

Issues to ponder on as we navigate the translation of academic texts from English into isiZulu

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to report on the experiences learnt from a translation project which involved the translation of academic study material from English into IsiZulu. The study material was commissioned for translation as part of a multilingual project being undertaken by one of the Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in South Africa and came from different disciplines of study. The translator who had been assigned the project assembled a team of three qualified and experienced translators to collaborate on the project. Each translator was assigned to translate materials from the same discipline to avoid inconsistencies that could arise if different translators were assigned to handle texts from the same discipline. Computer Assisted Translation (CAT) tools were used during the translation process and different English-IsiZulu/IsiZulu-English lexicographic resources and various dictionaries were used as references when needed. Feedback received from the translators indicated that translating academic texts from English into isiZulu is quite challenging due to lack of equivalent terminology in isiZulu for most of the concepts used in academic English. However, it was found that it was possible to circumvent equivalence related challenges by using various translation strategies that are recommended by renowned translation scholars. Using qualitative data sourced from the translated texts and analysed using the theory of equivalence, this paper is a synopsis of the different translators' experiences (challenges, hurdles and how they were resolved) and makes suggestions of what needs to be done to improve the translation of academic texts into indigenous African languages in the future.

Keywords: academic texts, indigenous African languages, multilingualism, translation, translation strategies.

Introduction

Before democracy, the South African education system promoted Afrikaans and English as the only languages of instruction in higher education. This resulted in the marginalization of the indigenous African languages, which are mostly spoken by blacks who form most of the population of the country. The transition to democracy in 1994 and the adoption of a new constitution changed the status of the nine indigenous languages (isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Ndebele, siSwati, isiXhosa, Xitsonga, Tshivenda, and Setswana) spoken in the country. Not only did they become official but new policies and laws which made provision for the recognition,

promotion and use of these languages in teaching and learning were also promulgated in higher education. These pieces of legislation included, among others, the National Language Plan for Higher Education (2002), the Language Policy for Higher Education (2002), and most recently, the Language Policy Framework for Public Higher Education Institutions (2020). The latter is a review of the 2002 Language Policy for Higher Education and aims at addressing the reported problem of a lack of or little progress being “made in exploring and exploiting the potential of African languages in facilitating access and success in higher education institutions” and “seeks to address the challenge of the underdevelopment and underutilization of official African languages

at higher education institutions” (2020, p. 5). Its aim is to enforce the promotion and use of the indigenous African languages as academic languages or languages of scholarship.

Taking from the mandate of this policy revision, HEIs must devise specific plans to enact the policy. In addition, they must ensure that it is indeed implemented and that better strides are made towards promoting the previously marginalized indigenous African languages as academic languages or languages of scholarship. Promoting the use of the indigenous African languages is expected to contribute to fulfilling the constitutional mandate of promoting multilingualism in education and in the country, by extension. The revised policy mandates HEIs to take practical steps to promote indigenous African languages assigned to each institution (as outlined in the Development of Indigenous African Languages as Mediums of Instruction in Higher Education Report, 2003) as languages of scholarship in each institution. The drive to promote the translation of academic texts into indigenous African languages that is undertaken by the institution on which this paper reports is part of the goals that the institution has set itself as part of its response to the mandate from the Department of Higher Education.

This paper then reports on the experiences learnt from a translation project which involved the translation of academic study material (study guides, workbooks, course information documents and reference resources) from English into isiZulu. It is a synopsis of the different translators’ experiences (challenges, hurdles and how they were resolved) and makes suggestions of what needs to be done to improve and advance the translation of academic texts into indigenous African languages in the future.

Research objective

The objective of this paper is to investigate challenges that translators are likely to encounter when translating academic texts from English into isiZulu and to suggest ways in which the challenges can be resolved. Among the challenges that we experienced when we undertook the project was a problem of lack of terminology for many academic concepts used in

the English texts; a problem of non-equivalence in the use of some terms and expressions between English and isiZulu due to the two languages being non-cognate languages and the problem of lack of academic reference resources in isiZulu. The objective of the paper is thus to illustrate how certain translation strategies can be used to circumvent translation challenges between isiZulu and English.

