

**INVESTIGATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AVAILABLE TOOLS FOR TRANSLATING
INTO TSHIVENDA**

by

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DECLARATION

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I, MULALO EDWARD NEMUTAMVUNI, declare that **INVESTIGATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AVAILABLE TOOLS FOR TRANSLATING INTO TSHIVENDA** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....
MULALO EDWARD NEMUTAMVUNI

.....
DATE

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the following people:

- From my father's line: My late grandfather Mr Itani Joe Nemučamvuni (Mutwanamba) whom I have never had any luck of seeing him in this world and my late grandmother Mrs Mavhungu Ravhanga-Nemučamvuni who passed on while I was approximately six years old.
- From my mother's line: My late grandfather Mr Nditsheni 'Lučongela' Jim Sheleni Mbaimbai (Mbedzi) and my grandmother Mrs Tshavhungwe Sarah Mačodzi (Kwindā)-Sheleni.
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SUMMARY/ABSTRACT

This study has investigated the effectiveness of available tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa with the aim to investigate and determine the effectiveness of these tools. This study dealt with the problem of lack of effective translation tools used to translate between English and Tshivenda. Tshivenda is one of South Africa's minority languages. Its (Tshivenda) lack of effective translation tools negatively affects language practitioners' work. This situation is perilous for translation quality assurance. Translation tools, both computer technology and non-computer technology tools abound for developed languages such as English, French and others. Based on the results of this research project, the researcher did make recommendations that could remedy the situation. South Africa is a democratic country that has a number of language-related policies. This then creates a conducive context for stakeholders with language passion to fully develop Tshivenda language in all dimensions. The fact is that all languages have evolved and they were all underdeveloped. This vividly shows that Tshivenda language development is also possible just like Afrikaans, which never existed on earth before 1652. It (Afrikaans) has evolved and overtaken all indigenous South African languages.

This study did review the literature regarding translation and translation tools. The literature was obtained from both published and unpublished sources. The study has used mixed methods research, i.e. quantitative and qualitative research methods. These methods successfully complemented each other throughout the entire research. Data were gathered through questionnaires and interviews wherein both open and closed-ended questions were employed. Both purposive/judgemental and snowball (chain) sampling have been applied in this study. Data analysis was addressed through a combination of methods owing to the nature of mixed methods research. Guided by analytic comparison approach when grouping together related data during data analysis and presentation, both statistical and textual analyses have been vital in this study. Themes were constructed to lucidly present the gathered data. At the last chapters, the researcher discussed the findings and evaluated the entire research before making recommendations and conclusion.

MANWELEDZO

Iyi ḥodisiso yo ita tsedzuluso nga ha kushumele kwa zwishumiswa zwi re hone zwine zwa shumiswa u pindulela u bva kha luambo lwa English u ya kha Tshivenda na u bva kha Tshivenda u ya kha English ndivho I ya u sedzulusa na u lavhelesa kushumele kwa izwi zwishumiswa uri zwi a thusa naa. Ino ḥodisiso yo shumana na thaidzo ya ḥaheleno ya zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwine zwa shumiswa musi hu tshi pinduelwa vhukati ha English na Tshivenda. Tshivenda ndi luñwe lwa nyambo dza Afrika Tshipembe dzine dza ambiwa nga vhatu vha si vhanzhi. U shaea ha zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwine zwa shuma nga ndila I thusaho zwi kwama mushumo wa vhashumi vha zwa nyambo nga ndila I si yavhuđi. Iyi nyimele I na mulingo u kwamaho khwalithi ya zwo pindulelwaho. Zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela, zwa thekhnołodzhi ya khomphiyutha na zwi sa shumisi thekhnołodzhi ya khomphiyutha zwo dalesa kha nyambo dzo bvelelaho u tou fana na kha English, French na dziñwe. Zwo sendeka kha mvelelo dza ino thandela ya ḥodisiso, mułodisisi o ita themendelo dzine dza nga fhelisa thaidzo ya nyimele. Afrika Tshipembe ndi shango ḥa demokirasi ḥine ḥa vha na mbekanyamaitele dzo vhalaho nga ha dzinyambo. Izwi zwi ita uri hu vhe na nyimele ine vhabaramikovhe vhanne vha funesa nyambo vha kone u bveledza Tshivenda kha masia othe. Zwavhukuma ndi zwa uri nyambo dzothe dzi na mathomo nahone dzothe dzo vha dzi songo bvelela. Izwi zwi ita uri zwi vhe khagala uri luambo lwa Tshivenda na lwone lu nga bveledza u tou fana na luambo lwa Afrikaans lwe lwa vha lu si ho ḥifhasini phanda ha nwaha wa 1652. Ulu luambo (Afrikaans) lwo vha hone shangoni lwa mbo bveledza lwa fhira nyambo dzothe dza fhano hayani Afrika Tshipembe.

Kha ino ḥodisiso ho vhaliva mañwalwa ane a amba nga ha u pindulela na nga ha zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela. Mañwalwa e a vhalwa o wanala kha zwiko zwo kandiswaho na zwiko zwi songo kandiswaho. Ino ḥodisiso yo shumisa ngona dza ḥodisiso dzo ḥanganyiswaho, idzo ngona ndi khwanthithethivi na khwalithethivi. Idzi ngona dzo shumisana zwavhudisa kha ḥodisiso yothe. Data yo kuvhanganywa hu tshi khou shumiswa dzimbudziso na u tou vhudzisa hune afho ho shumiswa mbudziso dzo vuleaho na dzo valeaho. Ngona dza u nanga sambula mułodisisi o shumisa khañulo yawe uri ndi nnyi ane a nga vha a na data yo teaho na u humbela vhavhudiswa uri vha bule vhañwe vhatu vha re na data yo teaho ino ḥodisiso.

Tsenguluso ya data ho ḥanganyiswa ngona dza u sengulusa zwo itiswa ngauri ḥod̄isiso ino yo ḥanganyisa ngona dza u ita ḥod̄isiso. Sumbandila ho shumiswa tsenguluso ya mbambedzo kha u sengulusa data. Data ine ya fana yo vhewa fhethu huthihi musi hu tshi khou senguluswa na u vhiga. Tsenguluso I shumisaho mbalo/tshivhalo (khwanthithethivi) na I shumisaho maipfi kha ino ngudo dzo shumiswa. Ho vhumbiwa džiḥoho u itela u ḥana data ye ya kuvhanganywa. Ngei kha ndima dza u fhedza, muṭodisisi o rera nga ha mawanwa, o ḥaṭhuvha ḥod̄isiso yoṭhe phanda ha u ita themendelo na u vhina.

KEY CONCEPTS

Automated translation
Autshumato
Back translation
Computer Assisted Translation
Computer Assisted Tools
Diacritics
Effectiveness
Equivalence
Human translation
Integrated translation environment
Language practitioner
Machine translation
Microsoft
Post editing
Skopos theory
Software
Source language
Source text
Target language
Target text
Trados
Translation memory
Translation tools

ABBREVIATIONS

AF-ZA	:	Afrikaans-South Africa
AIDS	:	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CAT	:	Computer Assisted Translation
CTexT	:	Centre for Text Technology
DAC	:	Department of Arts and Culture
ELWC	:	European (or Europhone) Languages of Wider Communication
ENG-GB	:	English-Great Britain (British English)
FM	:	Frequency Modulation
GUIS	:	Graphical Industry Interfaces
HIV	:	Human Immune Virus
HLT	:	Human Language Technology
ICT	:	Information and Communication Technology
ITE	:	Integrated Translation Environment
KJV	:	King James Version
LGP	:	Language for General Purpose
LISA	:	Localisation Industry Standards Association
LSP	:	Language for Special Purpose
MS	:	Microsoft
MT	:	Machine Translation
NGO	:	Non-Governmental Organisation
NIV	:	New International Version
NLB	:	National Language Body
NLPF	:	National Language Policy Framework
NSO-ZA	:	Northern Sotho/Sepedi-South Africa

NWU	:	North West University
PanSALB	:	Pan South African Language Board
SABC	:	South African Broadcasting Corporation
SAPS	:	South African Police Service
SL	:	Source Language
ST	:	Source Text
TETD	:	Tshivenda-English Thalusamaipfi Dictionary
TISSA	:	Telephone Interpreting Service of South Africa
TL	:	Target Language
TM	:	Translation Memory
TMS	:	Terminology Management System
TNLU	:	Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit
TN-ZA	:	Setswana-South Africa
TR	:	Target Reader
TT	:	Target Text
TU	:	Translation Unit
UAAC	:	United African Apostolic Church
URL	:	Universal Resource Locator
ZU-ZA	:	siZulu-South Africa

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

There is no multilingual context that does not require translation. Otherwise, those who do not speak a language being used in a particular context will not have access to the information. Globalisation and multilingualism encourage translation, both textual and verbal translation (interpreting) to be part of our lives. Although multilingualism is encouraged in many parts of the world, it is impossible for a human being to master all world languages of approximately ±7000. This means that the world has a very large number of languages in such a way that translation becomes an unavoidable task in South Africa and everywhere in the world. Crystal (2010:294) in reporting about the statistics of world languages indicates that most reference books give a figure of 6 000 to 7 000, but estimates have varied from 3 000 to 10 000.

Therefore, where one does not understand another language, interpreting and translation become the strategies to pass information from one person to another. For this reason, there is no known country that can function without language services, namely, translation, interpreting, editing, language planning, sign language, etc. Translation connects different language speakers who cannot understand each other. South African policies do confirm that South Africa is a multilingual country with 11 official languages, namely, Tshivenda, Siswati, isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, Xitsonga, Setswana, Sesotho sa Leboa/Northern Sotho, Sesotho/ Southern Sotho, Afrikaans, and English. South Africa also has other languages that are not recognised as official languages such as Sign language, Khoi-Nama and San languages, German, Greek, Gujarati, Hindi, Portuguese, Tamil, Telegu and Urdu, Arabic and many more. The recognition of official languages compels South Africa to have efficient and effective language services in both private and public sectors may include interpreting, translation, editing, proofreading, terminology development,

human language technologies, lexicography, and language policy planning. Language services, particularly, translation requires the availability of effective translation tools.

This study will specifically focus on the effectiveness of available translation tools, which are being used to translate into Tshivenda language by the Tshivenda language practitioners. The available translation tools to be studied here will include dictionaries, translation technologies, individuals (lay and professional people), online translation facilities such as the Internet, terminology lists, and any other related available tools. This study will determine the effectiveness of the available translation tools to translate into Tshivenda. The community of language practitioners will be afforded the opportunity to express their views on the extent to which the available translation tools are helpful. Without involving language practitioners who work directly with Tshivenda language on a daily basis, the results of this study will not be reliable. The available translation tools to translate into Tshivenda language have been produced by different role players such as individuals, institutions of higher learning, national lexicography units, government departments, and other institutions. The main aims to developing translation tools are to develop the languages, assist language users to learn languages without difficulties, to promote multilingualism, to promote terminology development, to assist language practitioners such as translators, editors, proofreaders, interpreters etc. Based on the results of the study, the researcher will be able to make recommendations for a way forward.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The National Language Policy Framework (NPLF) of 12 February 2003 was conceptualised from a series of historical events. These include the first occupation of South Africa by the Dutch in 1652, through successive periods of British rule, the Union of South Africa, and subsequently the establishment of the Republic of South Africa and apartheid regime. Against this background, government language policy and the power elite failed to recognise South Africa's linguistic diversity. Looking at

this citation, one could actually say that the activities that took place for more than three centuries played a role in the underdevelopment of the Tshivenda language, among other indigenous languages.

Tshivenda is one of the four most marginalised African languages in South Africa. So far, Tshivenda has more or less than 1.2 million native speakers in South Africa. Statistics South Africa (2012:26) reported that Tshivenda is spoken by 1 201 588 black Africans who speak it as their first language.

Tshivenda language is extremely underdeveloped in terms of translation tools, usage in the public arena, and as it is known, the administration of South Africa is neither conducted in Tshivenda nor any South African- African official languages. In these circumstances, one can ask how native monolingual Tshivenda speakers can access information distributed in English. The answer then is obvious in that English information must be converted into Tshivenda language. This can be in the form of writing, speaking or signing (sign language). If this is not done, it will mean that language-related policies in South Africa are not fully effective. This would also show that there is violation of human rights enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996, which is the supreme law of the country. For translation to be executed efficiently and effectively, language practitioners need to have effective translation tools. In that context, if a particular language is underdeveloped, it means that language practitioners in that language would not have such effective translation tools. This is the case with Tshivenda language practitioners.

Before the democratic elections in 1994, African languages were not recognised as official languages. Only Afrikaans and English were recognised as official languages of South Africa. Therefore, discrimination against African languages was an indisputable issue during those years. South Africans were compelled to learn Afrikaans and English. That is why today in South African education, the medium of instruction is in English and Afrikaans from basic education to tertiary level. This has

extremely affected the development of Tshivenda language and other African languages such as, Xitsonga, isiNdebele and Siswati. These are always considered as languages that perform low functions while English enjoys the hegemony (for instance government administration).

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Hofstee (2006:85) indicates that within the topic that the researcher has introduced, there has to be a problem that he or she will be investigating. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:43) assert that the heart of every research is the problem; it is paramount to the success of the research effort. To see the problem with unwavering clarity and to state it in precise and unmistakable terms is the first requirement in the research process.

The research problem or problem statement of this study is the lack of effective translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. Tshivenda is one of South African official languages under threat of extinction owing if drastic and proactive measures are not taken. Just like other African languages, Tshivenda does not have enough effective translation tools. This poses a huge challenge to Tshivenda language practitioners who tend to translate from English as a source language (SL) into Tshivenda as a target language (TL) and vice versa. The few Tshivenda dictionaries that are available are limited and inadequate to fully assist language practitioners. These dictionaries are extremely too small in terms of both the size and quantity. Luvhengo (2012:80) potently asserts that, “Tshivenda is still trying to keep-up with other languages at the moment and it is affecting the language negatively when compared to other indigenous languages because lexicographers are still producing small dictionaries whereas other indigenous languages are now in a stage where they are producing bigger and more comprehensive dictionaries”. Even computers do not accommodate Tshivenda language. Language practitioners are expected to memorise the orthography of most words, terms and concepts in Tshivenda. This makes language practitioners to produce translations with different orthography and of substandard quality. There is no consistency because the

computer system does not recognise Tshivenda orthography and spelling rules. The few available technologies are not easily accessible. In addition, available terminology lists are for specific purposes and they are not comprehensive to satisfy the needs of Tshivenda language practitioners. Because of these challenges, most Tshivenda language practitioners make use of individuals (lay and professional persons) as their more reliable translation resources. They contact individuals with the intention of getting particular terms and words in order to define them. This method is the best currently available because individuals can explain the meaning well. Almost every language practitioner does use this method because of its accessibility and efficiency. Most of English source text words and terms are not found or listed in the Tshivenda dictionaries and terminology lists. Therefore, translators make use of their own general understanding or rely on English dictionaries to translate into the target text. The fact is that English dictionaries are more advanced and more usable than African language (Tshivenda) dictionaries. This then indicates clearly that Tshivenda dictionaries are not effective enough. Simultaneously, it shows that there is a serious need to make sure that Tshivenda translation tools are developed and accessible. Fairly speaking, the Tshivenda translation tools do not produce the expected results. After 24 years of democracy wherein there are language policies, statutory bodies, government departments, non-government organisations (NGOs), non-profit organisations (NPOs), public and private institutions of higher learning, academics, individuals, and other stakeholders, Tshivenda community is still lamenting that Tshivenda as an indigenous language is underdeveloped and does not have enough translation tools. It sounds unjust, unreasonable, not understandable and one can even think that separate further studies focusing on this matter should be conducted to find out the contributory factors and the solutions.

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 Aim

The aim of this study was to investigate and determine the effectiveness of available translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda language and vice versa.

1.4.2 Objectives

In this research study, the objectives are to:

- find out which available Tshivenda translation tools used by Tshivenda language practitioners are effective.
- determine the experiences of Tshivenda language practitioners towards the use of Tshivenda translation tools.
- explore what Tshivenda language practitioners consider to be Tshivenda translation tools.
- establish if the Tshivenda language practitioners are satisfied with what is recognised as Tshivenda translation tools.
- ascertain which translation tools Tshivenda language practitioners need.
- explore how Tshivenda language practitioners deal with the terminology they come across from different fields and translation tools they prefer.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Maree, Creswell, Elof, Frreira, Ivanka, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pietersen, Clark Plano, and Van der Westhuizen (2007: 3) assert that the research question specifies what intrigues you and focuses on what you will study. It is the beacon that guides you over months or years of research as you strive to find answers to this thing called “the research question”. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:54) maintain that questions

provide guidance for the kinds of data the researcher should collect and suggest how the researcher should analyse and interpret those data. Hofstee (2006:85) indicates that research questions are used to name as precisely as possible what the study will attempt to find out.

This research study will endeavour to answer the following questions:

- Are the available translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa effective?
- What are the available Tshivenda translation tools?
- What are the experiences and attitudes of Tshivenda language practitioners towards the use of Tshivenda translation tools?
- What do Tshivenda language practitioners consider to be Tshivenda translation tools?
- Is there a need for translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa?
- Are Tshivenda language practitioners satisfied with the translation tools they currently have?

1.6 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

This study was envisaged to be a wake-up call to relevant stakeholders and institutions that something significant should be done with the intent to improve Tshivenda translation tools. To this point, very little has been done on translation tools. Tshivenda is lagging behind in this respect. This study is being conducted because translation tools that are currently available to translate from English language into Tshivenda are not sufficient and not effective. This situation is a threat to Tshivenda language, and has to be attended to so that Tshivenda language translation tools can be improved to cater for the needs of Tshivenda language practitioners.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted to enable the researcher to uncover the opinions of Tshivenda language practitioners on the effectiveness of available translation tools. Ultimately, the researcher will be able to make recommendations based on the research results. Some other scholars will be able to refer to it when they conduct their research studies in future. The results will reflect on the gap that needs to be filled by those who can create more comprehensive and helpful translation tools. This study was conducted because it has been realised that Tshivenda language practitioners are seriously hampered by the shortage of Tshivenda translation tools. Translation solely relies on translation tools, both living beings and non-living beings. There is a need to have effective translation tools because it ensures consistency in the end product (translated work). A study of this kind does make a significant contribution in the language industry.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Scientific studies cannot be effectively and efficiently executed without following specific research methodologies. Babbie and Mouton (2001:647) see research methodology as the methods, techniques, and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing the research design or research plan, as well as the underlying principles and assumptions that underlie their use. Mouton (1996:35-36) indicates that the methodological dimension refers to the ‘knowledge of how’ or ‘know how’ to do things or the total set of ‘means’ that scientists employ in reaching their goal of valid knowledge. We refer to these means by various names such as methodologies, research approaches, methods, techniques, procedures, and instruments. On the contrary, Sullivan (2009: 448) views research methodology as the study of research methods, including research design, as well as methods for sampling, data coding, measurement, and analysis. Sullivan (2009:448) further indicates that methodology usually involves comparing different methods in terms of how effective they are for studying particular questions.

The citations above indicate vividly that research methodologies are the ways the researchers follow when conducting research projects. These guidelines show the researchers, for instance, how to measure the variables, how to do the sampling, how to collect data, and how these data should be analysed and presented or reported. Research methodologies as concepts embrace all the ways (approaches) that are chosen and employed in the research project. However, one is safe to say that the concepts (research methodologies) are used as umbrella (super-ordinate concepts) to cover all methods, designs, ways, strategies etc, in the entire field of research methodology studies. The choice of these methodologies then needs to be coherent from the beginning up to the end of the entire research study and/or thesis/dissertation. The researcher in this study will make sure that the methodologies to be employed are compatible with each other for quality assurance and validity of the research findings. Methodologies that are not compatible with the conception of the study can negatively affect the research results. Therefore, this problem will be prevented by all means.

This study used mixed methods to collect, analyse, and present its data. This makes the research methods to complement each other. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in this study. Du Plooy-Celliers, Bezuidenhout and Davis (2014:33) opine that the critical realists' idea of a multi-faceted reality that can be investigated from different angles informs their belief that no single method can provide definite results about any given object of research. Therefore, they tend to use what is known as mixed-methods research. Mixed-methods research combines methods associated with both quantitative and qualitative methods to supplement each other. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 97) confirm that in fact, researchers often combine elements of both approaches in what is sometimes called a mixed-method design. According to Murray and Hughes (2008:200), quantitative methodology is an approach to research in which the data the researcher collects and analyses involve the accurate measurement of phenomena and, often, the application of statistical analysis. It is essentially concerned with numbers and anything that is quantifiable (or measurable) and as such, uses methods such as psychometrics, statistical computing and methodology. Murray and Hughes (2008:200) went on to explain that qualitative methodology is an approach that involves the collection and analysis of

information based on its quality rather than its quantity. It is less concerned with numbers and accurate measurement and more concerned with the depth of data.

The use of mixed methods in this study will enable the researcher to get both in-depth and statistical data to analyse, interpret, present, and make recommendations accordingly. Most research projects although might not have explicitly mentioned, they make use of a combination of research methods. This is done so with the intent to have comprehensive data about the effectiveness of translation tools being studied.

Research design is like a house plan that shows how the entire house looks like. No one can build a house without a designed sketch or plan. Just like in research project, it is impossible to conduct a research without a design; otherwise, it will be chaos. Research design is more about research planning wherein every action must be planned and should go according to the plan; for instance, who to interview, how to select the informants, how to gather the data, how to analyse the collected data, how to present such data and so on. All these have to be drawn (designed) in advance. Scott and Marshall (2005:564) contend that research design is the strategic plan for a research project or research programme. It sets out the broad outline and key features of the work to be undertaken, including the methods of data collection and analysis to be employed, and showing how the research strategy addresses the specific aims and objectives of the study, and whether the research issues are theoretical or policy-oriented. Research design in this regard will be concerned with population, sampling, data collection, and data analysis. According to Kumar (2005:84) quoting Kerlinger (1986:279) a research design is a plan, structure and strategy of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions and problems. The plan is the complete scheme or program of the research. Kumar (2005: 84) further indicates that research design is a procedural plan that is adopted by the researcher to answer questions validly, objectively, accurately, and economically.

According to Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter, (2006:133), a population is the larger pool from which our sampling elements are drawn, and to which we want to generalise our findings. Theoretically speaking, the population encompasses all the elements that make up our unit of analysis.

It is always not possible to study the entire population in the research study. Therefore, researchers then always focus on a sample that can represent a whole. Mouton (1996:132) puts it very well when saying that in everyday life, sampling refers to the process of selecting things or objects when it is impossible to have knowledge of a larger collection of these objects. Hornby, Wehmeier, McIntosh, Turnbull, and Ashby (2006:1293) define the term sample as a number of people or things taken from a larger group and used in tests to provide information about the group.

These two explanations do show clearly that a sample is a small part that represents the whole group (population). The researcher in this study has decided to use non-probability sampling. According to Bless, Higson-Smith, and Kagee (2006:100), non probability sampling refers to the case where the probability of including each element of the population in a sample is unknown.

The researcher will use both judgemental and snowball sampling with the intent to identify the research informants easier and quicker which will save time and costs. Both these samplings fall under non probability sampling. Kumar (2005:179) asserts that the primary consideration in purposive sampling is the judgement of the researcher as to who can provide the best information to achieve the objectives of the study. The researcher only goes to those people who in his/her opinion are likely to have the required information and be willing to share it. Du Plooy-Celliers, Bezuidenhout and Davis (2014:143) show that snowball sampling, then, makes use of referrals to increase the sample size. Participants in the study provide suggestions of others who also fit the population parameters of the study, and who could and want to participate in the research.

Data in this study will be collected through questionnaire and interviews. Questionnaire according to Scott and Marshall (2005:541) is a document containing all the questions, closed and open-ended, for a survey. Normally, a separate questionnaire is used for each respondent to a survey, providing enough space for answers to be recorded, and subsequently coded for computer based analysis of all replies to each question. Bless, Higson-Smith, and Kagee (2006:116) show that interview involves direct personal contact with the participant who is asked to answer questions relating to the research problem.

Data are gathered from informants that could either be human beings or things. In this study data will be gathered from Tshivenda language practitioners working in different employers, such as the Department of Arts and Culture (both national and provincial), South African Police Services (SAPS), Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, University of Venda, Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit, the Parliament of Republic of South Africa, Tshwane Municipality, Limpopo Legislature and University of Limpopo and those who are working as freelancers or on part-time basis but who strictly deal with Tshivenda language practice. These informants will be asked to respond to questionnaire which could either be handed to them or emailed to them or interviewed depending on what is possible between them and the researcher. Due to the nature of the research project which is using both quantitative and qualitative paradigms, closed ended and open ended questions will be asked. Tshivenda language practitioners will then be able to share their knowledge and experiences with regard to the effectiveness of translation tools they use when executing their work. This study will collect data from 25 Tshivenda language practitioners.

The gathered data will be analysed, interpreted and presented (reported) and this will be guided by the research methodologies and designs employed in this study, for instance, the research which uses both qualitative and quantitative paradigms cannot use one approach of data analyses. Babbie and Mouton (2001:108) indicates that analysis involves “breaking up” the data into manageable themes, patterns, trends and relationships. The aim of analysis is to understand the various

constitutive elements of one's data through an inspection of the relationships between concepts, constructs or variables, and to see whether there are any patterns or trends that can be identified or isolated, or to establish themes in the data.

The researcher will use analytic comparison to analyse the collected data. Neuman (2006:471) indicates that analytic comparison is a qualitative data analysis in which a researcher uses the method of agreement and the method of difference to discover causal factors that affect an outcome among a set of cases. Neuman (2006:473) further shows that method of agreement is a method of qualitative data analysis in which a researcher compares characteristics that are similar across cases that share a significant outcome. Neuman (2006:473) ultimately indicates that method of difference is a qualitative data analysis in which a researcher compares characteristics among cases in which some cases share a significant outcome but others do not, and the researcher focuses on the difference among cases.

The above assertions do show clearly that analytic comparison is based on qualitative research. This research will analyse, interpret and present data through words (explanations) and numbers (statistics). Data analysis will be based on both qualitative and quantitative methods because this research study seeks to explore more about the effectiveness of translation tools available for translating into Tshivenda. However, exploratory research is conducted to invent new conclusion. It is during the research data presentation wherein themes (headings) will be constructed based on each question asked in the questionnaire. The purpose for this will be to present data in accordance with the questions asked to show clearly what each instrument has yielded. This also helps the readers to simply understand the research results.

1.9 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

1.9.1 Available

...(of things) that you can get, buy or find: available resources/facilities (Hornby, Wehmeier, McIntosh, Turnbull, and Ashby, 2006:86). This refers to the presence of what is needed or what may be needed. In this regard it refers to the presence of translation tools in question.

1.9.2 Effective (-ness)

Producing the result that is wanted or intended; producing a successful result (Hornby, Turnbull, Lea, Parkinson, Phillips, Francis, Webb, Bull, and Ashby 2010:469).

1.9.3 Investigation

An ...examination of the facts about a situation...etc (Hornby, Wehmeier, McIntosh, Turnbull, and Ashby, 2006:787). In research, investigation entails the gathering of relevant information, analysis, and conclusions drawn from the inquiry (Sullivan, 2009:71-72).

1.9.4 Language

It is a set of symbols shared by a community to communicate meaning and experience (Jandt, 2013:133). The systematic, conventional use of symbols, signs, or written symbols in a human society for communication and self-expression (Crystal, 1987:424). Language is written (visible symbols), spoken (audio) and can be gestured (sign language which is also visible).

1.9.5 Translation

Translation entails conversion of written texts from one language into another (Crystal: 1987, 432). Translation is the replacement of a text in the source language by a semantically and pragmatically equivalent text in the TL (House, 1982:29-30).

1.9.6 Translation tools

These are the tools and aids which help the language practitioners (translators) to find the equivalents of the terms and words they are dealing with and to carry out the process of translation. Translation tools include dictionaries, translation technology such as machine translation, computer assisted translation tools, etc.

1.9.7 Tshivenda

It is a language spoken by Vhavenda as their native language and since 1996 it is also recognised as one of the official languages of South Africa by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996.

There is a very consistent mistake influenced by ancient literature and other ethnic groups or nationalities, sometimes by Vhavenda themselves of referring to Muvenda/Vhavenda, Tshivenda culture and Tshivenda language as Venda, for instance, in a sentence like ‘I am a Venda who speaks Venda and I was born in Venda’. This mistake for instance is like to refer to South Africans as South Africa whose culture and languages is South Africa. The assertion from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Venda_language accessed on 10/03/2017 shows that Venda, also known as Tshivenda or Luvenda, is a Bantu language and an official language of South Africa. It is mainly spoken by the Venda people in the northern part of South Africa’s Limpopo Province, as well as by some Lemba people in Zimbabwe.

It should be borne in mind that in this context Tshivenda is referring to the language spoken by Vhavenda as native speakers whose former homeland is called Venda situated at the Northern side of South Africa in Limpopo Province. This then means that one cannot be a Venda who speaks Venda and who stays in Venda. As said earlier on, Tshivenda is recognised as one of the official languages of South Africa by the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996. Tshivenda is one of minority languages in South Africa.

1.9.8 Theoretical Framework

The focus here is on the theory which will be employed in this study. According to Sullivan (2009:517) theory is an organised and consistent system of general propositions used to explain and predict a specific set of social phenomena. Stewart and Zaaiman (2015:345) on the other hand define the concept theory as an abstract conceptual construction serving to explain some or other social phenomenon or phenomena. These two definitions correspond to what Scott and Marshall (2005: 662) indicate when they say that a theory is an account of the world which goes beyond what we can see and measure. Theory embraces a set of interrelated definitions and relationships that organises our concepts of and understanding of the empirical world in a systematic way.

Theoretical framework is more of the conceptual framework employed to guide the whole study. This is supported by Mouton (2006:110) who maintains that conceptualisation also refers to the underlying theoretical framework that guides and directs research. Eisenhart (1991:205) sees a theoretical framework as a structure that guides research by relying on a formal theory constructed by using an established, coherent explanation of certain phenomena and relationships.

This study will be guided or directed by descriptive theory. According to Fawcett and Downs (1986:4) descriptive theories are the most basic type of theories. They describe or classify specific dimensions or characteristics of individuals, groups,

situations, or events by summarising the commonalities found in discrete observations. They state ‘what is’. Descriptive theories are needed when nothing or very little is known about the phenomenon in question. Mouton (1996:102) shows that descriptive or factual knowledge which includes data, facts, empirical generalisations, narratives and stories, provides truthful descriptions of phenomena in the world. Mouton (1996:102) further asserts that descriptive statements make claims about how things are; what the actual state of affairs or fact of the matter is.

1.9.9 Outline of chapters

- Chapter one: Orientation of the study

This chapter has focussed on the research introduction, background of the study, research problem, aim and objectives, research questions, justification of the study, significance of the study, an overview of research methods, definitions of terms, theoretical framework, outline of chapters and conclusion.

- Chapter two: Literature review

This chapter has focused on the literature review. It has reviewed the available literature related to the research study. This chapter touched on the concept of translation, skopos theory, equivalence in translation, translation and culture, types of translation, levels of translation, translation methods, common translation tools used by the Tshivenda language practitioners, international perspective on translation, South African perspectives on translation, quality assurance and policy framework. This chapter has been guided by the theoretical framework, research questions and the objectives of the study.

