries used in the lessons that were observed and proceeded to examine the extent to which information contained in the dictionaries was relevant to learners.

Dictionaries are problem-solving tools meant to assist users with cognitive and communicative needs. Such needs arise in a variety of contexts, but it has been within the academic sphere that dictionaries have been mainly used. As indicated in Chapter 5, it was clear that, first, dictionaries were scarce in classes. In some instances, (although there is nothing wrong with this), learners depended mostly on glossaries at the back of their textbooks for the explanation of words. In most of the glossaries in these textbooks, explanations were not detailed, and no provisions were made for the learners' home languages.

7.2 PURPOSE OF INTERVENTION TRAINING

The intervention training was intended to integrate dictionary use within the school curriculum. The research data from Chapter 5 revealed that teachers and learners lacked dictionary user skills. The research data in Chapter 6 also revealed that dictionaries used in classes in the Intermediate Phase were not user-friendly and relevant to learners at this level. It is in that regard that this research saw a need to develop an intervention training on dictionary use to promote dictionary culture in classrooms. The training hoped to achieve the following objectives:

- To facilitate learners' access to different types of dictionaries as learning resources and tools.

- To develop a critical awareness of dictionaries as teaching resources and tools in language and content subjects among learners and teachers through the process of teaching and learning.
- To familiarise learners and teachers with relevant and user-friendly dictionaries.
- To develop dictionary using skills among learners and teachers.
- To develop curriculum practices that integrate dictionary use and dictionary skills among learners and teachers.

7.3 BENEFITS OF THE INTERVENTION

Through this training, the researcher hoped to achieve primary and secondary benefits for learners and ultimately empower teachers on the use of dictionaries as teaching resources. The primary benefits were linked to the objective of the study which sought to create conditions to introduce learners to dictionary use. The benefits are thus listed below.

- To demonstrate that access to dictionaries, especially in under-resourced schools, could assist learners in teaching. This would ultimately include building a resource base for teaching and learning in both language and content subjects. In particular, the implementation of the language-in-education policy could yield benefits, since bilingual English and isiXhosa dictionaries would be made available to support, for instance, the Incremental Introduction of African languages (DBE, 2013) draft policy. The use of African languages in the content subjects would also be supported. In this case, the benefits would be enjoyed by learners, educators, schools, and the DBE.
- Skilled dictionary users in the form of learners who would be able to use dictionaries as pedagogical resources in language and content subjects. Furthermore, learners could benefit from improvements in their educational experience and performance as they gain independent study skills.
- Improved teaching practices in the case of teachers who, after acquiring dictionary using skills and skills of integrating dictionary use in their practice, would enable learners to develop independent study skills. Ultimately this would bring a benefit to improve the educational experience and performance of the learners.

- Capacity building for teachers on teaching methods that integrate the use of dictionaries as pedagogic tools to promote cognition and build comprehension capital for learners.

The following Intermediate Phase relevant dictionaries were purchased and used training for use in the training programme:

- *Isichazi-magama SesiXhosa* (isiXhosa Monolingual Dictionary).
- *Isichazimagama Sesikolo: isiXhosa-isiNgesi*
- *Oxford English-Xhosa School Dictionary*
- *Isichazimagama seMathematika neNzululwazi*

7.4 CONCEPTUALISATION OF DICTIONARY USE TRAINING

The training was conceptualised to ensure that dictionary use was entrenched within the school curriculum practices, and to ensure that dictionary skills were cultivated among learners. It is important to first impart the relevant skills to the teachers, so that teachers can integrate such skills with their everyday teaching and learning. The research demonstrated in Chapters 5 and 6 that learners and teachers lacked dictionary skills and dictionary culture. Training in dictionary use was needed to address this. The intervention training would entail an integration of dictionary pedagogy within the curricula, which served as a guide to learners and teachers who did not possess sufficient reference skills and competences in using dictionary a teaching resource. The training sought to develop dictionary user skills in both learners and teachers.

The outcome of the research could be replicated and inculcated within the DBE by focusing on strategies of integrating dictionary use with everyday teaching and learning. Over and above equipping trainees with dictionary skills, at the end of the intervention training teachers were expected to be able to design lessons with dictionaries in mind and encourage learners to consult dictionaries should they have problems that impede conceptual and communication processes.