Research questions

This paper addresses the following questions:

- What challenges are translators likely to encounter when translating academic texts from English into isiZulu?
- What steps can be taken to circumvent the challenges experienced by translators in the process of translating from English into isiZulu? learning

Literature review

The prevailing academic climate in South Africa places a huge emphasis on promoting multilingualism. This should be done through the promotion and use of the various languages that are constitutionally recognized as official in the country in various spheres of education. The need to promote multilingualism is not only a constitutional mandate but also stems from the fact that after 1994, HEIs saw an increase in the number of students who did not come from an English linguistic background (Maseko and Kaschula, 2012; Booysen, 2015). This increase in enrolments of students from diverse linguistic backgrounds led to a renewed impetus to develop the previously disadvantaged indigenous African languages as languages of teaching and learning and of scholarship in HEIs. The Language Policy Framework for Higher Education Institutions (2020) defines a language of scholarship as a language that is used in an academic setting for knowledge production and dissemination as well as for technology transfer. In literature that focuses on language studies, the concept of a language of scholarship is usually used interchangeably with the concept of academic language or scientific language. Gottlieb and Ernst-Slavit (2014) define academic language as a language used in school to

help with the acquisition of new content or to help with deeper understanding of new content and to be able to communicate that content with others. It is imperative to develop and advance scholarship in all the twelve languages that are constitutionally recognized as official in the country to ensure that multilingualism as espoused in the constitution is also a reality in the education sphere. Multilingualism is understood as the effective use of multiple languages either by an individual or by a community (Conez and Gorter, 2011; Duarte et al, 2020). In the South African context there is a high prevalence of both multilingualism at individual level (where an individual can effectively use (speak, read or write) more than one language and multilingualism at community or societal level (where entire communities can use multiple languages and where the entire society is multilingual). South Africa currently has twelve languages that are recognized as official languages in the country. Though the country is essentially multilingual, higher education qualifications in the country currently do not effectively prepare students to function in various multilingual environments in the country. Maseko and Kaschula (2012, p. 131) claim that “students trained in South African institutions of higher learning are not able to cope in South Africa’s multilingual and multicultural environments as they are not able to provide a service to the majority of the people that they are supposed to serve.” Promoting multilingualism then is not only aimed at aligning with the constitution but it is a way of responding to the prevailing linguistic realities in HEIs and of preparing students for the multilingual realities in which they are eventually expected to provide their vocational/professional services.

One of the main ways in which HEIs can help promote multilingualism is through translation. This is because translation makes it possible to establish connections between two languages and the readers of the two languages (Halliday and Hasan, 1991, cited in Mukundamago, 2010). Furthermore, the role that translation plays in scientific knowledge development has been well documented (Alsmadi, 2022; Karoly, 2022). The marginalized background of the indigenous African languages is in direct contrast to the privileged position which

English has always enjoyed in terms of material development and use in teaching and learning. As a result, most translation in the South African context happens from English to the other languages spoken and used in the country.

Several scholars concur that translation is a very complex practice (American Council of Learned Societies, 2006; Bernacka, 2012; Karoly, 2022) for several reasons. Firstly, it is often viewed from two perspectives – as a process and as a product. This means that both the strategies involved in undertaking translation as well as the product (outcome) of the process are subjects of concern in translation. Secondly, translation places an emphasis on the reader (of the target text that is produced). This requires the translator not only to concern themselves with the source text that they must translate but must also be able to put themselves in the position of the reader of the target text. Thirdly, translation requires the translator to have proficiency in both the source language and the target language (American Council of Learned Societies, 2006) to be able to do justice to both the source text and the target text that they produce. It requires the translator to interpret the meaning of the (source) text and subsequently produce an equivalent target text (Mukundamago, 2010).