- Chapter three: Research methodology

This chapter is composed of research design, research site, population, sampling procedure and techniques, size of the data, data collection methods, data analysis, validity and reliability, ethical considerations and conclusion.

- Chapter four: Data presentation and analysis

This chapter has presented and analysed the data gathered from the Tshivenda language practitioners.

- Chapter five: Discussion of findings

This chapter dwelled on the discussion of findings.

- Chapter six: Recommendations and conclusion

This chapter has appraised/reviewed the entire research study by touching on the literature review, research methodology, data analysis, and findings of the research. The chapter made elaboration on the contribution which has been followed by recommendations, limitation of the study and conclusion.

1.12 CONCLUSION

This part has given the background and the focus of the study as introduced in the preceding paragraphs. The effectiveness of translation tools available for translating into Tshivenda is the major focus of this study. The research methodologies to be followed in this study have been chosen and will thoroughly be employed to enable the researcher to achieve the objectives of this research. It will be through these methodologies whereby the research project will be able to answer the stipulated research questions in the place of hypotheses, i.e. the beacons of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter concentrated greatly on the orientation of this research project by outlining major items such as those that the research cannot exist without, for instance, research problem/problem statement and others. This chapter now is going to review the literature relevant to this study. Conducting research on the effectiveness of tools used to translating into Tshivenda requires a good conceptual foundation based on the observations by other people, institutions, juristic persons and scholars. It is in this part where the researcher will review both published and unpublished literature of different scholars and juristic persons. This part will dwell on the concept of translation, skopos theory, equivalence in translation, translation and culture, types of translation, levels of translation, translation methods, common translation tools used by Tshivenda language practitioners, international perspective on translation and South African perspective on translation, quality assurance, and policy framework.

Many scholars have defined the concept literature review. It is of significance to start by defining what is meant by the concept literature review looking at some of the scholars' definitions. Literature review according to Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012:29) is an interpretation of a selection of relevant published and/or unpublished information that is available on a specific topic from one of four modes (i.e. documents, talk, observations, and drawings/photographs/videos) that optimally involves summarisation, analysis, evaluation, and synthesis of the information.

Gray (2004:400-401) also maintained that literature review is the selection of documents (published and unpublished) on a topic that contains information, ideas and evidence and the evaluation of these documents in relation to a particular piece of research.

De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, and Delport, (2005:1) indicate that a literature review in fact refers to a scrutiny of all relevant sources of information.

All these definitions do confirm that literature review is a process of reviewing and analysing relevant published and unpublished information. Literature review is the basis of the research which is being carried out. Literature review informs the researcher about what is available and what is not available about the research topic. More researched areas are more likely to have much literature available while less researched topics do not have enough available literature. The issue of relevancy is vital when reviewing literature.

The main purpose of literature review is to review written works, both published and unpublished works related to the topic which is under investigation. According to Leedy et al (2005:64) research proposals and research reports typically have a section (in the case of a thesis or dissertation, an entire chapter) that reviews the related literature. The review describes theoretical perspectives and previous research findings regarding the problem at hand. Bless, Higson-Smith, and Kagee (2006:24) underscore that in order to conceive the topic in a way that permits a clear formulation of the problem and the hypothesis, some background information is necessary. This is obtained mainly by reading whatever has been published that appears relevant to the research topic. Sullivan (2009:295) asserts that regardless of the discipline, whether social or behavioural sciences, hard sciences or humanities, there is a body (or bodies) of scholarly work that is considered to be fundamental to the study field or subject. Sullivan (2009:295) maintains that researchers in a field habitually engage in a literature review at the start of a research project. Monographs, gray literature (reports, conference papers, newsletters, and other texts usually not published commercially), and journal articles comprise the types of literature that might be included in a literature review in any given social science field.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:64) indicate that...a literature review has numerous ... benefits:

- It can reveal new ideas, perspectives, and approaches that may not have happened to you.
- It can inform you about other researchers who conduct work in this area-individuals whom you may wish to contact for advice or feedback.
- It can show you how others have handled methodological and design issues in studies similar to your own.
- It can reveal sources of data that one may ignorant about.
- It can introduce you to measurement tools that other researchers have developed and used effectively.

Walliman (2016:28) shows that the purposes of literature review are to:

- Summarise the results of previous research to form a foundation on which to build your own research.
- Collect ideas on how to gather data.
- Investigate methods of data analysis.
- Study instrumentation that has been used.
- Assess the success of the various research designs of the studies already undertaken.

Bless, Higson-Smith, and Kagee (2006: 24-25) show that the purpose of the review of existing literature is one or a combination of the following:

- To sharpen and deepen the theoretical framework of the research.
- To familiarise the researcher with the latest developments in the area of research, as well as in related areas.
- To identify gaps in knowledge, as well as weaknesses in previous studies.
- To discover connections, contradictions or relations between different research results by comparing various investigations.
- To identify variables that must be considered in the research, as well as those that prove irrelevant.

- To study the definitions used in previous works as the characteristics of the populations investigated, with the aim of adopting them for the new research.
- To study the advantages and disadvantages of the research methods used by others in order to adopt or improve on them in one's own research.

All these assertions make one to vividly see that the major purpose of literature review is to familiarise the researcher with the background of the research topic. Literature review exposes all the roots about what has been previously done and what has not been previously done. After perusing the above citations, one can categorically say that research thesis without literature review is not complete and is like a tree without roots. Literature review enriches the mind of the researcher.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF TRANSLATION

2.2.1 Translation as an activity

Munday (2001:4-5) describes translation as an activity when saying that translation can refer to the process (the act of producing the translation). Munday (2001:5) further indicates that the process of translation between two different languages involves the translator changing an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL). Gauton (2004:9) also indicates that when translating, one usually deals with a source text (ST) in a source language (SL) that is translated into a target text (TT) in the target language (TL).

For this activity to be done efficiently and effectively, translation tools are seriously needed. Gauton (2004:12) indicates that, broadly speaking, the translator needs a number of basic translation tools in the form of knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes, and values. In this context, translation is viewed as a final product of the activity of translating a source language or source text into a TL or target text.

2.2.2 Translation as a product

According to Munday (2001:4), translation can refer to the product (the text that has been translated). The document that has been translated by a translator is a final product of translation activity. Translation just like a project is an activity that has the beginning and ending. The final product then is delivered to the translation initiator who should be satisfied. Translation product is expected to meet the agreement made between the initiator and the translator. The issue of quality is important because the translation end product is to be used by particular readers. The quality of translation is dependent on a number of factors such as the competency of the translators and translation tools accessed to translate a document in a particular terminology. In African languages such as Tshivenda, the quality is always compromised because of lack of translation tools.

2.2.3 Translation as a study (academic discipline)

Translation in this context is viewed as a field of study or fully fledged discipline offered at tertiary level (university). According to Munday (2001:4), translation can refer to the general subject field.

Translation as a field of study is still very young compared to linguistics (language study). Translation as a field of study began to take place around the late 1950s and early 1960s. This means that this year (2018), translation studies is approximately 58 years old. This gives an idea that translation as an activity discussed above has taken place many centuries ago before translation as a study. Munday (2001:1) shows that translation studies is the new academic discipline related to the study of the theory and phenomena of translation. By its nature, translation is multilingual and also interdisciplinary, encompassing languages, linguistics, communication studies, philosophy, and a range of types of cultural studies. Munday (2001: 5) further alludes that the study of translation as an academic subject has only really begun in the past fifty years. Baker (1992: 4) concurs that unlike medicine and engineering, translation

is a very young discipline in academic terms. It is only starting to feature as a subject of study in its own right and an increasing number of universities, and colleges around the world offer translation studies as part of their curriculum.

There are many higher education institutions in South Africa and even abroad, which offer translation as a course and qualification. In South Africa, Stellenbosch University, University of Limpopo, Central University of Technology, University of the Witwatersrand, University of Pretoria, and University of South Africa to name a few, do offer translation studies. Both public and private sectors hire language practitioners in South Africa. Business-minded translators can also have their own translation agencies.

Today many people have certificates, diplomas, undergraduate, and postgraduate degrees in translation. Translation today is a strong profession through which one can earn a living either through business or employment in either private or public sector.

2.3 SKOPOS THEORY

The task of translation is not just executed for fun without fulfilling a particular purpose (aim, goal or intent). Each time the task of translation is performed, a particular purpose must be fulfilled and the target readers must be satisfied as well. Munday (2009:226) shows that the Greek word *skopos* means purpose. Skopos theory was developed in Germany first by Hans Vermeer and then in conjunction with Katharina Reis ...in the 1970s and shares concepts with the theory of translation theory of translatorial action (Holz-Mantari, 1984). Skopos theory is TT-oriented in the sense that it gives priority to the purpose of the envisaged TT ('translatum' or 'translat') and the function it is to play in the target culture as stipulated by client or 'initiator'. The link <http://translationjournal.net/journal/46skopos.htm> accessed on 26/05/2017 does concur with the above assertion when reflecting that the Skopos theory posits that translation is produced for particular recipients with specific

purpose (s) in a given situation. Nord (1997:27) also confirms that *Skopos* is a Greek word for ‘purpose’. According to *Skopos theorie*, the prime principle determining any translation process is the purpose (*Skopos*) of the overall translational action.

The main point made in Skopos theory is that translation is a purposeful activity that values the TT and TR than the ST. This sometimes makes the TT to be different from the ST because the translator is supposed to translate with the intent to satisfy the TRs’ (target readers’) context. This means that the fulfilment of the function of translation is a priority. This could make one to think that translation that does not meet the intended function is useless and it wastes the resources. Basically, all translation activities are performed to pass information from one person to another. Translation is a communicative activity by its nature.

Basing the entire activity of translation on the function of translation leads this study to also involve the functionalist approach of translation. Functionalism as an approach or theory is based on Skopos theory. Nord (1997: 138) posits that functionalism is a methodological approach where the translator’s decisions are governed by the intended function of the target text or any of its parts.

The above assertion really confirms that translation function is the most important fact to consider when translating. One could then think that the very same ST text could be translated differently if it is intended to serve many purposes for different intended readers. This then would mean that what is called equivalence in translation is not static but dynamic. This means that one ST term can have more than one equivalence (correspondence) depending on the function and purpose of translation and the TRs.

2.4 EQUIVALENCE IN TRANSLATION

The concept equivalence in translation work or industry has created a broad debate by different language scholars and language practitioners. Some do agree on the

common definitions while others disagree. For the sake of this study, the researcher cites Koster (2002:34) who accentuates that one might suggest that the relationship between a translation and its original may be defined as a ‘network of correspondences and shifts’. Munday (2009:185) reflects that equivalence is a key concept in modern translation theory, which defines the translational connection between either an entire ST and a TT or between an ST unit and a TT unit in terms of degree of correspondence between the texts or the texts unit. Munday (2009:185) further indicates that the concept of equivalence is one of the most debated issues in translation studies, where scholars disagree on its validity and usefulness. Baker and Saldanha (2011:96) add that equivalence is a central concept in translation theory, but it is also a controversial one. Approaches to the question of equivalence can differ radically. Some theorists define translation in terms of equivalence relations (Catford, 1965; Nida & Taber, 1969; Toury 1980a; Pym, 1992a; 1995a, 2004; Koller, 1995). The link <http://translationjournal.net/journal/35equiv.htm> accessed on 26/05/2017 indicates that, if a specific linguistic unit in one language carries the same intended meaning/message encoded in a specific linguistic medium in another, then these two units are considered to be equivalent. The domain of equivalents covers linguistic units such as morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, idioms, and proverbs. Catford (1965:50) illustrates that translation equivalence occurs when a SL and TL text (or item) are relatable to (at least some of) the same relevant features.

The assertions above, using more or less the same wording, show that equivalence is the relationship of meaning between the ST/SL and TT/LT concepts. This is the similarity between a word (or expression) in one language and its translation in another language. Equivalence is used to convey information from the ST/SL to the TT/LT. Although the concept equivalence in English means ‘equal’, when it comes to translation it would not exactly mean equal meaning because languages are different. For instance, there are cases where the TT/LT does not have any correspondence/equivalence at all. In this case, the translator has to strategise. Equivalence/correspondence can either be at word level or above word level. Language practitioners who work as translators make use of equivalence or correspondence to translate message in the ST to the TT. It is the responsibility of language practitioners to decide on a suitable strategy to translate the ST. The

translator is usually guided by the function of such translation work. Equivalence or correspondence can be a loan word, paraphrase, synonym, etc., depending on the simplicity or complexity of ST and then determined by the function/purpose of translation.

The whole translated TT (translation product) is an equivalence/correspondence of the ST because of the sameness or correspondence existing between them (ST and TT). Having effective translation tools helps the language practitioners to decode and encode the meaning between ST and TT.

Table 2.1: Examples of equivalence between English and Tshivenda

English	Tshivenda
Person	Muthu
Donkey	Mbongola

The success of translation activity is measured by equivalence. If the TL does not have the equivalence of the SL, it becomes a very big challenge because the message would not be conveyed at the level of the SL. Then when the TL has enough equivalence of the SL, it becomes easy to pass the message in an understandable manner. Equivalence is one of the pillars of translation work. Any explanation about equivalence could not be complete without touching on the types of equivalence such as formal and dynamic equivalence discussed below:

2.4.1 Formal equivalence

Nida (1964:159) indicates that formal equivalence focuses on the message itself, in both form and content. One is concerned that the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language. Newmark (1994:45) argues that the source language word order is preserved and words translated singly by their most common meanings out of context. According to

Munday (2001:41), formal equivalence is keenly oriented towards the ST structure, which exerts strong influence in determining accuracy and correctness. Most typical of this kind of translation are ‘gloss translation’, with a close approximation to ST structure, often scholarly footnotes, allowing the student (...) to gain close access to the language and customs of the source culture.

This kind of equivalence sounds more literal because it puts emphasis on the preservation of ST structure during translation. Sticking on the ST structure makes the translator to produce meaningless translation because languages are not the same in terms of how they construct phrases. Formal equivalence as it resembles word-for-word translation is always not recommended because it cannot bring about the correct or intended meaning.

2.4.2 Dynamic equivalence

According to Nida and Taber in Leonard (2004:4), dynamic equivalence is a translation principle according to which the translator seeks to translate meaning of the original in such a way that the TL wording will trigger the same impact on the TL audience as the original wording did upon the source target audience. Baker and Saldanha (2011:25) clearly contend that the dynamic equivalence approach therefore adapts the translation to the realities of the TL and culture, so that the meaning or message of the source text can be clearly understood. Translators are free to use different terms, different grammatical constructions, and even different word and sentence orders, in order to express the meaning of the source text. In translation parlance, this approach ‘domesticates’ the text, by removing difficult expressions and images, which would be incomprehensible or poorly understood if rendered literally.

The assertions above put clearly that dynamic equivalence gives the entire freedom to the translators on how to convey the message, which will be understandable. The issues of language structure and grammar in the source text are completely ignored.

Baker and Saldanha (2011:26) assert that "...the principles of dynamic/functional equivalence have liberated translators from a rigid system whereby word-for-word consistency, especially in relation to key terms, was considered ideal".

Dynamic equivalence is also known as functional or communicative equivalence; hence its focus on the conveyance of meaningful message easier to be understood by the target readers. This approach considers the context and culture of the target reader while not ignoring the original text or the source text. The most important thing in translation is that one should not just translate words as such, but the idea contained in those words. That is why Newmark (1994:47) calls this methodology communicative translation because "it attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership."

2.5 TRANSLATION AND CULTURE

Culture is a way of living in different ethnic groups. Culture plays a significant role in people's everyday life. Culture affects human being life from birth until death. Sullivan (2009:128) indicates that the widely used definition of culture (promoted by E.B. Tylor) ...was that culture was a "complex whole" that included everything a person acquired as a member of a particular society, including beliefs, customs, habits, and knowledge.

Translation, language and culture cannot be separated. Language practitioners whose work is to translate have to take these three concepts into cognizance each time they translate from one language to another and within the same language. The commonest type of translation activity takes place between two languages, i.e. SL and TL. Toury (1978:200) indicates that translation is a kind of activity that inevitably involves at least two languages and two cultural traditions. Furthermore, Lotman (1978:211) potently indicates that no language can exist unless it is steeped in the context of culture; and no culture can exist which does not have at its centre, the

structure of natural language. Bassnett (2002:23) reflects that language, then, is the heart within the body of culture, and it is the interaction between the two that results in the communication of life-energy. Ulrych (1992:71) also confirms the above assertions when contending that language is an integral part of culture and not an isolated phenomenon. The relevance of this to translation lies in the extent to which culture conditions people's behaviour and is reflected in the language they speak. Gauton (2004:14) says that a translator must be as fully conversant with the cultures of the two languages concerned as possible.

Culture is normative. There are certain things that are acceptable and other certain things that are not acceptable in different cultures. Cultures are different and what one culture accepts may not be acceptable in another culture. Ulrych (1992:71) argues that, "languages are structured differently; language communities perceive the same reality in different ways." These are the things language practitioners whose work is translation should bear in mind when dealing with translation. Knowing and understanding the target culture helps the language practitioner to decide on a translation equivalence and strategy to translate particular concepts in the SL to TL. The link <http://translationjournal.net/journal/22delight.htm> accessed on 29/05/2017 clearly shows that when translating, it is important to consider not only the lexical impact on the TL reader, but also the manner in which cultural aspects may be perceived and make translating decision accordingly.

Translators' work is guided by a number of factors such as culture, skopos, translation brief if provided, grammatical rules of the language in question, and so on. Cultural expressions such as idioms, proverbs, traditional terminology, royal family language (in case of Vhavenda), initiation school terminology, religious jargons, and others are very difficult to translate owing to the fact that they always lack equivalence/correspondence in a TL. Fortunately, although the situation may seem impossible to handle, translation or communication does not have to stop as there are many strategies language practitioners can utilise to pass information from the SL to TL. Samovar and Porter (2001:149) say that, "translators also need to deal with nuances and with words that have no equivalents in another language." With

good translation tools of which unfortunately in Tshivenda language are not enough, this situation was supposed not to have such a huge challenge. However, unavailability of good translation tools in African languages does not justify poor translation. It is the duty of language practitioners to negotiate with complex terms, which do not have equivalents in the TL until they identify reasonable correspondence/equivalence (strategy) to convey information from the SL to TL.

Equivalence/correspondence conveys information from the SL to TL at different levels, which may or may not be exact with the SL depending on the purpose of translation and the profile of the TR. It is very interesting to read what Samovar and Porter (2001:149) have written when they argue that even though when messages provide adequate interpretations of original text, there is usually no full equivalence. Word-for-word correspondences do not exist and what may appear to synonymous messages may not be equivalent. This lack of correspondence may be seen in the translation of biblical references.

Samovar and Porter (2001: 149) went on to indicate that, “the Bible idealises sheep. But, in some cultures, sheep are viewed negatively or do not even exist.” The Tshivenda Bible says “ u ri the ḥamusi vhuswa hashu ho ri linganaho” while the English Bible says “give us today our daily bread.” This example shows clearly that Tshivenda culture either does not have bread or does not regard bread as staple diet and then the translators of the Bible decided to translate the concept “bread” into Tshivenda as “vhuswa” to make things more understandable or make the meaning have more impact than “vhurotho”. These two words (vhuswa and bread) do not mean the same thing but the message has been conveyed at that level. This strategy of translation is called cultural substitution. Culture is a very sensitive phenomenon and should be respected because today no culture exists in isolation because of globalisation. Communication could not cease because of unavailability of translation equivalents. Language and culture are not static but dynamic from time-to-time. These challenges of cultural differences are backed by Crystal (2010:355), who said that exact equivalence is of course impossible. He maintains

that no translator could provide a translation that was a perfect parallel to the source text, in such respects as rhythm, sound symbolism..., puns, and cultural allusions.

2.6 TYPES OF TRANSLATION

2.6.1 Intralingual translation

Bassnett (2002:23) defines intralingual translation as an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs in the same language. This type of translation is commonly known as rewording, paraphrasing, summarising, expanding, or versioning. It is a type of translation that takes place within the same language. In other words, this is a monolingual translation where the translator is using other words to convey message within the same particular language. In this translation, the message is not crossing from one language to another language/ one culture to another culture. The message is just still within one language/ one culture. It should sound strange as to why this type is considered as translation while the language is not being converted to another language. The purpose of this type of translation is to simplify the ST language which may be too difficult to understand, for instance different versions of the Bible where we find New International Version (NIV), King James Version (KJV), Today 's English Version, etc. When one reads these versions, it is clear that the English used in these Biblical versions is not of the same level in terms of complexity. Translation here is taking place within the very same language just to make language more understandable. Ancient English is more difficult than today's English. Translation tools do play a significant role when one is executing intralingual translation.

2.6.2 Interlingual translation

Gentzler (2001:1) defines interlingual translation as the translation or interpretation of signs in one language with signs from another language (translation “proper”). This type of translation according to the explanation given above takes place between two

different languages, i.e. SL and TL. This is the proper translation commonly known by almost everyone because of its popularity in both private and public sectors. It is in this translation where two cultures will then be involved because the message is being conveyed from one ethnic group to another ethnic group; for instance, translating from English into Tshivenda. One must be bilingual to be able to perform interlingual translation.

2.6.3 Intersemiotic translation

Munday (2001:5) shows that intersemiotic translation would occur if a written text was translated; for example, into music, film or painting. Munday (2009:6) says:

“...as well as being either intralingual or interlingual, ...intersemiotic translation is the replacement of an ST spoken verbal code by a target text (TT) written verbal code with due regard for the visual and other acoustic signs: thus, there may be a written indication of telephones ringing, dogs barking, characters shouting; or sometimes non translation of visual elements such as nods and head-shakes that are obvious from the image, and so on.”

On the other hand, Bassnett (2002:23) reflects that intersemiotic translation or transmutation is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of non-verbal signs systems.

2.7 LEVELS OF TRANSLATION

This part will explain three most known levels of translation, namely, free translation, literal translation and word-for-word translation. The first one is free translation, which is a level of translation that provides the general meaning of the ST, but it stays far from the exact wording of the ST. Free translation gives the entire freedom to the translators. Crystal (1987) about free translation explains that free translation

is when the linguistic structure of the source language is ignored, and an equivalent is found based on the meaning it conveys.

The second level is literal translation, which can be explained as the one which matches with the wording and structure of the source text. The literal meaning of words is just taken from the translation tools such as dictionary and term bank as it is and it fully respects the grammar of the source text. Literal translation is always out of context. There is a relationship between literal translation and word-for-word translation. Crystal (1987) concurs with this explanation when explains that literal translation is when the linguistic structure of the source text is followed, but is normalised according to the rules of the TL.

Example for literal translation: It will rain cats and dogs: *I do na zwimange na mmbwa*.

The translation given above is literally correct when we look at the fact that every word of the source text has been correctly translated literally. But if we were to analyse the meaning conveyed by the expression, we would say that the expression has been incorrectly translated because it does not make sense in the Tshivenda community. If we were to translate the meaning of such expression, we would say: *Mvula i do na ngamaanda*.

The third level is word-for-word translation that seeks to translate each and every word in the source text. The aim of this level of translation is to ensure that every word in the source text is translated without being omitted. The editors and proofreaders who prefer this level of translation always fight with translators who might have translated the source text using translation by omission method. This level of translation is also known as verbatim translation. According to Crystal (1987), word-for-word translation is when each word in the SL is translated by a word in the TL. The result often makes no sense, especially when idiomatic constructions are used.

Owing to the relationship, which exists between literal translation and word-for-word translation, the final product is out of context because translation is not just a way of translating words but meaning, which is being conveyed through words.

Example: Long man: *Mulapfu munna*

The above expression has been translated correctly when using word-for-word translation but this does not communicate a natural meaning to the Tshivenda community. That is not how Vhavenda communicate. The natural communication then would be: *Munna mulapfu*.

One could ultimately point out that there is a very close overlap between levels of translation and translation strategies, procedures, methods, and ways of translation. There are instances where these concepts are used interchangeably. Levels of translation and translation strategies are utilised during terminology development and during translation. It is very common to find language practitioners using many translation levels and many translation strategies in the very same translation. However, it is impossible for language practitioners to stick on one translation level and one translation method in the same document. This means that the final product of translation is always a mixture of translation levels and translation methods. Different translation levels and different translation strategies in the same document do complement each other. The art and creativity of translators using effective translation tools are of significance in the final product.

2.8 TRANSLATION METHODS

The discussion that follows will focus on translation methods. Some other scholars referred to them as translation strategies, ways of translation, procedures and so on. This study has used the concept translation methods to refer to the ways language practitioners whose work is translation use or follow when doing the translation.

Whether translation is simple or difficult, any translation follows or uses methods to translate the concepts in question.

2.8.1 Borrowing (loaning and transliteration)

Loan word is the word that normally does not exist in the TL. In this situation, translators are compelled to use a loan word to convey the message as it is in the source text. Loaning/borrowing is also used as a language development method because it increases the terminology of underdeveloped language. According to Baker (1992:34), this strategy is particularly common in dealing with culture-specific items, modern concepts and buzz words. Following the loan word with an explanation is very useful when the word in question is repeated several times in the text. Once explained, the loan word can then be used on its own. The reader can understand it and is not distracted by further lengthy explanations.

According to Taljard (2004), transliterations/adoptive are words that have been completely adapted to the language system of the borrowing language, i.e. on the syntactic, morphological, phonological, and tonological levels. Transliteration is highly productive means of terminology acquisition, probably because little effort is required.

Example:

Parliament: *Phalamennde*

President: *Phresidennde*

Officer: *Muofisiri*

2.8.2 Paraphrase

According to Baker (1992:38), if the concept expressed by the source item is not lexicalised at all in the TL, the paraphrase strategy can still be used in some

contexts. Instead of a related word, the paraphrase may be based on modifying a super-ordinate or simply on unpacking the meaning of the source item, particularly if the item in question is semantically complex. Newmark (1988:90) indicates that paraphrasing is an amplification or explanation of the meaning of a segment of the text to make it more understandable in the TL. A paraphrase can easily shorten the source text by leaving out parts that s/he deems unnecessary, s/he may add something, or in many cases rework the text. A paraphrase can be done with many objectives but certainly, the most probable would be to bridge the cultural and the space and time gaps between the source text and target text.

Example:

Fixture: *Nzudzanyo ya mitambo*

Penalty: *Thaho ya miorani*

2.8.3 Coinage

Yule (1996) shows that one of the least common processes of word-formation in English is coinage, i.e. the invention of totally new terms. It may be that there is an obscure technical origin for such invented terms, but after their first coinage, they tend to become everyday words in the language. This strategy cuts across all languages where a new word is formed from the source language into a TL so that the target users can understand the information.

Example:

AIDS: *Ndongondela*

Whatsapp: *Watsiapu*

2.8.4 General word

Baker (1992:26) shows that this is one of the commonest strategies for dealing with many types of non-equivalence, particularly in the area of propositional meaning. It works equally well in most, if not all, since the hierarchical structure of semantic fields is not language-specific.

Example:

Flat: *Nndu*

Car: *Tshiendedzi*

2.8.5 Omission

This strategy may sound rather drastic, but in fact, it does no harm to omit translating a word or expression in some context. If the meaning conveyed by a particular item or expression is not vital enough to the development of the text to justify distracting the reader with lengthy explanations, translators can and often do simply omit translating the word or expression in question (Baker, 1992:40).

Example:

Give us today our daily bread: *U ri fhe ḡamusi vhuswa hashu ho ri linganaho*

The word ‘daily’ in the above English sentence has been omitted in the Tshivenda translation. Nevertheless, the meaning is not negatively affected. This strategy discourages word-for-word translation.

2.8.6 Compounding

A term used widely in descriptive linguistic studies to refer to a linguistic unit, which is composed of elements that function independently in other circumstances (Crystal, 2008:96). In other words, compounding is the process of joining two or more elements/parts, which can be used separately. This is also a good method of translation and it can be combined with other translation methods such as borrowing/loaning because a compound word can be transliterated from a foreign language to a TL.

Example:

Flagpost: *Tshiimisafulaga*

Speedometre: *Tshikalaluvhilo*

2.8.7 Cultural substitution (adaptation)

This strategy involves replacing a culture-specific item or explanation with a target-language item that does not have the same propositional meaning but is likely to have a similar impact on the target reader. The main advantage of using this strategy is that it gives the reader a concept with s/he can identify, something familiar and appealing (Baker, 1992:31).

Example:

Give us today our daily bread: *U ri the ñamusi vhuswa hashu ho ri linganaho*

Master seed: *Thoro ya lunonya*

The translator who looked at the fact that the bread will not make a valuable impact in the Vhavenda community decided to use *vhuswa* in the place of bread because *vhuswa* is the most important food among the Vhavenda people. The second

example used master seed of which is also unknown among Vhavenda. Then the translators decided to use *thoro ya Luqonya* so that the Vhavenda would see how small their Christian faith should be, for it to be considered big to can perform miracles. This is the method by which the translators try to adapt words to suit the TR's context. It localises foreign expressions so that language users can understand the meaning.

2.8.8 Semantic transfer

This is the process of adding meanings to the existing concept. In this case, the meaning of the known concept is being extended. Taljard (2004:31) indicates that this is the process of attaching new meanings to existing words by modifying their semantic content. In practice, this often results in the original word being co-existing with the new term, the word being used in general language and term being used in its specific subject field.

Sometimes this happens because it has been impossible for a language to refer to each phenomenon by its unique concept. That is why there is what is called polysemy. Milubi (1996:171) indicates that *pholisemi ndi kushumisele kwa ipfi Jithihi nga ndila yo fhambanaho. Nga inwe ndila ipfi Jithihi Ji a kona u shuma kana u amba zwithu zwivhili zwe fhambanaho.*

If one could conduct a study about semantic transfer, one would find out that language is dynamic and its meaning changes from time-to-time. Semantic transfer is a translation method that could be easily seen in intralingual translation although it can be employed in iterlingual translation and intersemiotic translation.

Example:

Bambelo : Swimming pool

: Prison

Dwadze : *Illness/ Sickness*

: *HIV/AIDS*

The original meaning for the above first word (*bambelo*) is swimming pool but today the meaning has been extended to include a prison. The late and former captain Ailwei Mushavhanamadi through SABC radio station Phalaphala FM has promoted this dynamic lexicographic development. The original meaning for the second example *dwadze* is any illness/sickness but today the meaning has been extended to specifically refer to HIV/AIDS in a way that sometimes the community is beginning to slightly forget the general meaning. The concept *dwadze* is stigmatised and derogatory manner used to refer to people suffering from HIV/AIDS. Semantic transfer is used as a translation method.

2.9 COMMON TRANSLATION TOOLS USED BY TSHIVENDA LANGUAGE PRACTITIONERS

2.9.1 Dictionary

Gauton (2004:15) explains that dictionaries and grammars pertaining to the source and TLs are a translator's basic tools. Hornby, Wehmeier, McIntosh, Turnbull, and Ashby (2006:404) define a dictionary as a book that gives a list of words of a language in alphabetical order and explains what they mean, or gives a word for them in a foreign language. Mongwe (2006:8) defines the term dictionary as a structured collection of lexical units with linguistic data about each of them. In the South African context, the government has established the Tshivenda Lexicography Unit to be responsible for the compilation of Tshivenda dictionaries.

