

# **The Development of the English/Malay Dictionary: A Historical Perspective**

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## **1. Introduction**

In India, the earliest form of lexicography developed from the making of special notes of remarkable forms and expressions in classical literature, as for example the Vedic literature. The glosses or explanations were usually for language forms that were obsolete or unusual. In Greece and Rome, in the rewriting of older texts, glosses were made in the margins to explain difficult or outdated expressions. This gradually evolved into glossaries providing newer equivalents to an older (but same) language (Katre 1965:2-5). In Europe, the study of classical languages necessitated the glossing process too, resulting in glossaries of the classical and receiving languages or of complex and simple lists of vocabulary. The very beginnings of English lexicography for example, lies in the treatment of Latin texts during the days of the Anglo-Saxons (Osselton 1983:14). Interlineal glosses in English written between the Latin lines of the manuscripts gradually evolved into keyword lists and glossaries which are the forerunners of bilingual dictionaries.

Malay bilingual lexicography, however, did not have its beginnings from glosses in classical literature. It began as bilingual lists of vocabulary written by traders and travellers to the region, who wanted to have a working knowledge of the *lingua franca*. The lists were also useful to their fellow countrymen who came this way mainly for purposes of trade. As in other parts of the world, however, the Malay bilingual lists were wordlists of equivalents. Most of the early works were written by foreigners such as the Chinese, Italians, Dutch and English.

## **2. The First English/Malay Bilingual Dictionary**

Although the earliest known bilingual work of Malay is a Chinese-Malay wordlist, compiled between 1403 and 1511 (Blagden 1931-32:715-749), the first bilingual work of English appeared only about two centuries later. This is the bidirectional dictionary of 1701 by Thomas Bowrey.

Mention must be made here of a claim by Linehan (1949:185) of another work which was probably the first attempt at providing the Malay speech in the English language. This was the manual of 1624 by Augustine Spalding. This manual was an English version of Magister Gotthard Arthur's 1608 Latin version of de Houtman's Dutch Dialogues of 1603. In fact Linehan's list of dictionaries makes no mention of Bowrey's work. As the bilingual nature of Spalding's work is uncertain, and as it is a record of dialogues, it is inappropriate that it should be discussed as a dictionary in the context of this paper. Therefore Bowrey's work is regarded as the first dictionary of English and Malay. In the Dedication of his dictionary, we learn that Bowrey undertook this work "chiefly for the promotion of trade in the many countries where the Malayo language is spoken" (Bowrey 1701:2). In addition to the two parts of the dictionary proper (about 468 pages), Bowrey also included a map of "the Countrys Wherein The Malayo Language is Spoken", a section on "Grammar Rules for the Malayo Language" and "Miscellanies" (phrases and sentences). There is also a collection of dialogues on various subjects, specimen letters, information on the computation of time by the Mohametans and examples of

the “Malayo” character (in Roman and Arabic script). The “Miscellanies”, “Dialogues” and letters are in two columns, English to the left and the Malay translation on the right. Some of the conventions used in Bowrey’s dictionary would be familiar to us today. The entry words are alphabetically ordered (although only to the second letter). There are a fair sample of words from the different grammatical categories. The meanings are given in the form of equivalents and sometimes illustrated by example sentences. Bowrey indicated pronunciation of the Malay words by placing an accent mark above the vowel in the Malay word. Bowrey’s greatest accomplishment in the dictionary is his transliteration of Malay in Romanised script. The pains he took to establish accuracy in spelling and therefore pronunciation are reflected in the nineteen rules he set down for any user of the dictionary (Preface:4-6). In the Preface he says of the user who follows these directions carefully, “I do not doubt but that the Reader, though he never heard a word of **Malayo** spoken, yet will Pronounce the Language exactly, with its true Accent.” Bowrey’s dictionary may not be of practical value today, but it is an important record of early bilingual lexicographic style. It is not clear how he actually accumulated his corpus of English and Malay entry words but they are useful references for students of language change and language development.

### 3. English/Malay Works of the Nineteenth Century.

Bowrey’s work remained the only work of its kind until the nineteenth century when a similar type of dictionary was published in 1801 by James Howison. Among the other works of this period are dictionaries and vocabularies written by Marsden (1812), Thompson (1820), Crawfurd (1852), Keasberry (1862:Third Edition), Swettenham (1881/1886) and Kessler (1895).