7.4.1 FOCUS OF DICTIONARY TRAINING

The training was intended to introduce learners to the structure and content of dictionaries. The training manual was carefully crafted, beginning with an introduction. The introductory section of

the training included how to use a dictionary, specifically on dictionary user skills, focusing on such dictionary use information as how to find a word, how words were arranged in isiXhosa and English dictionaries, and exploration of how words were defined and spelled. Furthermore, trainees were taught how to find synonyms and antonyms. Learners were introduced on how to use words correctly in sentences and identify parts of speech for the word. Lastly, trainees were introduced to finding and interpreting etymological data for the word.

The second part of the training was to introduce and orientate learners and teachers on the front, middle and back matter of dictionaries. This section of the training focused specifically on the table of contents, guide to dictionary use, the use of historical information on language, linguistic structure of the language, and the systematic and encyclopedically information about a discipline. Thirdly, through workshop training, participants learnt about the middle matter of the dictionary, text segments found in the middle matter of the A-to-Z section, that not all dictionaries had middle matter and worked with dictionary related tasks.

Lastly, the training concluded by introducing learners to the back matter of the dictionary, or the texts found after the A-to-Z list. This included weights and measurements, cultural data, names of countries of the world, and the vocabulary of special subjects or disciplines. The training was conducted in a bilingual model, taking into consideration learners' home language, IsiXhosa, and English as the FAL.

7.4.1.1 Place where dictionary skills workshops were conducted.

The dictionary skills training workshops were institutionalised, they were school based. Teachers and learners of the two research schools were trained during the process of teaching and learning. The venue of dictionary use trainings were classrooms of learners. This was done in the context of promoting integration of dictionaries with teaching and learning.

7.4.1.2 When the workshops were conducted.

The training workshops were conducted after observations on dictionary use (ref: Chapter 5) and collection and dictionary analysis of dictionaries (ref: Chapter 6) in circulation in Grade 4 classes in the Intermediate Phase. After taking a stock of what was happening in terms of dictionary use during teaching and learning, planned dictionary skills workshops were initiated in both schools.

7.4.1.3 Stakeholders that were involved in training workshops.

The two research schools which comprised of one hundred (100) learners from each of two (2) schools, which equals to two hundred (200) learners and five (5) educators from each of two (2) schools, which equals to ten (10) teachers in Grade 4 classes of both schools in the Intermediate Phase of schooling were trained on dictionary user skills.

7.4.1.4 The Model: Training on Use of Dictionaries

This research sought to address poor dictionary culture and its implications for literacy in South Africa generally, especially in the under-resourced primary township and rural schools. Addressing a poor dictionary culture is essentially about creating relevant awareness. This would mean engaging the relevant stakeholders – learners, teachers, principals, and ultimately the DBE – in education through research with the view to facilitating good teaching and learning practices. The main goal was to demonstrate that dictionaries are integral pedagogical resources for teaching. This sentiment was expressed by Gouws (2013) when he wrote:

> An important aspect of the early phases of a dictionary culture is to make users aware of the fact that dictionaries should not be seen as isolated tools but that they are part of a bigger family of reference tools. Learning how to use a dictionary should go hand in hand with learning how to use other reference tools, from telephone directories to advanced academic textbooks. (p. 52)

Therefore, the purpose of linking school dictionaries to textbooks and workbooks may go some way in proving to the learners and teachers that dictionaries are pedagogical tools. Dictionaries for Intermediate Phase schooling need to conceptualise and packaged in such a way that it became easy for learners to access and retrieve an information without a challenge. It was clear from the data collected from schools on dictionary user skills and dictionary criticism that there was a need for a feasible strategy of developing a dictionary culture.

Tarp and Gouws (2012) emphasised that teachers and learners needed to be trained on how to use dictionaries as pedagogic tools. More attention should be placed on training teachers who are key to this process as they are the ones that are expected to integrate dictionaries with lessons and other teaching activities. The method of integrating dictionary use with teaching could assist learners with communicative and cognitive situations, and this intervention strategy sought empower

schools in that regard. Ultimately, the intention was to spread this method to promote dictionary user culture in other districts, provinces, and the country to address reading for meaning in learners. Thus, it is of significance to note teachers and learners were introduced to variety of dictionaries for use in the curriculum to improve comprehension and gain knowledge of the language and content subjects.

