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The term *Duramazwi* (*Kudura*: to reveal, explain; *mazwir* words), to render the English word "dictionary", has been in use in Shona for some time. It occurs in M. Hannan's *Standard Shona Dictionary*¹ and in D. Dale's *Duramazwi: A Shona-English Dictionary*.² The title of the work under review indicates that it is a dictionary of Shona in Shona, in which the resources of the language are used for the first time lexicographically to analyse and describe itself. In this important and original aspect, it differs from the two predecessors mentioned, namely, in being completely monolingual. It is the work of a team led by Dr. H. Chimhundu that is undertaking an ambitious and formidable project code-named ALLEX (African Languages Lexical Project) which seeks to compile monolingual dictionaries in all the African languages of Zimbabwe.

The first phase of the ALLEX project was formally launched at a workshop held at the University of Zimbabwe in 1992 in which lexicographers and computer experts from the Universities of Oslo and Gothenburg also participated. The publication of *Duramazwi Rechishona* four years later demonstrated the efficient dedication and enthusiasm of the ALLEX team. Having used the dictionary over a period of some months, this reviewer can testify to the almost complete absence of misprints or misplacements; no small achievement for a group of editors faced with an exacting work schedule.

SCOPE

*Duramazwi Rechishona* is a medium-sized, general-purpose dictionary designed to be inexpensive and easy to handle. It is well printed with different kinds of type, signalling the movement from headword to synonyms in the treatment of each major entry. The components of a typical major entry are: the headword, in large bold lower-case roman; the tone pattern, indicated by sequences of plain upper-case letters K and D, standing for high and low tone, respectively; the type of word in question, described by an abbreviated label in standard lower-case roman; a number or numbers, in the case of a noun, indicating the class to which it and any irregular plural forms belong; an explanation of the meaning or

meanings in lower-case roman, with the headword, when referred to, printed in italics; an illustrative example of examples in italics of the headword in context; finally, synonyms, printed in italics under the rubric FAN, which stands for “Similar forms”. For example:

Chibage DDK z 7>6. Chibage imbeu inorimwa ichiita vana vane tsanga
dzinogaiwa kuita upfu hunobika sadza. Baba vakarima chibage choga
FAN magwere 6, mabarwe 6.

(Maize: Maize is a plant which is cultivated and produces cobs with
grains which are ground to make flour for cooking stiff porridge.
Father has cultivated only maize).

The number of headwords listed is a modest 16 000, but the editors
claim that the number of words included in the dictionary is much larger.
Variants, differing only slightly in form, are entered within brackets
immediately after the headword. Many synonyms are listed which receive
no more than a simple mention, while many headwords are homonyms.
In such cases, each of the several meanings receives an explanation and,
often, an example of usage under the single homonomous headword. All
these formatting devices are in the interest of economy of space and
cost.

The work has a three-fold aim. The first is to provide a medium-sized
dictionary aimed at teachers and students of higher classes to assist
them understand and teach the structure of their language through the
provision, for the first time, of a technical terminology in Shona, dealing
with its linguistic features. Teachers and students of Shona are more
likely to need to consult a dictionary than others and to make use of its
contents in the course of their daily lives as well as to mediate its
contents to others. For the ordinary reader, such a work of reference can
provide, with ease and understanding, the meaning, use, and function of
words such as would not be so easily or fully grasped if conveyed in, and
then translated from, a foreign language as has been the case hitherto.

The second aim is to provide a “word hoard” (*dura romutauro wose:
lt. “a barn to store the whole language” — a conscious pun on the
homophony between *dura: “a granary” and “dura” “reveal”). Thus,
contributions from all the dialects and regional forms are sought to swell
the wealth of vocabulary of the unitary language, which is the property,
and inheritance of all. These contributions result in a good deal of
synonymity. In their treatment of synonyms, the editors take into account
the usage of the majority of speakers, widely used forms receiving the full
format with definition and exemplification, while forms with a narrower
distribution are entered as headwords in a shorter format in which
readers are referred to the main entry. This procedure is a straightforward
and economical way of promoting the unification of the language, while
reflecting its inner differentiation of use.
Editorial revision may be needed here to provide more consistency in the cross-referencing between headwords of full entries and their synonyms. It is important, in order to realise the aims of the dictionary, to unite linguistically all members of the Shona-speaking community, that all synonyms should be clearly and consistently cross-referenced. To emphasise this unity, synonyms, whether accorded the treatment of headwords or merely listed, are no longer labelled for dialectal origin as the editors feel such labels to be now unacceptable.