Howison’s bidirectional dictionary was very similar to Bowrey’s. In fact a close study of the vocabulary alone shows that he may have copied or followed very closely Bowrey’s work, making only slight alterations. Even Bowrey’s nineteen rules for pronunciation are quoted almost verbatim in the preface to Howison’s dictionary. Howison’s dictionary, however, was distinctly different in that Malay meanings and Malay entries were also transliterated into the Jawi script.

Among the other bilingual works, Marshen’s dictionary was held up to be an “admirable work” (Irving 1878:203). Although Crawfurd’s work had a greater fullness of vocabulary (Irving 1878:202), it was less used, as meanings were given in the form of equivalents and synonyms only, without any usage examples. The various characteristics of these works will be discussed in the subsections below.

#### 3.1 The Entry Words

The entry words of the dictionaries will be discussed under the following subheadings: range, alphabetisation, pronunciation and origins of the word.

##### 3.1.1 The Range of the Entry Words

The criteria for choosing the entry words of either language depended on the size of the dictionary and the users. The larger dictionaries (of about five hundred pages) had a more comprehensive coverage of lexical terms, their aim being to give the users a realistic picture of the language (especially Malay) in use (for example, Marsden, Crawfurd and Swettenham). The smaller works, which were more like vocabulary lists rather than dictionaries as we know them, had a more selective list of entry words. Thompson’s vocabulary contained about two thousand English words, while Keasberry’s wordlist was contained in sixty eight doubled-columned pages. Kessler’s wordlist was even more specialised as it was intended for pupils in Standard I. It is uncertain how the writers decided on their particular corpus, but if we accept the method used

by Marsden as one possibility, then the corpus was collected "from the labours of my predecessors or from my own experience and study" (Preface:ii).

### 3.1.2 Alphabetization

In the nineteenth century there were two techniques of organizing the entry words. One was graphical, (that is according to the alphabet) and the other conceptual or thematic. All the works reviewed, except one, organized the entry words alphabetically. Thompson followed the conceptual approach for all the principal words, without regard to alphabetical order. However, his list of adjectives and verbs were listed alphabetically. The process of alphabetization, unlike Bowrey's and Howison's, was more complete as it was carried out to the last letter. Alphabetization was not only according to the Roman character but according to the Jawi script too, if the entry words were Malay (Marsden 1812).

### 3.1.3 Pronunciation

Phonemic or phonetic forms of transcription to aid pronunciation were absent from the dictionaries of this period. Instead, an orthographic approach was used. This approach was found to be simple enough to convey the genuine pronunciation of the words as spoken by a Malay. Marsden also respelled words to provide "a juster idea of the pronunciation" (Preface:vi). Swettenham followed Marsden's approach of pronunciation. It is interesting to note that in all the dictionaries here, attention was paid to pronunciation of Malay words rather than the English words. The reason for this appears to be that most users of these dictionaries were English-speaking persons wanting to learn Malay.

The use of the Jawi script was another way of providing pronunciation aid (Marsden, Thompson, Keasberry and Swettenham).

An important aspect of pronunciation of Malay words is the sound of the vowels. Thompson and Keasberry used a prosodic mark to differentiate the 'u' sounds; for example, **sûdap'** (sedap) and **mandul**. Marsden, Crawford and Swettenham extended this to the other vowel sounds, for example, 'a' and 'ã' in intermediate position. They also denoted an accented syllable by an acute accent for example, **besár** and **betúl**.

### 3.1.4 Word Origins

Although Bowrey and Howison indicated the origins of words, it was found to be only for words of Arabic origin. Marsden, Crawford and Swettenham indicated word origins of various languages like Persian, Hindustan and Portuguese. They did this by placing abbreviated forms of the language of origin after the Malay entry word. Only the language of origin of Malay words were indicated. For some unfathomable reason, Marsden even provided the word of Hindustani origin in the Hindi script. In some instances Swettenham provides further information about the word; for example, **Sahya** and **Sarong**.

## 3.2 Meaning

The most common method of indicating meaning is by use of single word equivalents and synonyms. This is especially the case for the works by Thompson, Keasberry, Kessler, Marsden, (only in the case of his English-Malay section) and Swettenham.

In the Malay-English section of the dictionary, which Marsden considered more important, meaning was given in the form of word and phrase equivalents. In addition to this, Marsden provided numerous examples of usage. It was his intention to convey to the European users of

his dictionary, the idioms and phraseology of Malay through these examples. Although Marsden acknowledged that examples should be genuine quotations, he used his own examples because he felt that they would be more efficient in conveying the meaning and the idiomatic expressions of Malay that he wanted his users to know (Preface:ii).

In addition to equivalents, Crawfurd also made use of explanatory phrases to indicate meaning. However, he did not provide examples of usage, which was one criticism directed at him, when his work was compared to Marsden's (See Section 3 above).