Despite its complex nature, however, translation also has a unifying aspect and can help with the creation of new words/vocabulary (Bernacka, 2012). This is quite important in the South African higher education space to enable effective teaching and learning to take place and to help develop the indigenous African languages. These languages have been marginalized for a very long time. To some extent they continue to be marginalised in the sense that their utilization as mediums of instruction or Languages of Learning and Teaching (LoLTs) is very limited compared to Afrikaans and English. They are still limited to being taught as subjects at school level (basic education) and as fields of study restricted to African literatures and language/linguistics in higher education institutions. For this reason, there are very few resources that a translator can refer to and use in the process of translation. To make matters worse, there are hardly ever any discipline-specific resource materials written in the

indigenous African languages in the same way that there are discipline-specific dictionaries (psychology dictionaries, financial dictionaries, etc.) written in English, for instance. The lack of such reference resources makes the task of translating academic texts into the indigenous African languages quite a daunting one as translators must rely on generic references that are not necessarily meant for use as academic or technical references. In the case of the project reported on in this study, English-IsiZulu/IsiZulu-English lexicographic resources and various English-IsiZulu/IsiZulu-English dictionaries were used as references during the translation process.

The texts that were commissioned for translation into isiZulu in the project under discussion were texts that are meant for academic use from different disciplines which included among others, Early Childhood Education, Agricultural Science, Curriculum Studies, Educational Psychology, Economics and Nursing Science. They included study guides, workbooks, and reference sources, among others. The texts have been classified as academic and thus required translation of a specific nature, viz technical because they involve the use of specialized vocabulary, discipline-specific terminology, and adherence to academic conventions. Academic translation or discipline-specific translation is often regarded as the most difficult type of translation to do (The American Council of Learned Societies, 2006; Manae and Manae (2014). The task proved to be challenging and complex for a number of reasons. The main one is that isiZulu is one of the academically underdeveloped indigenous African languages in South Africa. Therefore, it lacks a fully-fledged specialized vocabulary and a form of academic language that can be used to effectively translate texts from English into isiZulu while retaining the academic nature and discourse of the text that is being translated.

The specialized or technical nature of the documents that had to be translated required that experienced and qualified translators be involved in the project. All four isiZulu translators that were involved in this project are duly qualified translators with postgraduate qualifications in the field of translation itself and/or other disciplines

and are all native speakers of isiZulu. Each translator had translation-related experience that spans more than 5 years. Specialised translations also require consistency in the translation of terms and/or specialized vocabulary. To ensure consistency, each translator was allocated texts that belong to the same discipline and CAT tools like Trados, Autshumato and Wordfast were used to translate.

Theoretical framework

The equivalence theory informs the analysis of the texts that were translated in this report. Alsmadi (2022) claims that the need to compare texts is the major driving force behind the emergence of the equivalence theory. Achieving equivalence entails finding words in the target language that can be used to convey a similar meaning to texts from another language – the source language. It was imperative for the translators to ensure equivalence between the isiZulu target texts and the English source texts as much as possible so that the target users would receive the same information as their counterparts who would access the material in English. This research used the theories of equivalence to describe translation challenges and counterstrategies adopted in the translation of academic texts. Particularly the theory of non-equivalence (Baker, 1992/2012) and the theory of functional equivalence (Nida, 1969) as explained by Li (2021) were used. Nida (1993) as cited in Shiflett (2012, p. 31) suggests three principles to take note of when approaching functional equivalence He explains these as follows:

Principle I: Functional equivalence is necessary if a close, formal translation is likely to result in misunderstanding of the designative meaning; certain changes must be introduced into the text of the translation.

Principle II: Functional equivalence is necessary if a close, formal translation makes no sense; certain changes may be introduced into the text.

Principle III: Functional equivalence is necessary if a close, formal translation is likely to result in serious misunderstanding of the associative meanings of the original text or in a

significant loss in a proper appreciation for the stylistic values of the original text; it is important to make such adjustment as are necessary to reflect the associative values of the original text.

These theories helped in identifying and understanding challenges of non-equivalence which Nagdhi and Eslameih (2020) describe as a phenomenon of failing to find a word in the target language that can be used to express what is contained in the source language text. According to Wildsmith-Cromarty (2008) factors such as ‘non-lexicalisation in the target language of a source language concept, culture-specific concepts that may not be known in the target language culture’ may result in non-equivalence at word level. Baker (2012) provides various reasons for non-equivalence with possible solutions and explains that various types of equivalences can be achieved in translations at word level and at textual level.