The dictionary realises the ideal for which the Reverend B. H. Barnes, the first editor and compiler of a unified Shona dictionary, argued nearly seventy years ago. He wrote:

Let us have a dictionary which shall include all the vocabularies in one alphabetical order, printed in the common orthography... The various dialectal areas will all be able to use the dictionary, for their own words will be in it, and at the same time, they will be getting familiar with the words found in other dialects... In a generation or two, we shall have advanced perceptibly towards a common language, not by the road of conquest, but by the road of peaceful interpenetration. Is it not true that we English of all parts of the English-speaking world have been brought to share a common speech very largely by the unifying influence of the dictionary? The Bible and Shakespeare have done much, but it may be argued that Dr Johnson has done even more.3

The third aim, the animating heart of the project, is to promote the status and use of the language. The dictionary, it is hoped, will help to make people use it appositively in widening areas of life, and to value it as conferring self-respect and the means towards a better and developed standard of life. This will be achieved by self-help and greater participation through the medium of the mother tongue in affairs at all levels. Towards the full realisation of this end, dictionaries of other kinds, other degrees of completeness, and other languages, will be needed. Duramazwi ReChishona is a mere beginning.

It is up to those whose mother tongue it is to realise that their language is capable of developing into a medium able to express and communicate to people at all levels the concerns, aims and techniques of national development. Having seen the potential and the first steps of growth towards the status of a national language which enshrines both indigenous cultural values and is actively adaptable towards the breadth of modern knowledge and the applications of science, it is up to them to actually realise this growth. However, confronting such growth is not only the effort of adaptation, somewhat like that of a rose creeper covering

a wall, but competition with the official language to which it would adapt, and which, at present, is so much more powerful, necessary for external contacts, and efficient in the fields to which the editors hope to see Shona develop. Yet, indigenous speakers are able to make the effort and the example of the editors, themselves all indigenous speakers of Shona, lies before them.

The metalanguage, or the technical language about itself, which the editors present, partly assembled from current use and partly specially devised, is listed in three columns of (1) abbreviations, (2) Shona terms in full, and (3) English equivalents. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>z</th>
<th>Zita</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

This triple column is, itself, triplicated to allow each of the three columns, alphabetically arranged, to provide an index for cross-reference. The editors expect these lists, and the lists of noun class prefixes and verbal extensions, both with examples, to be a help towards the teaching of Shona through the medium of Shona at all levels from the primary classes up to University courses. It is in the field of linguistics and literature that the first devising of technical terminology is being made.

**SELECTION OF HEADWORDS**

To the editors, seeking at once to promote both unification and development, the selection of what words to include in their dictionary to present problems of choice call for a great deal of care. We have seen how the question of dialectal diversity has been dealt with. The diversity arising from culturally determined styles of speech proper to intimate or distant relationships, the occasions on which veiled and allusive speech alternates with direct and open language, and the further developments within slang are not treated. Questions like these, as also the presence of the spoken dialects and their relation to the standard literary language, await treatment in the larger dictionary now being compiled.

A second problematic aspect of word selection arises from the adaptable nature of language as it suits itself to the needs of life. The greater the growth and development of adaptation, the more numerous are the innovations. The editors’ task is to discriminate between neologisms which, being the result of passing fashion, are quick to disappear, and those which strike deeper roots and persist, sometimes unexpectedly. For example, *chikafu* (English: scoff, food), *futseki* (Afrikaans: voertsek, “Be off”), and *hobho* (Afrikaans: hoop; English: a heap) have survived. Modern inventions are naturalised at once, for example *firiji* (English: fridge) and *kombiyuta* (English: computer). Some adoptives have been in use for a long time, for example, *mbanje* (Indian hemp or bhang).
ndarama (gold, cp. Arabic daraham, “coins”) and sinyoro (a praise name of the Njanka clan, adopted from the Portuguese “senhor”). However, particularly since independence, Shona and Ndebele are being increasingly used in business, central and local government, commerce, industry, mining, agriculture, education, health, advertising, broadcasting, and television, all areas which create pressure for term creation.