Although Swettenham used equivalents to record meanings of entry words, he provided further explanations in the form of notes. In Volume One (the English-Malay dictionary) which was his earlier work, the notes were given as footnotes. The footnotes either provided example sentences or further information about meaning or origins of words. In Volume Two however, these explanatory notes were placed in parentheses after the first meaning of the entry word was given.

Although only Marsden stated it explicitly (Preface:ii), a study of the meanings provided (especially Marsden, Crawfurd and Swettenham) shows that there was a system of ordering of meaning. General meanings of the most current meanings of words were placed first, as these were seen as meanings that most directly applied to the English users of the dictionaries.

### 3.3 Additional Matter

All the dictionaries reviewed had some form of additional information for the user. In some of the works (Thompson, Keasberry and Kessler) the information was at the back of the dictionary, whilst in the others it was in the front portion of the dictionary. A wide range of additional information was provided. In two of the works, which provided meaning in the form of single word equivalents only, the information consisted of examples of usage in the form of sentences (Kessler and Keasberry) or dialogues, letters and poems (Keasberry). These examples were provided in both languages.

Other information provided includes bilingual lists of nautical terms and numerals, tables of the alphabets, days of the calendar, weights and measures and guides to pronunciation and transliteration. Marsden provided his additional information in his fifteen page preface, while Swettenham provided it in separate sections.

Although Crawfurd's dictionary has almost no additional information, (except a list of abbreviations used in the work), it must be noted that grammatical aspects of the Malay language could be found in his grammar which is the first volume, the dictionary being the second.

### 3.4 The Nature of the Dictionaries

Several points about the dictionaries of the nineteenth century need to be mentioned. Firstly, most (if not all) the dictionaries were aimed at one group of users, namely the Europeans, specifically English-speaking persons. It is for this reason that there was greater effort in providing accurate information about the Malay language rather than the English language.

Not all the dictionaries were bidirectional. Thompson, Keasberry and Kessler wrote unidirectional (English-Malay) vocabularies.

Although all the dictionaries were general purpose types, with the aim of acquainting the users with the Malay in common use at that time, one work did differ. Kessler's vocabulary for Standard I pupils is reminiscent of specialised vocabularies and dictionaries so much in vogue today.

Finally, the purpose of the dictionaries was basically descriptive, not normative. In providing a sample of language in use at the time, the dictionary writers are of course conveying to the users the norms of usage. However, there does not seem to be any evidence that they are prescribing the right and wrong of usage.

#### **4. Dictionaries of the Twentieth Century**

##### **4.1 The First Five Decades**

In the first half of the twentieth century several new dictionaries of English and Malay were published. They ranged from large general purpose dictionaries to specialised vocabularies.

##### **4.1.1 The General Purpose Dictionaries**

Three dictionary writers stand out as significant contributors of this early period. They are R.J. Wilkinson (1901-1903; 1908; 1932), William G. Shellabear (1902; 1916) and R.O. Winstedt (1913). Frank Swettenham's dictionaries were reprinted in 1901 and in 1914. As they do not differ from his earlier editions, they will not be discussed here.

##### **4.1.1.1 The Works of R.J. Wilkinson**

Wilkinson wrote three dictionaries that were considered to be important works. The earliest work (1901-1903) was a unidirectional Malay-English dictionary in three parts. Part I (published in 1901) and Part II (published in 1902) form the dictionary proper, while Part III (published in 1903) contains the Preface, and Introduction to Malay History and Literature, information about the Malay language, an index of the Malay entries and other additional information. The second work of 1908 is an abridged version of the first dictionary, while the third dictionary (1932) is another unidirectional work, based on the first dictionary.

##### **4.1.1.1.1 The Entry Words**

The vocabulary items contained in the dictionaries are confined to the Malay of literature and to the colloquial of the two principal dialects spoken in the Straits Settlements (Wilkinson 1903:i). Wilkinson applied various methods of collecting the words for his dictionary, probably the first compiler so far to have done so in a somewhat systematic way. First, with the help of various persons reading through Malay literary works, he recorded any word or phrase of special interest along with its citation. Then he had their meanings and definitions given or verified by some Malays. When he realized that many Malay words and terms lay outside literature, he collected words from bare wordlists, including his own. Their meanings were verified by a committee of three native speakers of Malay. To collect various technical terms of Malay he sent collectors out into the field to gather terms related to, for example, fishing, workshops, boat sheds, house building, rice planting, etc. Although the fruits of these labours could not be ready in time for the 1901-1903 dictionary, he was able to incorporate them in the dictionary of 1932 which Wilkinson thought was "a real advance on the earlier work" (Preface:iii). In this later work he was also able to include scientific names of flora and fauna.