Types of dictionaries

(i) Monolingual dictionary

It has been shown on <http://www.ciil-ebooks.net/html/link5.htm>, accessed on 16/05/2016, that in a monolingual dictionary, both entry words and their definitions or meanings are given in the same language. The term monolingual refers to the language only, irrespective of the information given in it. The explanation makes it clear that monolingual dictionary contains only one language. In this case, it means that this is the dictionary with word lists in Tshivenda and the explanations in Tshivenda. These dictionaries are very rare in Tshivenda if not completely unavailable.

(ii) Bilingual dictionary

A bilingual dictionary is the type of dictionary compiled in two languages, for instance in Tshivenda and English or English and Tshivenda, etc. Tshikota (2006:viii) shows that the Tshivenda team deemed it expedient to start with a Tshivenda-English, English-Tshivenda bilingual and explanatory dictionary to facilitate communication between Vhavenda and members of the other national groups, English being the preferred lingua franca in South Africa. This observation is simply an example to indicate that there are bilingual dictionaries in Tshivenda although they do not have enough word lists needed by Tshivenda language practitioners. The point is that these bilingual dictionaries do not have enough word-lists to serve comprehensively the needs of language practitioners as confirmed by the statement by Wetzel and Muloiwa (1982:viii). The latter authors have indicated that this improved edition of Trilingual Elementary Dictionary: Venda-Afrikaans-English, University of South Africa

1976 is not yet the more comprehensive edition that was envisaged in the ‘foreword’ of the above work. This citation serves to confirm that Tshivenda has been hampered by the same problem of not having comprehensive dictionaries for many years ago. This challenge is not being attended to even in the new democratic government wherein multilingualism is being promoted.

(iii) Multilingual dictionary

According to Atkins (2002), multilingual dictionaries tend to be simple listings of equivalences across three or more languages. The most useful of these focus on specific semantic domains and technical terms.

The above assertion shows clearly that a multilingual dictionary is a dictionary compiled in more than two languages. A trilingual dictionary can also serve as a good example.

(iv) Special dictionary

According to <http://www.ciil-ebooks.net/html/link5.htm>, accessed on 16/05/2016, special dictionaries either cover a specific part of the vocabulary or are prepared with some definite purpose. The dictionary of technical terms deals with technical terms in a language. Terminology is a major and vital part of the vocabulary of any language. These dictionaries are generally prepared by special bodies and commissions formed especially for the purpose. They contain terms peculiar to a particular subject field or general words with special meanings for special fields. While commenting on special dictionaries, Taljard (2004:42) asserts that specialised dictionaries should only contain the special terms pertaining to specific subject fields and therefore treat the terminology pertaining to LSPs. Taljard (2004:42) further maintains that the South African linguistic community is characterised by lack of special dictionaries in especially African languages. This means that if African languages are affected by

lack of specialised terminologies, it is obvious that the problem is worse for those languages that are regarded as minority languages such Tshivenda and others. In such circumstances, Tshivenda language practitioners always find themselves in a situation that compels them to deal with special terms in their translation and without any easy solutions. There is a dire need for Tshivenda special dictionaries that can be used together with those Tshivenda term lists or multilingual term lists already available in different fields.

(v) General language dictionary

According to <http://www.ciil-ebooks.net/html/link5.htm>, accessed on 23/05/2016, general dictionaries contain those words of the language, which are of general use representing various spheres of life and presenting a complete picture of general language. They are meant for the general user of language. Taljard (2004:42) points out that general dictionaries should contain only general vocabulary as present in LGPs.

General dictionaries are the most accessible dictionaries compared to the specialised dictionaries. They are intended to be used by any literate person. In addition, general dictionaries always contain some special terms because their function is to assist any person. That is why scholars have indicated that although special and general dictionaries vary, in some respects, they do overlap. Furthermore, Taljard (2004:42) accentuates that it was pointed out that there is an overlap between LSPs and LGPs. This citation makes one to think that this overlap is caused by the fact that there are some terms and concepts, which belong to both LSPs and LGPs and the fact that special dictionaries are for everyone. African language dictionaries are characterised by a lack, for instance, lack of dictionaries, which are up to date with current situation (many bilingual dictionaries lack currently used terminology).

(vi) Online dictionary

The KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Language Committee (PanSALB) and Kwazulu Natal Provincial Department of Arts and Culture's (language service) training manual for translators and interpreters (page 20) shows that online dictionaries sometimes are useful and faster. One may find synonymous words on the computer. The computer may give one alternative words, which mean the very same thing. Against this background, it is important to recognise online dictionaries. While this discussion emphasises the usefulness of online dictionaries, it makes language practitioners feel worried because there are no Tshivenda online dictionaries at the moment. Then it compels Tshivenda language practitioners to rely on online English dictionaries to translate into Tshivenda and vice versa.

2.9.2 Terminology lists

Sager (1990:2) defines terminology as the study of and the field of activity concerned with (i) collection, (ii) description, (iii) processing, and (iv) presentation of terms.

The National Department of Arts and Culture through National Language Services coordinate terminology development task in South Africa. The link <http://terminology.dac.gov.za/> accessed on 26/05/2017 shows that the functions for the directorate for terminology coordination are:

- to develop, document and coordinate terminology in all the official languages in technical domains.
- translation-oriented terminology-harvesting and recording terminology generated by the National Language Service's translators when translating official documents.
- to develop and manage the national term bank.
- to develop and manage the national terminology register.

Terminology lists compiled by the National Department of Arts and Culture (DAC) and other stakeholders are of significance during translation. It is important for translators to get hold of such lists. Some of these terminology lists are available on DAC's website as the coordinating department in South Africa, for instance, multilingual soccer term lists, multilingual HIV/AIDS term lists, multilingual election term lists, etc.

Although terminology lists are very helpful during the process of translation, irrespective of language, it is worthwhile to state that these terminology lists are not comprehensive enough and there are so many specific fields whose term lists are not yet available. Terminology lists take long to be standardised. As a result, this becomes a challenge to language practitioners and it affects the quality of translation. However, language speakers and translators cannot wait for terms to be standardised because communication cannot cease. People always communicate whether there is terminology or no terminology, through other ways like borrowing and code switching.

2.9.3 Spelling and orthography rules

According to Crystal (2010:454), orthography is the study of the use of letters and the rules of spelling in a language. The link <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Orthography> accessed on 08/05/2017 reflects that orthography is a set of conventions for writing a language. It includes norms of spelling, hyphenation, capitalisation, word breaks, emphasis, and punctuation.

These are the rules that show how particular languages are written. Translators cannot work efficiently and effectively without these rules. PanSALB develops these rules nowadays through National Language Bodies' (NLBs) Technical Committees. The challenge for translating into Tshivenda is that Microsoft office does not recognise Tshivenda spelling and orthography. Actually, the entire Tshivenda grammar is not recognised by Microsoft office and therefore Tshivenda translators have to rely on their acquired knowledge and little published orthography rules. This

is a serious underdevelopment, which requires commitment by Vhavenda, private and public sectors to advance this language.

2.9.4 Translation technology

2.9.4.1 Computer

Computer is any device capable of processing information to produce a desired result. No matter how large or small they are, computers typically perform their work in three well-defined steps: (1) accepting input, (2) processing the input according to predefined rules (program), and (3) producing output (Microsoft computer dictionary, 2002:118).

According to Gauton (2004:16), the computer or word-processor is becoming an increasingly indispensable tool to the translator to present a professional product to the client. The advantage of word processing programmes is that they usually contain spellcheckers with which you can check the spelling of your text. In recent years, big strides have been made regarding machine translation, i.e. utilising the computer to automatically translate texts. Microsoft computer dictionary (2002:573) indicates that word processor is an application program for creating and manipulating text-based documents. A word processor is the electronic equivalent of paper, pen, typewriter, eraser, and, most likely, dictionary and thesaurus.

Nowadays, the job of translators cannot be effectively executed without the use of Microsoft office i.e. Microsoft Word etc. Translators receive their translation requests electronically through emails, Facebook, whatsapp etc. to translate using Microsoft office programmes and return them back to the translation initiator electronically. Arguably, one could not be wrong in saying that without Microsoft office, translation is impossible.

2.9.4.2 Machine translation

According to <http://www.eamt.org/mt.php>, accessed on 14/11/2016, machine translation is the application of computers to the task of translating texts from one natural language to another. On the other hand, <http://www.nwu.ac.za/print/ctext/autshumato>, accessed on 11/11/2016, shows that machine translation is the process of automatically translating one human language into another language by use of a computer system. These explanations correspond to what https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/machine_translation accessed on, 11/11/2016, explains when saying that machine translation... is a sub-field of computational linguistics that investigates the use of software to translate text or speech from one language to another. Baker and Saldanha (2011:162) also confirm that machine translation (MT) involves the use of computer programs to translate texts from one natural language into another automatically. Microsoft computer dictionary (2002:322) asserts that machine translation is the use of computer software to translate large amounts of text from one natural language into another.

All these explanations indicate clearly that the machine (computer) is being used to do the task of translating from one language to another. It is very much important to note that human action is needed for the computer to execute the task of translation efficiently and effectively. However, it is agreed that the computer cannot replace human translation. Human translator is irreplaceable so far.

The inability of machine translation (MT) to produce good translation product without human intervention is supported by https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/machine_translation, accessed on 11/11/2016. The latter URL maintains that on a basic level, MT performs simple substitution of words in one language for words in another, but that alone usually cannot produce good translation of a text because recognition of whole phrases and their closest counterparts in the TL is needed. Ramuedzisi (2016:59) potently confirmed this when contending that, "...machines could never take away the role of a human translators when it comes to translating documents effectively. The human element will always be needed because of some cultural factors such as

values, sociolinguistic context, etc, which relate to choice of suitable terms..." The link www.linguee.com :2014 cited by Ramuedzisi (2016:59) shows that, "these kinds of tools are fast, but result in a poor quality translation as a machine cannot understand the subtleties or contexts/nuance of language. As a result, quality and accuracy tend to be around 50%-70%; therefore, it is not advisable to send the raw form directly to the customer." In addition, machine translation can only be used for a limited number of languages.

Although machine translation seems to be a good tool in the current world of technology, it is a fact that it has its own limitations as it cannot replace human translation and it does not fully accommodate all languages. For instance, Tshivenda has its own complexities because of diacritic signs. Therefore, the language practitioners have to struggle to get diacritic signs inserted and after insertion, there is a possibility that the translation initiator may not be able to get the letters with diacritic signs displayed in their (recipients) computers if not customised. The effectiveness of translation technology depends on human action. Translation technology and human translation complement each other. Machine translated document seriously requires post-editing. Machine translation is faster than human translation but it could not translate and edit its work. Language is a flexible phenomenon whose meaning is determined by context but MT is a consistent tool that does not recognise the context. It is worthwhile to cite Somers (2003:181) who says that "...translation is a complex task even for human beings; it is much more difficult for computers". When researchers cite reasons why MT is a hard problem, they give examples of ambiguity and world knowledge that are hard for even human readers to understand in some cases.

One could ultimately point out based on the reviewed literature that MT could not be effective without human intervention. On the other hand, human beings can be effective without the use of MT. The best approach will always be to integrate both human translation and MT so that the two can complement each other.

2.9.4.3 Autshumato

According to <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autshumato> accessed on 11/11/2016, Autshumato (or Autshumato; akas: Henry de Strandloper) was a Strandloper who worked as an interpreter for the Europeans in present-day-South Africa during the time of the establishment of the Dutch settlement on the Cape of Good Hope in 1652. His exact date of birth is unknown, but it is thought that he lived between about 1625 and 1665. In 1632, he moved to Robben Island with a group of people and worked as a postman and liaison for European ships passing the island.

The above citation shows that the name Autshumato translation tool has been derived from the interpreter Autshumato, akas Henry de Strandloper. By looking at the role of Autshumato, akas Henry Strandloper and the purpose of Autshumato translation tool, one can conclude that the translation software Autshumato has been named after him.

It has been shown on <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autshumato>, accessed on 11/11/2016, that the South African DAC and the Centre for Text Technology (CTexT) (<http://www.nwu.za/ctext>), at the North-West University (NWU) initiated a project named after Autshumato in 2007. The aim of Autshumato project is to research, develop and support open-source translation software in order to promote multilingualism and access to information in South Africa.

It is further shown on <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autshumato> accessed on 11/11/2016 that the Project is still active and the following outputs have been developed and released:

- An Integrated Translation Environment (ITE); which is derived work of the popular open source OmegaT CAT tool.
- A Terminology Management System (TMS).
- Several machine translation (MT) systems for automatic translation in the government domain; developed language pairs include: English (EN-GB) into Afrikaans (AF-ZA), isiZulu (ZU-ZA), Sepedi (NSO-ZA), and Setswana (TN-ZA).

- Machine translation web service (<http://mtws.dac.gov.za>); through this service, anyone can gain access to the MT systems developed as part of the Autshumato project.

This is a good project aimed at the promotion of multilingualism in South Africa. The National Department of Arts and Culture funded the project. This is confirmed by <http://nwu.ac.za/ctext/autshumato> accessed on 11/11/2016, which indicated that CTexT is currently involved in a machine translation project that was funded by the South African DAC. Autshumato is freely available as open source software.

The advantage for the community of language practice and other language users is that they can freely download the software online. Autshumato as a translation tool has a TM, which helps in storing translated words, terms, and segments together with their respective source words, terms and segments to be reused in the future translation.

2.9.4.4 Trados

This is the most popular translation tool in the translation industry. According to https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/SDL_Trados, accessed on 11/11/2016, SDL Trados is a computer-assisted translation software suite, originally developed by the German company GmbH. It is currently available from SDL plc, a provider of customer experience cloud solutions. It is considered the market-leader in providing translation software solutions across the entire translation supply chain, including freelance translators, language service providers, corporate language departments, and academic institutions.

According to the above explanation, Trados is a translation software that works hand-in-hand with human intervention. In other words, Trados is a computer assisted translation tool. Computer assisted tools are the tools that help the human translator to do the work of translation. As a translation tool, Trados also has a TM which helps

in storing translated words, terms, and segments together with their respective source words, terms and segments to be reused in the future translation. The functions of Autshumato and Trados are related.

According to Esselink (2000:76), "... CAT tools support the translator by preventing repetitive work, automating terminology lookup activities, and re-using previously translated texts".

2.9.4.5 CAT tools categories

Esselink (2000:76) indicates that CAT tools, also called machine-aided translation tools, can be categorised as follows:

- Translation memory (TM)
- Terminology tools
- Software localisation tools

According to https://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation_memory, accessed on 20/11/2016, Translation memory (TM) is a database that stores "segments", which can be sentences, paragraphs or sentence-like units (headings, titles or elements in a list) that have previously been translated in order to aid human translation. The TM stores the source text and its corresponding translation in language pairs called "translation units". Esselink (2000:76) also maintains that basically, a TM system is no more than a database which stores translated sentences [...].

Gauton (2004:14) explains that a TM therefore serves as a 'store' of previously translated sentences which 'reminds' the translator of what she has previously translated. This type of tool works best when the text to be translated contains many repetitive sentences/repetitions, as would normally be the case with most of technical translation tasks.

Daelemans, Du Plessis, Snyman, and Teck (2005: 63) contend that the natural complement of segmenter is TM (TM). Every time a segment is translated, it can be stored in the TM. Therefore, a TM is a database of translation units (TUs). A TU records source and target segments, the date of creation, the languages used and the ID of the TU's creator. A TU also has a usage counter that registers how many times a TU has been re-used. The more a TU is re-used, the more valuable it is. TM is mostly applied to technical documents. It can save a great deal of time, because the translation tool will recognise segments that have already been translated before and will propose a segment-one only has to check, validate and move on.

All the above assertions do emphasise the fact that TM is a storage of translated segments (i.e. Units, words, terms and sentences), which can be re-used in the next translation depending on the similarities of the stored segments and the text which is being translated. TM is a good tool for translators because it can save more time and ensure consistency in translation work. It is also good for developing terminology for the underdeveloped languages such as African languages, Tshivenda in particular.

When it comes to terminology tools, Esselink (2000:77) indicates that in localisation, terminology management is usually done in a very basic manner. Localisers typically do not create or use large multilingual terminology databases with term definitions, context, grammatical information, source, etc. Instead, in most cases only bilingual glossaries of translated terms or phrases are used; for example, all translated terms from the software user interface. For this reason, not only professional terminology management tools are used, but also basic glossary tools with limited search functionality. Most translation tools run in conjunction with terminology management applications, which can be linked to the TM for automatic terminology lookup. Automatic terminology lookup means that terms in the source text, which are found in the dictionary or terminology database, are automatically displayed with their translations. Esselink (2000:77) further maintains that examples of terminology tools are Trados MultiTerm, Atril TermWatch and STAR TermStar.

Daelemans, Du Plessis, Snyman, and Teck (2005: 63) argue that... a good terminology tool must first of all be able to store the glossary in a format that is easy to search, easy to access (and perhaps edit), and easy to email (lightweight), enabling the translator to access the terminology database with minimal effort. Second, it must be able to read every segment of the source document ahead of the translator and indicate whether any of the terms or expressions in the segment is contained in the glossary and therefore warrants attention. Daelemans, Du Plessis, Snyman, and Teck (2005: 63) further indicate that a complete terminology management tool must offer a great deal more, at least from the client's point of view. It must be able to store any number of languages; it must be accessible through the web or the Intranet; it must be capable of administering rights to different users; it must include graphics, sounds, hyperlinks, notes, etc.

On the other hand, Ramuedzisi (2016:60) explains that Terminology Management System (TMS) is computer software that helps in storing and retrieving terminological information.

The most important fact in the above discussion is that terminology management tool stores glossary or terminology to be retrieved by translators when needed. This storage is important for language practitioners as it can simplify their work and save more time during the translation process. Storing a large number of languages is also a very important point as it assures the promotion of multilingualism in South Africa. This also means that Tshivenda can also be included. It is a pity that African languages so far are not easily accommodated in the translation software.

When it comes to software localisation tools, Esselink (2000:77) asserts that special tools have been developed to translate graphical user interfaces (GUIs) of software applications, i.e. the dialog boxes, menus, and messages that are displayed on a computer screen. These tools allow translators to view their translations in context; for example, translations can be entered directly in a dialog box and then saved. Esselink (2000:78) further contends that software localisation tools contain features for automatically translating updated software with previously translated versions,

and for running basic tests on localised software, for example, checking if no translated text was truncated in the screens because of space restrictions.

Esselink (2000:64) maintains that localisation is all about customising things (user manuals for products, especially software, and the products, especially software, and the products themselves) for a “local” audience. Esselink (2000:65) buttresses that the Localisation Industry Standards Association (LISA) defines localisation as follows:

“Localisation involves taking a product and making it linguistically, technically, and culturally appropriate to the target locale where it will be used and sold.”

Making a product linguistically appropriate to a particular market basically means translating it, and making it technically appropriate means adjusting all product specifications to support standards in the target market.

This means that localisation is an activity of making sure that something is usable in the environment where it is going to be used. This is a process of adapting something to be user-friendly in the target environment. In this context, one could indicate that localisation is a way of making translation software usable by the TL practitioners. Therefore, that computer software does not come in Tshivenda language is a pity. Against this background, Tshivenda language practitioners have to use it in English while translating into Tshivenda. This means that localisation recognises only those languages that are accommodated in the computer such as English. A person who does not read computer languages such as English as an example cannot use the computer.

2.10 INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON TRANSLATION

Many scholars and juristic persons have defined the term translation locally and abroad. There are many published and unpublished explanations about what is meant by the term translation. This section will show how translation is viewed internationally where European scholars ‘and international juristic persons’ literature will be reviewed.

Translation connects people who cannot understand common languages. For instance, where a Tshivenda-speaking person meets with a Wolof speaker and both of them are monolingual, it is obvious that translation or interpreting must be used. Benfoughal (2010:1) supports this when he insists that “...no one can ignore or neglect the crucial role of translation by helping people who do not speak the same language, or they are not from the same speech community to communicate effectively”. That is to say that one may speak and master his mother tongue, however, he may not understand others’ language. He would not be able to communicate with people out of his speech community; that is why translation is considered as a remedy for such a situation.

This discussion suggests that where there is more than one language, translation is an unavoidable solution to language barriers. Inability to understand someone’s language is the experience of all human beings and that is why translation is a global practice. The European Union on its website: ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation, accessed on 21/11/2016, has shown that “...translation is an efficient communication tool. It allows citizens of an increasingly interconnected world to interact and have a say in shaping their common future without the need to give up their language – an integral part of their identity”.

This means that although the purpose of translation is to facilitate communication, it also preserves languages because monolingual people will still access information through translation. Those who wish to be multilingual can do so voluntarily without

abandoning their mother tongue language. Newmark (1982:7) defines translation as a craft consisting of an attempt to replace a written message or statement in one language by the same message or statement in another language.

The above definition sees translation as art and the issue of the message sameness between the source text and the target text is taken into consideration. This means that translation must not be distorted.

Newmark (1988:5) defines translation as "...rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text". This definition emphasises the fact of the meaning the author wants to convey to the target recipients. Most importantly, it means that the translator must always bear in mind that the message should reach the target recipients in the manner the writer of the source text intended. It is therefore important to execute translation carefully. This makes the translation to serve its purpose efficiently and effectively. Samovar and Porter (2001:149) correctly assert that translating is an accepted truism that our globally oriented world necessitates accurate translators.

The European Union (2013:4) has also shown that translators work with the written word as follows: "... translators have to write texts that accurately convey the message and content of the original document, and are grammatical and readable in the TL". Furthermore, the European Union (2013:4) postulates that a good translation should read like a document in its own right. In many cases, for example legislation, the translation is 'authentic', which means it has the same legal force as the original version. The focus here is on the role of translator who works with written language unlike interpreters whose work is verbal. It is definitely interesting to interrogate this text cited above, which emphasises the issue of the originality of the message, which has to be maintained in the TL. The point that is being made here is on the quality of translation. It is known that if translation is incorrect, it has negative impact in decision-making and also life in general. For instance, if the instruction on a medical container has been incorrectly translated, how health could be affected.

This situation can be avoided in many ways, including having effective translation tools.

Hatim and Munday (2004:3) confirm the matter of translation effect when saying that translation is a phenomenon that has a huge effect on everyday life. This can range from translation of a key international treaty to...multilingual poster that welcomes customers to a small restaurant near to the home of one of the authors.

For instance, if the poster has been placed in a particular area indicating that vehicles are not allowed to drive in perhaps because the bridge has collapsed, and the translation is incorrect, it means that the motorists and tourists will not grasp the correct message and they will drive in.

Procter (1995:1551) defines translation as the changing of written words into a different language. The scholar's citation here is only focussing on the conversion of text from one language to another. Sturge (1997:21) defines translation as a practice of intercultural communication, which asserts the necessity and feasibility of transfer. This definition focuses on the issue of mixed cultural identities of people who have to communicate to one another. Whenever the term translation is articulated, it becomes clear that there is a cross-cultural issue involved. That is because translation does not normally take place within one language or in a monolingual situation. If the world was monolingual, one would potently assume that translation would not have existed.

Hatim and Munday (2004:3) citing the Concise Oxford English Dictionary have asserted that: "translation. n.1. the act or an instance of translating. 2. a written or spoken expression of the meaning of a word, speech, book, etc. in another language." This definition taken from the Concise Oxford English dictionary did not differentiate between translation (textual) and interpreting (verbal). The definition dwelled much on the point of converting one language into another language. It is common to find language speakers in different geographical areas using the terms translation and interpreting interchangeably. However, it should be known that translation is textual whereas interpreting is verbal.

The confusion of this nature has also been confirmed by ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation Accessed on 21/11/2016, which says that translation and interpreting are often misconstrued to mean the same thing, but they are different activities.

The preceding paragraphs attempted to unveil how international scholars view translation. Although different scholars used different idiolect to approach the definition of the term translation, one can certainly point out that scholars do agree that translation is a way of changing one language to another language with the intent to pass the same message from the author of the source text (language) to the reader of the target text (language).

2.11 SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVES ON TRANSLATION

In the Republic of South Africa, there are also many scholars and juristic persons who have defined the term translation. Point numbered 8.5 above examined the views of the international scholars and juristic persons. The focus below will be on the South African perspectives as already said. The South African Language Practitioners' Council Act No.8 of 2014 defines translation as the act of transposing a written, spoken or signed text from a source language to a target language.

The legislations and statutes in any country have impact to influence the way people; both scholars and laypersons view and approach things and contexts. The synonyms of the word 'transpose' include not limited to the following: interchange, exchange, transfer, swap, turn around, re-arrange.etc. This means that in South Africa, according to the passed law cited above, translation is defined as a way of turning one language to another. The legislation here does not make any difference between translation, sign language and interpreting. Therefore, the legislation embraces all these concepts under one roof, i.e. translation. The concept translation is being used as a super-ordinate word to encompass interpreting (verbal/spoken), translating (textual) written sign language and 'gesturing' sign language. The main

reason of this transposition (interchange, exchange, transfer, swap, turning around, rearrangement, etc.) is to pass information from one language user to another language user, i.e. communication.

On the other hand, Gauton (2004:5) sees translation as the process of converting a source text into a target text, that is, source language into target language. The definition by Gauton is clearly pointing out that translation converts written text from one particular text to another text in a particular language. She speaks of the source language text and target language text.

Goussard-Kunz (2003:50) defines translation as the placement of text in the source language by a semantically and pragmatically equivalent text in the target language.

This means that it is important to take semantics and pragmatics into consideration during translation. The meaning is an important element because what readers want is to understand the original text in their mother tongue language (their primary language or first language). Therefore, it is important to properly use the words and terms. The point of message originality is crucial between the source text and target text.

Goussard-Kunz's definition of the term translation corresponds to what Mukundamago (2010:11) explains when she explains that translation is the interpretation of the meaning of a text and the subsequent production of equivalent text. This text is called a translation because it communicates the message in another language. Meintjes (1992:14) cited by Goussard-Kunz (2003:51) maintains that translation is a process that makes information available to people who would normally have access to that information. These assertions make sense when they involve the issue of communication through translation.

Deducing from both the international perspectives and South African perspectives on translation as cited above, one can see that there are differences when it comes to the arrangement and choice of words to explain what is meant by the term

translation. Nevertheless, there are many similarities of meaning that could be attributed to globalisation. Scholars and juristic persons have access to both world unpublished and published sources of information via the Internet, libraries, research, publishing houses, bookstores, and so on. This makes them to peruse widely about the topics of their interest, translation with no exception. Because of this, international and local perspectives can influence each other when it comes to how terms and concepts are defined. Both perspectives indicate that translation is a mode of passing the same information from one language to another language. Moreover, translation connects people who belong to different cultures and languages, and translation communicates message from one language to another language. The issue of the originality of messages and semantics have also been emphasised because translation has an effect in life. In both perspectives, it has been shown above that there are instances depending on the scholar where the term translation is misconstrued for interpreting. The South African Language Practitioners' Council Act No. 8 of 2014 uses the term translation to encompass translation, interpreting and the use of sign language. Ultimately, translation is seen as a transfer of information from one person to another through language, either within the same language or from one language to another. Translation is a simplified communication.

2.12 QUALITY ASSURANCE

According to Evans and Lindsay (2005:4), quality assurance in a broad sense refers to any planned and systematic activity directed towards providing consumers with products (goods and services) of appropriate quality, along with the confidence that products meet consumer requirements. Quality assurance, usually associated with some form of measurement and inspection activity, has been an important aspect of production operations throughout history. Richardson (2015:275) concurs with the above explanation when asserting that the basic definition of quality assurance is a set of planned and systematic activities undertaken to ensure that a product or a service will satisfy the standards of quality established by the organisation.

Quality assurance in translation like in any other work is also important. Translators' work normally gets edited and proofread before publishing or distribution to the TR. Editing and proofreading are the commonest activities performed just after translation is finished. These activities are conducted before the intended user (reader) uses translation. Sometimes other translation initiators may need the TT to be back translated with the intent to ensure if translators really have done a good job. Although back translation is very much known in the translation industry, it is not always performed. Crystal (1987:346) on back translation shows that one translates a text from language A into language B; a different translator then turns B text back into A, and the resulting A text is compared with the original A text. If the texts are virtually identical, it is strong evidence that the original translation was of high quality (though not incontrovertible evidence, because the second translator might have improved upon the work of the first in the reverse process).

Deducing from the above explanation, one could understand that back translation is a tool whereby a translator interprets/translates a document previously translated into another language back to the original language. In other words, back translation is a process of translating a TT back to the ST (i.e. the original text) by a translator who was not involved in the translation of that TT. In translation, quality is assured through editing, proofreading and back translation. The latter is not always used as compared to the former two mechanisms (editing and proofreading). Language practitioners (translators) are assisted by translation tools to assure good translation quality. However, TT can be used without being back translated. Nevertheless, it is believed that the TT cannot be used without being edited and proofread. Back translation consumes time and it is also costly. Back translation is an under-researched mechanism and much is not known about it.

Quality assurance is a component of quality management process. Although translation is not an exact discipline, it has to be satisfactory to the target reader. Tytler (1793:15) posits that a good translation is one in which the merit of the original is so completely transfused into another language as to be a distinctly apprehended

and a strongly felt by a native of the country to which that language belongs as it is by those who speak the language of the original.

Table 2.2: Example of back translation

English	Tshivenda	Back translation
Principles	Milayo	Laws
Act	Mulayo	Law
Law	Mulayo	Mulayo

2.13 POLICY FRAMEWORK

The most fortunate thing in the democratic Republic of South Africa is that there are policies that support the development of languages. These policies are to enable individuals, institutions and any other role player with stake to develop and protect official languages in all positive ways which can include but not limited to translations tools. In 2018, South Africa turned 24 years since the inception of the democratic dispensation in 1994. This period is enough for dedicated language developers to have managed to have reasonable tools for translation into Tshivenda. Unfortunately, that is not the case because Tshivenda is seriously lagging behind when it comes to translation tools. The discussion below will dwell on the policies that promote language development. These policies are the points of departure.

2.13.1 The supreme law

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108, of 1996 in section 6, subsections 1 to 5 reflect that:

Languages

- (1) The official languages of the Republic of South Africa are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, isiSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, and isiZulu.
- (2) Recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the State must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages.
- (3) (a) The national government and provincial government may use any particular official languages for the purposes of government, taking into account usage, practicality, expense, regional circumstances, and the balance of the needs and preferences of the population as a whole or in the province concerned; but the national government and each provincial government must use at least two official languages.

(b) Municipalities must consider the language usage and preferences of their residents.
- (4) The national government and provincial governments, by legislative and other measures, must regulate and play an oversight role in their use of official languages. Without detracting from the provisions of subsection (2), all official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably.
- (5) A Pan South African Language Board established by national legislation must-
 - (a) promote, and create conditions for, the development and use of-
 - (i) all official languages;
 - (ii) the Khoi, Nama and San languages; and
 - (iii) sign language; and

- (b) promote and ensure respect for-
- (i) all languages commonly used by communities in South Africa, including German, Greek, Gujarati, Hindu, Portuguese, Tamali, Telegu and Urdu; and
 - (ii) Arabic, Hebrew, Sanskrit and other languages used for religious purposes in South Africa.