The two bilingual dictionaries mentioned earlier have provided a primary source for entries. Dale’s *Duramazwi: A Basic Shona-English Dictionary* had gone some way towards being monolingual in that definitions are partly in Shona and partly in English. It was drawn upon for the majority of its entries. These were supplemented by choosing words of wide distribution from Hannan’s *Standard Shona Dictionary*, a massive work of some 54,000 entries but still far from being complete. Research for *Duramazwi ReChishona* was able to discover many words not contained in it. The availability of these two earlier works obviously facilitated and expedited the production of *Duramazwi ReChishona*.

In order to make the selection of entries as widely representative of life as possible within the compass of a general purpose, medium-sized dictionary, the editors ensured that their nets were cast widely. Areas researched were schools and colleges, especially for terms covering language and literature, the media, sports and sporting, churches, trade and commerce. Thus, *Duramazwi ReChishona* is a corpus-aided dictionary, using language that has actually come from the mouths or pens of Shona speakers themselves.

**FORMAT**

The editors have followed the *cobuild*-type of format for their definitions. According to the editors,

Each definition consists of a complete sentence, so that the user is shown the word as it appears in natural language use. Such a definition illustrates both the typical grammatical context and the typical use of the word. From the user’s point of view, this method of defining is particularly useful for an inflecting language like Shona, where headwords are not necessarily orthographic words.4

A good example is the following:

*ZVIMBO RWAZIWA KAKA* kutsa mubatu kana matambo. Kufamba Kubva pane imwe nzuimbo pane imwe, netsoka kana kuti uchishandisa mudziyo, senge bhasikoro kana motokari kana chitima. Rwendo rurefu rwakadai harudi kufamba netsoka.

(To travel is to go from one place to another, on foot or by using a

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conveyance such as a bicycle, a motor car or a train. *Such a long journey is not to be travelled on foot*.

It is interesting to compare this entry with that given in Hannan's *Standard Shona Dictionary* which follows a more traditional format.


In many cases, the definition of a headword is so informative that there is no need for a further sentence as an illustrative example of use. Of course, the definition of a headword cannot cover all the senses inhering in it. Its aim is to present “the typical case” in such a way that the meaning is clear and the user is enabled to become aware of its use and further applications, and to use it in sentences of his own. When the definition is not sufficient of itself, then an example must be provided to clarify it further, always by way of a complete sentence.

The advantage of adhering closely to a formatting system is that, once a particular format has been agreed upon, then headwords of the same constituent class (noun, verb, ideophone etc.) can be defined in a consistent way. The Introduction to *Duramazwi ReChishona* describes the different defining formats used for nouns (five types of sentence), verb stems (two), adjectives (two), ideophones (two), and others (two). By following these, the dictionary attains a high degree of consistency.

The introduction to the dictionary ends with an explanation of the rubrics which provide descriptive linguistic information about the headwords which is complementary to that supplied by the definitions and examples. This information is helpful to those who are not used to consulting dictionaries.

 Altogether, this is a remarkable publication, worthy of note from a number of aspects. It is remarkable in being among the very first of monolingual dictionaries of an African language; in the consistency and rational character of its early planning, its preliminary research, its targeting of the most effective section of the public in view of the further aims of the dictionary programme, and its designedly well-timed collaboration with professional and technical expertise of the most advanced kind. It is remarkable also in being such a positive response to the challenge of independence, inspired by the belief in the potential of national languages to liberate and unite their speakers’ energies in the task of national development.

In its execution, it has given a very good example of collaboration in that it is the work of a dedicated team aided enthusiastically by help from a number of national agencies. The team has already embarked on a
further stage of its enterprise, a large Shona dictionary, making much
more use of the information stored, and a medium-sized Ndebele
dictionary, similar to that which we have been reviewing. In the words of
Duramazwi ReChishona, we can say: "Mazviita, musanete namangwana!
(Thank you for what you have done! Keep it up, tomorrow as well!)

England

George Fortune

Environmental Security in Southern Africa, Edited by Daniel Tevera and

Environmental Security in Southern Africa is a compilation of selected
papers presented at the SAPES Trust Colloquium on Regional
Environmental Security and Natural Resources held in 1998. Consisting of
13 articles grouped in four sections under the following themes:
Environmental Security Frameworks, Land Use, Water Conflicts and
Insecurity and Cross-Cutting Issues, the book seeks "to provide a coherent
treatment of key themes in relation to contemporary environmental
security in the region".