As in most of the dictionaries of the nineteenth century, entry words are alphabetically organized, either according to the Jawi alphabet (1901-1903) or the Roman alphabet (1908;

1932). Also, as in the earlier dictionaries, pronunciation is indicated by the orthographic transcription of the Malay words.

The various Arabic letters and vowels in a word are represented by certain accepted Roman equivalents, giving a fair approximation of the sound of the word. As Marsden did before him, Wilkinson also gave alternative spellings of words, probably to aid pronunciation (for example at **abus** we also find **habus**).

In providing the language of origin of the Malay entries, Wilkinson had an additional feature. Where the original is different from the Malay word, he gives it in parenthesis; for example, **udara** [Skr: adara]; **tuwala** [Port: toalha] and **ratin** [Dutch: ruiten].

Also unlike the works of the nineteenth century, Wilkinson uses many abbreviations. For example, when referring to works of other writers (Marsd, Kl), when referring to sources of citations (Hg. Tuah), when referring to the grammatical category of a word (verb only) and others (q.v.).

#### 4.1.1.1.2 Meaning

Compared to the earlier works, Wilkinson's contribution in giving the meanings of words is significant in its details, especially in the first dictionary. He used almost any device available to give the meanings of the Malay entry words: equivalents, synonyms, phrasal explanations, definitions and illustrative sentences and citations from various literary works of the time including poetry. In this, Wilkinson is probably the first in this genre of dictionaries. The illustrations and citations are absent in the abridged dictionary. The later work (1932) however retained this feature and even provided detailed notes for several entry words, a device reminiscent of Swettenham's dictionary.

#### 4.1.1.1.3 Additional Matter

As was mentioned earlier, the first dictionary had a vast amount of additional information, which formed Part III of the work. The other two had comparatively little, such as prefaces and lists of abbreviations and references.

#### 4.1.1.2 The Works of W.G. Shellabear

Shellabear's Malay-English dictionary was published in 1902 with a second and third edition in 1912 and 1925 respectively. A separate English-Malay dictionary was published in 1916. In the compilation of all his dictionaries Shellabear acknowledges his debt to Wilkinson (1901) and others, especially Favre (1880) and Klinkert (1892).

#### 4.1.1.2.1 The Entry Words

In the choice of entry words for his dictionaries, Shellabear is a good example of a compiler who uses the works of his predecessors for this purpose. In the prefaces of both the works he acknowledges his debt to various other works. He compared his lists of words with other vocabularies to ensure that important words were not left out. For the English-Malay dictionary of 1916, Shellabear referred to the best English-French and English-German dictionaries and possibly *Webster's International Unabridged Dictionary* for a selection of the entry words. (In the Preface he states that the English meanings have been taken from this large work.)

Shellabear maintains the alphabetical order for his entry words providing word origins for only the Malay entries or the Malay meanings. However some new (or different) features are seen in his works.

Two different approaches are used to simplify pronunciation of the word entries in the Malay-English dictionaries. Although he uses the orthographic approach, Shellabear omits the short vowels. This is also seen in the Malay meanings of the English-Malay dictionary. For example, **rda** (reda); **Lm bah** (lembah); **k-tat** (ketat). He was of the opinion that looking up the word would be as easy in his dictionary as it would be in a Malay dictionary printed in the Arabic character.

The other approach is seen in the English-Malay dictionary, where pronunciation of the English words is indicated phonetically, the method used in *Webster's International Unabridged Dictionary*.

With regard to pronunciation also, Shellabear may have been the first to place an accent mark to indicate stress for the Malay entries. Again he was indebted to the Webster's for this. Pronunciation of words was further aided by the syllabic division of words by a hyphen (**hu-ru-ha'ra**, for example).

In the English-Malay dictionary, another very noticeable feature is the indication of the grammatical category of words which, so far, had not been carried out in this genre of dictionaries.

Shellabear did not provide much grammatical information for his Malay-English dictionaries, however. Instead, he placed numerals in parentheses after the words, for the user to refer to his *Practical Malay Grammar* of 1899. The vocabulary is, in effect, an index to the grammar.

In the Malay-English dictionaries all root words form the headword. All derivatives, compounds and expressions of the headword are discussed under the headword entry. This is not followed in the English-Malay dictionary, especially with inflexions and derivatives. Phrasal expressions, however, are placed under the headword entry; for example, **taken aback** is under the headword **aback**.