The Constitution in section 30 indicates that:

Everyone has the right to use the language and to participate in the cultural life of their choice, but no one exercising these rights may do so in a manner inconsistent with any provision of the Bill of Rights.

2.13.2 National language policy framework

The South African Government through National Department of Arts and Culture on the 12th of February 2003 has adopted the NLPF with the following aims to:

Promote the equitable use of the 11 official languages; facilitate equitable access to government services, knowledge and information; ensure redress for the previously marginalised official indigenous languages; initiate and sustain a vibrant discourse on multilingualism with all language communities; encourage the learning of the official indigenous languages to promote national unity, and linguistic and cultural diversity; and promote good language management for efficient public service administration to meet client expectations and needs.

The NPLF's principles are as follows:

A commitment to the promotion of language equity and language rights as required by a democratic dispensation; recognising that languages are resources to maximise knowledge, expertise and full participation in the political and socio-economic domains; working in collaborative partnerships to promote constitutional multilingualism; preventing the use of

any language for the purposes of exploitation, domination and discrimination; and enhancing people-centeredness in addressing the interests, needs and aspirations of a wide range of language communities through ongoing dialogue and debate.

2.13.3 Use of official languages Act No.12 of 2012

The use of official languages Act No.12 of 2012 in section 2 reflects that:

2. The objectives of this Act are-

- to regulate and monitor the use of official languages for government purposes by national department;
- to promote parity of esteem and equitable treatment of official languages of the Republic;
- to facilitate equitable access to services and information of national government; and
- to promote good language management by national government for efficient public service administration and to meet needs of the public.

In section 5, the Act shows that:

5. The Minister must-

- establish a National Language Unit in the Department; and
- ensure that the National Language Unit is provided with human resources, administrative resources and other resources necessary for its effective functioning.

Section 6 of the Act talks about the following functions of National Language Unit:

6.(1) The National Language Unit must-

- advise the Minister on policy and strategy;
- to regulate and monitor the use of official languages by national government for government purposes;
- to promote parity of the Republic and facilitate equitable access to the services and information of national departments, national public entities and national public enterprises;
- to promote good language management within national departments, national public entities and national public enterprises; and
- on the functions of language units contemplated in section 8;
- liaise with and promote the general coordination of language units contemplated in section 7;
- perform the functions provided for in section 8 for the Department; and
- perform any other function that the Minister may prescribe.”

2.13.4 The South African Language Practitioners' Council Act No. 8 of 2014

The South African Language Practitioners Act No. 8 of 2014 in section 4 indicates that:

The objects of the Council are to-

- promote and protect the language practice in the Republic;
- scrutinise particulars of people intending to register;
- register people who are registrable by the Council;
- accredit people who are accountable by the Council;

- develop, implement, revise and amend a code of conduct relating to the conduct of registered language practitioners;
- protect language practitioners' professional interests;
- protect the members of the public who make use of services provided by language practitioners;
- regulate the provision of language service to members of the public;
- provide and encourage the provision of opportunities for persons, especially from indigenous communities, to enter and participate in the language practice in the Republic; and
- contribute to an enabling environment for job creation in the language practice in the Republic; and
- advise the Minister on matters affecting the language profession.

The policy framework in the Republic of South Africa has a significant role to play in the development of languages in general. This development does involve the development of marginalised languages such as Tshivenda. Developing translation tools is part of language development. Today South Africa is a different country as compared to the post South Africa during apartheid regime. Today South Africa has the supreme law, NLPF, and language related legislations to promote multilingualism, language management and language preservation. Therefore, these policies are to create conducive environment for language industry to contribute in the development of all official languages. African languages suffered immensely during the apartheid regime as they were not expected to be used in the public arena, but only in the private sphere such as home. The enactment of these laws enables interest groups to make efforts to avail themselves and funding for the sake of language development. Implementation is the most important thing to ensure the effectiveness of these policies. Policy framework is a pillar for language development in the country. The Constitution refers to Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB), which has been established through Pan South African Language Board Act No. 59 of 1995. PanSALB as an institution has put in place 11 National Lexicography Units for each official language. National Lexicography Units are

responsible for the compilation of dictionaries. Dictionary is the most basic translation tool a translator must have. By looking at the content of these policies, one could then be sure that there is a relationship between policies, translation tools and translation quality. Although implementation of policies may encounter some challenges, it is important to consider the fact that South Africa is one of the countries that have the best constitution in the world.

2.14 CONCLUSION

The concept translation is a variable, which refers to activity, academic discipline and product. Translation as an activity is not done for fun but for a particular purpose such as the conveyance of information from one language to another (interlingual translation) and/ or within the same language (intralingual translation). It is through equivalence (correspondence) whereby the message can be conveyed to the target readers in a target language. The issue of culture is very important to consider when translating, particularly if one is doing interlingual translation because this is the one that conveys message from one culture to another culture. Owing to democracy and literacy, cultural sensitivity is very high. Violation of culture is unconstitutional in South Africa and one could approach the courts for that matter. Translation levels and translation methods are employed to identify relevant equivalence. Translators make use of translation tools to ensure that they deliver quality translation (product) to their clients. Mechanisms such as editing, proofreading and back translation are also used for quality assurance. South African language policies do play a fundamental impact on the issues pertaining to language management and translation tools. The relationship does exist between translation tools, Skopos theory, equivalence in translation, and translation methods. The literature reviewed did reflect that translation tools used to translating into Tshivenda are still underdeveloped. Consequently, this does affect the quality of translation in a negative way. There is a need to work on the development and advancement of translation tools to fully accommodate underdeveloped languages such as African languages, Tshivenda in this regard.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter has dealt with literature review. This chapter describes the research methodologies followed in this research study. Scientific research cannot be conducted without following particular research methodologies. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:2) indicate that research is a systematic process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting information (data) in order to increase our understanding of the phenomenon about which we are interested or concerned. Welman et al. (2005:2) assert that research is a process that involves obtaining scientific knowledge by means of various objective methods and procedures. From another perspective, research is the method used to add knowledge in a field of discipline. We need to understand how to carry out research and what qualifies as good research both in the workplace and in our studies. Grinnell (1993:4) says that research is a structured inquiry that utilises acceptable scientific methodology to solve problems and creates new knowledge that is generally applicable. In addition, Burns (1994:4) defines the concept research as a systematic investigation to find answers to a problem. Kerlinger (1986:10) contends that scientific research is a systematic, controlled empirical and critical investigation of propositions about the presumed relationships about phenomena. Kumar (2005:6) indicates that when you say that you are undertaking a research study to find out answers to a question, you are implying that the process:

- is being undertaken within a framework of a set of philosophies;
- uses procedures, methods and techniques that have been tested for their validity and reliability; and
- is designed to be unbiased and objective.

Perhaps one could ask a question why research has to be objective? It is of significance to clarify this concept (objective). Welman et al. (2005:2) contend that

the term objective indicates that these methods and procedures do not rely on personal feelings or opinions, and that specific methods are used at each stage of the research process. Sarantakos (2005:430) shows that objectivity is the notion that in their work, social scientists and researchers should exclude values and subjective judgements. Scott and Marshall (2005:454) reflect that objectivity may refer to an attitude of mind deemed proper to a scientific investigation: detached, unprejudiced, open to whatever the evidence may reveal. Pandey and Pandey (2015:20) say that objectivity refers to the findings related to the method of data collection and scoring of the responses. The research design should permit the measuring instruments that are fairly objective in which every observer or judge scoring the performance must precisely give the same report.

Countless number of authors has explained the concept research. Few of them as cited above put it clearly that research follows particular systematic methods and frameworks. Research studies are carried out for particular reasons such as to solve problems, add knowledge, provide answers for particular questions, reach new conclusions, and so on. As research is a systematic activity, it means that the methods which are followed do affect one another. Therefore, research should be conducted with great care. Research results are helpful in the society. This research is being conducted to provide answers around issues concerning tools used to translating into Tshivenda. This research does have a significant impact within translation industry and language practice in general.

When coming to the concept of research methodology, Kothari (2004:7-8) says that research methods may be understood as all those methods/techniques that are used for conducting research. Therefore, research methods or techniques refer to the methods the researcher uses in performing research operations. In other words, all those methods that are used by the researcher during the course of studying his research problem are termed research methods. Kothari (2004:8) maintains that research methodology is a way to systematically solve the problem. It may be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically. In it, we

study the various steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in studying his research problem along with logic behind them.

The preceding paragraph shows clearly that the concepts research methodologies embrace jargons referring to a wide range of research procedures. This research has employed both qualitative and quantitative methods. This is called mixed-methods research. Creswell (2005) cited by Maree, Creswell, Elof, Frreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Peterson, Clark Plano, and Van der Westhuizen (2007:261) indicates that mixed-methods research is defined as a procedure for collecting, analysing and “mixing” both quantitative and qualitative data at some stage of the research process within a single study to understand a research problem more completely. The reason for mixing two paradigms is to obtain breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.

According to Scott and Marshall (2005:538), qualitative research generally associated with interpretive epistemology, tends to be used to refer to forms of data collection and analysis, which rely on understanding, with an emphasis on meanings. On the contrary, Leedy and Ormrod (2005:94) show that qualitative research is typically used to answer questions about the complex nature of phenomena, often with the purpose of describing and understanding the phenomena from the participants' point of view.

Conversely, quantitative methodology (research) generally associated with positivist epistemology, is usually regarded as referring to the collection and analysis of numerical data (Scott & Marshall, 2005:538). Sullivan (2009:429) shows that quantitative research relies primarily on the collection of quantitative data and has its own, unique set of assumptions and normative practices.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Scott and Marshall (2005:564), research design is the strategic plan for a research project or research programme, setting out the broad outline and key

features of the work to be undertaken, including the methods of data collection and analysis to be employed. The research design shows how the research strategy addresses the specific aims and objectives of the study, and whether the research issues are theoretical or policy-oriented. Hence, also, the process of developing such a document, choosing between alternative types of study, their relative size, whether triangulation will be employed, and adjusting plans to the available resources and timetable. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:63) show that the concept of research design refers to the planning of a particular research project. Moreover, it is a programme that guides the researcher in collecting, analysing and interpreting data and giving meaning to it, and should be formulated before you write a research proposal. Du Plooy (2001:81) adds that research design is a plan of how the research will be conducted, indicating who or what is involved and where and when the study will take place. Kothari (2004:31) contends that a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. In fact, the research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted; it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. Bhattacherjee (2012:35) concurs with the above citations when saying that research design is a comprehensive plan for data collection in an empirical research project. It is a “blueprint” for empirical research aimed at answering specific research questions or testing specific hypotheses, and must specify at least three processes: (1) the data collection process, (2) the instrument development process, and (3) the sampling process.

Research design, as explained above by different scholars, looks as a systematic sketch the research should follow when collecting, analysing and presenting data. Just like cars' new models that are to be released, they are designed first before being manufactured and released. Research is also designed before being conducted. The underlying purpose of research design is to produce a product according to the designed sketch (plan). Well-designed research that follows the designed plans properly is more likely to produce good quality results, which are valid and reliable. The items that follow below are of significance in this research project.

3.2.1 Research site

Research site is the area or place where the informants (research subjects) are found. Research subject can be a living or non-living thing. This is the place and context where the research project is carried out. According to Mouton (1996:145), the research context refers to both the spatio-temporal circumstances under which research is conducted (for example, a particular year in a specific country with a specific socio-political system), and the specific spacio-temporal setting.

The research study has been conducted in the Republic of South Africa in general. Different Tshivenda language practitioners who practice in different working environments have been included in the study as informants. Some of them have formal jobs while others have informal jobs such as freelancing. They are scattered in both private and public sectors such as not limited to universities, municipalities, government structures, DAC (nationally and provincially). Some of them have already retired.

3.2.2 Population

Powers et al. (1985:235) define population as a set of entities in which all the measurements of interest to the practitioner or researcher are represented. The entities may be people, such as all the clients comprising a particular worker's caseload, or things, such as all the research books housed in a specific library. In either case, the study of a population may be said to be exhaustive in that it includes an investigation of every entity under consideration. In other words, a study of a population is a study of the whole. Seaberg (1988:240) explains that population is the total set from which the individuals or units of the study are chosen. Neuman (2006:224) explicitly asserts that the large pool is the population, which has an important role in sampling. Kumar (2005:165) explains that the class, families living in the city or electorates from which you select a few students, families, electors to

question in order to find answers to your research questions are called the population or study population.

These citations have vividly indicated that population is the large group where sampling is drawn from so that a sample will represent the whole group. It is very common for research project to identify a larger group of research subjects with the intent to just examine a sample.

The researcher in this study has targeted the Tshivenda language practitioners who use the available translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. The Tshivenda language practitioners are the research subjects (interviewees) in this study because they use translation tools when executing their work. The population got investigated and studied in this study comprised the translation tools such as dictionary, terminology lists, spelling and orthography rules, translation technology such as computer, machine translation tools, translation programmes like Autshumato and Trados.

3.2.3 Sampling procedure and techniques

Maree, Creswell, Elof, Frreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pietersen, Clark Plano, and Van der Westhuizen (2007:172) highlight that it is usually impossible to include the entire population in your study, the two main restrictions being time and cost. Consequently, in the majority of surveys, especially where the population that is being studied is fairly large, you will have to make use of sampling. Furthermore, Sullivan (2009:457) shows that sampling is a statistical procedure where some individual units are chosen for study from a population (the total number of units) to make inferences about the entire population. A sample is chosen because it is usually not possible to include or study every member of the population (the universe). A sample is drawn from a population based on several factors, including the size of the sample need and access to the population. Bhattacherjee (2012:65) confirms that sampling is the statistical process of selecting a subject (called a

“sample”) of a population of interest for purposes of making observations and statistical inferences about that population. Scott and Marshall (2005:575) clearly indicate that sampling is a method for collecting information and drawing inferences about a larger population or universe, from the analysis of only part thereof, the sample.

The sample drawn from the population helped the researcher to draw a conclusion on the effectiveness of tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda. A sample is considered as a representative of the whole population. Researchers use a sample to understand the entire population. Therefore, carefulness ensures the representativeness of sample.

This researcher in this study has used non-probability sampling (non-random sampling) wherein snowball and purposive samplings have been employed. Non-random sampling is a sample in which the sampling elements are selected using something other than a mathematically random process (Neuman, 2006:220). Leedy and Ormrod (2005:206) accentuate that in non-probability sampling, the researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample. In addition, Sekaran (2003:276) posits that in non-probability sampling designs, the elements in the population do not have any probability attached to their being chosen as sample subjects.

Baker (1988:159) shows that snowballing involves approaching a single case that is involved in the phenomenon to be investigated in order to gain information on other similar persons. Kumar (2011:179) clearly indicates that snowball sampling is the process of selecting a sample using networks. To start with, a few individuals in a group or organisation are selected and the required information is collected from them. They are then asked to identify other people in the group or organisation, and the people recommended by participants become a part of the sample. Information is collected from them, and then these people are asked to identify other members of the group and, in turn, those identified become the basis of further data collection. Furthermore, Bhattacherjee (2012:70) indicates that in snowball sampling, the

researcher starts by identifying a few respondents that match the criteria for inclusion in your study, and then ask them to recommend others they know who also meet your selection criteria.

The advantage of employing snowball sampling (also known as network, chain referral, or reputational sampling) is to enable the researcher to locate more language practitioners who are freelancing but not being formally employed by a particular employer. Therefore, this study only targeted people whose work is language practice (translation, editing, proofreading, language planning, lexicography, language research, human language technology but not limited to this list only).

Purposive or judgemental sampling has also been used in this study. These two sampling methods complemented each other to make it easier for the researcher to collect the required data. Purposive sampling is based on the judgement of a researcher regarding the characteristics of a representative sample (Bless, Higson-Smith, and Kagee, 2006: 106). A sample is chosen based on what the researcher considers to be typical units. The strategy is to select units that are judged to be the most common in the population under investigation. Singleton and Straits (1988:153) also maintain that purposive sampling is a type of sample based entirely on the judgement of the researcher, in that a sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of the population. Sekaran (2003:277) argues that instead of obtaining information from those who are most readily or conveniently available, it might sometimes become necessary to obtain information from specific target groups. The sampling here is confined to specific types of people who can provide the desired information, either because they are the only ones who have it, or conform to some criteria set by the researcher.

The researcher in this study selected only 25 language practitioners (informants) whose work amongst many responsibilities included translation, editing and proofreading from Tshivenda to English and vice versa. Tshivenda is one of South Africa's minor languages, and therefore, it has fewer language practitioners as compared to

other African Languages in the country. It was against this background that the researcher has involved 25 informants through snowball and judgemental sampling.

3.2.4 Size of the data

Since this study has involved 25 informants, it was ascertained that the data would not be too large. The data were small to assure data manageability. Large data are complex to manage and are also time consuming. This study was conducted within a particular time constraint. Kothari (2004:56) says that about the size of sample refers to the number of items to be selected from the universe to constitute a sample. The size of sample should neither be excessively large, nor too small. It should be optimum. An optimum sample is one that fulfils the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability, and flexibility.

3.2.5 Data collection methods

These are the methods of collecting information from the research subjects (informants), which are being studied. Research subjects can be a living or non-living thing. There are many methods utilised to collect data, for instance, documentary study, observations, interviews, questionnaire, focus groups, etc. All these methods have their own strengths and weaknesses.

Therefore, the researcher collected data from the Tshivenda language practitioners working in different sectors. These included the DAC (national and provincial), South African Police Service (SAPS), Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit, the Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, Tshwane Municipality, and Limpopo Legislature. The universities that participated into this study included University of Venda, University of Limpopo and those working as freelancers or on a part-time basis but strictly dealing with Tshivenda language practice. Tshivenda language practitioners are scattered all over different institutions in South Africa (both private and public). Only 25 Tshivenda

language practitioners participated in this study. These research subjects were found in those structures listed above or other institutions in the country. However, the informants were not representing their employers but only Tshivenda language practitioners who work in different corners who use translation tools wherever they are. This research study in fact had nothing to do with the employers of the research subjects. The research subjects provided the researcher with the data about the effectiveness of translation tools they use everywhere in their practice whether from their homes when freelancing or anywhere.

This research study used both questionnaire and interview techniques to collect data. These techniques got discussed below:

- Questionnaires

According to Babbie (2010:256), a questionnaire is a document containing questions and other types of items designed to solicit information appropriate for analysis. Questionnaires are used primarily in survey research but also in experiments, field research, and other modes of observation. Bhattacherjee (2012:74) contends that a questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a set of questions (items) intended to capture responses from respondents in a standardised manner. Questions may be unstructured or structured. Babbie and Mouton (2001:233) cited by De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, and Delport (2005:166) mention the fact that although the term questionnaire suggests a collection of questions, a typical questionnaire will probably contain as many statements as questions, especially if the researcher is interested in determining the extent to which respondents hold a particular attitude or perspective. The basic objective of a questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from people who are informed on the particular issue. Questionnaires are probably the most generally used instruments of all.

- Interviews

Sarantakos (2005:428) shows that an interview is a method of data collection that gathers information through oral questioning. Babbie (2010:G6) contends that

interview is a data-collection encounter in which one person (an interviewer) asks questions of another (a respondent). Interviews may be conducted face-to-face or by telephone. On the contrary, Maree, Creswell, Elof, Frreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pietersen, Clark Plano, and Van der Westhuizen (2007:86) show that an interview is a two-way conversation in which the interviewer asks the participant questions to collect data and to learn about the ideas, beliefs, views, opinions, and behaviours of the participant.

Because the researcher has used both qualitative and quantitative approaches to collect data, the questionnaire used to collect data in this research included both open- and closed- ended questions. This has allowed the respondents to choose the answers and explain their answers in accordance with the instruction. This did enable the respondents to show their thoughts, ideas and beliefs about the concerned translation tools. The administration of the questionnaire has taken different methods such as self-administered, telephone interviews, face-to-face interviews and the researcher has determined this looking at what was more suitable between the researcher and particular respondent. Depending on the situation of both the researcher and the interviewees, the list of questions have been delivered by hand and email and got returned back to the researcher by the same methods of delivery. It is of significance to indicate that the questions were structured, meaning that the researcher did stick on the prepared list of questions to avoid losing the research focus.

3.2.6 Data analysis

Data analysis is the stage that is executed just after the data have been gathered. Mouton (1996: 161) shows that analysing data usually involves two steps: first, reducing to manageable proportions the wealth of data that one has collected or has available; and second, identifying patterns and themes in the data. Mouton (1996:161) asserts that the term ‘analysis’ basically means the resolution of a complex whole into its parts.

In this study, the analytic comparison has been used for analysing data. Neuman (1997: 428) indicates that the British Philosopher and Social Thinker, John Stuart Mill (1806-1873), developed logical methods for making comparisons that are still used today. His method of agreement and method of difference form the basis of analytical comparison in qualitative data analysis.

Neuman (1997:428) shows that the method of agreement focuses a researcher's attention on what is common across cases. The researcher establishes that cases have a common outcome, then tries to locate a common cause, although other features of the case may differ. The method proceeds by a process of elimination. He or she eliminates features as possible causes if they are not shared across cases that have a common outcome.

Neuman (1997:428) asserts that in the method of difference, the researchers can use the method of difference alone or in conjunction with the method of agreement. The method of difference is usually stronger and is a "double application" of the method of agreement. A researcher first locates cases that are similar in many respects but differ in a few crucial ways. He or she pinpoints features whereby a set of cases are similar with regard to an outcome and causal features, and another set whereby they differ on outcomes and causal features.

Because the research study has used both quantitative and qualitative paradigms, the analysed data were presented through visible structures such as tables and bar charts/graphs. The data were organised according to the correspondence of cases either corresponding negatively or positively while employing analytic approach. To get this executed effectively and efficiently, it was necessary to construct themes and sub-themes.

3.3 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

The focus of validity and reliability is on the research instruments utilised to gather the data. Mouton (2005: 100) indicates that in order to collect data, some form of measuring instrument has to be used. In the natural and health sciences, these would probably be sophisticated instruments ranging from high resolution microscopes to gas spectrometers. In the human sciences, “measuring instrument” refers to such instruments as questionnaires, observations schedules, interviewing schedules, and psychological tests.

According to Maree, Creswell, Elof, Frreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pieterse, Clark Plano, and Van der Westhuizen (2007:216), the validity of an instrument refers to the extent to which it measures what is supposed to measure. Babbie and Mouton (2001: 122) maintain that in conventional usage, the term validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration.

Conversely, reliability as explained by Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 29) is the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured has not changed. Babbie and Mouton (2001: 119) maintain that in the abstract, reliability is a matter of whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same result each time.

Validity could not be complete without explaining its forms such as internal and external validity. According to Sekaran (2003:149), internal validity refers to the confidence we place in the cause-and-effect relationship. In other words, it addresses the question, “To what extent does the research design permit us to say that the independent variable A causes a change in the dependent variable B?” on the contrary, Mackey and Gass (2005:109) assert that internal validity refers to the extent to which the results of a study are a function of the factor that the researcher

intends. In other words, to what extent are the differences that have been found for the dependent variable directly related to the independent variable?

External validity is a measure of the extent to which research findings can be generalised to a broader population (Bless, Higson-Smith, and Kagee, 2006:182). Neuman (2006:198) posits that external validity is used primarily in experimental research. It is the ability to generalise findings from a specific settings and people. Neuman (2006:264) further explains that external validity is the ability to generalise findings beyond a specific study.

Reliability is concerned with the consistency of the research results produced by the same research instruments used on the same research subjects without any adaptation of the research instruments and research subjects features. Research results in this context are regarded as reliable if they are consistent. Salkind and Rasmussen (2008:63) contend that reliability refers to the consistency or stability of a test in producing the same or similar scores over repeated administrations of the test. Mackey and Gass (2005:128) also maintain that reliability in its simplest definition refers to consistency, often meaning instrument consistency. For example, one could ask whether an individual who takes a particular test would get a similar score on two administrations of the same test. Sarantakos (2005:432) concurs with the above explanations when saying that reliability is the capacity of an instrument to produce consistent results. It measures objectivity, precision, stability, and consistency.

Validity has to do with the accuracy of the data gathered about particular phenomenon while reliability has to do with repeatability and consistency of the data gathered using the same instruments on the same research subjects. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that the instruments are clear and well constructed for the purpose of achieving valid and reliable research results.

3.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Neuman (1997: 443) says that ethics entails what is or is not legitimate to do, or what “moral” research procedure involves. Maree, Creswell, Elof, Frreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Peterson, Clark Plano, and Van der Westhuizen (2007: 41) show that an essential ethical aspect is the issue of the confidentiality of the results and findings of the study and the protection of the participants’ identities. This could include obtaining letters of consent, obtaining permission to be interviewed, undertaking to destroy audiotapes, and so on. Sullivan (2009:99) describes confidentiality/anonymity as an element of the ethical concept of the right to privacy. Confidentiality refers to the researcher acquiring information from research participants but ensuring that the participants’ identities cannot be known by anyone other than the researcher.

Sullivan (2009: 257) further maintains that informed consent is an overt indication of one’s willingness to participate in research and understanding of such participation. According to Neuman (2006:135), informed consent is a statement, usually written, that explains aspects of a study to participants and asks for their voluntary agreement to participate before the study begins. Bhattacherjee (2012:137) shows that subjects in a research project must be aware that their participation in the study is voluntary, that they have the freedom to withdraw from the study at any time without any unfavourable consequences, and they are not harmed because of their participation or non-participation in the project.

Furthermore, Bhattacherjee (2012:138) maintains that..., all participants must receive and sign an informed consent form that clearly describes their right to not participate and right to withdraw, before their responses in the study can be recorded. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 101) contend that research participants should be told about the nature of the study to be conducted and given the choice of either participating or not participating. Most importantly, they should be told that, if they agree to participate, they have the right to withdraw from the study at any time.

In this study, the researcher has assured that the rights of the participants were fully protected and respected. The participants were told about the impact of participating in the study and they participated voluntarily. Their participation has taken place after signing the informed consent forms of which were not yet destroyed by the time of finalising the research report. Both the informed consent forms and completed questionnaires were confidentially kept waiting to be destroyed on due course (after five years). Most importantly, participants were also told that no part of the research report would mention any names and contact details of any participant. The researcher was 100% certain of this. The respondents were not deceived at all because deceiving the respondents with the intent to have them answer the questionnaire is unethical. The purpose of this study was not to report its data with the identifications of the research subjects. It was also not the intention of the study to gather the information without the research subjects knowing. However, there are research studies that require the researcher to study the research subjects without informing them. In those cases, informed consent is not required and studying the research subjects without their consent is considered ethical in such cases. Sarantakos (2005:20) indicates that there are cases where the researcher does not offer the option of informed consent. This is the case when the respondents are not supposed to know that they are being studied.

To ensure that the respondents are not identifiable in the research results and report, codes such as respondent X1 up to respondent X25 were used when reporting the research results. One respondent was free to have her name written in the research report but based on the researcher's discretion; no respondent's name appeared in the entire research report.

3.5 CONCLUSION

It has been the purpose of this chapter to explain the research design, research site, population, sampling procedure and techniques, size of the data, data collection methods, data analysis, ethical consideration, validity, and reliability. The researcher has selected and explained the methods used in this study. This chapter has indicated that research methodologies used in the research project need to be

compatible to each other, for instance, mixed methods research uses mixed methods to collect, analyse and present the data. Research in most cases is a combination of different methods that are regarded as compatible. *Thodisiso iñwe na iñwe / tevhela ngona dzo teaho.* [Translation: Every research follows suitable methods].

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dwelled much on the research methodologies used in this study. This chapter will then focus on the data analysis and presentation, which will be analysed according to the methodologies elaborated in Chapter 3. It is of significance to explicitly show that the type of research instruments guided data analysis and presentation. The data to be analysed here will be both numerical and textual. However, the methodologies used in data collection determined the methodologies used for data analysis and presentation. The matter of compatibility of methodologies is imperative when it comes to data analysis and presentation. Methodologies that are incompatible are not supposed to be combined together. This chapter has analysed and presented data collected from language practitioners whose work among others was to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. The data in this research were visually presented through bar charts/bar graphs and tables. The data have been categorised in accordance with themes basically summarised from the questionnaire. The codes have been used to refer to the respondents instead of mentioning their actual names. Themes have been developed with the intent to group together related data during analysis and presentation. The method of agreement and method of difference have also played a role in putting together those responses, which supported one another either positively or negatively throughout the chapter. These methods are suitable for analytical comparison in qualitative research.

4.2 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis takes place after the researcher has collected enough data required in the research study. This part of dissertation shows the actual research the researcher has conducted. This part could even be regarded as the climax of

research. The website https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Data_analysis accessed on 19/01/2018 clearly shows that data analysis, also known as analysis of data or data analytics, is a process of inspecting, cleansing, transforming, and modelling data with the goal of discovering useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision-making. Jonker and Pennink (2010: 142) define data analysis as consisting of three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. Cooper and Schindler (2014:655) vividly indicate that data analysis is the process of editing and reducing accumulated data to a manageable size, developing summaries, looking for patterns, and applying statistical techniques. On the contrary, Marshall and Rossman (1995:111) say that data analysis is a process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data.

The preceding assertions clearly reflect that data analysis is a process of refining data and making sure that the data are easy to understand. This is the duty of the researcher to ensure that data are reduced into a simple language that is easy to be understood by the readers. As the data would be analysed numerically and textually, it is important to explain as to what quantitative and qualitative research are. According to Mackey and Gass (2005:363), quantitative research is a research in which variables are manipulated to test hypothesis and in which there is usually quantification of data and numerical analyses. On the contrast, David and Sutton (2011:629) say that quantitative refers to forms of data, data collection and data analysis that give priority to one or more of the following: numerical measurement over meanings, deduction over induction, objectivism or realism (...) over constructivism or phenomenology (...), and generalisability over depth.

According to Mackey and Gass (2005:363), qualitative research is a research in which the focus is on naturally occurring phenomena and data are primarily recorded in non-numerical form. In contrast, MacDonald and Headlam (1986:68) show that qualitative research is concerned with a quality of information, qualitative methods attempt to gain an understanding of the underlying reasons and motivation for actions and establish how people interpret their experiences and the world around

them. With regard to qualitative data analysis, Bhattacherjee (2012:113) vividly shows that qualitative analysis is the analysis of qualitative data such as text data from interview transcripts.

Basically, quantitative research collects, analyses and presents data through numbers (statistics). Conversely, qualitative research collects, analyses and presents data through in-depth explanations (words). It is in this research where the researcher has combined both quantitative and qualitative methods. The purpose of combining two methods was for the methods to complement each other. The logic is that if the researcher has combined quantitative and qualitative methods in the investigation, it means that data gathering, analysis, presentation, and reporting will also combine two methods. This was inevitable owing to the nature of research aims, objectives and research questions.