7.5 Reflections on dictionary use training.

After the training workshop, a reflection questionnaire was administered, with questions intended to understand how the learners and teachers viewed the impact of the intervention training on dictionary user skills. Learners were asked only one question whereas teachers were asked three questions to solidify the information. The following section focuses on the reflection of learners.

7.5.1 Reflections of learners on dictionary use training.

During dictionary use training distinct types of dictionaries were used during lessons and learners were asked to reflect on the process at the end. Their responses were thematised according to the following: learners who indicated that they had learnt skills of using a dictionary; those who indicated that they had learnt new words or concepts and their meanings; those who indicated that training intervention strengthened their oral communication; and, lastly, those who indicated that dictionaries promoted independent learning.

7.5.1.1 Respondents who learnt technical skills to use a dictionary.

Twenty percent (20%) responded to the question that sought to understand what was learned in the process of this research by indicating the following:

- *Ndifunde ukuba sisetyenziswa kanjani isichazimagama;*
  I have learnt how to use a dictionary;
- *Le workshop indifundise ukuba ndiyisebenzise kanjani idictionary;*
  This workshop taught me how to use a dictionary;
- *Ndifunde ukuba uyisebenzisa kanjani idictionary xa ungaliqondi igama;*
  I have learnt how to use a dictionary when I do not understand a word;
- *Teach us to use different types of dictionaries.*

- *Isifundise ukusebenzisa idictionary;*

  The workshop taught us how to use a dictionary;
- *Teach us to use different kinds of dictionary;*

The above responses of learners indicated that they had learnt the skill of using dictionaries and when to use a dictionary. Using a dictionary is a set of skills, and it is important that learners should be taught this so that they can develop these skills that could ultimately lead to a dictionary culture.

7.5.1.2 Respondent learners who indicated that dictionary training assisted them to locate new words or concepts and meanings.

Eighty percent (80%) responded to the question that sought to understand what they learnt in the process of this research by indicating the following:

- *In dictionary we find and learn about words;*
- *Sifunda ngokubaluleka kwamagama;*

  We have learnt about significance of words
- *Dictionaries teach us about meaning of words;*
- *Isichazimagama sikufundisa xa uqala ukuliva igama ungalazi;*

  The dictionary teaches you when you come across a word for the first time
- *In dictionaries we find words that a difficult and hard to understand.*

In this section most respondents indicated that dictionaries assisted them to learn new concepts and words which were difficult and unfamiliar to them because they were learning them for the first time. Learners also indicated that dictionaries taught them about the meaning of words. When they were confronted with a word for the first time, dictionaries assisted them with its meaning.

7.5.1.3 Respondents who indicated that training intervention strengthened their oral communication.

To the question that sought to understand what they learned in the process of this research, twenty-five percent (25 %) responded with the following:

- *To understand and learn verbs, nouns, and pronouns;*
- *Isichazimagama sisinceda ukuthetha ngamagama anzima;*

This dictionary assists us to discuss difficult words

- *It helps us when we speak to get those words and speak accurately about them;*
- *Dictionaries teach us how to speak sensible meaning;*
- *Dictionaries help us to speak in languages we do not know.*

In this section most respondents indicated that dictionaries assisted them with learning parts of speech. Learners also indicated that dictionaries assisted them to strengthen their oral communication in order to learn and communicate in any language that they were learning for the first time.

7.5.1.4 Respondents who indicated that dictionary promote independent learning.

To the question that sought to understand what they learned in the process of this research, twenty-eight percent (28%) responded with the following:

- *Sifunda ngokusebenzisa iindidi zezichazimagama ukuze sizifundele;*
  We have learnt about different types of dictionaries so that we study independently;
- *Checking my homework by reading a dictionary alone;*
- *Dictionary helps us in understanding the content;*
- *Dictionaries teach us to read and write;*
- *Dictionaries help us when we read alone in order to get meaning of words;*
- *It helps how to get a word when you read alone;*
- *Indincedisa ekufundeni nasekubhaleni;*
  Dictionary assist us in learning and writing;

In this section most respondents indicated that dictionaries assisted them by promoting independent learning. Most learners also demonstrated that they learned how dictionaries facilitate troubleshooting when they were reading or studying on their own. Dictionary use and a culture of using dictionaries could assist learners to become independent readers. Dictionaries assisted learners in the absence of a teacher and parent, therefore, dictionary user skills were significant in learners becoming fully independent in confronting their academic world.