#### 4.1.1.1.2.2 Meaning

Basically, meaning in both types of dictionaries is rendered in the form of equivalents and lists of synonyms. Antonyms are also given. Cross-referencing methods are used to help the user better understand a word. In the English-Malay dictionary, for many words, Shellabear first provided another English word or meaning of the entry word before providing the Malay equivalents.

#### 4.1.1.1.2.3 Additional Matter

As in most of the dictionaries of this type, some additional matter is found. In the Malay-English dictionaries, in addition to the usual Preface and Introduction, Shellabear also appended a list of English-Malay words on various topics like colours, clothing, diseases and nautical terms. In the English-Malay dictionary, showing his interest in Baba words, he appended an introduction to the language of the Straits-born Chinese and a list of Baba words with their English translations.

#### 4.1.1.3 The English-Malay Dictionary of R.O. Winstedt

Winstedt compiled a large unidirectional dictionary in two volumes. It was first published in 1913 and went through further reprints in 1920, 1949, 1951 and 1952. Although this work was based on Wilkinson's Malay-English dictionary, Winstedt's work was different in some ways.

##### 4.1.1.3.1 The Entry Words

In organizing his entries, Winstedt maintained the graphic method (that is, the alphabetical order). Only the grammatical category of verbs was denoted. Plurality was indicated by reduplicating the initial letter of the word; for example, **cc** for **cats** and **ff** for **fish** or **fists**.

Pronunciation of English words was not indicated in any way. For the pronunciation of the Malay words, Winstedt used the orthographic method employed by Wilkinson. All headwords are root words. Inflections, derivatives and other expressions formed from the entry word are discussed under this entry, though in a rather disorganized manner, in the form of a paragraph. Polysemic and homonymic words are given different entry status (see **fit**, **mean**, **rail**). For the Malay words, Winstedt used hyphens to indicate affixation; for example, **beradu** 'sleep', but **adu-kan** 'cause to fight' when **kan** is the suffix.

##### 4.1.1.3.2 Meanings

Like Shellabear, Winstedt usually placed English synonyms or phrases after the English entry words. Malay meanings as in the earlier works are in the form of equivalents. His main purpose was to be precise and brief.

##### 4.1.1.3.3 Labels

Besides the use of abbreviations for indicating the language of origin of the Malay words, Winstedt employed several other labels for various purposes. He used the asterisk to indicate Malay dialect words and the cross (+) for literary words. For the Malay words also he attached usage labels like 'fig' (figurative), 'sl' (slang), 'pr' (proverb), 'coll' (colloquial).

#### 4.1.2 The Special Purpose Dictionaries

Besides the large English and Malay bilingual works discussed above, numerous other smaller or more specialised dictionaries and vocabularies were published during this period.

##### 4.1.2.1 Handbooks and Manuals

Works by Freese (1903), Ang (1919), Fraser and Neave (1930) and Hamilton (1936) take the form of manuals or handbooks, where vocabulary lists form part of the work besides reading exercises, grammar, pronunciation and conversational samples. Meanings are given in the form of equivalents, synonyms or brief explanations. Some, like Fraser and Neave, provide phonemic pronunciation guides of entry words.

##### 4.1.2.2 Specialised Works

Other English/Malay works were more specialised, either in terms of categories of words entered or the consumers. This was a new trend in dictionary writing; the only work of this nature seen so far was by Kessler (1895).

Pringle's work (1900) was a wordlist of English-Malay words intended for use in schools only.

Fraser and Neave (1909) published a general colloquial vocabulary for travellers. Kelly and Walsh (1929) wrote a handbook of general vocabulary for tourists.

Winstedt himself compiled a bidirectional dictionary of colloquial Malay (1941) because he thought looking up colloquial words in the larger dictionaries is difficult.

Further specialization of vocabulary was seen in the publication of bilingual lists of words from various fields.

Gerrard (1905) compiled a dictionary of medical and health terms only. Winckel (1944) compiled an English-Malay handbook containing words related to the military and vocations. McHugh (1948) compiled a bilingual list describing political and military events.

Although these specialised works made no major contribution in terms of the features in bilingual works, they represented the start of a new trend of specialised dictionaries that would mushroom in the years after the 1950s.

## **4.2 Bilingual Works After the 1950s**

From the 1950s onwards there was a spectacular rise in the publication of bilingual works. These works were of diverse types, sizes and quality. They can be broadly classified into several types, namely, terminology lists, small or pocket dictionaries, school dictionaries (primary and secondary level), specialised dictionaries and large or general purpose dictionaries.