Bolinger and Sears (1968) define a word as the smallest unit of language that has meaning while Baker (2012) regards a word “as any sequence of letters with an orthographic space on either side” (Baker, 2012, p. 9) The latter scholar adds that meaning does not have to be attained in a complete word but even parts or units of a word can carry meaning. For example, *revive* is made up of two units (*re-* and *-vive*) and it means to make alive again and each of these units are considered in the achievement of equivalence at word level. Baker further explains equivalence in word or lexical equivalence as finding an equivalent word in the target language which will carry the intended word meaning (Baker, 2012) However, lexical meaning can be interpreted differently from propositional meaning, expressive meaning, presupposed meaning, and evoked meaning. This paper considers the evoked meaning which Baker explains as meaning arising from a dialect or register which in the context of this study is the academic field of the source texts (Baker, 2012).

Another form of equivalence that we considered in the analysis of the data is formal equivalence. According to Alsmadi (2022), formal equivalence is a translation approach that originated from Eugene Nida in 1969. It requires a translation to be loyal to the source language

vocabulary and grammatical structure with the intention of rendering a translation that is as close as possible to the original text. This type of translation is often found in word-for-word translation or literal translation where the translator keeps the words from the source language in the same position in the target language as a means of conveying the intention of the source language. Ntshangase-Mtolo (2009) observed that achieving formal equivalence when translating between non-cognate languages (languages with different grammatical structures) is difficult because of different linguistic units between languages. She posed that literal translation could lead to target texts that do not convey the intended meaning because of structural differences between the two non-cognate languages. English and isiZulu which are the focus of translation in this project are non-cognate languages. Contrary to this view, Dlamini (2021) claims that literal translation could be used in translation from English into isiZulu if the target text will follow the isiZulu grammatical structure. The translation should not just provide words with similar meanings but should make use of contextually fit words that transfer the target meaning.

Another type of equivalence coined by Eugene Nida is dynamic equivalence (Alsmadi, 2022). The aim in this type of equivalence is to create a translation document that would result in a similar response from the target text receiver as intended by the source language text sender because they would have understood the meaning of the text in the same way. The vocabulary and grammatical structure used in dynamic translations would be that which is appropriate in the target language rather than in the source language. In later years Nida amended this translation theory to functional equivalence, which considers the impact the text has on the source reader and the target reader (Alsmadi, 2022). The aim of the theory is that a translation should achieve the same function in the target language as it does in the source language (Li, 2021). Ntshangase-Mtolo (2009) argues that functional equivalence may not suffice in the translation of technical texts to isiZulu because it shifts translation to meaning rather than texts’ content. As much as translations may not achieve one

hundred percent equivalence, a close translation with the possibility of achieving the same results was the goal of the translators in the current study. This was because the texts would be translated into four different languages and it was significant that target isiZulu users received the information in the same way that English users would. Subsequently, the theory of equivalence and the theory of non-equivalence as explained by Nida and Baker respectively (Alsmadi, 2022; Baker, 2012) were employed when analysing the translation of study guides, workbooks, and reference sources from the different disciplines whose materials were translated as part of the project under study.

Methodology

This study followed a qualitative approach and relied on the primary resources that were used in the translation process for data collection and analysis. To determine the effectiveness of a translation, it is recommended that texts from the two languages involved in the translation process are compared using relevant translation analysis procedures (Alsmadi, 2022; Nagdhi and Eslamieh 2020). For this reason, the primary sources of the translation were used to source relevant texts. Four translators were given two academic texts each to translate from English into isiZulu. The texts were from different disciplines and each translator translated texts from the same discipline. Once the translations were completed, each translator was asked to write a summary explaining their experience of translating the texts that were assigned to them. These included both the challenges that they experienced as they translated the texts and suggestions of what they thought needed to be done to improve future translations. In the feedback that the translators provided they had to provide examples of terms and expressions that posed challenges during the translation process. Each translator provided a sample of at least ten terms from each text that they translated. The feedback from the translators is used to inform the discussion of both the challenges experienced during the translation process as well as the strategies that were used to circumvent such challenges. For the purposes of the analyses that follows, three texts were randomly selected from which examples were also randomly sampled to

illustrate the challenges as well as the strategies used to translate. The texts were from the following disciplines: Early Childhood Education, Curriculum Studies and Economics. The terms and expressions that have been used as examples in the data analysis section were randomly sampled from each of the three disciplines. Because the purpose of the study was to report on academic translation challenges between English and isiZulu, terms were randomly sampled from each discipline to avoid advantaging or disadvantaging one or other discipline and to allow for the generalisation of the final findings of the study (Omona, 2013). For illustration purposes in the forthcoming discussion, only terms that posed translation challenges and for which translators could find translation strategies that could be used to translate the term and achieve equivalence were used.