7.6 Reflections of teachers on dictionary use training.

During the intervention on dictionary use training, different types of dictionaries were used during lessons and teachers who were part of this research were trained in a workshop to familiarise them with the use of dictionaries as pedagogic tools. After the process of the practical use of dictionaries in teaching and learning and dictionary criticism of available dictionaries in classrooms, a questionnaire was administered. Through this the researcher sought to understand what teachers knew and thought about the use of dictionaries as pedagogic tools. The responses of teachers where first thematised according to (a) uses of dictionaries in teaching and learning; (b) uses that the teacher did not speak about at all; (c) how all this informed the research about the knowledge and use of dictionaries as well as access to dictionaries. Secondly, looking at teachers' responses on the integration of dictionaries in teaching and learning, the degree to which teachers were being innovative about how to fully exploit use of dictionaries in the curriculum was determined. Thirdly, the reflections looked on strategies on how teachers support learners to develop their dictionary user skills.

7.6.1 Comparing teachers' reflections to learners.

On the first theme this is how teachers responded on the uses of dictionaries in teaching and learning. Teachers indicated that dictionaries assisted in understanding meaning, improving vocabulary, and gave a learner knowledge of grammatical nuances of parts of speech, such as, nouns, verbs, and synonyms. Furthermore, teachers indicated that dictionaries as pedagogic books rescued learners when they could not understand difficult words they came across in their daily lives and assisted them with an understanding of language use in different contexts. The reflection of teachers on the use of dictionaries in teaching and learning clearly indicated that after the training on dictionary user skills they saw the pedagogic value of dictionaries. What teachers did not mention was that the training imparted skills on how a dictionary was used to acquire the information sought. Teachers did not speak about how learners should manage a dictionary as a scarce and expensive resource. Lastly, the research articulated above informs us that dictionary use skills should be integrated with the training of teachers for them to understand that access to dictionaries translates into meaningful content delivery and ultimately promotes quality education in all subjects.

The second theme focused on integration of dictionaries with teaching and learning. Teachers revealed that when they gave learners activities, it was advisable to encourage learners to use a dictionary so that they understand questions. Teachers also mentioned that integration of dictionaries assisted them with daily planning of meaningful lessons. Lastly, they indicated that subject specific dictionaries assisted them in unpacking the content of subjects which then helped promote conceptual understanding to learners. Furthermore, they indicated that the idea of integrating dictionaries with the process of teaching and learning promotes reading for a meaning during lessons.

The third theme of analysis looked at strategies mentioned by teachers to support learners in developing their dictionary user skills. The teachers indicated that each learner should find a new word in a dictionary daily, in that learners needed to use a dictionary consistently during their lessons to identify grammatical nuances, like parts of speech, and understand the meaning of words across the content subjects.

Lastly, teachers also reflected that they learnt the technical skills on how to use a dictionary during teaching and learning. They also emphasised the importance of integrating dictionary as resource book as daily routine in teaching to promote independent learning. Thus, the training intervention strengthened the understanding of teachers on how dictionaries could mediate communication of learners and cognitive development in all subjects.

7.7 SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with reflections for both learners and teachers. Most learners demonstrated that dictionary user skills training assisted them on how to use dictionaries to facilitate troubleshoot when they were reading or studying on their own. Furthermore, they mentioned that how dictionaries sought to assist learners to become independent readers in the absence of a teacher and parent, therefore, dictionary user skills were significant for them to become fully independent in confronting their academic world.

On the other hand, teachers also indicated that they learnt the technical skills of using a dictionary in teaching and learning, and they also indicated how they could integrate these resource books with their lessons. Thus, the training intervention strengthened the understanding of teachers on

how dictionaries could mediate communication of learners and cognitive development in all subjects. Teachers also indicated that dictionaries promoted independent learning to learners. The next chapter provides summary of chapter, conclusion, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER EIGHT 8

CONCLUSION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter presents a summary of the findings and recommendations for the integration of dictionaries as pedagogic tools for teaching and learning in the Intermediate Phase of schooling. It also offers possible areas for further research and a conclusion.