### **4.2.1 The Terminology Lists**

Almost one third of the English-Malay bilingual works of this period were terminology lists compiled and published by various institutions, universities and individuals. The large-scale compilation of these lists was a new phenomenon, reflecting the changes and changing needs of the Malay language in the country.

In the same year that Malaya gained independence from the British (1957), Malay was formally declared the national language of the new independent nation. However, the implementation of the "national language and official language" status was delayed for ten years. One of the reasons for this was that at that point in time Malay lacked the necessary specialised vocabulary for it to be viable as an effective official language. The compilation of the terminology lists in the early sixties and seventies was aimed at filling this void.

Almost all the terminology lists had entry terms in English with Malay equivalents. Those published in the sixties and seventies were mainly unidirectional whereas many published in the eighties were bidirectional. The first lists were of terms from general areas, more inclined to subjects in the field of arts. These included lists from the fields of administration, education, economics and geography. In the eighties, many of the lists published were terminology from the sciences including biology, biochemistry, linguistics, mathematics, sports and literature.

The entry items were mainly basic terms in the field although many lists also included derived terms and provided cross-references for them. The total number of terms in a list varied from a few hundred to a few thousand, depending on the field. Many of the later lists were updated or revised versions of the earlier ones.

Some terminology lists were specified for certain groups. This was especially the case for terms from the various sciences, where lists were prepared for use in schools or for the tertiary level.

#### 4.2.2 The Small or Pocket Dictionaries

Another phenomenon particular to the decades after the 1950s was the publication of multitudes of pocket or small dictionaries. Pocket dictionaries of English and Malay alone numbered about forty. Of the thirty-five English and Malay dictionaries reviewed or seen by the author, twenty-four were unidirectional while the rest were bidirectional. The fact that the dictionaries were small in size had no reflection on the quality of its contents. Of course, there were several publications that were run of the mill products out to cash in on the market. The pattern of organization was just entry words in one language and equivalents in the other (Collins-Gem 1985; Crescent 1992). However some of the pocket dictionaries were quite accomplished and could provide real help for the users.

Most of these dictionaries had headwords in alphabetical order except for rare ones (Wehl 1961) which followed a topical arrangement of entries. Some provided pronunciation guides (Asmah 1988) while others also indicated the grammatical categories of the entry words (Othman 1989; Hawkins 1991; Coope 1991). The number of entries for the pocket dictionaries varied with some claiming to have over 20,000 root entries (Hawkins 1991; Collins Gem 1975). Meanings for either the English or Malay entry words varied, from the providing of equivalents with brief explanations (Othman 1989; Santoso 1990; Hawkins 1991; IPC 1991), to those which gave full, clear and sometimes detailed explanations of words (Ashmah 1988; Coope 1991). One dictionary was quite consistent in providing examples of use of the words in relevant contexts (Asmah 1988). The marketability of these pocket dictionaries is evidenced by the fact that many of them have reprints and new editions (*Kamus DwiBahasa* 1989, 4th. edition; Coope 1975, Revised edition 1991; Mohd. Salleh Daud 1977,1989). Coope's 1991 edition added new headwords, commonly used phrases and idioms and simple example sentences. He also updated the Malay spelling to be in line with the new spelling system.

The compilers or publishers of various pocket dictionaries always attempted to add new features to their dictionaries to make them better or different from the others. One dictionary (IPC 1991) included many English loanwords as head entries. These loanwords followed the Malay orthographic system. They were usually followed by the original English form and then a brief explanation in English. Others provided a great deal of additional information in the front or end matter including notes about the Malay language and grammar lists of cross-references and lists of foreign words and phrases (Collins Gem 1975; Modh. Salleh Daud 1989 and Santoso 1990; Othman Sulaiman 1991). One dictionary also had some illustrations to aid understanding (Mohd. Salleh Daud 1989).

#### 4.2.3 School Dictionaries

Another trend in dictionary publication in the latter half of the twentieth century is the publication of dictionaries of varying sizes to cater specifically to the needs of school pupils. Dictionaries of this type were not common in the early part of the twentieth century. Many of these works were published in response to the needs of the new Communication Syllabus implemented in schools in the eighties. This researcher came across sixteen works meant specifically for primary school pupils and nine for secondary school pupils. Although many of these works are classified as dictionaries (according to their titles), a glance through the pages of most of them show them to be far from the dictionaries that we know. There were some with the usual pattern of entry words in alphabetical order with equivalents and very brief explanations