4.2.1 The respondents' gender

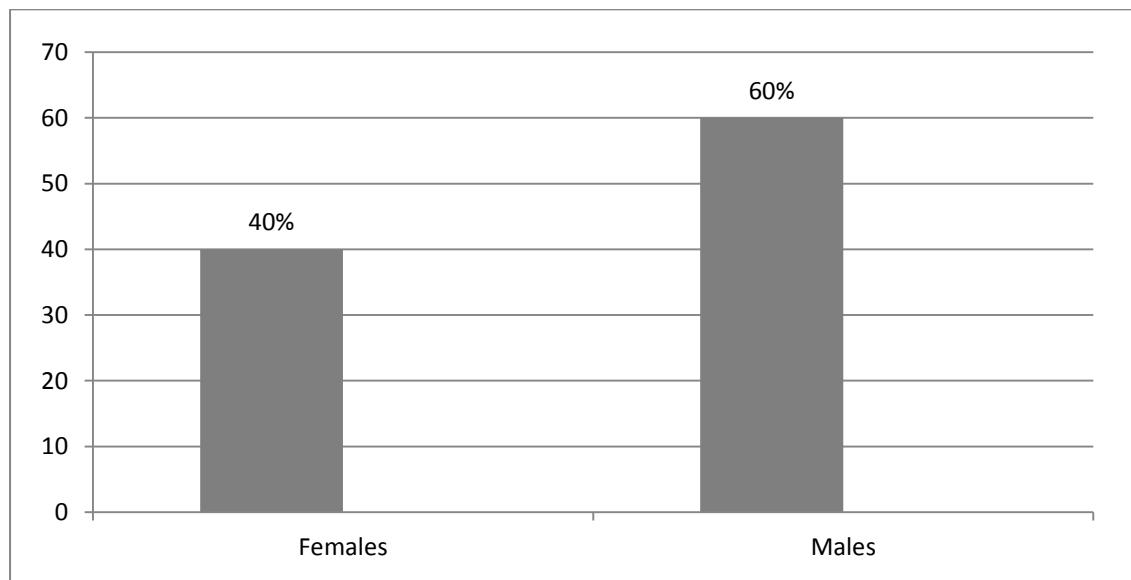


Figure 4.1: Respondents' gender

The chart above shows that the researcher collected data from 40% ($n=10$) of women and 60% ($n=15$) of men. The researcher collected data from both women and men without any intention to analyse gendered opinions. Respondents were

only included in the study by virtue of being language practitioners whose work among other things was to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa.

4.2.2 Respondents' educational levels

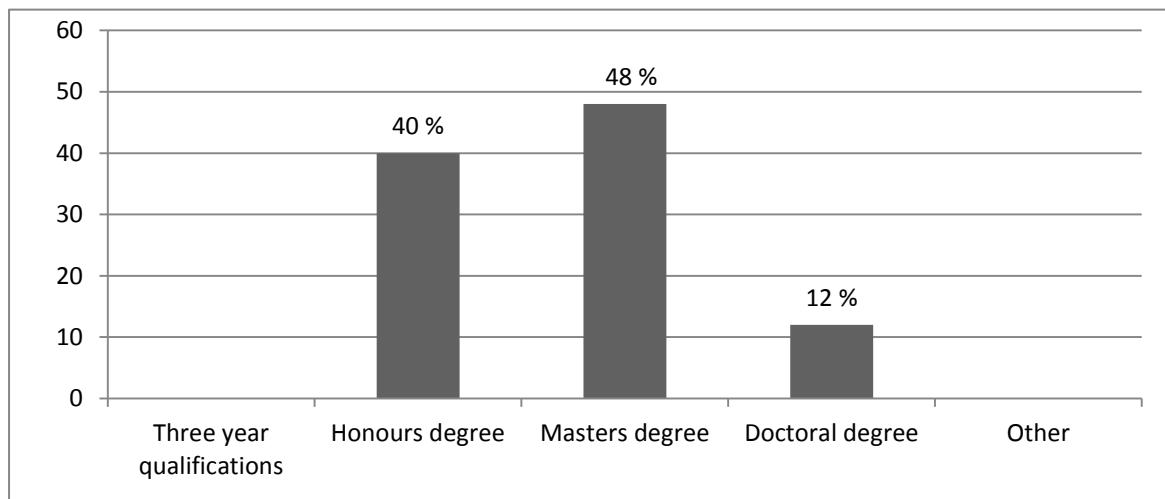


Figure 4.2 Respondents' educational qualifications

The data in this research study were gathered from professionals whose educational levels ranged from honour's degree 40% ($n=10$), master's degree 48% ($n=12$) and doctoral degree 12% ($n=3$) in language-related studies. The purpose of involving professional informants was to get relevant information about the research study. This is a good indication that only highly educated language practitioners were involved in the study. African language practitioners are very much educated and Kelly, DePalma, and Hedge (2012:28) have supported this when reporting that African language translators are a highly educated group. The research respondents were not just language practitioners but translators as shown in figure 4.3 below.

4.2.3 The work of respondents

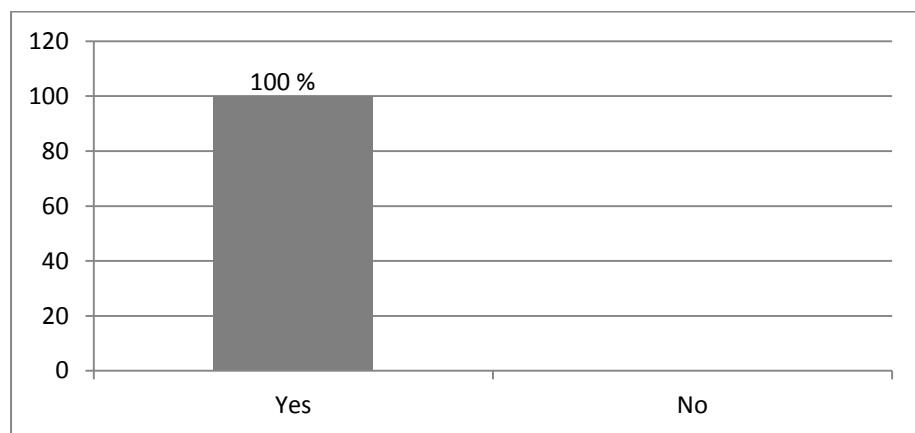


Figure 4.3 Translation work

This research study had targeted only language practitioners whose work involved translation among other things. The purpose for this was to gather the data from the informants who actually do the work of translation. This is why the above chart shows that 100% of the respondents agreed that they do translate. This means that no one indicated that they do not translate as shown by the chart above. It is always the best to get a story from the relevant informants who experience a particular phenomenon.

4.2.4 Definition of the concept translation tools according to the respondents

It is not easy to find the concept translation tools comprehensively defined in most of translation text books, journals, general sources and online sources although it is a very common concept among language practitioners in their communication almost everyday. Where one finds it defined, unfortunately it is very narrow and always limited to computer-related translation tools (CAT tools and MT tools). It is the definition that is seriously under-researched in the field of language studies, including but not limited to translation, terminology development, editing, and proofreading. The researcher has requested the respondents to use their own words

to define the concept translation tools and the respondents have faithfully defined the concept according to their knowledge and understanding. The respondents have defined the concept both in a general way and specific way as outlined below.

4.2.4.1 General definitions without mentioning specific tools

Respondents X3, X8, X9, X15, X18, X16, X17, X27, and X23 have defined the concept translation tools in a general manner without mentioning any software or other translation tools such as dictionaries/ term lists and so forth. The definitions provided by these respondents can be regarded as impartial definitions because they do not mention any specific translation tools. For the researcher, this means that they did not take side. The definitions given in this category show that translation tools are, *zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwine zwa shumiswa musi hu tshi pindulwa manwalwa u bva kha luñwe luambo u ya kha luñwe luambo*. [Translation: Translation tools are tools that are used when translating texts from one language to another]. The respondents went on to define the concept translation tools as resources that one needs when translating in order to transform information from source language to target language. All the respondents in this category vividly defined the concept translation tools as the tools that are used when one is translating from one language to another language and no form or type of translation tools got mentioned in this category.

According to their nature, these definitions do really reflect clearly that they are very general in a way that they actually refer to all types and forms of translation tools that exist. The understanding of language practitioners in this matter is certainly unbiased. These respondents see translation tools as tools that are used for performing translation activity and nothing else. Indeed, translation tools are tools regardless of type and format employed by language user who can be a language practitioner in this regard to translate from a source language or source text into another.

4.2.4.2 Definitions mentioning computer translation tools

In this category, respondents X4, X5, X6, X7, X11, X13, X14, X19, X21, and X22, see translation tools as the concept which is more attached with computer programmes and software packages used to translate from one language into another either with the intervention of human translator or without human translator (automatically). It is in these definitions where respondent X4 clearly indicated that, translation tools, *ndi zwishumiswa zwine zwa shuma nga khomphiyutha u itela u leludza vhupinduleli nga u engedza luvhilo lwa u pindulela zwi tshi itiswa nga maipfi na mafhundo ane ya kona u a vhulunga kha yone iñe. Musi mupinduleli a tshi dzhenisa jiñwalwa jiswa kha khomphiyutha, arali jo no vhuya ja pindulwa I do mbo di pindula nga yothe zwi tshi bva kha phesenthe ya fhungo jenejo.* [Translation: Translation tools are tools that use computer to simplify translation by accelerating the speed during translation depending on the words the computer can be able to store in its TM. When the translator puts in a new text to be translated and if that text has been translated before, the computer will translate that text and this depends on the percentage of the previously translated segments]. While still in this category, respondent X6 indicated that, translation tools, *ndi zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela sa TM software zwine zwa thusa u khethekanya maríwalwa uri a pindulelwe sa zwipiða. Sofutiwee ino I vhulunga maipfi a luambo lusili (English) na ayo a pindulaho ulo luambo lusili (Tshivenda) kha databeisi ya phurogireme sa sedzhimenthe dzo no pindulelwaho.* [Translation: Translation tools are the tools used for translation such as TM software, which helps to divide texts so that they will be translated as segments/parts. This software stores words of foreign language (English) with its equivalents (in Tshivenda) in a database of its programme as segments or parts which have been translated].

The respondents in this category when using their own words have actually indicated that translation tools are computer programmes utilised to translate from one language into another language.

The concept translation tools in its actual sense does not specify the type of translation tools and should not have been defined as tools that use computer-related programme to execute translation activity. The concept itself is general and should have been defined generally like the way it has been defined in the first category (4.2.4.1). According to Yuste (2002:33), translation tools have become the buzzword in translation education and work contexts. Largely, they are usually identified with TM packages, the apparently ideal solution for a cost-effective and consistent translation. In the same vein, Zerfass (2002:49) indicates that since the mid-1980s, translation tools have increasingly taken over the daily lives of translators and translation project managers. When referring to translation tools, Zerfas (2002: 49) further maintains that they range from conversion utilities to terminology management, translation memories, machine translation as well as workflow and project management systems.

The above assertions about translation tools clearly reflect that they have considered only one side of the actual meaning of the concept translation tools, i.e. Computer translation technology side only. The majority of the respondents also viewed translation tools as computer programmes only. Translation tools must be viewed as anything that assists a language user who is a language practitioner in this context to translate from one source language/ source text into another irrespective of type or format. Depending on the context of discussion, distinction can be made between translation technology tools and non-technology translation tools to avoid confusion.

4.2.4.3 Definitions mentioning non-computer translation tools

Only respondents X10 and X25 indicated that while translation tools are tools which assist us when translating, these tools include dictionaries and term lists. Respondent X10 indicated that, translation tools, *ndi zwithu zwine zwa ri thusa musi ri tshi khou ita mushumo wa u pindulela nahone izwi zwithu zwi nga katela thalusamaipfi kana mutevhe wa theminolodzhi*. [Translation: Things that help us when doing translation work and these can include dictionaries and terminology lists]. On the contrary, respondent X25 indicated that, the concept translation tools

means, *maipfi ane a konisa vhupinduleli, a leludza ndila ya u pindulela zwi tshi bva kha luñwe luambo zwa ya kha luñwe*. [Translation: Words that enable translation, simplify manner of translating from one language into another].

The focus of these definitions is on the tools that are used to translate from one language into another and those tools are term lists/ word lists and dictionaries as they (respondents) mentioned above. These definitions in terms of partiality are the same with those in 4.2.4.2 above, which concentrate on computer translation tools. Both of the definitions provided in 4.2.4.2 and 4.2.4.3 are taking one side. Translation tools as a concept refers to anything used as an aid used in performing translation task and that can either be computer tools or non-computer tools.

4.2.4.4 Definitions covering both computer and non-computer translation tools

The definitions of the concept translation tools provided by the respondents X1, X12 X20, and X24 have covered both non-computer translation tools and computer translation tools. Respondent X1 defined that, translation tools, *ndi zwithu zwine zwa shumiswa kha u pindulela zwo sedza kha ‘quality’ ya 99%. Ndi phurogireme dza khomphiyutha, mañwalwa, na mitevhe ya theminołodzhi zwine izwi zwi thusa kha u pindulela. Zwishumiswa izwi zwi nga khwiñiswa nga murahu ha tshifhinga*. [Translation: These are the things used for translation focusing on achieving 99% quality of translation. These are computer programmes, documents and terminology lists, which assist during translation. These tools can be improved over a period of time].

Respondent X12 defined translation tools as the software, dictionary or any text that assist translators in the course of their duties. Respondent X20 defined the concept translation tools as a software that assists language practitioners with translation by building a term list and dictionary that will aid with consistency. Respondent X24 defined translation tools as , *zwi amba ḫthalusamaipfi, sofuthiwee dzine dza*

shumiswa u pindulela na dzinwe dza phurogireme kana mitevhe ya maipfi I re hone kha Tshivenda. [Translation: It refers to dictionaries, software used to do the translation and other programmes or term lists which are available for Tshivenda].

The respondents clearly indicated that they have different views about the concept translation tools. This has been clearly confirmed by the manner they defined the concept concerned. The majority of respondents associated the concept translation tools with computer translation tools (CAT and MT tools). None of the respondents mentioned human translator, experts, laypersons/ordinary persons, spelling, and orthography rules as translation tools. CAT and MT tools have dominated the definitions of the concept translation tools. The researcher had expected the majority of language practitioners to provide comprehensive and impartial definitions of the concept translation tools of which did not happen in that manner. It is very important to take note that the concept translation tools does not mean CAT and MT tools only but anything which can assist during translation process and this can include many items which are not limited to dictionaries, human translator, computer tools (hardware and software), expert, ordinary persons/lay persons, online tools, electronic material, encyclopaedia, and term lists.

4.2.5 List of translation tools according to language practitioners

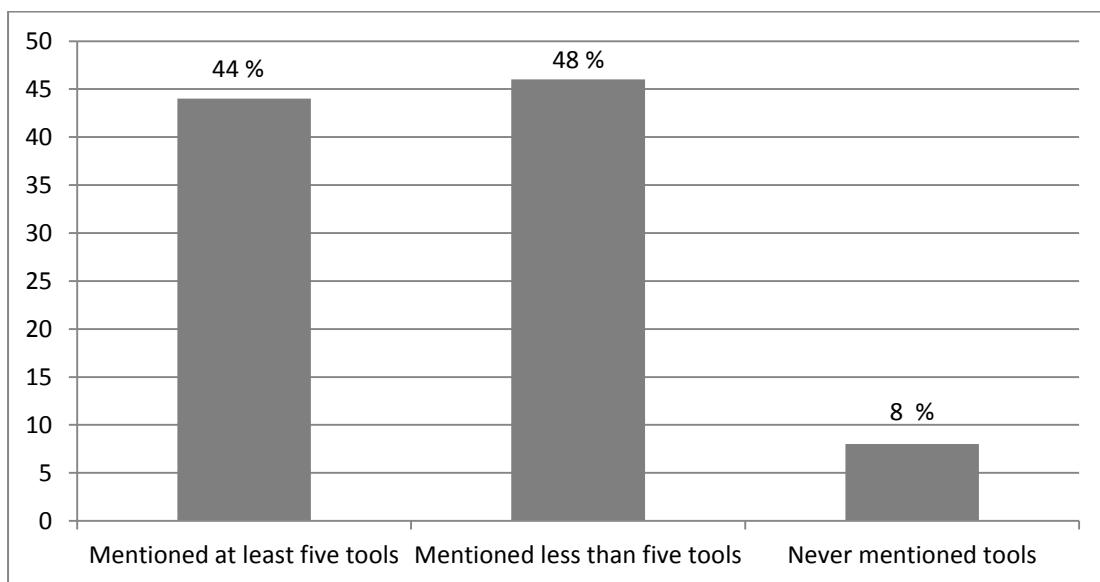


Figure 4.4 Mentioning of translation tools

Respondents were asked to mention at least five translation tools they know that are used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. Then there were respondents who managed to mention at least five translation tools. Others mentioned less than five translation tools while some never mentioned any translation tool. The lists that were provided indicated that the respondents were not so certain about the meaning and types of translation tools. The data have been categorised in the following manner:

4.2.5.1 Respondents who mentioned at least five translation tools

Respondents X2, X5, X6, X7, X8, X10, X16, X17, X19, X24, and X23 have been able to mention at least five translation tools as requested. The chart above shows that 44% ($n=11$) of respondents have managed to make a list of at least five translation tools. The translation tools mentioned included the following:

Trados, Wordfast, Autshumato, Free dictionary online, Terminology lists, Spell checker, CAT tools, Wordbee, Translation workspace, RUBRIC (Weblingo),

TSHWANELEX, Deja vu, Corpora, Proz and Memor, Computer (Hardware and Software), Term bank, Glossaries, Linguee, Transit, Translators Cafe, and Fluency Now, Encyclopaedia, *Vhathu vhane vha kwamiwa nga vhapinduleli*. [Translation: People who are consulted by translators], and Concordance.

It is important to take note that the translation tools provided by the respondents have been a mixture of both computer-related tools and non-computer-related tools. All of these translation tools have been designed to accommodate different languages at different levels. In African languages such as Tshivenda, translation tools, both computer-related and non-computer-related are underdeveloped and in some cases, they do not even exist at all. Taking steps to incorporate these languages into translation technology development can assist. Recent scholars actually do support the idea of incorporating African languages into the world of computer technology/ICT. Osborn (2010:5-6) contends that as the information revolution worldwide becomes multilingual, and as the presence of the new ICTs in Africa extends to larger areas beyond the capital cities, there is a growing need to accommodate the use of diverse African languages and greater to tap the linguistic wealth of the continent for development and education. It is generally agreed that the availability of software and content in the languages most familiar to users is an essential element in the adoption and optimal use of computers and the Internet. Using ICTs in Africa's indigenous languages is a solution that also opens up new possibilities for more effective use of technology by the most highly educated, therefore complementing and expanding upon the potential offered by applications of ELWCs.

4.2.5.2 Respondents who mentioned less than five translation tools

The respondents who mentioned less than five translation tools include respondents X1, X3, X4, X9, X12, X13, X14, X15, X18, X20, X22, and X25. These respondents could not be able to list at least five translation tools as requested by the researcher owing to several reasons. When mentioning the list of translation tools, some of them have repeated the same types of translation tools either by not knowing or for the

sake of having five translation tools in the list. This then clearly indicated that some of the respondents who are language practitioners and whose work among other things is to translate are not clear about the different types of translation tools. The respondents' codes mentioned above show clearly that the majority of the respondents 48% (n=12) as displayed by the charts above could not be able to mention at least any five translation tools. The translation tools mentioned in this category are more or less the same with those mentioned above. The translation tools mentioned include Trados, Babylon NG, Autshumato, Wordfast, Tshwanelex, Bilingo, Glosbe, Thalusamaipfi. [Translation: Dictionary], Bugu dzi ambaho nga ha u pindulela. [Translation: Text books on translation], Vhadivhi vha luambo. [Translation: Language experts], Khomphiyutha. [Translation: Computer], Google translate and Mitevhe ya theminolodzhi. [Translation: Terminology lists].

4.2.5.3 Respondents who never mentioned any translation tool

Respondents X11 and X21 have never mentioned any translation tool. Respondent X11 indicated that there are no translation tools whereas respondents X21 indicated to be unfamiliar with those translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. This means that the minority of respondents 8% (n=2) as shown by the chart above did not mention any translation tool.

The chart above shows that fewer respondents have been able to mention at least five translation tools while the majority of the respondents could not be able to do so. It is of significance to bear in mind that the translation tools mentioned above accommodate different languages at different levels depending on many factors such as the level of development of such language. It is not a secret fact that Tshivenda is an underdeveloped language. Moreover, it is currently not properly accommodated even by the very common software packages such as Autshumato and Trados particularly when it comes to the issues of diacritics where language practitioners are expected to follow a very retarding process to get the diacritics inserted into the text translated into Tshivenda. Spelling checking for the text written in Tshivenda is also a challenge because even Microsoft office (Word) does not

recognise Tshivenda spelling and orthography rules. Therefore, Tshivenda language practitioners have to check the spellings manually without any assistance of MS office packages and other packages. It is appalling that the majority of the respondents could not be able to list at least five translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa.

4.2.6 The effectiveness of tools to translate into Tshivenda

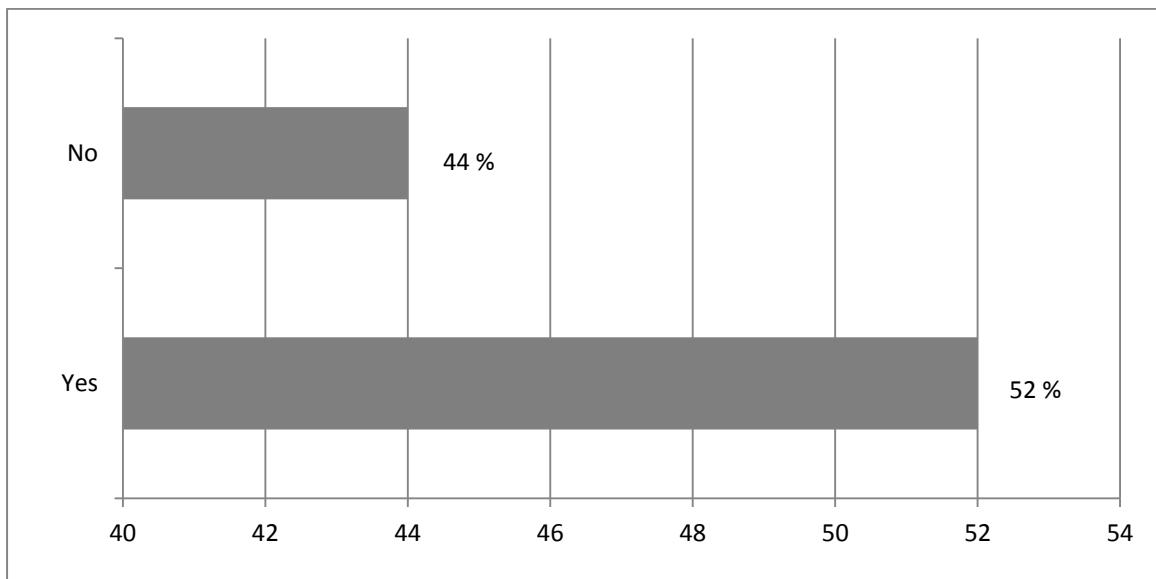


Figure 4.5 Effectiveness of translation tools

The chart above shows that the majority 52% ($n=14$) of respondents agreed that the translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and from Tshivenda into English are effective.

The data have been categorised in the following manner:

4.2.6.1 Respondents motivated accordingly for a yes

Respondents X12, X13, X16, X19, X23, and X25 motivated what corresponded with their yes answer. These respondents agreed that the available translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa, are effective, and they motivated accordingly. Respondent X23 has indicated that the translation tools in question are very effective and consistent. The available translation tools are of paramount importance when it comes to terminology consistency. Translation tools are handy when one is doing translation and in terminology management. Respondent X19 motivated that the creation of translation tools helps to ease the burden of translation and translation tools do improve efficiency, consistency and quality. Respondent X16 motivated that, *zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwi a thusa ngauri muthu u a kona u pindulela nga ndila ya maimo avhuđi nahone zwo pindulelwaho zwa kona u bva nga ndila ine zwa ḥodea ngayo zwi songo xelewwa nga thalutshedzo.* [Translation: Translation tools are effective because one can be able to translate well and the intended results are reached without losing the meaning].

Respondent X12 concentrated on dictionary translation tools when indicating that dictionaries are the most effective translation tools because they provide meanings and spellings of the words. Respondent X25 motivated that, *musi muthu a tshi pindulela u bva kha English u ya kha Tshivenda a tshi khou shumisa thalusamaipfi ya English-Tshivenda zwi a thusa ngauri u wana ḥandavhudzo ya zwine ipfi la ḥoda kana u amba zwone.* [Translation: When one translates using English-Tshivenda dictionary, it helps because one can get the broader explanation about the meaning of the word or term]. Respondent X13 only indicated that Trados and Babylon NG are effective.

4.2.6.2 Respondents opted for yes but motivated accordingly and contrarily

On the contrary, respondents X1, X5, X15, X18, X20, X22, and X24, have agreed that the available translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa are effective but in their motivations, they have also included the facts which show that these translation tools are not effective and they have got challenges. Respondent X18 clearly indicated that these translation tools are effective but not most of the time. Most of them (translation tools) are outdated. New terminology does not appear in most of them. In such instances, a translator ends up creating his/her own terminology or describing in full (paraphrasing) what he or she is translating. In addition, respondent X22 indicated that these translation tools are not sufficient and they are also not accessible as compared to those that are used for translating from English into Afrikaans and vice versa. Respondent X5 shows that these translation tools are available and effective but the challenge is that they consume time when translating into Tshivenda because one has to deal with the challenge of diacritics. One has to insert the diacritics when working on African languages such as Tshivenda. Respondent X1 says that translation tools do help but they are not satisfactory because they are too fixed or closed. Their help is not complete. Their help is too limited. Respondent X15 shows that these translation tools are effective to a certain extent because they make up a translation job easier and a translator can even finish the job faster than when he/she does not have translation tools. Respondent X15 further indicated that the shortcoming of these translation tools is that the document has to be proof read (post editing) accurately since the tools can just change words without taking the context or meaning into account since it is a machine.

Respondent X24 explained that, *zwishumiswa izwi zwa u pindulela zwi a kona u ita uri mushumo wa u pindulela u tshimbile zwavhuđi. Mufhinduli X24 u ya phanda a talutshedza uri a hu na tshishumiswa tsha u pindulela tshine tsha sa vhe na vhūđudzeđudze. Hone nga u tou angaredza naho zwo ralo izwi zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwi a ri thusa.* [Translation: These translation tools are able to do the job of translation well. Respondent X24 went on to explain that there is no translation

tool without its weaknesses. In general, even though the translation tools have weaknesses, they do help us]. Respondent X20 explained that Trados and Autshumato do assist with translations from English into Tshivenda but they must be fed with the terminology database into their translation memories because both of these programmes together with their translation memories normally do not actually translate the source text. Sanja and Damir (2006:329) indicate that TM does not translate anything by itself and differs from MT software. Although TM saves time during translation by using existing translations, it also creates some new tasks (management, revision, preparation, post-editing, etc.). However, TM does not respond to another aspect of the human intelligence: its capacity and pragmatism integrating technology and language for the purpose of automation and computerisation of the translation process, its integration in the translation workstation and organisational workflow with the main aim: tool for realisation positive human needs.

4.2.6.3 Respondents opted for yes but motivated contrarily

Respondents X1, X5, X15, X18, X20, X22, and X24 although they have chosen for a yes to agree that translation tools in question are effective, when one reads their motivations, one can clearly see that they are actually not fully satisfied by the effectiveness of available translation tools they use to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. In their explanations to motivate their answer, they have mentioned the challenges, weaknesses and concerns about the available translation tools. The respondents indicated that the computer is unable to conventionally accommodate Tshivenda diacritics. Translation tools such as old Tshivenda bilingual dictionaries are outdated. The other challenge is the slowness of translation tools when one is dealing with big documents. The existence of some of these challenges is backed up by <http://www.translate.org.za/2005/10/17/venda-gets-its-own-keymap/> accessed on 02/06/2018, which contends that even though Nevhulaudzi is computer literate, word-processing can be a frustrating experience. This is because Tshivenda, her first language, uses diacritic characters that are not easily accessible using standard keyboard mappings and fonts.

The link <http://www.translate.org.za/2005/10/17/venda-gets-its-own-keymap/> accessed on 02/06/2018 goes on to indicate that Nevhulaudzi said: "When the language is not spelt correctly because of insufficient characters, it becomes an insult to the language itself."

4.2.6.4 Respondents motivated accordingly for a no

The chart above shows that minority 44% (n=11) of the respondents indicated that the translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and from Tshivenda into English are not effective. This percentage comprises respondents X2, X3, X4, X6, X7, X8, X10, X14, X17, X21, and X11. It is the experience of these respondents that the translation tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa are not effective.

Respondent X2 clearly indicated that although efforts have been done to create terminologies in Tshivenda, he/she believes that the pace of developing more terminology in various subject fields is too slow and it makes it difficult for the speakers of the language to rely on the information they read in their language. Respondent X10 has explained that, *thalusamaipfi na theminolodzhi a si tshifhinga tshothe tshine dza nea maipfi ane ra a todha. Zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwi fanaho na Trados a ri zwi divhi zwavhu*. [Translation: Dictionaries and terminologies do not always give us the words we need. Translation tools such as Trados are not well familiar to us]. Respondent X8 also came very close to respondent X10 when explained that, translation tools are not effective, *ngauri mañwe maipfi ha wanali kha izwo zwishumiswa u tou fana na maipfi a kale a Tshivenda. Zwenezwo, mupinduli ha koni u a wana kha vhunzhi ha izwo zwishumiswa. Mupinduli u fhedza a tshi tea u tou shumisa maipfi awe musi a tshi khou pindula*. [Translation: Because some words such as archaic words in Tshivenda are not available in those translation tools. Therefore, the translator could not find most of those words in those tools. The translator ends up using his/her own words (equivalents) when translating].

Respondent X17 motivated the answer by indicating that, *zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela a zwi tou thusa tshōthe ngauri hu tshe na vhukondi ha tswayo dzine dza kondi u wanala kha zwishumiswa zwine zwa vha hone zwino. Hu kha di vha na khaedu khulwane ya u bveledza zwishumiswa zwine ra nga kona u zwi shumisa musi ri tshi pindulela kha luambo lwa Tshivenda*. [Translation: Translation tools do not fully help because there is still a challenge regarding the issues of diacritics in the current translation tools. There is still a big challenge of developing translation tools that we use to translate into Tshivenda language]. Respondent X6 also talked about the challenge of diacritics, which one has to insert after doing translation using Trados. This then affects the time of completing the translation. Respondent X6 puts it in this manner, *vhunzhi ha izwi zwishumiswa zwi a lengisa mupinduleli u fana na Trados. Mupinduleli u dzenisa tswayo nga murahu ha u pindulela madzuloni a u dzenisa tswayo khathihi zwenezwi a tshi khou pindula. Mufhinduli u sumbedza Wordfast hu yone ine ya thusa zwa khwiñe. Hezwi zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwi thusa kha nyambo dzo bveledzeswaho sa English*. [Translation: Most of these tools delay the translator, for instance, Trados. The translator inserts the diacritics after finishing the entire translation instead of inserting them while translating. The respondent says that Wordfast is better in this regard. These translation tools are more helpful when one is dealing with more developed languages such as English]. Respondent X4's explanations are very close to what respondents X17 and X16 explained, especially on the point of diacritics where all of them indicated that the current translation tools particularly the electronic ones have got a challenge with Tshivenda diacritics. Respondent X4 has clearly shown that, *hu kha di vha na khaedu khulu kha u shumisa zwishumiswa zwa vhupinduleli ngauri hu na hune zwishumiswa izwi zwa kundelwa u tevhedza milayo ya kuñwalele kwa luambo u fana na tswayo, tshivhumbeo tsha thungo, a zwi koni u divha zwi kwamaho thinwaipfi na zwivhumbeo zwa thungo sa mañaluli, madzina na zwiñwe. Tshiñwe tshifhinga zwi a dzhia tshifhinga u thira musi muthu a tshi khou pindulela hu si na izwo zwishumiswa, zwiñulanesa zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwa kha khomphiyutha*. [Translation: There is still a huge challenge in using translation tools because there are instances where these translation tools are not able to comply with the spelling and orthography rules for Tshivenda language, for instance, diacritics, language structure. Therefore, these translation tools cannot recognise the Tshivenda part of speech like adjectives, nouns and so on. At some other times, it takes more time to

finish translation than when someone is not using these translation tools, electronic translation tools in particular].