8.2 SUMMARY OF THE THESIS

This study sets out to investigate how learners and teachers in selected Makhanda primary schools use dictionaries as pedagogic tools in the Intermediate phase. It did so through responding to the following sub-questions: (a) what are Intermediate Phase learners' and teachers' perceptions of dictionaries as pedagogic tools in the selected schools? (b) To what extent are dictionaries used as pedagogic tools in Intermediate Phase teaching and learning in the selected schools? (c) What is the level of dictionary reference skills of learners and teachers in the selected? (d) How can dictionaries be integrated into everyday teaching and learning activities in the Intermediate?

In responding to the above question, the study consulted literature on lexicography focused on mainly two aspects of Wiegand (1983) theory of lexicography, namely, dictionary user research and dictionary criticism. The research reviewed local and international studies on dictionary user perspectives and dictionary criticism. It discussed what the literature says about dictionaries as pedagogic tools teaching and learning with a specific reference to South Africa and other countries. The function theory argues that lexicographic works are utility tools to address linguistic challenges of learners and therefore their usefulness should be included dictionary criticism. Local and international scholars concur that dictionaries need to be critically examined and assessed for their pedagogic value and in meeting the needs of users (Gouws, 2022; Tarp, 2007).

Scholars also agree that dictionary criticism would assist in improving the theory of lexicography and ultimately contribute to the production of quality, user-friendly dictionaries Tarp and Gouws (2004, 2010).

The research was located within the broader theoretical framework of lexicography. It dealt with contestations around lexicography theory. It discussed lexicography scholars who argue that

lexicography does not have a theory independent of linguistics. Other scholars maintain that lexicography is an independent field of study with a theory independent of linguistics. The study discussed major lexicography theories with specific reference to Wiegand's (1983) general theory of lexicography with a focus on the following issues: purpose of a dictionary, dictionary user research and dictionary criticism. The study also discussed a function theory of lexicography outlined by (Bergenholtz & Tarp (1995; 2003) and Tarp (2008). It also reviewed the communication perspective which argues that dictionaries serve communication functions to assist users in solving problems related to written and oral communication (Fuertes-Olivera & Tarp, 2014).

The study outlined research methodology and research design, choosing action-research design as a framework in which to design and implement interventions, collect, and analyse data. The study unveiled data collection instruments and the profile of participants and their appropriateness for this study. The study's sample comprised of two hundred (200) learners and ten (10) educators were chosen for lesson observations in two (2) selected schools. A total of forty (40) teachers were interviewed, twenty (20) from each of the two schools. Lesson observations were conducted in grade 4 classrooms because this is the grade where children for the first-time change LOLT from a HL (isiXhosa) to FAL (English). Because this is transitional phase, most learners need a dictionary to scaffold and develop their comprehension in both HL and FAL.

In terms of data analysis, the study followed the triangulation method of analysis to arrive at findings and conclusions based on questionnaire and observational data. In a nutshell, the data revealed that teachers were aware of dictionaries, but they had different understandings about the use of these resource books in teaching and learning. Although teachers regarded dictionaries as important for teaching, they were not using them. This was confirmed by learners who reported that they did not frequently use dictionaries, either at home or in their classrooms.

Lesson observations confirmed that there was a lack of dictionary culture in teaching and learning. Learners were seldom referred to dictionaries during the lessons.

When they were referred to a dictionary, they struggled to retrieve information from the dictionaries. They lacked the dictionary user skills that would enable them to use the dictionaries effectively during teaching and learning. It was also observed that some dictionaries were used

regularly and over many years and had become tattered, furthermore were not relevant for learners in the Intermediate Phase and have been in circulation for minimum of sixteen (16) to the maximum of forty-five (45) years without being reviewed. Few dictionaries were relevant for this phase. Most dictionaries were monolingual English dictionaries that did not help isiXhosa learners whose English language was at an early stage of development. The research brought together a variety of information about the value of dictionaries in teaching and learning.

An analysis of the typology of dictionaries exhibited that most dictionaries were not user-friendly for learners, in particular comprehensive and pocket dictionaries. Lemmas were cluttered and printed in small font which made it difficult for learners to retrieve text information. The study concludes that most of the dictionaries used during teaching and learning in the Intermediate Phase of schooling were not relevant to learners because some of them were written in American and UK English which is advance more that South African English. Furthermore, teachers found it difficult to use dictionaries because they lacked dictionary user skills. Dictionaries found in classrooms use were mostly in English language, and the only bilingual dictionary found in circulation in the two schools was Afrikaans-English bilingual pocket dictionary.