Data Analysis and Discussion of Findings

This section presents data emanating from the feedback that was sourced from the four translators who were involved in the translation of academic study material from English into isiZulu. This data analysis includes information on the challenges that were experienced by the translators, examples to illustrate the type of challenge as well as the strategies that were used to circumvent the challenges to aid the translation of each of the texts that were assigned for translation.

The common finding from all the feedback that was provided by the translators related to the difficulty in achieving equivalence in translation between the source texts (English) and the target texts (isiZulu). This indicates that the process of translating from English into isiZulu is not easy because of the linguistic distance between these two languages. Ntshangase-Mtolo (2009) posits that achieving equivalence for non-cognate languages is complex and challenging in terms of meaning and morphological practices of the target language. The feedback further indicated that challenges were experienced with achieving equivalence both at word level and at textual level. This means that there were instances where translators had trouble finding words with equivalent meanings between the two languages and instances where an entire text produced did not

have equivalent meanings between the two languages. Attempts to achieve equivalence in the translation of academic text from English into isiZulu were met with challenges in terms of both equivalence and non-equivalence. The feedback further indicated that each translator used different strategies to help overcome challenges that impeded the maintenance of equivalence between the source text and the target text. Owji 2013 cited in Alsmadi, 2022, p. 552 defines translation strategies as “techniques, procedures or methods used by translators to overcome any translation problem.”

Strategies that were employed to achieve formal equivalence and functional equivalence and strategies employed to overcome non-equivalence are also explained. The strategies that the translators reported to have used included the following: literal translation to achieve formal equivalence and the strategy of functional equivalence. In the analyses that follow, translation data is put side by side in tables according to source text (English) and target text (isiZulu) to make comparing and identifying the texts easier. The tables further have a column where the challenges and strategies for each data set are indicated.

Illustration of translation strategies used

Formal equivalence

Texts A–C below are samples from one of the texts where a translator employed literal translation to achieve formal equivalence.

Text A

Source Text	• Academic Support and Development
Target Text	• Ukusekelwa Nokuthuthukiswa Ngokwemfundo Ephakeme

The translator translated words from the source text (ST) to the target text (TT) by following grammatic structures of the target language (isiZulu). The isiZulu word order is not identical to the ST's, thus a back translation of the TT would be *supporting and developing in higher education*. The translator ensured that all words in the source text were translated but within the target language grammatical structure.

Text B:

Source Text	• Inclusive Teaching and Learning
Target Text	• Ukufundisa Nokufunda Okuhlanganisayo

In this example as well, the translator retained literal translations of the source text words but followed the grammatical structure of the target language which requires the subject to be stated first in the text. A back translation of this text is *Teaching and Learning that is inclusive*. Grammatical differences between the two languages did not hinder the translation process because the translator decided to be

loyal to the target text structure which conveyed the intended meaning without omitting anything that the source text intended to transfer.

Text C

Source Text	• Please be advised that the preferred method of communication are emails and not necessarily telephone calls.
Target Text	• Uyaziswa ukuthi indlela engcono yokuxhumana ama-imeyli kunokushaya ucingo

In this example, the translator ensured that the entire text was translated word-for-word but did not disrupt the language structure of the target language and retained the wordiness of the source language. Had this translation been rendered in faithfulness to the vocabulary of the source language it would have been *Uyaziswa ukuthi indlela engcono yokuxhumana ama-imeyli futhi hhayi ukushaya ucingo*. The latter would have been a weak translation because keeping ‘and not’ (*futhi hhayi*) in the target text is not a conventional way of speaking in isiZulu and would not be an acceptable translation to the target isiZulu readers. The syntactic adjustment in the above example aligns with Toury’s (1995) view that the target text should be acceptable in the target language, which implies that a literal translation that ignores expectations of target text users is not advisable. For this reason, the translator used *kunokushaya ucingo* (instead of telephone calls) which is an acceptable grammatical structure in isiZulu.