Respondent X3 in this point motivated that, *zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela a zwi fushi thodea ngauri kha luambo lwa Tshivenda a hu na ǂhalusamaipfi nnzhi dzo ńwalwaho/kandiswaho, na maipfi manzhi a re kha luambo lwa English ha wanali kha luambo lwa Tshivenda hune zwa vho tou ǂoda uri mupinduleli a tou ǂalutshedza musi a tshi pindulela.* [Translation: Translation tools are not effective or not satisfactory because in the Tshivenda language there are few written or published dictionaries and many words/terms in English as a source language are not available in Tshivenda language and as a result, this requires the translator to paraphrase when translating]. Respondent X7 indicated that these tools cannot be used in Tshivenda language. The Tshivenda vocabulary is not developed and it is not available in the computer. Effective translation then depends on transliteration, borrowing, loaning, and paraphrasing. Respondent X14 maintained that the translation tools he/she knows are not as effective as one would hope. It takes time to translate. Very often, it is hard to find translation equivalents of words one wishes to translate. Translation tools such as dictionaries and very few online tools only have very few simple words in Tshivenda and in fact one cannot even rely on these ones for effective translation. Respondents X11 and X21 although they have selected no answer, they did not have reasons to motivate as to why they think the tools are not effective. These respondents just know that the available translation tools are not effective.

4.2.6.5 Respondents opted for both yes and no

One respondent has chosen both yes and no answers in the questionnaire although the researcher did not provide for such option of choosing both the answers. The researcher then did not discard the questionnaire. This responded coded X9 has motivated that their primary function (translation tools in question) is to enhance speed and efficiency and these tools are more effective in less voluminous documents such as leaflets, brochures, posters, etc. However, for voluminous documents that are not necessarily repetitive, translation tools particularly computer-

related programmes when one is dealing with English and Tshivenda, they actually consume more time than when one is translating normally in an MS word.

Statistically, the respondents have shown that the available translation tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda are effective but qualitatively, the respondents indicated that translation tools are not effective. This is the advantage of using mixed methods when collecting data. David and Sutton (2011:296) contend that data collected using different methods can be used to verify the results, leading to greater accuracy of understanding. Mixed methods are used as a way of complementing each other, where data collected are used to gain in more detail a multi-level understanding of the research subject by exploring the different dimensions of knowing about the social phenomenon. The data can be used to elaborate, enhance and add clarification to findings. The use of mixed methods is seen as building strength into the research and balancing out the weaknesses in individual methods.

Arali mu \ddot{o} disisi kha ino \ddot{t} hodisiso o vha o shumisa ngona nthihi fhedzi ine ya vha ngona ya khwanthithethivi (tshivhalo), mu \ddot{o} disisi o vha a sa \ddot{d} o kona u pfa mihumbulo ya vhafhinduli. [Translation: If the researcher in this research study had employed only quantitative research method, the researcher would not have been able to hear the views of the respondents].

The majority of respondents have motivated their responses by mentioning the challenges they come across when using both computer translation tools and non-computer translation tools. The respondents have indicated that computer translation tools such as Trados and Autshumato are not fully compatible with Tshivenda when coming to the issues of diacritics because one has to translate and insert them after translation and these diacritics are not available on the conventional keyboard. They indicated that one could not type the diacritics the very same time as they translate. They find this to be slowing down the translators. They have also indicated that machine translation cannot execute translation, which is ready for use without post-edited by human translator. These electronic tools also do not help the translator

when coming to the issue of recognising the part of speech and word context. Therefore, the translator has to use his/her own knowledge when it comes to Tshivenda grammar, spelling, word order, language structure (syntax), and so on. Microsoft Word currently always indicates that the whole text written in Tshivenda is misspelled and it keeps on giving a message that the document has got a lot of spelling mistakes. A computer does not recognise Tshivenda language. Kelly, DePalma, and Hedge (2012:31) indicate that basic technology needs must be addressed. The most productive professionals in more developed markets often use computer-assisted translation tools and have access to a TM and terminology databases from their clients or LSPs. The translators we surveyed know about these tools, but many do not have access to them. Furthermore, most CAT tool vendors do not offer user interfaces in African languages, so the beneficiaries of today's CAT tools will be those who can work in English or French.

On the issue of non-computer translation tools such as dictionaries and terminology lists, the respondents have indicated that these tools are not that helpful because in most cases, they do not contain the targeted source text words. In some other instances, the explanation of the source words/terms may not be satisfactory. Those available tools are also not up to date. They are too limited and not accessible. However, these concerns raised by respondents serve as confirmations that the translation tools used by Tshivenda language practitioners are not effective or not helpful. Mafela (2005:276) indicates that dictionary users find it difficult to use bilingual Venda dictionaries because they are confronted with equivalents that they cannot distinguish. Nthambeleni (2016:3) also asserts that a lack of dictionaries with properly translated lexical items in African languages such as Tshivenda is a matter of great concern to the users of the language as communication in the present age of information technology is crucial.

Statistical data indicated that the majority have indicated that translation tools are effective. Conversely, qualitative data indicated that majority motivated that translation tools, both non-computer translation tools and computer translation tools are not effective. Effective dictionaries must be helpful for their users by being easy

to find a word the user is looking for and also by containing such word the user is looking for. Webb and Kembo-Sure (2004:239) assert that in modern lexicography, the emphasis is on the compilation of user-friendly dictionaries. Increasingly, dictionaries are being judged on how easy or hard it is for the user to find the meaning of a word. Therefore, lexicographers increasingly strive to anticipate and supply the information most likely to be looked for by their target users.

4.2.7 Tshivenda language development in terms of dictionaries and software for translation

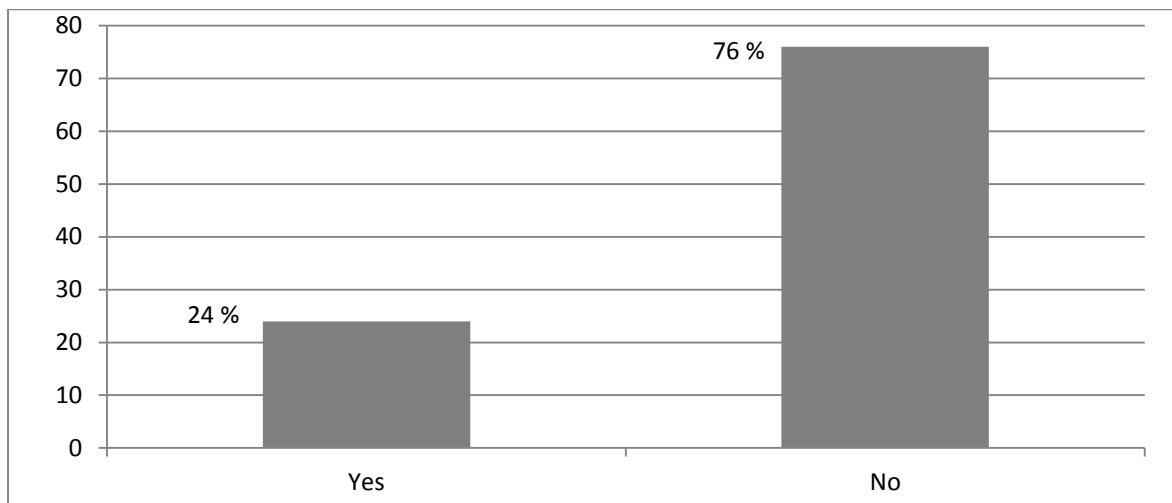


Figure 4.6 The development of Tshivenda translation tools

The chart above shows that the minority 24% (n=6) of respondents agreed that Tshivenda language is a well developed language when it comes to translation tools. The respondents who agreed with this idea include respondents X6, X12, X16, X20, X24, and X25. Only respondents X6, X12 and X16 have motivated their answers without raising any concern about the development of Tshivenda. Respondent X6 has explained that, *luambo lwa Tshivenda lwo bveledzwa zwavhuđi nahone vhashumisi vha luambo vha tea u tevhedza kushumisele kwa luambo na zwishumiswa*. [Translation: Tshivenda language has been developed well and Tshivenda language users should use the language and tools properly]. Respondent X16 has explained that, *luambo lwa Tshivenda lwo bveledzwa zwavhuđi ngauri*

Thalusamaipfi dici re hone dzo kona u bvisela khagala t̄halutshedzo dza maipfi nga ndila dici pfalaho. Phurogireme dzo bveledzwa zwavhūdi sa tsumbo, Autshumato.

[Translation: Tshivenda language has been developed well because the available dictionaries have been able to clearly explain the words in an understandable manner. Translation programmes have been developed well, for example Autshumato]. Respondent X12 has also explained that in terms of dictionaries, Tshivenda is well developed as it has both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. The motivations of respondent X6, X12 and X16 are generally agreeing that Tshivenda is a well developed language looking at the facts that at least nowadays there are Tshivenda dictionaries. This means that today Tshivenda is better as compared to the way it was in the olden days.

On the contrary, respondents X20, X24, and X25 have agreed that Tshivenda is a well developed language but in their motivations, they have raised some concerns that indicate areas where Tshivenda is not well developed. Respondent X24 has explained that, *luambo lwa Tshivenda lwo bveledzwa zwavhūdi ho sedzwa masia manzhi o fhambanaho kha Thalusamaipfi. Phurogireme dza u pindulela dza khomphiyutha dzone dzo bveledzwa hu songo sedzwa zwe zwa ŋwalwa kha Thalusamaipfi.* [Translation: Tshivenda language has been developed well when looking at various areas such as in the dictionaries. Computer-related programmes have been developed without considering what has been written in the Tshivenda dictionaries]. Respondent X25 has shown that, *naho phurogireme dza u pindulela dici songo tou Ɂalesa, luambo lwa Tshivenda lwo no bveledzwa vhukuma u fhira zwila kale. Ho no vha-vho na Ɂhalusamaipfi dici kwamaho masia o fhambanaho. Izwi zwe bveledzwa nga vha muhasho wa Vhutsila na Mvelele vha tshi khou shumisana na vhapinduleli. Hone-ha naho hu na iyo mvelamphanda, zwi na ndeme u dzhiela n̄tha uri a zwe ngo lingana.* [Translation: Even though there are no many translation programmes available, Tshivenda language nowadays is well developed as compared to the previous time. There are dictionaries covering various areas. The DAC in collaboration with translators has developed these dictionaries. But even though there is such development, it is important to note that it is not enough].

On the contrary, the above chart shows that majority 76% (n=19) of respondents disagreed that Tshivenda is a well developed language. The respondents under this category include respondent X1, X2, X3, X4, X5, X7, X8, X9, X10, X11, X13, X14, X15, X17, X18, X19, X21, X23, and X22. Most of these respondents have clearly and potently indicated that Tshivenda is still very behind in the matters concerning dictionaries, terminology of different areas (maths and science, engineering, law, technology, and other special fields), electronic programmes (translation software, terminology management systems, TM, and online translation tools), and databases such as term banks. To support what these respondents exactly explained, it could be of significance to look at what some of these respondents exactly explained. Respondent X2 has indicated that the situation of Tshivenda language is not getting better. There are people in South Africa who still cannot even recognise Tshivenda among other languages. The dictionaries that have been developed so far are nothing but poor glossaries. Moreover, there is nothing helpful in the subjects such as engineering, sciences and technology. Little has been done in the development of Tshivenda. It is still difficult for translators to translate documents in these subjects without having to coin terms on the spot and that cannot help the language to develop. Respondent X14 indicated that Tshivenda lacks both dictionaries and software for translation. The available dictionaries contain words or lemmas that are not normally looked up on the dictionaries. They are more appropriate for being used by primary school teachers or second language speakers for basic language learning purpose. However, these dictionaries are not useful for translators. As compared to other South African indigenous languages, Tshivenda has the smallest number of dictionaries. Respondent X17 also indicates that, *luambo lwa Tshivenda lu tshe murahu vhukuma musi ri tshi ḏa kha u bveledzwa ha ḥthalusamaipfi na phurogireme dza u pindulela dza khomphiyutha. Vhunzhi ha ḥthalusamaipfi a dici kateli masia manzhi a zwa luambo. Tshiñwe hafhu u tshi sedza u wana hu sa tu tou vha na u ḥtandavhudzwa/ḥtalutsedzwa zwavhuđi ha maipfi zwine zwa sia muthu a sa pfesesi nahone izwi zwi tshi livhisa na kha u ngalangala ha maipfi a luambo arali a songo vhulungwa kha ḥthalusamaipfi na khophasi.* [Translation: Tshivenda language is still behind when it comes to the development of dictionaries and computer translation software/programmes. Most of Tshivenda dictionaries do not cover many areas/subjects of language. The other thing is that words or terms in Tshivenda dictionaries are not well explained in the way one could understand them. Not having

dictionaries and corpus could lead to language extinction]. Respondent X9 indicated that Tshivenda language is among the least developed languages. There are few dictionaries and glossary lists and some of them are out of print. The software available is also limited. More still needs to be done in the Tshivenda language. Some tools are not compatible with Tshivenda language.

The majority of respondents in this point have indicated that they do not consider Tshivenda as a well developed language. What these respondents indicated here does affect language practitioners in a very negative way. Translation, both as activity and product, is also negatively affected. In their motivation above, one can see that they have mentioned many areas where Tshivenda as a language is seriously lacking.

Kelly, DePalma, and Hedge (2012:17) have also observed underdevelopments such as these when they indicated that ...large percentage (52.6%) stated that they faced a lack of linguistic equivalence for the terms they needed to translate. Related to this problem, translators cited no access to glossaries (41.7%). Nthambeleni (2016:175) concurs with the research results and the above citation when contending that it was also found that there is a challenge of lack of equivalents in African languages for some English terms.

4.2.8 The availability of enough translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa

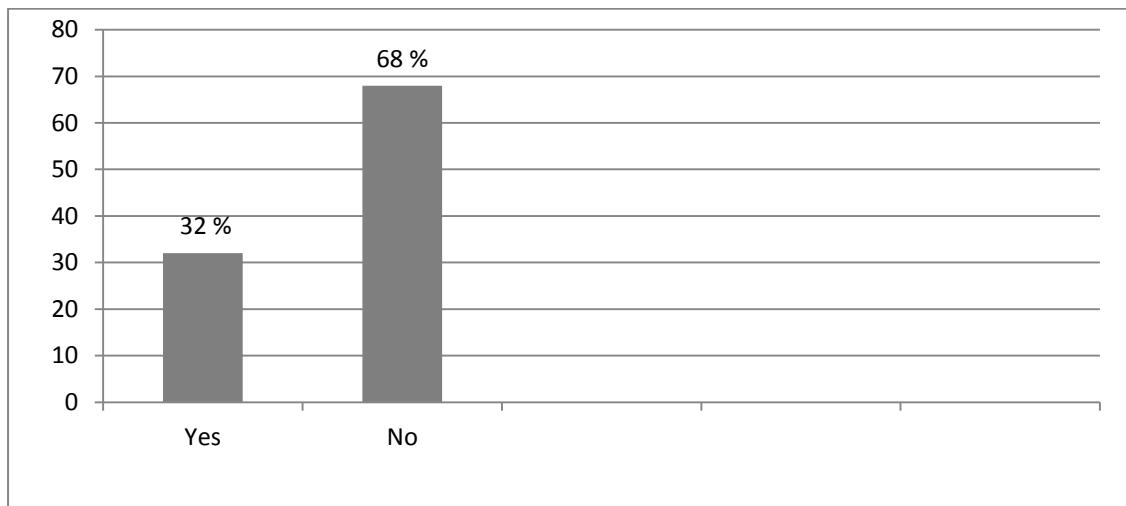


Figure 4.7 The sufficiency of Tshivenda translation tools

The above chart shows that the minority 32% ($n=8$) of respondents did agree that they do have enough translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. These respondents include respondents X15, X16, X17, X19, X18, X20, X24, and X25. Then respondents X16, X19, X20, and X24 have actually struggled to clearly motivate their responses although they agreed that they do have enough translation tools. In their responses, they included little translation tools such as dictionaries and terminology lists. Their responses were less convincing and they struggled to provide clear motivations. Respondent X16 shows that, *Tshivenda tshi na ǂhalusamaipfi nnzhi vhukuma dza nyambo mbili na dza luambo luthihi. Tshivenda tshi dovha hafhu tsha vha na phurogireme dza khomphiyutha dzi thusaho musi muthu a tshi pindulela.* [Translation: Tshivenda has many dictionaries both bilingual and monolingual. Tshivenda also has computer-related programmes, which aid during translation process]. Respondent X24 indicated that, *ndi na ǂhalusamaipfi nnzhi dza Tshivenda na Teo ya maipfi a Tshivenda.* [Translation: I have got many translation tools for Tshivenda and I also have a booklet called *Teo ya maipfi a Tshivenda*]. Respondent X20 has indicated that there are many dictionaries and terminology lists as well as human resources for translation. The Internet is also there for one to utilise online Google translation tool (Google translate). Respondent

X19 indicated that there are enough translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. Those tools provide a range of features to help translators to complete projects more quickly and easily.

On the contrary, respondents X15, X17, X18, and X25 although they have agreed that they do have enough translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa, it has been surprising because what they have explained did not support their yes answer. However, their motivations have been irrelevant to their yes choice, and therefore, this served as a good qualitative confirmation that the respondents actually do not have enough translation tools. In the motivation, respondent X25 explained that, *zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela kha Tshivenda a zwo ngo lingana nahone hu kha di tea u bveledzwa zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela nga vhunzhi*. [Translation: Translation tools used to translate into Tshivenda are not enough and more tools still need to be developed]. Respondent X17 also confirmed this when motivating the answer by saying that, *zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwi a kond'a u wanala na u swikelelea ngauri zwi a dura nahone muvhuso a u koni u nga thusana zwavhud'i na avho vhane vha bveledza mitshini ya u pindulela*. [Translation: Translation tools are scarce, expensive and government does not properly assist those who are developing machine translation tools]. Respondent X18 as well indicated that word lists and dictionaries do help a bit while respondent X15 only knows Wordfast and Trados.

By looking at what these respondents have explained above, one could easily see that really, Tshivenda language translation tools are not enough at all. There is a dire need to look at this challenge to come up with the solutions to ensure that more translation tools are developed. If this could be done, it will develop Tshivenda language and Tshivenda language practitioners' work would be executed easily. This will also improve the quality of translation output.

The above chart statistically shows that the majority 68% (n=17) of respondents indicated that they do not have enough translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. Respondents X1, X2, X3, X4, X5, X6, X7, X8, X9, X10,

X11, X12, X13, X14, X22, X23, and X21 have supported each other on this point. These respondents have clearly indicated that they do not have enough translation tools for Tshivenda language. The following factors were alluded as motivation:

- scarcity of translation tools;
- developers are not interested in accommodating Tshivenda as a language to be developed;
- lack of funding;
- translation tools such as Trados and others are retarding when one is translating;
- loss of interest in using translation tools because they do not accommodate Tshivenda;
- lack of reliable translation tools in general;
- not having enough words; and
- lack of new terms for scientific fields were alluded as motivations.

Respondent X14 is seen here indicating that there is a need for reliable and well designed translation tools for Tshivenda. The respondent thinks that Tshivenda language requires tools that can translate from Tshivenda into English and vice versa. The respondent further indicated that these tools need to be reliable, for example, Google translation tool. This respondent ultimately indicated that the most used and reliable tool for translation is the trained human translator. Respondent X7 expressed a very touching situation when saying that, language practitioners do not depend on translation tools when translating from English into English and vice versa. This respondent touched on the issue of lack of online dictionaries and online databases. This respondent finally indicated that Microsoft office programmes do not even recognise Tshivenda spelling and orthography rules. Respondent X9 said that many translation tools such as CAT tools have originated from Europe and were primarily designed for European languages and not for Bantu languages like Tshivenda. There are very limited CAT tools for translating from English into Tshivenda. Respondent X10 's view shows that, *vhunzhi ha ǂthalusamaipfi dici re hone a dici na maipfi a tshizwino-zwino (maswa) ane a ǂtodea musi muthu a tshi khou pindulela. Zwi dovha hafhu zwa kond'a u tou wana ǂthalusamaipfi dza luambo lwa*

Tshivenda kha inthanete. [Translation: Most of available dictionaries do not have new words or recent terms needed for translation. It is also difficult to find Tshivenda language dictionaries on the internet]. Respondent X3 also indicated that, *hu na thodea ya uri hu nwalwe t̄halusamaipfi dza u pindulela naho zwi songo leluwa*. [Translation: There is a need for compiling dictionaries to be used for translation even though it is not easy]. However, these two respondents (X3 and X10) indicated that it is difficult to find Tshivenda translation tools. One could then see the reasons why Tshivenda language practitioners have indicated that they do not have enough translation tools. Tshivenda language practitioners are found in a situation wherein they have to either coin the equivalence on the spot or to consult another human translator who can help to coin equivalence. Respondents X11 and X21 did not motivate their choice. Respondent (X6) indicated that *zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela u tou fana na Trados zwi a lengisa ngauri muthu u dzenisa tswayo dza Tshivenda nga murahu ha musi o thoma a fhedza u pindulela. Zwino mufhunduli uyu u sumbedza uri u namba a pindulela nga ndila yo tou doweleaho a tshi khou shavha u twa a tshi lengiswa*. [Translation: Translation tools such as Trados are delaying because one should translate and finish translation and has to insert the diacritics thereafter. Then this respondent just translates in a conventional way to avoid getting delayed].

Kelly, DePalma, and Hedge (2012:21) support the data about the lack of enough tools for translating into target text. They conducted research and found that many translators (87.85%) also claimed that their work would be easier if they had access to more sources materials, such as medical journals and scientific papers. Mukundamago (2010:28) also asserts that translators always come across with the problems of not having adequate translation tools and aids as the languages they work with are not well developed. Resources such as dictionaries, machine translation tools and software are often lacking.

4.2.9 Accessibility to online Tshivenda dictionaries

Table 4.1: Access to online Tshivenda dictionaries

Yes	No	Total
28%	72%	100%
N=7	N=18	N=25

The above table shows that the minority 28% (n=7) of respondents have indicated that they do have access to online Tshivenda dictionaries. Although these respondents have indicated that they do have access to online Tshivenda dictionaries, it is very important to mention that many of them could not be able to provide the researcher with the Universal Resource Locator (URL) or websites for those dictionaries. Instead of providing the researcher with the web address for Tshivenda online dictionaries, some of them have mentioned the terminology lists which appear on the National DAC's website. Few of the respondents who indicated that they do have access to online Tshivenda dictionaries have mentioned the following URL/websites of which they are not even helpful because they were not specifically designed for Tshivenda:

- www.web-lingo.co.za
- www.bilingo.co.za
- English to Tshivenda dictionary: <https://glosbe.com/ve/en> or <https://glosbe.com/en/ve>
- www.ijunoon.com

Boy in Venda - English-Venda Dictionary - Glosbe

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(/)

Dictionary (/) / Dictionary English (/en) / English-Venda Dictionary (/en/ve)

English \rightleftharpoons (/ve/en) Venda

English - Venda Dictionary

boy in Venda

translation and definition "boy", English-Venda Dictionary online

boy

IPA: /boɪz, boɪ, /boɪ/; Gender: masculine; Type: verb, noun, interjection;

A young male human.

A man of any age, used as a friendly diminutive, or of a man who is merely younger than the speaker.

more

Less reliable translations ([/reader-faq#second-step](#))

We don't have straight translations, but we *think* one of translations given below may be right. Be careful.

- siva (through 3: fr:serveur (/fr/fr/serveur) pt:servidor (/pt/pt/servidor) ar:پسر (/ar/ar/%D8%AE%D8%A7%D8%AF%D9%85))

Show declension of boy

Boy

Less reliable translations ([/reader-faq#second-step](#))

We don't have straight translations, but we *think* one of translations given below may be right. Be careful.

- siva (through 3: fr:serveur (/fr/fr/serveur) pt:servidor (/pt/pt/servidor) ar:پسر (/ar/ar/%D8%AE%D8%A7%D8%AF%D9%85))

BOY

Less reliable translations ([/reader-faq#second-step](#))

<https://glosbe.com/en/ve/boy> 2018/06/12

Figure 4.8 Screenshot for www.glosbe.com online multilingual dictionary

The above screenshot is just a sample to indicate that online translation tools (dictionaries in this regard) are not accommodating Tshivenda. The online translation tool <https://glosbe.com/en/ve/boy> as shown above has failed to translate a very

simple word “boy” from English into Tshivenda. This is a good example that the online translation tools are not helpful to Tshivenda language practitioners. It did not provide equivalent in Tshivenda for English word. However, this online tool can be used as a monolingual explanatory dictionary because it has explained the word “boy” in English as shown in the screenshot above.

On the contrary, the table above shows that the majority 72% (n=18) of respondents have indicated that they do not have access to online Tshivenda dictionaries. Respondents who indicated that they do not have access to online Tshivenda dictionaries were not expected to say anything further. However, what one could say is that the statistics above is a good testament on its own that there is no access to Tshivenda online dictionaries. This means that language practitioners could not rely on the online Tshivenda related translation tools. What happens is that Tshivenda language practitioners can rely on online English dictionaries just like when they are using printed English dictionaries to work out or to coin Tshivenda equivalents. These findings backed up by the research study conducted by Kelly, DePalma, and Hedge (2012:21) who indicated that for many languages, online dictionaries and glossaries are in bountiful supply. However, this is not the case for African languages - respondents were nearly unanimous (91.74%) in stating that their work would be easier if they had access to such resources.

4.2.10 The most preferred dictionaries between Tshivenda bilingual/multilingual dictionaries and English monolingual dictionaries

Table 4.2: The most preferred dictionaries

(i) Tshivenda bilingual/multilingual dictionaries	(ii) English monolingual dictionaries	(iii) Both of the above (i) and (ii)	(iv) None of the above	Total
20%	8%	72%	0%	100%
N= 5	N= 2	N=18	N= 0	25

The table above shows that the majority 72% (n=18) of respondents prefer to use both Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries and English monolingual dictionaries. Respondents X8, X9, X22, X1, X4, X12, X3, X11, X5, X2, X23, X7, X17, X16, X15, X18, X20, and X24 have supported each other on their preference. They prefer to use both dictionaries because of the following reasons:

- To ascertain the meaning from both of the dictionaries.
- To only get Equivalents in the Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries.
- To get comprehensive meaning of different contexts in the English monolingual dictionaries. English monolingual dictionaries confirm the meanings and contexts of words/terms of which these are not provided for in the Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries.
- English monolingual dictionaries and Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries complement each other. They do support each other in a sense that if one does not have a particular word/term especially Tshivenda-English dictionaries a word/term will be found in the English monolingual dictionaries. This means that English monolingual dictionaries are more reliable than Tshivenda-English bilingual dictionaries/multilingual dictionaries. Respondent explicitly indicated that Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries could not be used in isolation from English monolingual dictionaries.

- For accuracy and consistency purpose.

Respondent X17 indicated that, *musi hu tshi pindulelwa, ndi zwa ndeme u shumisa thalusamaipfi dzo fhambanaho u itela u wana mihumbulu yo fhambanaho ngauri kutalutshedzele kwa tshithu ku a fhambana. Izwi zwi dovha zwa thusa na kha u kwhathisedza musi muthu o tangana na maipfi ane a kondā*. [Translation: When one is translating, it is good to use different dictionaries in order to get different ideas because explanations can vary. This helps for confirming the meaning when coming across with difficult words/terms]. Respondent X9 supported this by saying that using a single dictionary when translating would be too limiting. Using both dictionaries broadens the scope. *Avha vhafhinduli ndi vhańwe vha vhathu vhe vha vhudziswa vha fhindula mbudziso vha tshi tikedza uri ndi zwavhudisa u shumisa thalusamaipfi idzi vhuvhili hadzo madzuloni a u shumisa nthihi fhedzi. Zwe zwa ambiwa-vho ndi zwenezwi zwauri thalusamaipfi iyi ya Nyambombili/nnzhi (ya Tshivenda na luńwe/dzińwe sa English/Afrikaans) muthu a nga si thulufhele yone I yothe ngauri a I na maipfi manzhi ane muthu a a wana musi a tshi pindulela*. [Translation: These are some of the respondents who supported their answers by indicating that it is the best to use both of the dictionaries instead of using only one dictionary. The other thing that was touched was about the issue of Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries that one cannot rely on them only because they do not have many words one would find to perform translation properly]. “With an average of 60 lemmata per page, spread over 89 pages of Tshivenda-English macrostructure, and considering the several less than half printed pages at the end of certain alphabetical stretches, the TETD’s Tshivenda vocabulary coverage is ±5000 items. This may be suitable for additional language learners, Venda students and speakers of other languages learning Venda, provided it satisfies the other questions of balance...” (Madiba and Nkomo, 2010:316). This means that translators cannot rely on these Tshivenda-related dictionaries alone.

The table above further shows that fewer respondents 20% (n=5) prefer Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries alone. These respondents include X6, X10, X14, X19, and X25. These respondents have given the reasons that they use

Tshivenda-English bilingual dictionaries/multilingual dictionaries because these dictionaries do provide equivalents for English source text. For instance, respondent X19 indicated that Tshivenda-English bilingual dictionaries translate words/terms or phrases from English into Tshivenda. This enables translation to take place from English into Tshivenda and vice versa smoothly.

Fewest respondents 8% (n=2) as shown in the table above prefer to use English monolingual dictionaries alone. Respondent X21 with regard to this explained that a full understanding in the source language always equips to coin some Tshivenda equivalents, which are mostly not provided for in the Tshivenda monolingual and Tshivenda-English bilingual dictionaries. Respondent X13 gives a reason of using English monolingual dictionary by explaining that this is because English is the language for internal communication in the organisation of employment and since language is not the first language then it is better to refer to English dictionaries quite often.

These respondents who only use English monolingual dictionaries find English monolingual dictionaries to be more comprehensive than Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries in terms of explanations and the total number of words/terms contained in them (English monolingual dictionaries).

According to what has been displayed in the table above and what the respondents have explained, it is very vivid that Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries cannot stand alone as translation tools for effective translation activity.

The table above finally shows that all respondents make use of at least one dictionary. No respondents indicated that they do not use a dictionary when executing translation activity. This means that 100% (n=25) of the respondents involved in this study do refer to at least one dictionary when translating. This is very clear as shown in the table that the majority of respondents prefer to consult both Tshivenda-English bilingual dictionaries/Multilingual dictionaries and English monolingual dictionaries.