Finally, as part of intervention during the research, a new model of integrating dictionaries as pedagogic tools for teaching and learning was attempted. The training model was conceptualised and trialed. The researcher sourced and donated relevant dictionaries to schools with the view to promoting learner and teacher dictionary user skills. Dictionary use skills workshops were conducted for learners and teachers. Following the workshops, the participants were asked to reflect on the usefulness of the workshops. The finding was that learners reported that dictionary user skills training assisted them in how to use dictionaries to facilitate understanding when reading or studying on their own. They stressed that dictionaries assisted them to become independent readers in the absence of a teacher and parent.

The outcome of the exercise was positive because teachers on the other hand reported that they learnt technical skills of using a dictionary in teaching and learning, and how they could integrate these resource books in their lessons. The training intervention strengthened teachers' understanding of how dictionaries could improve learner's spoken and written language and deepen their knowledge of concepts in all subjects. Again, out of this exercise teachers also confirmed that dictionaries promoted independent learning of learners.

8.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

This section came out with the following recommendations, 8.3.1 Teacher development and training, 8.3.2 Production of subject specific dictionaries, 8.3.3 Policy documents should provide for inclusion of dictionaries across school subjects, 8.3.4 Constant assessment of dictionary user practice to promote dictionary culture. These recommendations were based on the findings. The following steps are proposed to enable the integration of dictionaries in teaching and learning in the Intermediate Phase of schooling.

8.3.1 TEACHER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING

The study recommends that teacher development on the use of dictionaries and how to integrate them in everyday teaching and learning processes is of utmost importance. In addition to teachers who are already serving, the study also recommends that dictionary user skills and dictionary integration in teaching and learning should be included in the training of candidate teachers. Teaching methodologies and strategies should be developed to assist teachers to flexibly integrate dictionaries in the curriculum.

8.3.2 Production of subject specific dictionaries

The analysis undertaken on this research on dictionary research and dictionary evaluation finds that most dictionaries in circulation at schools were not relevant for the curriculum taught in the Intermediate Phase and for the language and literacy proficiency of learners at this level. Also, dictionaries that were found were monolingual English dictionaries and none of them were about content areas taught in school. The study recommends production of language dictionaries especially for content subjects so that learners have access to a variety of quality reference books.

The current situation requires that lexicographers and publishers become more familiar with school curriculum and work with classroom teachers in the compilation, design and trialing of dictionaries.

8.3.3 Policy documents should provide for inclusion of dictionaries across school subjects

This recommendation puts great emphasis on policy review. It goes on to say that Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements and Language in Education Policy must be leveraged to support

use of dictionaries across school subjects. It is also recommended that CAPS, the overarching document in teaching, learning and assessment should explain explicitly how a dictionary is important for learners to understand grammatical nuances and concepts in all subjects.

8.3.4 Constant assessment of dictionary user practice to promote dictionary culture.

The study also recommends that there should be monitoring and evaluation of the impact of dictionary user skills of teachers and learners to improve teaching and learning. While introducing dictionary use monitoring and evaluation is a worthy goal, the researcher believes that this endeavor needs to be preceded by the implementation of one child, one dictionary approach so that all have a dictionary.

8.4 ISSUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Future research should study integration of diction across all subjects in promotion of multilingual pedagogies given that the research reveals that learners, particularly those who speak African languages cannot read for meaning either in native language or English the FAL. Such a study would assist in promoting dictionary culture at an early age of schooling and ultimately assist learners to understand both language as subject and language as medium of teaching. Findings from such a study could assist the DBE provincially and nationally in integration of education policy documents with dictionary use as tools for teaching both in school and community. Secondly, research should be conducted to investigating methods and strategies of teaching and planning of lessons. Such findings would assist in teacher development in both in-service and pre-service in teacher training should cater to dictionary user skills as prerequisite of teacher training so that dictionaries can be view as teaching and learning tools for language development to learners. Lastly, a study for subject specific dictionary, which look at the thematic terminology of content subjects with the view of promoting multilingual glossaries.

Findings from such a study could be used as reference for education officials who are entrusted with supervisory roles for curriculum delivery in to understand significance of a dictionary as tools for understanding of concepts and reinforcing curriculum delivery.

