c'est un travail d'amateurs. Les articles sont réduits à la tradition de lexèmes français. Seuls les dictionnaires de la génération du XIXe siècle et quelques rares lexiques du XXe siècle adoptent la transcription arabie. C'est donc la transcription latine qui domine d'auvant plus que les études berbères sont autonome par rapport aux études arabes, en France du moins.

3. La lexicographie dialectale
Elle correspond à la période coloniale pro-
premier dite (1918-1930) et reste marquée
par un dictionnaire (Foucault 1951) et des
recherches lexicographiques systématiques
(Laouzt 1920 et Destaing 1944). Les caractè-
res de cette période peuvent être résumés ainsi : (a) On s'intéresse de manière systéma-
ique au lexique d'un dialecte (Thaghat,
Chiloub, etc.); (b) La structure morphopho-
notique de la langue est mieux étudiée; la
transcription phonétique est d'une grande
précision et le classement par race prend de
l'importance (Foucault 1951). (c) L'article
est mieux structuré : il comporte une défini-
tion de chaque lexic et des dérivés. Sou-
vent, on cite des exemples. (d) Des enquêtes
ethnographiques (Laouzt 1930 et Destaing
1938, Bouïfa 1940) rendent les définitions
et les comparaisons plus précises. Néanmoins,
des problèmes théoriques et méthodologiques
restent et seront repris par les lexicographes
suivants.

4. La lexicographie scientifique
Même si les travaux préparatoires ont com-
cencé avant les indépendances, on peut dire
que cette lexicographie est post-coloniale.
Elle profite des acquis de la période précé-
dente et, surtout, des progrès de la linguistique
celui-même. En plus donc des qualités citées
en 3, on peut ajouter : (a) le respect des
normes scientifiques actuelles (traitement
des racines et leur classement, une meilleure
structurement de l'article avec des indications
grammaticales, etc.) (b) Un appareil de sigles
de signes importants précis le sens péjora-
tif ou familier, son utilisation dans un jargon.
(c) Une information ethnographique d'une
grande précision. Avec cette période, on peut
dire que la lexicographie berbère scientifique
est bien partie.

Les dictionnaires de Dallet (1962) et de
Delheur (1984), le premier consacré au par-
lar kabyle des Alt Meuguell et le second au
dialecte possible, peuvent être considérés
comme les premiers dictionnaires de la gène-
ration scientifique. Voici les raisons que l'on
peu invoquer.
— une transcription phonétique fine basée sur
les derniers travaux de linguistique descriptive.
— une documentation riche et critique de ma-
nière scientifique.
— une présentation formelle et typographique
des articles d'une rigueur et d'une clarté dignes
de grands dictionnaires des langues comme le fran-
cais.
— une introduction sociolinguistique et linguisti-
quique qui met bien le dictionnaire dans la recher-
che actuelle (pp. XV–XXIX).
— le contenu des articles fourni, en plus des sens
des items, des renseignements grammaticaux de
tout genre : a) pour le verbe nous disposons de
ses variations phonologiques; b) en est de même
du nom ; certains comportements
grammaticaux sont signalés (l'état d'annexion,
par exemple) car ils ont des conséquences
sur la forme phonétique de l'item.
On trouve une liste des abréviations de ces rensei-
gagements dans l'ouvrage.
Cette œuvre est un exemple de ce qu'elle
affectionne les dictionnaires. Ils sont ensuite subdivisés
le long des catégories grammaticales : le parti-
cipie, le verbe puis le nom.
Chacune de ces catégories et présente avec
des variations morphophonologiques.
Prénons l'exemple du verbe. On l'arrêta
sous sa forme simple puis Brève. À l'intér-
ne de chaque forme, on présente l'imparfait de
l'acteur, puis l'infinitif enfin le participe.
Le nom est présenté aussi avec le souci de ren-
trer compte des variations morphologiques.
Certains renseignements syntaxiques — ceux
qui ont des effets de variation phonétique comme l'état
d'annexion — sont présents. Néanmoins, ils sont
insuffisants.
C'est, sans doute, dans ce secteur et celui du
classement par race (voir Dallet, p. XXIII)
de la découverte le plus intéressant de la
lexicographie en tant que science.