Word-for-word translation was used as a translation strategy by translators in this study for the following reasons:

- It helped them render a target text that was as close as possible to the source text.
- It helped maximise harmony between source and target texts.

In all the instances where formal equivalence was employed, it was employed without interfering with the structure and vocabulary of the target language. However, as Nida (1993) cautioned, formal equivalence may not always be the best option and in such

circumstances, functional equivalence may be the viable alternative. In the project that this paper gives a report on, the strategy of formal equivalence did not work for all the texts that were translated, alternatively, the translators used the strategy of functional equivalence.

Functional equivalence

The following tables (Table 1 – Table 3) illustrate examples of instances where translators reported having used the strategy of functional equivalence to translate some terms used in the different texts. Translators reported the use of this strategy in instances where there were no equivalent terms in isiZulu to translate some English terms.

Table 1 gives examples of instances where extensive descriptions were used to convey the text according to the culture of the target language. This was intended to provide target text users with a better understanding of the terms used in the source language.

In example A, the translator described what organ transplant is so that the reader gets a complete picture of the process mentioned in the source text. Similarly, in example B, the translator explained the concept of ‘face-to-face’ classes in contrast to studying online.

In the examples above, isiZulu did not have one term to translate each of the underlined words and each term was translated by using a group of words to describe the phenomenon or concept concerned. In example A, ‘online’ is a problematic term to translate to isiZulu as there is not yet an available coined term to denote this term in isiZulu. The translator decided to translate by

using a phrase that refers to the concept as using an internet program (*ngohlelo lwe-inthanethi*) because that is how one connects online. In a similar vein, the translation of ‘attributes’ in

example B used three words (*izinto ababonakala ngazo*) to explain attributes because isiZulu does not have a readily available equivalent term for ‘attributes’

Table 1:

Source Text	Target text	Back translation of underlined text
A. The Republic of South Africa should introduce laws and policies that allow payment for <u>organs for transplant</u>	A. IRiphabhuliki YaseNingizimu Afrika kufanele imise imithetho nezinqubomgomo okuvumela ukukhokhelwa <u>kwezitho zomzimba zokufakwa kwabanye abantu</u> .	A. parts of the body that are transplanted onto other people
B. <u>Face-to-face contact sessions</u>	B. <u>Ukufundela Ngqo Egumbini Lokufundela</u>	B. Studying directly in the study room

Table 2:

Source Text	Target text	Back translation of underlined text
A. Through the use of ICT, you are expected to connect <u>online</u> with your teammates	A. Ngokusebenzisa i-ICT, kulindeleke ukuba uxhumane namalungu ethimba lakho <u>ngohlelo lwe-inthanethi</u>	A. internet program
B. Definitions of Graduate <u>Attributes</u>	B. Izincazelo <u>zezinto</u> abathweswe iziqu <u>ababonakala ngazo</u>	B. things that (graduates) are identified by

The strategy of functional equivalence was also utilised where the intended meaning of an isiZulu translation, although in natural vocabulary, was deemed not readily clear. In such instances, the English source was immediately included in brackets after the translation as illustrated in example A above. *Izindlela* which is used to translate ‘approaches’ in the example above, is commonly used to

translate ‘ways’. To ensure that the intended readers of the isiZulu text attach the applicable contextual meaning to ‘*izindlela*’, the translator added the English source word (approaches) in brackets.

In some instances, the strategy of borrowing was used to translate terms that have no isiZulu equivalents and an explanation in isiZulu was

put in brackets to clarify terms that were borrowed from English as illustrated in examples B. In example C, the translator used the strategy of translating by description and included the English term in brackets after the description.

The drive to achieve functional equivalence in translating academic texts was underpinned by the goal of producing texts that were going to allow isiZulu-speaking students access to information in the same way as their counterparts using original texts written in English.