(Mohd. Salleh Daud 1977; M.S. Masri 1989). Many others, however, approached word and meaning differently, probably taking into account their young consumers. A few works followed a topical arrangement of words (Parnwell 1984; Abu Bakar 1988). Many others provided words and meanings based on various pictures having some theme, for example, animals in the forest or things in the house (Ahmad Shariff 1985; Noreda 1986; Othman 1986). Some compilers maintained syllabic divisions of words to aid pronunciation (Ashraf 1986; Abdul Aziz 1987; Nor Shafinaz 1990). Some others indicated the use of words in context by giving examples of phrases or sentences showing the word in use (Lutfi Abas 1985; Mohd. Salleh Daud 1989). As was the case for the pocket dictionaries discussed above, compilers and publishers of these "school" dictionaries also tried to be different or better than others. However, one consistent feature of most of these dictionaries was the use of colour and illustrations. One dictionary even used blue colour print for the Malay equivalents of the English words (Ozog 1987).

#### 4.2.4 Specialised Dictionaries

Another type of dictionary that surfaced in the last decades of the twentieth century is what this researcher classifies as specialised dictionaries. This is because they are dictionaries dealing with terms from different registers. They are unlike the terminology lists discussed above in that they are not school or academically oriented. They are meant for public use. This researcher came across about seventeen of these works, out of which fifteen were unidirectional. These dictionaries covered various registers like the military (Whipps 1952); trade terms (Mohd. Haniff 1951); forestry (Ironsides 1957); birds (Tweedie 1965); economic products (Burkhill 1966); medicine (Gimlette and Thompson 1971); idioms (Soosai 1974) and radio, T.V. and electronics (Haiges et.al 1990). The dictionaries were of various sizes, some being small (almost pocket-sized) (Mohd. Haniff 1951; Whipps 1952 and Ironsides 1957) while one was in two volumes (Burkhill 1966). Generally most dealt with current terms of the register. Meanings were usually given in the form of equivalents or brief explanations.

#### 4.2.5 Large or General Purpose Dictionaries

In the last decades of the twentieth century several new large or general purpose bilingual dictionaries of English and Malay were published. Reprints of some earlier works were also made (such as the works of Wilkinson and Winstedt).

Most of the new bilingual dictionaries of English and Malay were unidirectional except for a few like the *Kamus Times* (1980) and *Kamus Padat* (1991) which were bidirectional. Some dictionaries of the former type are by Wojowasito and Lee (1966), Hornby et al (1972), Awang Sudjai (1977), Richards and Asmah (1978), *Kamus DwiBahasa* (1979), Sumodo (1986), Lutfi Abas (1988), Daud Baharum (1989), IPC (1991) and *Kamus Inggeris-Melayu Dewan* (1992).

Although most of the features used in these dictionaries are not new, some variations were introduced that merit mention.

##### 4.2.5.1 The Entry Words

All the dictionaries reviewed used the traditional alphabetical order for the entry words, except Richards and Asmah (1978) who followed a thematic or topical arrangement. Phonetic transcription of entry words was absent in all the dictionaries except two (Wojowasito and *Kamus DwiBahasa*). Most of the dictionaries discussed derivatives, compounds and figurative expressions under the root word entry whilst others placed them as separate entries (*DwiBahasa* and *Kamus Dewan*). In these two works as well as in the works by Sumodo and Daud Baharum, polysemic words are separately numbered entries. Only the *Kamus Dewan* provided some usage

and semantic field labels for its entry words; for example, 'fml' (formal), 'phys' (physics) and 'mil' (military).

#### 4.2.5.2 Meaning

Other than the normal equivalents and brief explanations used to give the meanings of the entry words, many of the dictionaries used illustrations to enhance understanding. Illustrations were in the form of pictures (Richards and Asmah) and line drawings (Hornby et al; Awang Sudjai; Lutfi Abas and Daud Baharum).

Most of the dictionaries also provide examples of sentences to illustrate the meaning of the English words. Awang Sudjai, employed this device, not only to show usage but to convey subtle shades of meaning. Lutfi Abas' work had a novel way of showing usage and spelling immediately. He used grey boxes in which the wrong and correct usage and spelling of a word are shown. For example:

OR	Cedok (bukan ceduk) gulai dan sudu
	munafik (bukan menafik)

#### 4.2.5.3 Additional Matter

Additional information in most of the dictionaries was the usual information about the language or lists of words or phonetic transcriptions.

Hornby *et al* however had some unusual additional matter. It was almost an encyclopaedic supplement with a map of the Asean countries and their flags, a map of Malaysia and information about its population, trade and weather in the form of pie-charts and bar-charts. He also included a brief account of Malaysian history and some notes on the active and passive verbs of Malay.