5. Problèmes actuels
Sans aborder les questions théoriques et mé-
thodologiques très discutées en milieu berbér
ain, on fera l'inventaire des grands problèmes
(1) Tous les dialectes ne sont pas aussi bien
décrits que le touarég et le kabyle. Certains ne
sont pas du tout. (b) Cette remarque condi-
tionnelle l'évolution d'une recherche sur le
lexique panberbère qui doit débuter sur
le problème de l'histoire de la langue et donc
sur des questions comme l'etymologie, la syn-
onymie, etc. (c) La lexicographie berbère
reste tributaire des langues européennes et
une recherche en langue berbère semble à
l'ordre du jour. Ces problèmes retiennent l'attention des linguistes berbérophones.
Mais le statut socio-politique du berbère
pèsera encore lourdement sur la recherche.

6. Bibliographie choisie
6.1. Dictionnaires
Dallet 1962 — Jean-Marie Dallet: Dictionnaire ka-
français-kabyle).
Dellheur 1984 — Jean Dellheur: Dictionnaire mo-
rabitte-français. Paris 1984 (XXVI + 319 p.).
Destach 1985 — Edmond Destach: Vocabulaire
français-berbère. Paris 1938 (XIV + 300 p.; 2ème
Textes x berbères-français).

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240. Lexicography of the Chadic Languages
Hausa and Chadic
1. Selected Bibliography
2. Hausa
3. Chadic Languages

1. Hausa
The Chadic family (cf. Map 240.1) includes ap-
proximately 140 different languages spoken in
Nigeria, Niger, Cameroon, and Chad (Newman
1977). One of these, Hausa, is a large, widely-
spoken language with a long tradition of literacy.
The others are small languages, still unwritten or
only recently reduced to writing. Because the status
of Hausa is so different from that of its sister lan-
guages, it will be discussed separately.

1.1. Smaller Chadic Languages
Lexicographic work on the smaller Chadic languages dates from the beginning of the 19th century. Spearman's 1816 word list of
Affode (Söllken 1976), Studies of these lan-
guages since then, whether by explorers, co-
ntributors, missions, or academic lin-
guists, have been primarily for scholarly in-
terest. Thus there is no correlation between
the importance of individual languages and the
extent of grammatical and lexical materi-
als on them. There are four general types of
lexicographic works available. For most
Chadic languages there are only "wordlists" (from
English, French, or German into the local language)
in the 500–1,000 word range, often appended to
grammatical sketches or included in comparative lexical
compendia (e.g. Koele 1854, Barth
1862–66, Lakas 1937, Kraft 1981). These
lists generally lack basic morphological
information (e.g. noun plural or verb inflec-
tions) and are in many cases phonologically
inaccurate, especially with respect to vowel
length and tone. Somewhat larger "vocabu-
laries" (generally from the Chadic language
into English/French/German, often with a
reverse index) exist for a few languages, e.g.
Kanasku (Newman 1974), Pa'a (Skinner
1979), pero (Fraijzyngier 1985), Ron
(Gauthier 1970), and Tumak (Cepelle 1975).
"Small dictionaries" (essentially expanded
"vocational"), which provide essential morphological information, exist for Glavda (Rapp et al. 1968–69), Gude (Hoskinson 1983), Kera (Ebert 1976), and Hausa (Calu- coli 1983). "Full dictionaries," which are still restricted in size by comparison with those of major world languages, exist only for Dangaleit (Féry 1971, de Montgolfier 1973), Lamé (Schatz 1982), and Ngizim (Schuh 1981). These dictionaries, all of which are fully tone marked, are highly qualified scholarly works. Féry's is particularly noteworthy in its inclusion of plates illustrating items distinctive to the local culture.

1.2. Hausa

Vocabularies of Hausa collected by travellers and explorers began to appear at the end of the 18th century and continued for the next 50 years. All of these works were inexact and superficial. The vocabularies of Schön 1843 and Barth 1862–66 were greatly superior to anything published earlier, but were still limited in scope. The missionary J. F. Schön (1876) produced the first real Hausa dictionary. It contains a Hausa-English section of some 3,800 head entries and a somewhat smaller English-Hausa section. Phonologically the work is poor by modern standards, but the definitions are quite good and the words are amply illustrated by lively examples taken from natural Hausa narratives.