The strategy of functional equivalence enabled the translators to provide translations that were as close as possible to the source texts written in English. As functional as this approach was to translation, there were other challenges posed by non-equivalence – where there were no equivalent words available in the target language to convey the information contained in the source text. In this study, translators raised the following linguistic issues of non-equivalence from a text from the discipline of Economics:

Table 3:

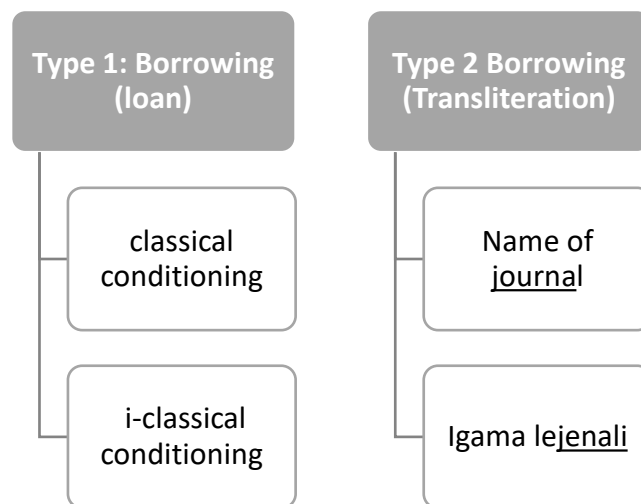
Source Text	Target text	Back translation of underlined text
A. The module uses participatory, inclusive and blended learning <u>approaches</u>	A. Imojuli isebenzisa izindlela (<u>approaches</u>) zokubamba iqhaza, ezihlanganisayo kanye nokufunda okuxubile	A. ways/means (approaches)
B. <u>Deontology</u> and <u>Utilitarianism</u>	B. i-Deontology (indlela yokwenziwa komsebenzi) ne-Utilitarianism (ukwemukela loko okusebenzela iningi)	B. Deontology (means of how work is done) and Utilitarianism (accepting that which works for most people)
C. <u>Euthanasia</u>	c. Ukuqedela ngenxa yesihawu (euthanasia)	C. Finishing off due to compassion

Challenge	Translation strategy	Example
Source terms that have not yet been localised in the target language.	- Borrowing - Transliteration - Coinage	ST: Microeconomics TT: i-Microeconomics. ST: journal TT: <i>ijenali</i> ST: elasticity TT: <i>isilinganisonguquko</i>
Source terms were semantically complex.	Translation by description	ST: supply curve TT: izingakuhlinzeka ngomkhiqizo
Target language lacks a concept for a specific term	Translation by a general word	ST: artifact TT: <i>impahla eyakhiwe</i>
Source and target languages make different distinctions in meaning.	<i>Ukufunda</i> used to translate two different terms in isiZulu and the English equivalent written in brackets	ST: reading and learning TT: <i>ukufunda</i> (reading); <i>ukufunda</i> (learning)

Another challenge that was reported by all translators was a lack of isiZulu equivalents for relatively new technological terms and expressions such as login. Such terms were retained in English as any attempt to translate would result in loss of meaning if the English term got translated into isiZulu. That is why the English

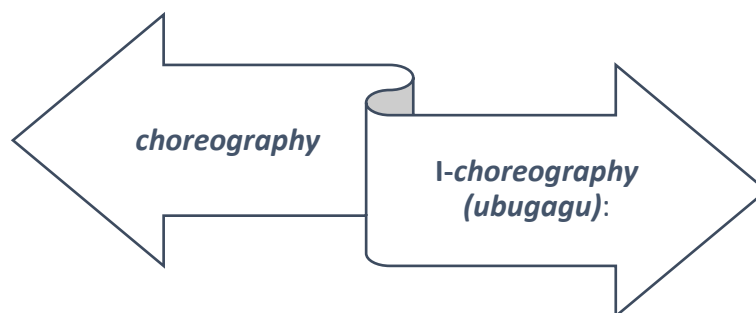
term is adopted and used unaltered in isiZulu communication contexts. Also, scientific terms that could not be rendered using a single word or term in isiZulu e.g., behaviourism, constructivism were borrowed from the source language in instances where their translation would require using descriptive phrases that could potentially result in loss of meaning or confusion. The following table illustrates how the strategy of borrowing was employed to translate some of the terms that currently have no isiZulu equivalents.