#### 4.2.5.4 Organization

Some mention must be made about the organization of the material in two of the dictionaries as they appear to be different from the standard two-column arrangement in most works of this nature.

As was mentioned earlier, Richards and Asmah (1978) arranged the information thematically according to topics such as "People and Family Life" or "Feelings and Behaviour". For each theme, there was a general pattern of presenting the vocabulary. The normal pattern with some variations is as follows: the page first gives the title of the theme in English with the Malay translation. This is usually followed by a list of words from the theme, with the Malay equivalents given in dark pink print. The list is not in alphabetic order. Some words taken from this list are dealt with separately in small compartments or windows. The grammatical category of the word is given, followed by equivalents or simple definitions. The meaning of every one of these words is further clarified by using a relevant colourful picture and an example sentence given below this picture. The English entry word or its derivative in the sentence is in italics. Sometimes the context for several entry words is a single text of one or two paragraphs.

The content in Sumodo's work is not arranged in two columns of entry words and meanings but in three columns per page. The first column is for the entry words, the second for the English equivalents or phrases and the third for Malay synonyms and explanations.

## 5. Summary

It has been said that the history of lexicography does not include brilliant innovations as do developments in science and technology. It is a succession of slow and uneven advances in vocabulary and methodology.

The development of English/Malay bilingual lexicography was such. Centuries of lexicographic development has shown only a gradual evolution of techniques, punctuated by some development or novelty. This was probably because the dictionary was and remains a commercial product. As much as theoretical and linguistic features influence the contents of a dictionary, social and historical factors do so too.

The early bilingual works were not based on any formal lexicographic practice. However the conventions of dictionary writing grew over the years, becoming more systematic, not because of controls placed by any agency, but by the process of evolution and accretion. Various conventions like alphabetization, boldface, italics, parentheses, usage labels and abbreviations were established over the years. The nineteenth and twentieth centuries especially, saw the formalisation of dictionary style, with compilers referring to earlier works to guide them in writing their own.

There was minimal development in providing the meaning of the entry word. Equivalent only gave way to equivalents and brief explanations and finally examples of usage as seen in many of the works in the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries. It appeared as though Firth's slogan "You shall know a word by the company it keeps" (1957) was finally being adhered to. The notion of substitutability between languages was not totally acceptable.

The physical changes in the Malay bilingual works were quite clear. In the twentieth century, in particular, the appearance of dictionaries changed drastically. Dictionaries were published in various sizes, formats and colours. The user orientedness of dictionaries was maintained, however. The different types of dictionaries (large, pocket, school, etc.) available bears testimony to that fact.

Another feature that changed over the centuries was the "authorship". The early works were written by members of the trading community that visited the region (the Chinese; Italians) or colonised parts of the region (the Dutch, the British). Towards the end of the nineteenth century and the whole of the twentieth century, more and more local compilers and publishing houses emerged. In many ways the "authorship" of Malay bilingual dictionaries is a reflection of the political and social changes that took place and are taking place in the society today. This change is further enhanced by the variety of languages with which Malay bilingual works are compiled. Other than English, numerous bilingual works of Chinese, Arabic, Japanese, Thai, Tamil and even of Russian, German and Malay have been published in the last decades of the twentieth century.

**LIST OF DICTIONARIES**  
(In Chronological Order)

- 1701 Bowrey, Thomas.  
*A Dictionary: English and Malayo, Malayo and English.* London: Sam Bridge.
- 1801 Howison, James.  
*A Dictionary of the Malay Tongue as Spoken in the Peninsular of Malacca, the Islands of Sumatra, Jawa, Borneo, Pulau Pinang etc. in Two Parts English and Malay and Malay and English.* London: Arabia and Persian Press.
- 1812 Marsden, William.  
*A Dictionary of the Malayan Language in Two Parts, Malayan and English and English and Malayan.* London: Cox and Baylis.
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*Vocabulary of the English and Malay Languages with notes. Volume I (English-Malay).* London: W.B. Whittingham.
- 1887 Swettenham, Frank Athelstane.  
*Vocabulary of the English and Malay Languages with notes. Volume II (Malay-English).* London: W.B. Whittingham.
- 1895 Kessler, J.F.  
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- 1900 Pringle, A.E.  
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*Easy Malay Vocabulary*. 4th edition. Singapore: Kelly and Walsh.
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*Dictionary of Colloquial Malay (Malay-English and English-Malay)*. Singapore: Kelly and Walsh.
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