The first section on Environmental Security Frameworks contains papers
by Sam Moyo and Daniel Tevera, Meena Singh and Backson Sibanda.
Moyo and Tevera's paper, 'Regional Environmental Security in Southern
Africa', opens with an observation that, hitherto, the study of
environmental security has been an "eclectic and multidisciplinary effort
informed by a variety of analytic perspectives". It contends that what is
needed is a multi-factoral approach to understanding the various social,
economic, ecological and political influences on the demand, utilization
and management of natural resources. Such an approach, it is argued, is
best suited to providing solutions to environmental conflict in the region.
Meena Singh's paper, entitled 'Environmental (In)security: Loss of
Indigenous Knowledge and Environmental Degradation in Africa' analyses
land and environmental development and conservation strategies among
the Afar of Ethiopia and Basuto of Lesotho and highlights two critical
factors in environmental security. These are: a historical perspective to
environmental insecurity, famine and poverty in Africa, and the need to
fuse local Indigenous knowledge systems to build sustainable
environmental security. Singh concludes that the state's "imposition of
conservation measures upon an unconsulted rural farming community
was at best unsuccessful and at worst harmful to the environment".

In 'Community Participation: NGOs and IGOs in Nature Management'
Backson Sibanda argues that the era of liberalization and globalization
has brought to the fore Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) and
Inter-Governmental Organizations (IGO) in nature management, environmental security and community participation in resource utilization and management. Sibanda criticizes some NGOs and IGOs, such the Environmental Investigations Agency and African Wildlife Foundation for lacking “moral integrity and concern for the people” being primarily concerned with the welfare of animals and practising “eco-colonialism”. He argues that “the way forward” is endogenous community management of natural resources under their own terms with or without the international community and NGOs/IGOs.

Section Two focuses on land issues and contains papers by Sam Moyo, Alice Mongwe and Daniel Tevera, Gilbert Mudenda and Prosper Matondi. In “The Land Question and Land Reform in Southern Africa” Moyo provides an overview of the land question and land reform processes in Southern Africa as well as highlighting two strategies for land policy reform. These are: the promotion of freehold land tenure in place of communal tenure systems and the expansion of commercial farming through market forces. He identifies the key problems associated with land issues as, *inter alia*, discriminatory and insecure forms of tenure, increasingly skewed land ownership and control structures, the juxtaposition of patterns of overuse and under-utilization of land, and inequitable allocation of prime land to export-oriented production rather than to crops for the local market. A case in point is the position of the Basarwa people in Botswana. In “Land Rights of the Basarwa People in Botswana” Alice Mogwe and Daniel Tevera discuss the plight of the Basarwa and clearly demonstrate the effects of historical and current injustices over access to land and the dynamics of land claims and land rights. They show that the Basarwa have been displaced by various regimes over time to make way for commercial ranching, tourism and mineral exploitation and argue that the process of restitution is “a thorny one”, which the Government of Botswana seems reluctant to address.

In his turn, Gilbert Mudenda, in “Cross-border White Farmer Migrations in Southern Africa: The Zambian Experience” discusses recent migrations of white South African farmers into Zambia. Decrying this “invasion from the South”, he warns of the potential problems that might arise from the influx of such migrants who, in his own words, “are not a settler group but are largely transients who are in the country for opportunistic gain”. He also highlights the weaknesses of the post-colonial Zambian State in the face of land and environmental issues, especially its inability to withstand the influence of the developed countries, with the result that, to all intents and purposes, “all major policy documents are written in Washington and merely printed and bound in Zambia by the Government printer to give them a local touch”. Mudenda concludes by offering some way out of the malaise in Zambia. He recommends that
Zambia needs “to learn from experiences of other countries such as South Africa on how to establish institutions that support local investment, institute radical reforms of its natural resource laws and stop taking wrong advice” from foreign multilateral agencies such as the IMF and World Bank.

In “Access to Land and Water Resources in Zimbabwe’s Rural Environment” Prosper Matondi provides a stimulating analysis of access to land and water in rural Zimbabwe. His incisive discussion critiques the focus on “conflict rather than synergies between people and their organizations” as shown in the case of Principe irrigation scheme in Shamva where “decentralized rather than localized” systems continue to plague community based resource control and utilization mechanisms. Matondi provides “insight into how different types of conflicts impact on land resources” with dysfunctional institutions and underlines the need to strengthen community-based resource management institutions.