4.2.11 Knowledge about Autshumato and Trados

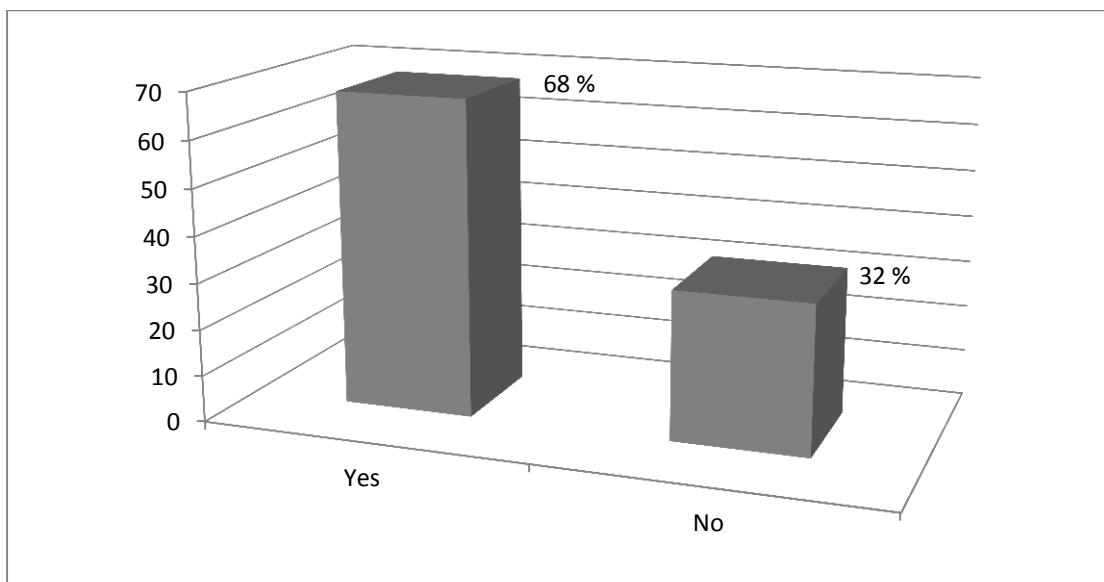


Figure 4.9 Knowledge about Autshumato and Trados

The chart above is vividly showing that the majority 68% ($n=17$) of respondents do know about these translation programmes whereas the minority 32% ($n=8$) of respondents indicated that they do not know about these translation programmes. The researcher requested those who know about these translation tools to explain how these programmes accommodate Tshivenda language. However, those who do not know about these programmes were not expected to say anything. Below are the views of the respondents who knew about these translation programmes:

Autshumato

Respondents X2, X4, X5, X6, X7, X9, X10, X13, X16, X17, X19, X20, X21, X22, X23, and X24 were able to say something about Autshumato whereas respondent X15 could not be able to explain anything about Autshumato. Therefore, what these respondents indicated with regard to Autshumato is that this programme does not automatically translate the source text into the target text. What happens is that a human translator translates the source text into the target text using Autshumato. It was indicated that Autshumato helps in storing the translated texts/segments/units

into its TM so that the translator can use the saved texts in the next translation if there is a match. The role of translating such as identifying and choosing the equivalents is executed by human translator and not by Autshumato. This programme does help in ensuring consistency and saves time depending on the relationship of the previously translated documents and the documents to be translated in future.

Some few respondents who know this translation software have said that they do not use this programme because it slows them down when it comes to the insertion of Tshivenda special letters (diacritics). Therefore, they indicated that they execute translation activity in a normal way (typing it on MS word) and return it back to the client.

Trados

Respondents X2, X5, X6, X7, X9, X13, X15, X16, X19, X20, X22, and X24 have been able to say something about Trados as requested by the researcher. These respondents explicitly indicated that Trados has a close relationship with Autshumato because it also uses TM to store previously translated texts (units/segments) and these texts (units/segments) can also be reused in the next translation depending on the similarities between the previously translated texts and the new texts being translated. Trados also assures consistency but still human translator has to do the actual translation using it (Trados). Human translator identifies the equivalents, selects the proper ones and uses them.

On the contrary, respondents X4, X10, X17, and X23 did not say anything about how Trados accommodates Tshivenda language while respondent X21 indicated to be not well informed about the details of the programme. However, these respondents indicated that they just hear about Trados translation tool but they have never seen it.

There were few respondents who indicated that Trados delays them when it comes to the matter of diacritics because they have to be inserted after translation as they are not readily available on the keyboard. Therefore, some of the respondents have indicated that they do not use this software at all.

4.2.12 Suggestions for the development of Tshivenda translation tools

The researcher in the last question requested the respondents to make suggestions on what should be done to develop translation tools for Tshivenda language practitioners. All respondents except respondents X6 and X7 have been able to provide their suggestions on what should be done to develop Tshivenda translation tools. The suggestions have been categorised into six different categories and some of the respondents' suggestions belonged to more than one category. Therefore, those suggestions were outlined below.

4.2.12.1 Collection of Tshivenda words and terms

Respondents X3, X8, X10, X11, X13, X16, and X23 have suggested that Tshivenda words and terms together with their equivalents should be compiled with the intent to develop translation tools for Tshivenda language practitioners. These respondents have indicated that terminology development, which encompasses all existing subject fields, should be conducted. Moreover, they further indicated that it is important to have terminology banks to be used by Tshivenda language practitioners so that it will be easier for translators to access the equivalents they want. In addition, they further indicate that the pace of terminology development and dictionary compilation should be increased to satisfy the needs of language practitioners. Tshivenda language actually needs a large number of dictionaries because the available ones are limited. It has also been indicated by these respondents that government should play a major role with regard to this matter. Elderly people who know the undiluted Tshivenda should be brought on board when developing terminology and dictionaries with the intention to preserve pure

Tshivenda. It was also indicated that it could be also helpful for language practitioners should language developers perhaps develop dictionaries for both old words (archaic) and new words (contemporary) separately. Language practitioners then will have a wide choice from which to select terminology. Moreover, the respondents have shown that the developed terms and dictionaries should also be accessible on the Internet so that users could access them easily at anytime and wherever they are. The other thing that was suggested in this matter was that the developed terminologies and dictionaries should always be improved to keep up with changes because language is not static. Mawela (1999:254) indicates that research has to be conducted at grassroots level, where researchers go out and actually mix with people from all ranks of life to collect the latest concepts.

4.2.12.2 Funding

The suggestions made by respondents X1, X4, X2, X8, X14, and X17 have dwelled much on the issues of funding, which can go a long way in the development of translation tools that can assist Tshivenda language practitioners. These respondents have indicated that money should be put aside and made available to researchers who would come up with new ideas on how to develop Tshivenda translation tools. It was also clearly shown that more financial resources and human resources are needed for the development of translation tools for Tshivenda. The respondents further indicated that PanSALB so far allocates the financial resources equally across all lexicography units in the country (South Africa) of which is unfair when looking at the fact that the most disadvantaged languages such as Tshivenda, Xitsonga, isiNdebele, and isiSwati were supposed to receive more funding than other languages which are now well off. If this could be done, it could ensure that Tshivenda is well resourced in order to reach greater developments like other languages such as English, Afrikaans, isiZulu and others. Respondents emphasised that funders must also be negotiated with and be encouraged to fund the development of Tshivenda translation tools. African languages, Tshivenda in particular, actually need more resources to be invested in the development of translation tools. Khumalo (1999:211) asserts that from political point of view, there

has been inequality in the funding of the development and promotion of a section of South African languages owing to the laws that prevailed in the past.

In most instances, African languages are always not sufficiently funded because of the notion that these languages do not make any financial revenue. This kind of perceptions should change. All languages are equal and must be treated equally.

4.2.12.3 Technology

The suggestions made by respondents X12, X18, X25, X14, X22, and X20 focused on the issues of human language technology (HLT). These respondents have suggested that there must be integration between human language technology and language studies to make it possible for Vhavenda scholars to also develop human language technology translation tools such as software where possible because they (Vhavenda scholars) exactly understand what their language needs. It was also suggested that both linguists and computer scientists should develop more innovative strategies. The other significant suggestion in this regard indicated that human language technology should be included in the field of computer studies at varsities. Another suggestion reflected that PanSALB and the National DAC should develop special dictionaries and user-friendly computer programmes for all official languages inclusive of Tshivenda. Furthermore, it was vividly shown that, *kha hu bveledzwe phurogireme dza kha khomphiyutha na thekhinolodzhi dzine dza leludzela vhapinduleli kha u pindulela u bva kha English u ya kha Tshivenda na u zwi pindulela u bva kha Tshivenda u ya nga English*. [Translation: Computer and technological programmes should be developed, which will simplify the work of translators in translating from English into Tshivenda and from Tshivenda into English]. The respondents also emphasised the issue of working together with software developers by Tshivenda language practitioners with the intent to design and develop useful software that could fully accommodate Tshivenda language especially when it comes to the Tshivenda special characters to be accommodated on both hardware (keyboard) and software. Moreover, it was suggested that, *hu tea u dzheniswa thalusamaipfi kha inthanete u itela uri dzi swikelelwwe nga vhapinduleli*

nahone vhapinduleleli vha sumbedzwe na mashumisele a phurogireme dzi fanaho na Autshumato na Trados ndivho / ya u khwiñisa vhupinduleli. [Translation: Dictionaries must be available on the Internet (online and electronically) and as applications so that they can be accessible to translators and demonstrations on how to use Autshumato and Trados should be done for translators].

Still on this point, the respondents have ultimately indicated that a panel of experts in the field of information technology and language should be established and should have regular meetings about translation and technology. It was also mentioned that the project that was facilitated by the University of North West produced Autshumato Integrated Translation Environment.

4.2.12.4 Collaboration

In giving suggestions as requested, respondents X4, X14, X17, X21, and X23 have indicated that collaboration between Tshivenda language practitioners and translation tools developers such as CAT tools and others could be so significant for translation purposes. It was articulated that language practitioners should be afforded enough chance to work with translation tools developers to develop the translation tools that are user-friendly and also comprehensive. Language practitioners themselves should organise and come together under one roof where they can share their different views regarding the issues of translation tools. This will be a good contribution. It will make them share their experiences and challenges regarding translation tools and this would help in identifying the best strategies to remedy the situation. It was further said that, *ndi zwa ndeme uri hu vhe na tshumisano vhukati ha muvhuso na zwiimiswa zwine zwa bveledza zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela.* [Translation: It is important that there must be the cooperation between government and the institutions, which develop translation tools]. Ultimately, it was vividly suggested that developers must involve the Tshivenda native speakers as early as possible when developing Tshivenda translation tools instead of involving Tshivenda native speakers at the testing stage and final stage.

Alberts (2011: 50) contends that collaboration with national and international experts regarding the standardisation of principles and procedures of lexicography, terminography and computational linguistics will enhance the work of practitioners working in these fields.

4.2.12.5 Training

The respondents' suggestions touched on the issues of training that should be given to the language practitioners and developers of translation tools. Training through various methods could play a fundamental role in the development of translation tools. Training could positively affect the quality of translation. Respondents X5, X10, and X24 suggested that training does have impact in the development of translation tools for Tshivenda language practitioners. Respondents in this study have indicated that there must be mandatory workshops that cater for freelancers and language practitioners from different institutions where they will share common understanding about languages, challenges and the way forward. They further indicated that workshops should always be conducted for the benefit of language practitioners, which will in turn improve translation output. Moreover, respondents potently said that trainings and workshops should not leave out the application of translation technologies such as CAT tools like Autshumato and Trados. Under this point, it was lastly suggested that, *hu tea u vha na manyuwała wa u pindulela luambo lwa Tshivenda vhunga Tshivenda tshi tshi pindulela nga ndila yo thambanaho musi tshi tshi vhambedzwa na English. [Translation: There should be the manual used for translation in Tshivenda language because Tshivenda translates in a different manner as compared to English]*.

4.2.12.6 General

Final suggestions have fallen under general classification because they do not have vivid specificity. Just like in the previous suggestions, general suggestions are also important because they can also be employed to develop translation tools for

Tshivenda translation. Respondents such as X1, X9, X15, X14, X19, and X22 have generally suggested that people must be encouraged to read widely so that they can acquire more knowledge through which they could be able to develop translation tools, which will satisfy the needs of translators concerned. Vhavenda as language speakers must love their language and develop it because they do not have to wait for someone else to develop Tshivenda tools. People must not kill their own language. The Tshivenda language body should be on the forefront to advocate the development of language working with language speakers, relevant institutions and persons. We need to consider that at the end of the day, tools should be comprehensible and accurate. Translation tools should fully accommodate Tshivenda. Therefore, people and teams that have more knowledge about translation work should develop Tshivenda translation tools. Language practitioners must determine their own needs.

4.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter concentrated on data analysis and presentation. The data were statistically and qualitatively presented through charts and tables as already mentioned. Through analytical approach where the method of agreement and difference got applied, the data were grouped according to their correspondence under particular themes and subthemes. Codes for ethical reasons were employed to refer to the respondents who participated in this study. The data gathered through questionnaires were well analysed and presented with the reason of making them user-friendly for the readers. It was incontestably revealed that the situation of Tshivenda language when it comes to the matters of translation tools really needs attention, which should focus on the development of both computer translation tools and non-computer translation tools. To produce quality translation, Tshivenda is fundamentally dependent on human translator who should work both as a translator and a tool for translation.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dwelled on data analysis and presentation. Data analysis and presentation were done quantitatively and qualitatively as evidenced by the statistical data (tables and bar charts/graphs) and textual data. Therefore, this chapter deals with the discussion of the research findings. Hornby, Wehmeier, McIntosh, Turnbull, and Ashby (2006:552) define the concept finding as information that is discovered as the result of research into something. The focus of this chapter will be on the discussion of what this research study has found about the effectiveness of available tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. To get the discussion organised and easy to understand, themes have been constructed. This research study would be incomplete if this chapter omits how the intended research questions were answered. However, it is at this stage wherein it should be indicated if the intended research questions were answered or not answered. In the research studies where the hypotheses were constructed, it would be apparent at this stage to indicate if those hypotheses were proven right or wrong. This study wanted to answer particular questions instead of testing hypotheses. Overall, one can say that the research findings are the achievements of the research study. This is surely incontestable.

5.2 FINDINGS

5.2.1 Findings on the definition of the concept translation tools

The respondents have interpreted the definition of the concept translation tools differently. The research study has identified four categories of definitions, namely, general definitions without mentioning specific tools, definitions mentioning computer

translation tools, definitions mentioning no-computer translation tools, and definitions covering both computer and non-computer translation tools. The majority of the respondents associated translation tools with computer translation software/programmes and machine translation tools. This means that the concept translation tools is viewed as computer translation software/programmes (CAT tools) and machine translation. This view corresponds with the manner in which the concept translation tools are frequently defined in the few existing literature. According to Alcina (2008:99), translation tools are tools that play a part in the actual translation process, that is, that are specifically designed to work with at least one source text and one target text at the same time and establish relationships between both texts on a segment level or whole text level. Alcina (2008:99) further shows that this category embraces assisted translation programmes (which include TM management software, terminology databases and word processor) and machine translation.

Based on the findings of this study, one could really see that the most preferred definitions of the concept translation tools are the ones, which involve computer related programmes than other definitions. This notion makes people to think that the meaning of the concept translation tools is more of computer translation tools and this is really misleading. The definitions that do not mention any specific translation tools and the definitions that mention both computer translation tools and non-computer translation tools can be considered as impartial. The study revealed that it is difficult to find a comprehensive explanation of the concept translation tools in the literature both on printed material and Internet material (online). Because of this, people define the concept the way they understand it. However, this research study can explicitly articulate based on the gathered data that the majority of Tshivenda language practitioners associated translation tools with computer translation tools than other non-computer translation tools. This is a very good answer for the question that sought to establish as to what do Tshivenda language practitioners consider to be the translation tools. This view is compounded by the way in which the concept translation tools is viewed globally.

5.2.2 Findings on the list of at least five translation tools

The research has identified three categories of responses regarding the list of translation tools. There were respondents who managed to mention at least five translation tools, respondents who mentioned less than five translation tools, and respondents who never mentioned any translation tool. The majority of respondents could not be able to list at least five translation tools and this was actually flabbergasting. However, this does not send a good indication about the image of Tshivenda language practitioners and the image of language developers when it comes to the issues of developing translation tools for Tshivenda language. Few respondents who mentioned at least five translation tools that are known to be used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa have mentioned the following: Trados, Wordfast, Autshumato, online free dictionary, Terminology lists, spellcheckers, CAT tools, Wordbee, Translation workspace, RUBRIC (Weblingo), TSHWANELEX, Deja vu, Corpora, Proz and Memor, computer (Hardware and Software), Term bank, Glossaries, Linguee, Transit, Translators Cafe and Fluency Now. Encyclopaedia, *Vhathu vhane vha kwamiwa nga vhapinduleli*. [Translation: People who are consulted by translators], and concordance. The few respondents who managed to list translation tools have concentrated on listing computer related translation tools than non-computer translation tools. This continues to be a good testament that translation tools are more associated with computer translation technology than non-computer translation tools. According to Daelemans, Du Plessis, Snyman, and Teck (2005: 61), translation tools are used by professional translators to increase both productivity and quality in the process of translation and, to a wider extent, localisation. There are currently various types of programmes, which can assist the process of translation to some degree. They include segmentation, TM (TM), format converters, optical character recognition software, and machine translation (MT).

Most of Tshivenda language practitioners who were interviewed attached translation tools more with computer translation tools as indicated already. Surprisingly, no one has ever mentioned traditional paper-based dictionaries of different types as translation tools.

The above-mentioned translation tools have been designed to help different language users who speak different languages and those users are accommodated at different levels. None of these tools has been specifically designed for only Tshivenda language. In most cases, underdeveloped languages are not fully accommodated in those tools. Developed languages enjoy the pleasure of being accommodated better in those tools, for instance, English language and French in most cases. This then means that how such language is accommodated determines the effectiveness. With Tshivenda, it is obvious that the struggle would be around its special characters such as diacritics and other challenges of course. According to <http://www.translate.org.za/2006/10/11sa-languages-one-keyboard-fits-all/> accessed on 04/06/2018, Venda uses five additional characters, which have diacritic marks and are not used by any other language. Bailey said that most Venda speakers are limited when typing in their language on a conventional keyboard and consequently, the meaning of words is often changed.

The above citation in fact confirms that if Tshivenda is written without diacritic marks, the meaning of Tshivenda gets negatively affected. This means that any translation tool that does not allow Tshivenda translator to type words with their diacritic marks, such tool is not properly accommodating Tshivenda language. Such tool then is not producing the intended results. In this case, one can say that such translation tools need to be localised to accommodate Tshivenda.

5.2.3 Findings on the effectiveness of translation tools

Qualitative data with regard to the effectiveness of translation tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa have indicated that these tools are not effective. The motivations given by respondents have criticised both computer translation tools and non-computer translation tools.

It was clearly indicated that translation tools under investigation are:

- not accommodating Tshivenda language particularly computer translation tools in this regard.
- not up-to-date particularly Tshivenda-English bilingual/ multilingual dictionaries and terminology lists.
- not having enough number/volume of words/terms one may look for, particularly Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries and terminology lists.
- not covering many if not all existing subject fields, particularly Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries and terminology lists.
- not accommodating Tshivenda special characters/letters (diacritic marks), especially computer translation tools.
- not accessible as compared to English translation tools.
- slow because it takes long process to insert such diacritic marks. However, Tshivenda diacritic marks cannot be typed conventionally and in some other cases if the computers of the translation or document recipients do not have the characters encoded in their computers, all the letters with diacritic marks will not show up. The recipients will only see the boxes instead of the letters with diacritic marks. Dwayne (2007:214) says that "...Venda still has the problem of displaying the characters if the computer does not have a Venda-capable font installed."
- not fulfilling the spelling and orthography rules of Tshivenda and therefore, one cannot rely on them.

This research study was conducted to investigate and determine the effectiveness of available translation tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. Qualitative data clearly indicated that the tools under investigation were found to be ineffective. Gauton, Taljard, and De Schryver (2003: 81) assert that the single problem that translators who translate from a language such as English into the African languages have to contend with is the lack of terminology in the African languages in the majority of specialist subject fields.

The screenshot below serves as an example indicating the ineffectiveness of some of available translation tools:

River in Venda - English-Venda Dictionary - Glosbe

Page 1 of 6

(/)

Dictionary (/) / Dictionary English (/en) / English-Venda Dictionary (/en/ve)

≡

English ⇔ (ive/en) Venda

English - Venda Dictionary

Search

river in Venda

translation and definition "river", English-Venda Dictionary online

river ⓘ ⓘ ⓘ ⓘ ⓘ ⓘ

IPA: /'rɪvə/, /'rɪvə/; Type: verb, noun;

A large and often winding stream which drains a land mass, carrying water down from higher areas to a lower point, ending at an ocean or in an inland sea. Occasionally rivers overflow their banks and cause floods.

Any large flow of a liquid in a single body (e.g., 'a river of blood').

▼ more

Less reliable translations ⓘ (/reader-faq#second-step)

We don't have straight translations, but we *think* one of translations given below may be right. Be careful.

- * magi (through 26: fr:еau (/fr/fr/еau) la:aqua (/la/la/aqua) os:дон (/os/os/%D0%Б4%D0%BE%D0%BD))

Show declension of river

River ⓘ

Type: proper;

A male given name.

A female given name.

▼ more

Less reliable translations ⓘ (/reader-faq#second-step)

We don't have straight translations, but we *think* one of translations given below may be right. Be careful.

- * magi (through 26: fr:еau (/fr/fr/еau) la:aqua (/la/la/aqua) os:дон (/os/os/%D0%Б4%D0%BE%D0%BD))

<https://glosbe.com/en/ve/river> 2018/06/12

Figure 5.1 Screenshot for www.glosbe.com online multilingual dictionary

The online multilingual dictionary, <https://glosbe.com/en/ve/river> could not be able to translate a very simple and general word “river” from English into Tshivenda. This does not motivate an online dictionary user who had expected to get a Tshivenda equivalent (translation) to go on using such tool. This is not surprising because Groenewald and Fourie (2009:191) highlight that no online machine translation systems exist for South African languages. Groenewald and Fourie (2009:191) further clarify that in general, insufficient online resources are available for South African languages.

The screenshot that will be displayed in Figure 5.2 serves as an example to show how Tshivenda text looks like when MS office (MS word) could not display letters with diacritics:



1.5 Naa vha^{na} zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwe linganaho^{zwi}ne vha zwi shumisa kha u pindulela u bva kha English u ya kha Tshiven~~xa~~^{na} na u bva kha Tshiven~~xa~~^{na} u ya kha English? Vha humbelwa u tikedza phindulo yavho.

Ee X | Hai

Thikhedzo ya phindulo:

A ZWQ NGO LIMAGNA, HY KHA DRKEA
U BURELEDEA ZAPISHUMISWEI "ZEW
NGA VHIENZHI"

1.6 Vhone vha a swikelela u wana halusamaipfi dza luambo lwa Tshivenza kha inthanete naa? Arali vha tshi khou tenda vha khou humbelwa u bula madzina a dzenedzo halusamaipfi nahone vha bule nairesi dza webusaithi.

Ee | Hai X.

1.7 Musi zwi tshi kwama \rightarrow halusamaipfi dza nyambo mbili (Tshiven \rightarrow - English bilingual dictionaries) kana dza nyambo nnzhi na \rightarrow halusamaipfi dza luambo luthihi lwa English ndi ifhio \rightarrow halusamaipfi **nthihi** ine vhone vha i shumisesa musi vha tshi khou pindulela u ya kha Tshiven \rightarrow a?

(i) halusamaipfi ya nyambo mbili/nyambo
nnzhi (Tshiven a na lu we/Tshiven a, na
dzi we) 13 14 15

(ii) halusamaipfi ya luambo luthihi Iwa
English

(iii) Vhuhvili ha dzo bulwaho afho n ha kha
(i) na (ii)

The main purpose of Figure 5.2 is to actually confirm that Tshivenda diacritics are still a challenge in the world of technology. The extract in Figure 5.2 is part of questionnaire that was sent to one of the respondents. The respondent's computer did not read all the diacritics as shown from the boxes numbered 1 up to 18. This means that the respondent had to confidently guess all the omitted characters when responding to the questionnaire. This is what Tshivenda speakers always do when coming across a situation wherein characters with diacritics are missing. Some Vhavenda speakers do ignore the insertion of diacritics when writing whatever they need to write. The Department of Home Affairs also uses the strategy of ignoring diacritics when writing the names of Vhavenda in their (Vhavenda) documents such as identity books, certificates and so on. In these cases, it becomes a duty for Muvenda to know when reading that here and there, that the diacritics have been missed.

5.2.4 Findings regarding the development of Tshivenda dictionaries and software

The study revealed that when it comes to translation tools such as dictionaries and software, Tshivenda is still underdeveloped and this was supported by the majority (76%) of respondents. It has been found out that Tshivenda as a language is very behind because computer translation tools seem like they were developed without considering Tshivenda language rules. Therefore, what has been done so far is not enough.

Tshivenda is lagging behind when it comes to terminology lists, terminology banks and dictionaries for special purpose language such as maths, sciences, technology, engineering, law and other special fields, the situation is not improving at all. Moreover, the available Tshivenda dictionaries, glossaries and term lists are poor because there are so many terms and words one does not find when looking for them. They contain very simple words and terms suitable for basic second language learning or for pupils, and in most cases, language practitioners have to coin their own equivalents. With regard to this situation, Luvhengo (2012: v) shows that

although Tshivenda is now an official language in post-apartheid South Africa, it still has features of underdevelopment and marginalisation that are typically of unofficial minority languages. Translation, lexicographic and terminological work in this language still lags behind that of other indigenous South African languages and there is still a shortage of schoolbooks and adult literature in this language.

The observation in this point confirms that Tshivenda is really far from being a developed language. So far, there is no software specifically designed for Tshivenda in the world of translation tools. The programmes that are available so far are for handling many languages in general and Tshivenda as an underdeveloped language does suffer. This shows exactly that there is a dire need for taking suitable measures to remedy this situation. Osborn (2010:2) contends that ICT was originally introduced to Africa and Arabic-speaking regions in English and French, as well as in Portuguese and Spanish in certain sub-Saharan countries. Osborn (2010:59) further indicates that it is important to bear in mind, however, that the computers and the Internet, like formal education systems a century earlier, have been introduced and disseminated as more or less monolingual media relying on one or other ELWC. This is a reflection both of the international dominance in software and Internet content of these languages inherited from colonisation, and of the widespread knowledge of these languages by those in Africa (generally elites in urban areas) that are most likely to have access to technology. Kelly, DePalma, and Hedge (2012:31) indicate that basic technology needs must be addressed.

These assertions are showing a reality about the situation African languages (Tshivenda language in this regard) are faced with in the world of computer translation technologies. There is no software specifically designed for Tshivenda language. Therefore, it is a must that all Tshivenda language speakers must at least be bilingual to be fully accommodated in almost all human life activities when it comes to the world of translation technologies. A native English speaker who is monolingual is fully accommodated in all spheres of life including the world of translation technologies. It is incontestable that Tshivenda language is underdeveloped in this regard. This situation does not make any Tshivenda

language practitioner to be satisfied when executing their functions wherever they are. This study was conducted also to see if Tshivenda language practitioners are satisfied with the translation tools they currently have access to.

5.2.5 Findings on the adequacy of translation tools for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa

Both statistical and textual data in this study reflected that the majority (68%) of respondents indicated that there are no enough translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. This study observed that tools to use when translating into Tshivenda are not enough at language practitioners' disposal owing to the following:

- They are scarce to find.
- Developers are not even interested in the Tshivenda language.
- There is no funding.
- They are not reliable.
- They are not accommodative.
- Those few which are available are not helpful hence its small size particularly Tshivenda dictionaries. They are too small/thin and have got very few words/terms (few entries).
- CAT tools were not designed and developed for Bantu languages but for European languages.

The research study further found that Tshivenda language practitioners do not solely depend on the translation tools to get translation properly executed. The translator himself/herself should come up with equivalents on the spot or to consult other human translators who can assist in the identification and formulation of equivalents. This observation serves as good evidence that Tshivenda language practitioners really need enough translation tools that will help them execute their work efficiently and effectively. According to Kelly, DePalma, and Hedge (2012:18), it should be no great surprise that so many translators cited a lack of linguistic equivalence. This is an issue we have seen translators face repeatedly. Many African tongues do not have a term for “clinical depression”. Challenges of linguistic equivalence extend into

many areas-translating high-tech terms like “cloud mapping” and social media” are similarly problematic. Kelly, DePalma, and Hedge (2012:18) further indicate that thus, the African language translators’ job becomes exponentially more difficult. Madiba (2001:53) shows that the use of indigenous South African languages in modern domains such as science, technology and business is hampered by lack of modern terminology in these languages. Mawela (1999:252) thinks that there is too much work to be done in Venda in order to bring the language on par with other languages. Research work done so far has not resulted in different subject dictionaries such as medical, agricultural, economical, accounting, commercial, and legal field.

Lack of equivalents in African languages such as Tshivenda is caused by lack of adequate translation tools such as dictionaries, glossaries, terminology banks, corpus, online tools, etc. The translation tools in Tshivenda language are few. Lack of translation tools in Tshivenda language is the result of human attitude. Less attention is paid to Tshivenda language development and it will therefore not develop until this behaviour is obliterated.

This study was conducted to see if there is a need for translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda. However, the above discussion has put it clearly that there is a dire need to develop translation tools for translating into Tshivenda. There are no enough translation tools in Tshivenda both technological and non-technological. Mafela (2006:30) contends that since spoken Tshivenda was reduced to writing by the Berlin Missionaries in the late 19th century, very little has been done in the field of lexicography. The link <https://www.taus.net/think-tank/articles/translation-in-africa> accessed on 30/05/2018 shows that one of the issues for African translators is that many languages do not have reliable dictionaries or document grammar.