8.5 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

The most important limitation of the study is that although it is based on a considerable number of lesson observations, learner and teacher questions, and analysis of specimens of dictionaries used

in school, the findings cannot be generalised to schools in the district nor Eastern Cape because the design of the study is qualitative. By definition, qualitative studies aim to generate hypotheses and to provide insight into local phenomenon rather than generatability.

8.6 CONCLUSION

The research has shown that in the context of Wiegand (1984) lexicography schema with the specific focus of dictionary user research and dictionary criticism, it is possible to integrate dictionary use in curriculum delivery. In Chapter 7, on the dictionary use training model, the research has shown that relevant dictionaries for the grade are important in order to teach dictionary use skills to learners. Both teachers and learns were trained at the end of the research to equip them with understanding on use of different kinds of dictionaries to assist them (in the process) of understanding meaning, spelling and proficiency in writing in both languages, the English as FAL and medium of instruction and isiXhosa the HL which is the language for most learners. The use of monolingual, bi/multilingual dictionaries would assist learners to navigate translanguaging in their lessons. This research also showed that dictionaries are found in classes and how they are used for academic purpose does not necessarily facilitates cognition in Home Language nor in English. Thus, the study introduced relevant different types of dictionaries, and capacitated both teachers and learners about the significant use of these resources in teaching and learning.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX: 1

LESSON OBSERVATION SCHEDULE FOR INTERMEDIATE PHASE

School name	Grade	Subject	Duration

Language distribution during teaching and learning- oral and written language.

1. Introducing a new concept/ term (use of code switching, illustrations, reference to textbook)
2. Explaining the term: Contextualization, use of English or isiXhosa terms, descriptions, definitions (How do learners respond?)
3. Asking questions about the term (what term do learners use?)
4. Providing exercises (oral or written) that elicit the use of the term(s)
5. Providing feedback
6. Recapping and concluding by briefly explaining the term again

Teacher talk	Specific terms	Learner talk	Specific terms
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
7.			

Appendix 2.

Dictionary user research questionnaire for school teachers.

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) documents for languages and other learning areas throughout the General Education and Training (GET) and Further Education and Training (FET) schooling system encourage the use of dictionaries together with other educational materials. This questionnaire is part of research tools that seeks to establish how pedagogic and general dictionaries are used in the South African Basic Education context, with specific focus on how schools and teachers view dictionaries and respond to curriculum requirements regarding dictionaries. The main focus of the study is on dictionary user-research and dictionary criticism. The researcher Mr Zola Wababa who is studying towards doctoral studies in lexicography at Rhodes University, kindly request you to complete this questionnaire, it will not take much of your time to complete it. There are no right or wrong answers and participants are protected, there will be no disclosure to the public about your participation nor any personal benefit that you will get from this project. However, the research findings of this project will provide useful insight on how the use of dictionaries can be blended with pedagogy of teaching in our schools. All the information collected from this study will be used in PhD theses and reported back to the Department of Basic Education in order to improve the quality of teaching. Issues of confidentiality and anonymity will be cautiously exercised throughout the analysis of the collected data, so your name and that of your school will never be used. Should you have any queries, please contact me through the details given at the end of this questionnaire.

1.Personal data
(a) Name & Surname (optional):
(b) Experience, number of years in teaching:
(c) Highest teaching/educational qualification held:
(d) Which grade are you teaching:
(e) Which learning area are you teaching:
(f) Your mother tongue/ home language:
(g) Other languages:

2.Type of school as per quintile (Mark with an X below)

Quintile: 1	Quintile: 2	Quintile: 3	Quintile: 4	Quintile: 5

3. Are you aware of any dictionary available at your school?
   ……

4. Do you use a dictionary in preparation of your lessons?
   ……

   ……

5. Do you use a dictionary during your teaching? Indicate with X in the box.

Yes	No

   ……

6. How often do you use a dictionary outside of your classroom?

   ……

7. How often do you use a dictionary in your classroom?
   ……

8. Do you allow your learners to use a dictionary? Indicate with an X in the box.

Yes	No

9. Explain your answer above, if yes, how are your learners use dictionary, but if no, why they are not allowed to use dictionary?
   ……

Thank you for completing the form/Enkosi kakhulu ngokufilisha le fomu:

Zola Wababa

Email address: zwababa@ufh.acza

Phone: 040 602 2024/ 07 6867 2688

Appendix: 3

Reflection questionnaire for learners on dictionary use. Uluhlu lwemibuzo ngezimvo zabafandi ngokusetyenziswa kwezichazi-magama

You have been working with me, Mr Wababa through this project about the use of dictionaries in teaching and learning. During this project we used distinct types of dictionaries during our lessons. This questionnaire seeks to know what you now know and think about the use of dictionaries.