Focussing on Water Conflict and Insecurity, Part Three of the book has four articles. In a paper entitled “Managing the Zambezi: The Need to Build Water Institutions”, Ashok Swain and Patrick Stalgren analyze the water potential of the Zambezi River to provide the otherwise water-scarce Southern African region with adequate water resources. They make the important observation that, while disputes among the countries of the region over water management and access may arise, such “water disputes will only be solved by cooperation and compromise, not by the strict insistence on rules of law”. In “Shared Water Resources and Conflicts: The Case of the Zambezi River Basin”, Tabeth Matiza Chiuta maintains that an effective Integrated Water Resources Management relies on the three pillars of politics, technical cooperation and development of viable institutions, while Peter Zhou’s “The SADC Water Protocol” analyses the regional water management frameworks. The Protocol is based on the principle of “equitable and reasonable use of regional water” by the riparian states. It takes into cognizance the environmental security, legal and institutional policies, and water management at regional level. However, he argues that there is need for SADC countries to establish structures and a detailed policy framework which takes into account the increasing demand for water to meet food needs, environmental security, legal and environmental considerations and the need for cooperation among riparian states.

Lastly, in the paper, entitled “The Lesotho Highlands Water Project: Socio-Economic Impacts”, Khabele Matlosa examines the various theories on the role of big water projects on development. Drawing a distinction between the neo-classical approach which “considers quantitative changes as crucial” and the political economy approach, which “gives pride of place to qualitative changes, without prejudice to quantitative changes”,.
Matlosa indicates his preference for the latter. He argues that, while the economic significance of the Lesotho Highlands Water Project, whose construction was informed by the neo-classical theory, is indisputable, the full impact on local communities and environment are yet to be seen.

The fourth part of the book delves into the Cross-Cutting Issues. Daniel Tevera and Admos Chimhowu's paper "Spatial Development Initiatives and Regional Integration in Southern Africa" examines the possibilities of regional political stability and economic cooperation in light of the "dialectic of growth and decline, wealth and poverty, urban and rural" and the geography of "striking inequalities" among countries. Focussing on the Maputo Development Corridor, the paper documents the potential economic benefits and problems of distributing economic, environmental and social costs of SDI given the uneven stages of development between South Africa and Mozambique. Vieria Lopes and Phillip Kundishora, in "The Southern African Power Pool: Economic Dependency or Self-sufficiency?" scrutinize regional energy cooperation and coordination. Given the dependency of SADC and SAPP on donor funding, Lopes and Kundishora question whether the regional body promotes regional self-sufficiency or regional economic dependency on the North. The answers to this question are multi-faceted given the complexity of the economic, political, environmental and political issues involved. Nonetheless, what is clear to Lopes and Kundishora is the need for coordination among SAPP member countries to design and implement energy projects, follow adequate environmental standards, and, more importantly, set a regional agenda to meet the needs of the majority of the local population.

Two major themes running through Environmental Security in Southern Africa are environmental problems resulting in actual and/or potential conflict, and the need for endogenous-based solutions. Environmental problems and conflict are multifaceted — there is inequitable access to and distribution of natural, economic, social and political resources at the local, national and regional levels. In addition, the liberalization and globalization programmes, the weak local, national and regional institutions, and the domineering multilateral institutions such as the World Bank, IMF, NGOs and IGOs confound resources inequity and environmental conflict in Southern Africa. The book argues that a holistic approach is needed to analyze, understand and solve environmental resource management and conflict. In the same vein, institutions based at the community, local, national and regional levels, which are less reliant on outside factors and institutions, are necessary for the development of coherent, cohesive and effective programmes of environmental resources management in the region.
Environmental Security in Southern Africa, successfully integrates contributions from various disciplines and presents a very useful multidisciplinary perspective which draws on such varied academic fields of study as economics, environmental studies, policy and planning, political economy, local and regional studies and peace and conflict studies. It is an informative and analytic study, which makes a major contribution to the on-going debate on environmental security issues in Southern Africa. It is well illustrated with maps, tables and diagrams, which give the reader good supporting evidence on the issues that are central to the subject of the book. What is missing from the book, however, is a gendered analysis of these issues: an approach, which would have enriched its contributions considerably. Nevertheless, the book is topical, timely, and very useful. It is highly recommended to development activists, policy planners and decision makers, social anthropologists, ecologists, graduate students and academics.

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