At the turn of the century, three dictionaries appeared, totally independent of each other, that mark a significant advance in Hausa lexicography: Robinson 1899–1900 (Hausa—English/English—Hausa); Misch- lich 1906 (Hausa—German only); and Landerston-Tilho 1909 (Hausa—French/ French—Hausa). All three works are still phonologically inadequate, e.g. the contrast between the glottalized and non-glottalized consonants is not recognized, and tone, which is phonemically distinct in Hausa, is not noted. However, in the presentation of definitions, idiomatic expressions, and grammatical information (e.g. gender, plurals, nominal/verbal derivations), these dictionaries, especially Mischlisch, seem quite modern. In Mischlisch and Robinson, the Hausa head entries are given in Arabic script (with vocalization marked) as well as in Roman script, a feature that was discontinued in all later works (including subsequent editions of Robinson). The use of Arabic script was of minor value to the Europeans for whom the dictionaries were intended, but it signaled a new role for the traditionally educated Hausa class in lexicographic endeavors.

The birth of Hausa lexicography was reached with the dictionary of Bargery 1934. This monumental work consists of a Hausa—English section of some 1,500 tightly packed pages (over 39,000 head entries) plus a con- cise 70-page English-Hausa index. For the first time, all head entries are given in a phono- logically accurate transcription: the glottalized consonants are indicated, the flap and tap R's are distinguished, vowel length is noted, and tone is carefully marked. The defi- nitions are remarkable in their fullness and in the appropriateness of the accompanying phrases, proverbs, and epithets. Bargery's deep knowledge of Hausa language and culture—he spent over 20 years preparing the work—is clearly evident in those entries where he groups related semantic items. For example, under the word ƙam 'huge', he lists over 300 words (nouns, adjectives, and ideophone) that denote hugeness in some way. Under ƙar 'kolan', he devotes two full col- umns to describing terms for varieties, sizes, and provenience of different kinds. (For bo- tanical terms, Bargery depended upon the specialized lexicon of Dazliel 1916.)

In addition to Bargery, there is one other first-class comprehensive Hausa-English dic- tionary, that of Abraham 1949. In most re- spects, Abraham has to be viewed not as an entirely new work but as a revised edition of Bargery, with the tone marking system simplified and more semantic collocations included. In two areas, however, Abraham's dictionary marks a significant step forward. First, Abraham marks tone and vowel length for each and every Hausa word in the dictionary. (By contrast, Bargery only trans- scribes the headwords phonologically, but elsewhere uses standard Hausa orthography, in which tone and vowel length are not noted.) Second, Abraham provides more ex- tensive entries for "grammatical" words. For example, while Bargery treats the word su 'until, except, then... in 15 lines, Abraham devotes some 4 pages (double columns) to the description and elucidation of this multi- faceted little word.

The Hausa-Russian dictionaries (Oldenge- roth 1963, Lapshukhin 1967) are the last of the large bilingual dictionaries to appear. Al- though relatively recent, these works are in- explicably anachronistic in their failure to transcribe Hausa with tone or vowel length.

The final scholarly work that needs mention- ing is the specialized dictionary of Hausa music and musical instruments of Ames/ King 1971, an interesting and culturally in- formative work that suffers from the lack of adequate photographs, diagrams, and draw- ings.

From the late 1950s to the present, a period marked by the emergence of Nigeria and Niger as independent states, the trend in Hausa lexicography has been towards practi- cal applications. For example, Haussar 1957 and Skinner 1965 were designed for Hausa learning English, while Skinner 1959 was aimed at English speakers wishing to use Hausa. The Hausa dictionaries of Newman/ Newman 1977 and Newman 1990 are linguisti- cally up-to-date works which incorporate recent loanwords and semantic extensions. While they are primarily intended for practi- cal use by native Hausa speakers and Hausa language learners, they also serve as a mod- ern reference work for scholars, since both Bargery and Abraham have long been out of print.

The most recent focus in Hausa lexicogra- phy has been the efforts by Hausas them- selves to create needed technical vocabulary. Lists of proposed technical terms have been published covering, among others, language and literature (Tsarin 1983, Mijangbo 1983), history and geography (Petit 1983), and general science and technology (Mahamane 1982). Interestingly, while items and concepts introduced into Hausa culture over the past half century were usually expressed as loan- words, the conscious creation of new techni- cal vocabulary has been done primarily through semantic extension and lexical deri- vation based on native Hausa words.

The next big step in Hausa lexicography, the creation of a monolingual dictionary, has been undertaken by a team of Hausa scholars in Nigeria. Their dictionary is now awaiting publication.

2. Selected Bibliography

2.1. Dictionaries and Wordlists

1st ed. with Mai Kano listed as co-author, 1949].


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2. Selected Bibliography

2.1. Dictionaries and Wordlists


2.2. Other Publications

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