Ubusebenza nam, Mnu Wababa kule projekthi yokusetyenziswa kwezichazimagama ekufundeni nasekufundiseni. Ngexesha besisebenza kule projekthi kwizifundo zethu besisebenzisa iindidi ezahlukeneyo zezichazimagama. Le fomu yemibuzo ifuna ukwazi ukuba wazintoni ngoku kwaye ucinga ntoni ngokusetyenziswa kwezichazimagama.

1. After this project have been done, I would like to know what you have learnt about dictionaries and how you think they can be helpful in your studies. Emva kokuba le projekthi igqityiwe ucinga ukuba ikhona into oyifundileyo ngezichazimagama kwaye ucinga ukuba oko kungakunceda njani kwizifundo zakho……
……

Thank you for filling this form/ Enkosi kakhulu ngokufilisha le fomu:

Zola Wababa

Email address: zwababa@ufh.ac.za

Phone: 040602 2024

Appendix: 4

Reflection questionnaire for teachers on dictionary use. Uluhlu lwemibuzo ngezimvo zabafandi ngokusetyenziswa kwezichazi-magama

You have been working with me, Mr. Wababa, through this project about the use of dictionaries in teaching and learning. During this project we used distinct types of dictionaries during our lessons. This questionnaire seeks to know what you now know and think about the use of dictionaries.

Ubusebenza nam, Mnu Wababa kule projekthi yokusetyenziswa kwezichazimagama ekufundeni nasekufundiseni. Ngexesha besisebenza kule projekthi kwizifundo zethu besisebenzisa iindidi ezahlukeneyo zezichazimagama. Le fomu yemibuzo ifuna ukwazi ukuba wazintoni ngoku kwaye ucinga ntoni ngokusetyenziswa kwezichazimagama.

1. After this project have been done, I would like to know what you have learnt about dictionaries and how you think they can be helpful in your teaching and learning. Emva kokuba le projekthi igqityiwe ucinga ukuba ikhona into oyifundileyo ngezichazimagama kwaye ucinga ukokuba zingaluncedo njani ekufundeni nasekufundiseni ……
……

Thank you for filling this form/ Enkosi kakhulu ngokufilisha le fomu:

Zola Wababa

Email address: zwababa@ufh.ac.za

Phone: 040602 2024

Appendix: 5

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
EDUCATION

i. should you wish to extend the period of research after approval has been granted, an application to do this must be directed to Chief Director: Corporate Strategy Management;

j. you present the Department with a copy of your final paper/report/dissertation/thesis free of charge in hard copy and electronic format. This must be accompanied by a separate synopsis (maximum 2 – 3 typed pages) of the most important findings and recommendations if it does not already contain a synopsis;

k. you present the findings to the Research Committee and/or Senior Management of the Department when and/or where necessary;

l. you are requested to provide the above to the Chief Director: Corporate Strategy Management upon completion of your research;

m. you comply with all the requirements as completed in the Terms and Conditions to conduct Research in the ECDoE document duly completed by you;

n. you comply with your ethical undertaking (commitment form);

o. You submit on a six-monthly basis, from the date of permission of the research, concise reports to the Chief Director: Corporate Strategy Management.

2. The Department reserves a right to withdraw the permission should there be non-compliance to the approval letter and contract signed in the Terms and Conditions to conduct Research in the ECDoE and/or legal requirements to do so.

3. The Department will publish the completed Research on its website.

4. The Department wishes you well in your undertaking. You can contact the Mrs. Fundiswa Pakade on the numbers indicated in the letterhead or email fundiswa.pakade@ecdoe.gov.za should you need any assistance.

T. MASOEU
CHIEF DIRECTOR: CORPORATE STRATEGY MANAGEMENT

FOR ACTING HEAD OF DEPARTMENT: EDUCATION