Table 4:



Type 1 and Type 2 borrowing as differentiated by Dlamini (2021) were used to translate the two terms in the example above. Type 1 borrowing is a type of borrowing where a word is taken as is from the source language and can be easily identified even when found within the target language where it is morphologized and not phonologized according to the structure of the target language. In the example included in the table

‘classical conditioning’ has been taken from English and translated into isiZulu by prefixing *i-* in isiZulu so that it becomes i-classical conditioning. In Type 2 borrowing, a source language word is taken and adapted to the phonological and morphological structures of the target language. In the example above, the word ‘journal’ was adapted to the isiZulu phonological and morphological structures and translated into *ijenali*.



In the above example, the term ‘choreography’ was translated by borrowing from the source due to its nature as a concept in the

academic field. However, the term does have an isiZulu equivalent which is provided in brackets (*ubugagu*) after the borrowing. The translator

avoided filtering the concept to a general word ‘*ubugagu*’ which Mbatha (2006, p. 175) defines as “*ubunyoninco bokuhlabelela noma bokukhuluma kumbe bokugida*” (being an expert in singing or speaking or dancing). In the context of the text where it is used in the source document, ‘choreography’ is defined as ‘the art of creating dances’ and had the translator opted to only use ‘*ubugagu*’ it would have incorporated singing and speaking which is not the intended meaning in the source text. Subsequently, the translator borrowed the term as used in the source and included a closely related isiZulu word in brackets to clarify.

Another challenge that was reported by the translators was the challenge of translating source terms that have specific meanings in English but have generic translations in isiZulu e.g. strength and power which are both translated as *amandla* in isiZulu and terms such as approaches and styles which are both translated as *izindlela* in isiZulu. In such instances the translators used the same term to translate both words as it is the case in isiZulu and put the English source term in brackets to indicate the intended contextual meaning as illustrated in the following examples:

Amamodeli ezindlela (styles) *zokufunda* (learning).

Ukubaluleka kokufundisa abafundi ukufunda (reading).

All the examples included in the foregoing discussion illustrate different strategies that were used by the translators to circumvent translation challenges between English and isiZulu. This implies that, despite the two languages being non-cognate, there are translation strategies that can be effectively used to bridge the linguistic and cultural gaps between the English isiZulu. It can thus be concluded that these strategies can be used to mitigate translation challenges between English and the indigenous African languages.

Discussion

As the demand to teach and provide students with material in languages that they understand increases, the demand for academic translation grows. Despite the reported challenges

experienced when translating from English to indigenous African languages it is imperative that steps be taken to help improve translation from English -the dominant language of instruction in South Africa- into the indigenous African languages. To help these languages grow and reach acceptable levels of scholarship in the various disciplines of academic study, it is important that stringent translation processes are adopted and followed across all HEIs in South Africa. These could involve standardisation procedures that are followed to ensure that texts that are produced are of an acceptable academic standard. The processes could also involve developing and adopting guidelines that can help improve translation in each discipline, collaborations between translators and discipline specialists. Creating centralised databases in which discipline-specific translations are housed could help with corpora research for the different disciplines which could help with establishing academic discourses and conventions for indigenous African languages. It would also help for each institution to establish translation quality assurance processes that need to be followed to help ensure that translated texts go through strict review processes before they are adopted for use to ensure that information transmitted in the different languages is standardised.

Conclusion

The promotion of multilingualism in higher education institutions in South Africa has huge implications for translation. Promoting multilingualism must be done in tandem with the development and adoption of translation practices that will help ensure that multilingual texts that are produced for academic purposes are of an acceptable quality. This is so because the various official indigenous African languages which need to be promoted as languages of scholarship have been marginalized for a long time and continue to be underdeveloped as languages of teaching and learning at tertiary levels of education. Most material that is used for academic learning is not available in these languages and this brings about a need to have academic material translated into these indigenous African languages. For this reason, it is important that higher education institutions adopt effective policies to help

improve translation practices to the indigenous African languages so that they eventually reach acceptable levels of academic development for them to be used for scholarship. It is also important for different institutions to train translators in domain or discipline-specific translation to help develop and improve academic discourses in the indigenous African languages.

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