5.2.6 Findings regarding access to online Tshivenda dictionaries

This study has found that the majority (72%) of respondents have shown that they do not have access to online Tshivenda dictionaries. However, very few respondents (28%) have just indicated that they do have access to online Tshivenda dictionaries. Most of those who indicated to be having access to online Tshivenda dictionaries could not be able to provide the websites for those dictionaries while few of them provided the websites such as www.web-lingo.co.za, www.bilingo.co.za, English to Tshivenda dictionary-<https://glosbe.com/ve/en> or <https://glosbe.com/en/ve> and www.ijunoon.com. The screenshot below serves as an example to practically reflect if Tshivenda really has online dictionaries:

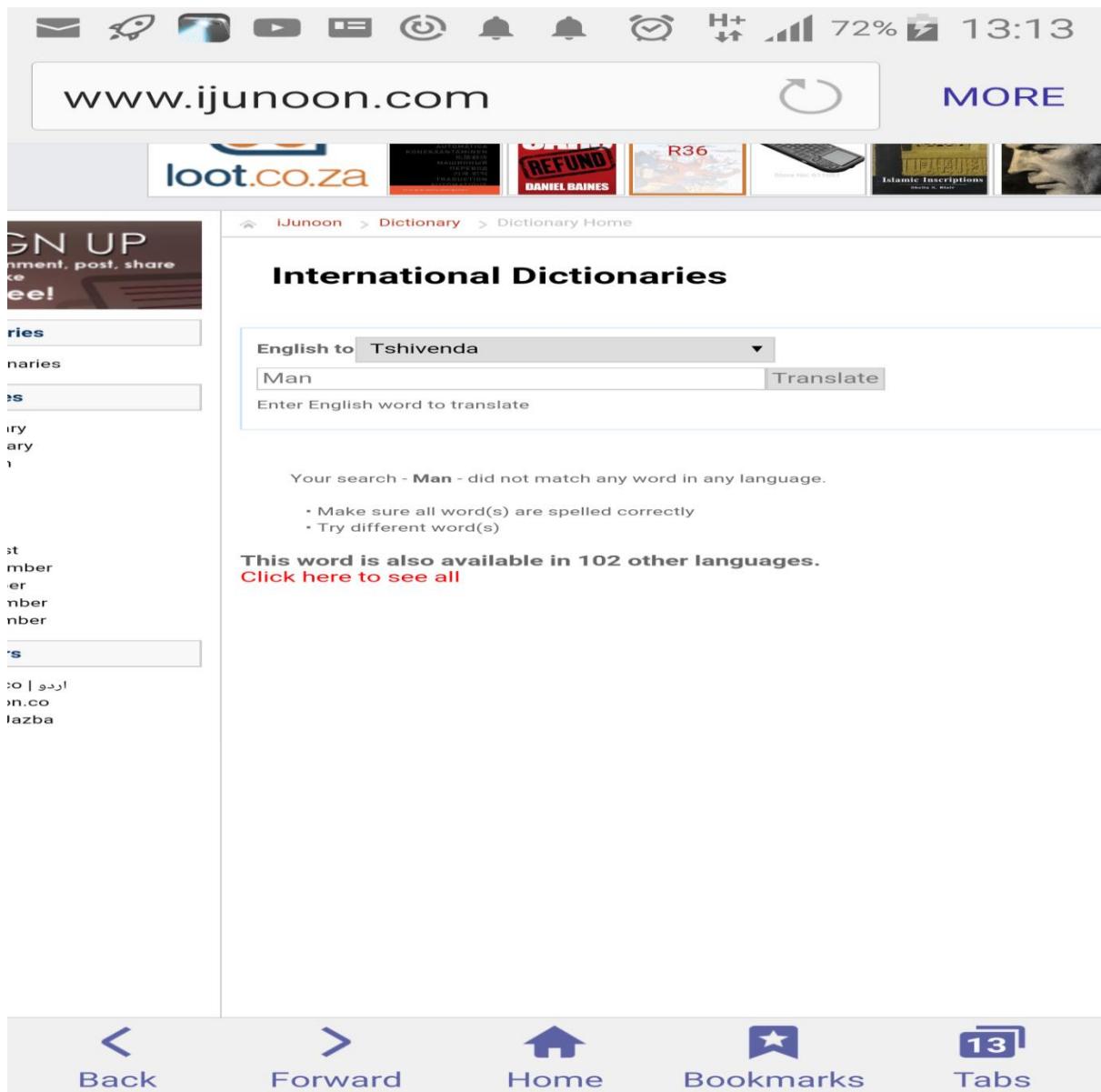


Figure 5.3 Screenshot for www.ijunoon.com online multilingual dictionary

The online tool www.ijunoon.com could not translate a very simple word “man” from English into Tshivenda as shown on the screenshot above. This translation tool was not designed for Tshivenda language although the respondents mentioned it. It is very important to note that online multilingual dictionaries do not effectively cater for Tshivenda language. Both www.glosbe.com and www.ijunoon.com could not be able to translate very simple English words into Tshivenda as shown in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.3. Therefore, translators cannot rely on those tools as evidenced by the screenshots in this study. However, translators can effectively use these tools as English monolingual online translation tools.

5.2.7 Findings regarding the most preferred dictionaries between Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries and English monolingual dictionaries

The majority (76%) of respondents indicated that they prefer to use both Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries and English monolingual dictionaries. This means that Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries were found to be inadequate without English monolingual dictionaries. This is a clear indication that Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries must be developed in a way that language practitioners can do their work fruitfully without referring to English monolingual dictionaries. At the current moment, Tshivenda language practitioners are forced to use English monolingual dictionaries because there is no Tshivenda dictionary that can compete with the English dictionaries. English monolingual dictionaries by far are well advanced as compared to Tshivenda dictionaries. English dictionaries are currently irreplaceable. This study has consistently observed that translation tools inclusive of Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries are not effective and one could not rely on them for the entire translation work. It was observed that it is advantageous to use both Tshivenda-English bilingual/multilingual dictionaries and English monolingual dictionaries. Luvhengo (2012:82) asserts that the TETD does not help in solving most of its target user's problems because of its limited contents. This dictionary contains words that do not meet the target users requirements or needs. It suits primary school learners to the early secondary school learners and, as suggested earlier, additional language learners. Luvhengo (2012:82) further asserts that generally speaking, there is a need for the production of dictionaries for professional use, like translation, language students and other important roles of the language. The lack of comprehensive dictionaries and specialised dictionaries makes translation to be difficult.

This discussion reflects clearly that Tshivenda bilingual/ multilingual dictionaries are not adequate for Tshivenda language practitioners and that is why they cannot be utilised alone without English dictionaries. The scope of Tshivenda bilingual/ multilingual dictionaries is too limited. It is important to compile both LSP and LGP

dictionaries that can satisfy the needs of the users. Gouws (1996:100) argues that the aim of any lexicographic project should be the production of dictionaries to satisfy the needs of the target users of a specific language community.

This study found that at least all respondents do make use of dictionary, either Tshivenda bilingual/ multilingual or English monolingual during translation activity. However, no respondents indicated that they do not use a dictionary when translating.

5.2.8 Findings regarding knowledge about Autshumato and Trados

The findings reflected that majority (68%) of respondents do know about these translation programmes. It was even explained that these programmes are closely related to one another when it comes to translating. Both of them do make use of Translation Memory. Translation Memory saves the ST units/segments and/or texts together with their translations/equivalents, which can be reused in the next document being translated depending on the similarities of terminologies between the saved ones and the text being translated. It was observed that these programmes do not automatically translate the ST into TT. The human translator does the entire translation using these programmes. This means that these are CAT tools. The issue of not being able to type Tshivenda diacritics right away when using these programmes was also mentioned as a concern. The process used to insert diacritics render this programme to be slow when translating into Tshivenda. However, Osborn (2010:68) indicates that the numerous African languages that use extended characters and diacritics pose varying challenges.

Owing to the challenges language practitioners come across when using these programmes, some have even indicated that they are no longer using them because their translated documents are messed up, particularly the documents with pictures, graphs and charts. Tshivenda language practitioners get delayed by these

programmes when doing translation instead of speeding up their translation work. The physical keyboard does not have Tshivenda special characters.

5.2.9 Findings regarding the suggestions for the development of Tshivenda translation tools

Respondents were asked to give any suggestion(s) on what they think should be done to develop Tshivenda translation tools for Tshivenda language practitioners. This study actually observed that Tshivenda is one of underdeveloped languages and available translation tools that are employed for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa are not effective. As requested by the research questionnaire, the respondents have suggested that the following may develop Tshivenda:

- collection of Tshivenda words and terms for terminology development and dictionary compilation;
- funding for language development initiatives;
- collaboration with developers;
- training for language practitioners and developers; and
- Human Language Technology development.

The above suggestions made by respondents do make sense. On the point of words and terms collection, it is very important to collect large number of them for both general and special language so that Tshivenda can have big volume of dictionary with not less than 10 000 words/terms (entries). This study has observed that the available dictionaries for Tshivenda language are too small in terms of totality and size, and they are not suitable for professional usage.

The point of funding is very crucial when it comes to African languages, Tshivenda in particular. Without funding, Tshivenda translation tools cannot be developed. Private and public sectors must join hands when it comes to the issues of funding Tshivenda development projects.

Language development is not the task for one person but for collective majority. It needs different people and different structures to come together and join hands together. Collaboration between language practitioners, academics, government and government structures and private sector in the development of Tshivenda translation tools can improve the status quo. This kind of development needs a combination of ideas from different directions.

Training is the best method to increase the capacity of targeted trainees. There is a need for training different groups of people such as language practitioners and the young students pursuing careers in language studies. This training should cover subject fields such as lexicography, translation, terminology development, ICT, and human language technology. This training will have positive impact in the development of translation tools.

Human language technology in the Tshivenda language is very crucial. Translation nowadays cannot be effective without a computer. There is a need for localising computer translation programmes so that they can fully accommodate Tshivenda language. Osborn (2010:7) says that in practice, localisation is both a technical set of approaches and techniques for adapting software and content to particular languages and cultures and, more broadly, an enterprise activity that incorporates those technical dimensions.

5.2.10 Findings regarding the satisfaction of Tshivenda language practitioners

It has been observed through this study that Tshivenda language practitioners are not satisfied with the available translation tools. The majority of respondents have clearly reflected on the challenges they come across when it comes to the tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. Mabasa (2009) and Rapotu (2011) cited by Nthambeleni (2016: 3) show that it has come to the attention of various scholars that many bilingual dictionaries in South Africa are of poor quality

as far as translation of lexical items is concerned. Nthambeleni (2016:3) says for instance, Tshivenda-English/English-Tshivenda bilingual dictionaries reflect unsatisfactory translation of lexical items.

At present, there is insufficient MT for use between African and non-African languages, apart from Arabic (especially Arabic translated into and from English), for which considerable research has been conducted, and commercial MT software and even online translation are already available. There are apparently some MT specialists in South Africa, but we are not aware of any active MT efforts for African languages that are based in Africa (Osborn, 2010: 95).

The above assertions are vividly reflecting that African languages which of course include Tshivenda, are behind in respect of translation tools, both computer translation tools and non-computer translation tools. This situation obviously cannot satisfy any language practitioner. This also means that working on African language is a struggle. This study has explicitly revealed many challenges being experienced by Tshivenda languages practitioners. This of course negatively affects their motivation towards their translation work among other language-related responsibilities.

5.3 CONCLUSION

The discussion of findings has shown that translation tools used for translating into Tshivenda are still problematic. This situation is a clear indication that strategic steps should be taken to address the challenges. Language practitioners cannot continue to work in such environment. The respondents have reflected on the problems they come across when using translation tools and they were also clear about the fact that they are not satisfied with the translation tools they use. The need to develop effective translation tools for translating into Tshivenda is very serious because currently, Tshivenda language practitioners are not happy. If all South African official languages were treated equally, this context was not supposed to exist at this age of

democracy. Less attention has been paid to Tshivenda language development, particularly concerning translation tools.

CHAPTER 6

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the findings of this study and has also reflected that this study has answered the intended research questions. The application of quantitative and qualitative methods played a sterling role during data collection, analysis, presentation, and in the discussion of findings. Their (quantitative and qualitative) complementation during application was self-explanatory throughout the study. While this chapter is focusing on the recommendations and conclusion, it will also appraise or review the entire research study. The main purpose of the final chapter in the research is to conclude the entire research project. Research study is a project which has the beginning and the ending.

6.2 RESEARCH APPRAISAL OR REVIEW

6.2.1 Background and problem of the research

This research study has investigated the effectiveness of available translation tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda. It is common knowledge that there is no multilingual context that does not require translation service; otherwise, those who do not speak a language being used in a particular context will not have access to the information being conveyed. This means that translation is an unavoidable phenomenon in a multilingual situation. Globalisation does have impact in translation because the world has a large number of languages and no one can be able to speak ±7000 languages, which are spoken globally. The African continent alone has got roughly ±2000 indigenous languages. Historical data indicated that African languages inclusive of Tshivenda language have been disadvantaged and this has relegated Tshivenda language into the bottom of the ladder. Because of historical

circumstances, Tshivenda language today is still disadvantaged in terms of translation tools, usage in the public arena and is also not used for the administration of the country (South Africa). South Africa has 11 official languages. The research problem in this study is the lack of effective translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. This is the main problem that has triggered the study to be conducted. Research studies are conducted or executed to tackle particular problem(s). It is through research that the solutions to particular problems can be identified. The aim of this study was to investigate and determine the effectiveness of available translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda language and vice versa.

6.2.2 Literature review

This study was based on the existing literature and it had been ideal for the researcher to consult relevant literature. Bouma, Ling, and Wilkinson (2012:31) show that reviewing literature can also assist in the selection of theoretical approaches. A good deal of social science literature outlines the major theoretical approaches.

In Chapter 2, this study has reviewed literature about the concept of translation, skopos theory, equivalence in translation, translation and culture, types of translation, levels of translation, translation methods, common translation tools used by Tshivenda language practitioners, international perspective and South African perspective on translation, quality assurance, and policy framework. The concept translation as defined by <https://www.logos.net/translation-glossary/> accessed on 20/03/2018 is the process of rendering written communication from one language into another. Translation is the communication of the meaning of a source language text by means of an equivalent target text. On the other hand, Lustig and Koester (2003:213) assert that translation usually refers to the transfer of written verbal codes between languages. Martin and Nakayama (2010:243) concur with both of the above definitions when contending that translation generally refers to the process of producing a written text that refers to something said or written in another language.

The most common definition of the concept translation focuses on translation as an activity than as a product and than as an academic discipline as indicated in the above assertions by different scholars. However, translation as an activity exists to convey message from one language into another for instance, translating from English into Afrikaans and vice versa. Translation must make sense.

Translation is not an activity that is performed for fun but to fulfil a particular purpose. All translation tasks performed at different institutions both public and private are executed to serve a particular purpose or function. This is more about Skopos Theory. According to Baker and Saldanha (2011:117), the word skopos derived from Greek is used as a technical term for the purpose, aim, goal or objective of a translation. Hatim (2013:294) vividly defines the Skopos as a theory that holds that translation strategy is determined by the function of the translated text, which may not be the same as that of the source text.

It is the role of the translator to make sure that the equivalence for particular source language is properly identified and selected with the intent to convey information from one language to another in a manner, which is very close to the source language or exactly as the source language if possible. Yinhua (2011:169) indicates that equivalence in translation can only be understood as a kind of similarity or approximation. Yinhua (2011:169) further shows that this means that equivalence between the source text and the target text can be established on different levels and in different aspects. On the contrary, <http://www.helsinki.fi/~chesterm/TransTheory.html> accessed on 11/05/2017 clearly shows that equivalence is better understood as similarity, relevant similarity, not sameness or identity. These assertions have been supported by <https://glossary.sil.org/term/translation-equivalence> accessed on 14/05/2018 when indicating that a translation equivalent is a corresponding word or expression in another language.

All of the assertions above indicate that equivalence is the relationship of meaning, which exists between the SL and the TL. The most important fact to note with regard

to the meaning of equivalence is that equivalence in translation does not imply exactness but only approximation between two different languages and this can be achieved at different levels. Effective translation tools do play a fundamental role in the identification and selection of equivalents during the translation process. However, different scholars have defined equivalence so differently. Its purpose is to represent the source text/ source language.

The issue of culture is also considered during translation. Language cannot be separated from culture. That is why it is always emphasised that translators are expected to be familiar with both the culture of the SL and the TL. Samovar and Porter (2001:149) assert that the person who will have to play a major role in regulating the pendulum between global and local communication is the translator. Translators build bridges not only between languages but also between the differences of two cultures.

Translation as an activity has three types as identified by a scholar (Roman Jakobson). Intralingual translation is described as rewording or paraphrasing within one language. Interlingual translation, which takes place between two different languages. Intersemiotics translation, which takes place between sign systems (<http://translationjournal.net/journal/14equiv.htm> accessed on 25/05/2017).

Translation activity can be done at different levels depending on the type of text being dealt with and the choice of equivalents chosen by particular translators. Different translators can choose different levels for a particular source word. It is very common to find different translators translating the same word using different equivalents. The understanding is that several equivalents do have meanings that correspond with the source text word. Translation levels discussed in this study include free translation, literal translation and word-for-word translation.

The literature review in this study has identified some of translation methods used during the activity of translating. Translation methods are the ways used to translate

particular source words into particular target words; for instance, one can use paraphrase, loan word, etc. Translation tools such as dictionaries, human translators, encyclopaedias, and other related ones if effective can be helpful in the identification of suitable equivalents. Translation methods include borrowing (loaning and transliteration), coinage, general word, omission, compounding, cultural substitution (adaptation), and semantic transfer as discussed in this research. Molina and Hurtado Albir (2002:507) allude that translation method refers to the way a particular translation process is carried out in terms of the translator's objective, i.e, a global option that affects the whole text.

It is the responsibility of translators to identify and select suitable methods, strategies, procedures or techniques to translate particular words/terms and expressions from the source text into a target text. In short, translation method means the manner of translating a particular source text/ source language into a particular TT/ TL and the choice of this manner depends on a number of factors. The methods used to translate have their own strengths and weaknesses.

Translation activity is carried out through a number of translation tools of which is not feasible to list their exact totality. Therefore, the researcher in this study focused on the common translation tools used by Tshivenda language practitioners in translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa such as dictionaries, terminology lists, spelling and orthography rules, and translation technology. These translation tools actually assist human translators to have translation output produced for a particular target user (s). The issue of their effectiveness is very crucial because if they are not effective, translation product gets negatively affected.

Translation as a concept has been both locally and internationally scrutinised. This means that there are international perspectives and South African perspectives on translation matters. The relationship between both international and international perspectives does exist owing to globalisation. Globalisation makes the world to be small in a way that most of the things if not all become reachable.

The discussion about translation cannot easily omit the issue of quality assurance particularly when translation is considered as a product. Translation output must be of good quality. Translation initiators and users should be satisfied. This is commonly assured through editing, proofreading and back translation. Employing these methods may seem to be costly but it is important to note that these play a crucial role in the quality of translation. It is more than crucial to note that the quality of translation is also dependent on the competency of human translator, effectiveness of translation tools and quality assurance method(s) employed. This is to say that translation is a systematic process. Each component should work properly. Hornby, Wehmeier, McIntosh, Turnbull, and Ashby (2006:1187) has indicated that quality assurance is the practice of managing the way goods are produced or services are provided to make sure they are kept at a high standard. On the other hand, Turner (2007:320) contends that quality assurance is about taking steps to ensure that product is delivered, and the management process is 'right first time'. Association for Project Management (APM) (2012:188) posits that quality management is a discipline for ensuring that outputs, benefits, and the process by which they are delivered, meet stakeholder requirements and are fit for purpose.

Language practice in South Africa has a very close relationship with the policy framework. The Constitution (the supreme law) and other language related legislations such as Use of Official Languages Act No.12 of 2012 and the South African Council for Language Practitioners Act No.8 of 2014 have been enacted for the purposes of regulating language management matters in the country. Both the principal laws and subordinate laws are of significance in the issues of language practice (translation, editing, lexicography, etc). Also, the NLPF and other language policies in both public and private institutions do have impact in this regard. The concept policy here is defined by <http://www.fao.org/wairdocs/ilri/x5547e/x5547e05.htm> accessed on 16/05/2018 as a definite course or method of action selected by (government, institution, group or individual) from among alternatives and in the light of given conditions to guide and, usually, to determine present and future decisions. On the contrary, Birkland (2011:4) sees policy as a statement by government that intends to do or not to do, such as a law, regulation, ruling, decision, or order, or a combination of these. For

example, a law that says that those caught driving while intoxicated will go to jail for up to one year is a statement of government policy to punish drunk drivers. On the contrary, Law and Martin (2009:322) assert that legislation is the whole or part of a country's written law.

South Africa, as already articulated above has got both language policies and written laws (statutes or legislations) on language issues. Their effectiveness depends on their nature and the implementation methods employed. Effectively and efficiently implemented policies do play a good role in the development of marginalised languages.

6.2.3 Research methodology

The researcher in this study has employed both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Creswell (2012:626) asserts that qualitative research is an enquiry approach useful for exploring and understanding a central phenomenon. To learn about this phenomenon, the inquirer asks participants broad, general questions, collects the detailed views of participants in the form of words or images, and analyses the information for description and themes. On the contrary, Bryman (2012:715) highlights that quantitative research usually emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of data.

Once these two methods are combined, it means that data are gathered and analysed statistically and textually. This is done so to assure compatibility of research methodologies. Interviews and self-administered questionnaires were used to collect data from the sampled informants. Snowball (chain sampling) and purposive sampling/ judgemental sampling were applied in this research study. Only language practitioners whose work among other responsibilities included translation from English into Tshivenda and vice versa were considered as research subjects in this study.

During data presentation, the researcher did not mention any name of the research informants for the purpose of ensuring confidentiality. Codes were used instead of mentioning the real names of research informants during data presentation.

6.2.4 Data analysis

The researcher used both closed and open-ended questions to collect data. Therefore, this obviously shows that data had to be analysed and presented statistically and textually. Visual bar charts/graphs and tables were used to present the data and also to make it easy to understand the entire presentation. During quantitative and qualitative analysis of data, it was of significance for the researcher to also apply analytical approach with the intention of grouping the data according to their similarities and their differences. The research project culminated in a research report.

6.2.5 Findings of the research

All research projects are conducted to produce the findings. Research without findings is not a complete research and in fact, such one would not even fit to be referred to as research. The concept finding is defined here by Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2003:460) as a piece of information that is discovered during an official examination of a problem.

This study found that respondents have shown different understanding of the concept translation tools where the majority associated translation tools with translation technology such as MT and CAT tools.

This study found that the majority (48%) of respondents could not be able to mention at least five translation tools and this was actually so flabbergasting because the researcher has involved only language practitioners whose work among other

responsibilities included translation. Only a few (44%) of respondents have been able to mention at least five translation tools while (8%) did not mention any translation tool.

This research was conducted to determine the effectiveness of available translation tools for translating into Tshivenda particularly from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. Therefore, it was vividly discovered that the translation tools available for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa are actually not effective. Quantitatively, the translation tools under investigation were found to be effective while qualitatively were found not to be effective. This nature of observation confirms the advantages of using mixed methods. From what the respondents motivated, it was apparent that translation tools in question are not helpful and measures to remedy this must be undertaken.

The data gathered and presented clearly indicated that Tshivenda cannot be regarded as a well developed language when it comes to the issues of translation tools such as dictionaries and software. Tshivenda is still lagging behind and something should be done for it to be considered developed. In this matter, the majority (76%) indicated that Tshivenda is not a developed language while minority (24%) indicated that Tshivenda can be considered as a developed language.

Clearly, as revealed, there are insufficient translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa and this was well supported by majority (68%) of respondents during data collection. Conversely, the minority (32%) indicated that there are enough tools for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. More tools that are also accessible are needed for language users inclusive of language practitioners.

As reflected in this study, access to online Tshivenda dictionaries is something the majority of respondents complained about. Tshivenda does not have online tools one can rely on except relying fully on online English dictionaries. The majority (72%) of

respondents indicated that there is no such access while minority (28%) indicated that such access is available.

As this study went on, it revealed that majority (76%) of respondents prefer to use both Tshivenda bilingual or multilingual dictionaries and English monolingual dictionaries when doing translation. No one preferred to translate without using these translation tools (dictionaries). This shows that translation tools particularly the effective ones are invaluable for translation work. The concern is that the research found that Tshivenda bilingual/multilingual dictionaries could not be used independently without English monolingual dictionaries as indicated by the majority of respondents.

The awareness about Trados and Autshumato does exist among the respondents although this awareness did not mean that language practitioners are in favour of these translation programmes so far. However, there were concerns raised by the respondents regarding Trados and Autshumato. Although these tools were meant for improving transition quality and speed, it is not always the case with Tshivenda language as observed in this study. Owing to challenges such as diacritic issues, some of Tshivenda language practitioners indicated that they are no longer using them (Trados and Autshumato).

Respondents did suggest various solutions they thought could help in developing Tshivenda translation tools such as collection of Tshivenda words and terms for terminology development and dictionary compilation, funding, collaboration, training and Human Language Technology (HLT) development. Language practitioners who were interviewed felt that if translation tools developers could consider these suggestions, the situation Tshivenda as a language is faced with could be tackled.

Tshivenda is one of South African-African official languages and also one of the most disadvantaged languages such as Xitsonga, isiNdebele and isiSwati. The findings about the situation of Tshivenda when it comes to translation tools is backed

up by Kelly, DePalma, and Hedge (2012:19), who potently indicated that translators for African languages face some challenges that are highly unique to the societies in which they live. Some relate to societal views of their language, while others relate to lack of literacy, standardisation, and technology. Daelemans, Du Plessis, Snyman, and Teck (2005: 61) have clearly shown that translation tools are, generally speaking, still in their infancy and convergence is still far from being implemented.

The assertions cited above do confirm strongly that African languages are still faced with challenges when it comes to the development of translation tools. This requires language speakers themselves to stand up and develop their own languages instead of blaming this and that factor. It is not the time to wait for someone from another planet to develop Tshivenda while Tshivenda has got people of different socio-economic statuses who can develop it. It only needs passion for Tshivenda language to get it developed.

6.3 CONTRIBUTION

Translation work executed by language practitioners cannot be performed efficiently and effectively without translation tools. The development of translation tools needs many hands to join each other. Moreover, funding is also needed because without funding, no idea can be implemented. *Mali I konisa zwōthe*. [Translation: Money makes everything to be possible].

The South African government has established Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit and housed it in the University of Venda. In fact, there are National Lexicography Units for all South African official languages inclusive of Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit, which have been established in terms of section 21 of Companies Act. The primary role for the National Lexicography Units is the production of monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual dictionaries. According to <http://www.dac.gov.za/content/arts-and-culture-elevates-indigenous-languages-through-national-lexicography-units> accessed on 11/06/2018, the 11 South African

National Lexicography Units (one per official language) are the structures of State constitutionally and legislatively mandated, in the case of our indigenous languages, to produce dictionaries and other material that will elevate their status and advance their use.

The National Department of Arts and Culture through National Language Service is responsible for the coordination of language matters in the entire republic and it has a section or division responsible for the development of terminologies including Tshivenda terminologies for different subject fields. So far, the department has developed some few multilingual terminologies which are accessible on the departmental website (www.dac.gov.za). The Department is also responsible for the development of human language technology and so far in collaboration with North West University they have developed Autshumato Integrated Translation Environment.

Other departments through their language units are also committed in developing departmental terminologies to be used by both the department and the public in general. In this instance, departments develop the terminologies that are specifically within the vocabulary used in that particular department. For instance, the Department of Health is responsible for the development of health-specific terminologies. Although there is no rule or policy for regulating the scope of departmental terminologies, it will not make sense to find the Department of Home Affairs develops the terminology that belongs to the Department of Finance. It is only the National DAC so far through National Language Service as the custodian of language issues in the Republic that can initiate terminology projects belonging to any department if there is a need. Although so far not fully effective, these terminology projects can be considered beneficial. The challenge with the terminology lists is that there is no lemmatisation of words or terms. They do not replace a well-written dictionary.

The development of African languages in the Republic of South Africa is backed up by language policies. The supreme law (the Constitution), Pan South African

Language Board Act 59 of 1995, the Use of Official Languages Act 12 of 2012, the South African Language Practitioners Act No.8 of 2014, the NLPF and other related policies do have impact in the development of languages. The South African institutions both private and public also have their own language policies, which play a positive role in the development of languages. In fact, the Use of Official Languages Act compels government departments and State entities to have language policies and to establish language units. The implementation of these legislations and policies requires the development of effective translation tools, which will play a role in the production of good quality translation outputs.

There are also some few institutions that play a significant role in the production of Tshivenda dictionaries and multilingual dictionaries such as Oxford University in South Africa, Pharos Dictionaries and others. Pharos Dictionaries have published a South African Multilingual Dictionary with word lists and phrases in 11 South African languages just not long ago in 2014. *Naho zwi songo lingana fhedzi nzie a I fani na muroho*. [Translation: Even though this is not enough, it is better than having nothing].

The NGO known as translate.org.za has worked on a keyboard that will accommodate all South African languages. According to <http://www.translate.org.za/2005/10/17/venda-gets-its-own-keymap/> accessed on 02/06/2018 Nevhulaudzi volunteered to work on the “keyboard translation” of Venda, part of an initiative currently run by NGO translate.org.za to produce a multilingual keyboard mapping that supports all South African languages.

Translation tools such as dictionaries, translation technology and others can be developed by any individual, private and public institutions for the benefit of language users. It only needs passion for languages to get this executed.

Although the above contributions exist, one could indicate here based on the findings of this study that more contribution is still needed. This should be treated as the

beginning because so far language practitioners are really struggling with their translation activities on a daily basis. The most important thing is that developing effective technological and non-technological tools for Tshivenda language practitioners is possible. It only needs the seriousness of the community. Therefore, language developers should come forward.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this research study, the researcher has made the following recommendations:

- The production of bigger Tshivenda-English/ English-Tshivenda bilingual dictionaries and Tshivenda monolingual dictionaries, which can contain not less than 10 000 words. The Tshivenda-English/ English-Tshivenda bilingual dictionaries that are currently available are very thin (very small) with very few words. In most cases, there are Tshivenda language practitioners who do their translations using English monolingual dictionaries only without using Tshivenda-English/ English-Tshivenda bilingual and Tshivenda monolingual ones. The main reason is that these dictionaries do not provide for what language practitioners need. The Tshivenda NLU and other interested parties should produce dictionaries that will satisfy the needs of Tshivenda language practitioners and other language users.
- The review of PanSALB mandate should be done with the intent to clarify the responsibilities between the National DAC (National Language Service) and PanSALB. If this is successfully done, it will help in the creation of a conducive environment for language development in the country, particularly when it comes to the underdeveloped languages. Tshivenda can benefit from the effectiveness and efficacy of DAC and PanSALB.
- Funding for Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit should be increased and PanSALB should also set particular high targets to be met by this Unit. Funding should also be extended to other interested parties, which can produce effective translation tools (both computer related and non-computer related tools) for translating from English into Tshivenda. Without funding, nothing could be

successful. Projects that focus on African languages are always under-financed and this is a serious setback. If funds are not being appropriated for these developments, Tshivenda will never go anywhere.

- Vhavenda community should stand up for the development of their language. They are the first people who know what is needed than anyone else. They must love their own language like what is seen in other African languages such as isiZulu, isiXhosa, Afrikaans and others. So far, these languages have some glossaries in Google translate and they also have downloadable applications that one could get from mobile playstore. There is nothing for Tshivenda. Love and passion for language could go a long way. All languages have evolved without their current level of development. There was nothing called Afrikaans on earth before 1652. Afrikaans was born after 1652 in South Africa but today it is far in terms of development as compared to other South African indigenous languages. Vhavenda community with other stakeholders should develop translation tools. About the birth of Afrikaans in South Africa, Parker (2015:19) shows that empirical research and historical commentators now seem in agreement that although Dutch was responsible for the birth of the language in 1652, the eventual version called “Afrikaans”, which is spoken today is the product of many different linguistic influences.
- Enough support is needed for the National Language Forum, which is currently coordinated by the National DAC so that different language services from both public and private sectors could come together and share more about language issues. It is at the National Language Forum where people would look at the challenges languages are coming across and therefore, they can also identify the solutions. This forum has to be very active and should meet not less than twice per annum.
- Modules in translation, terminology development, lexicography, and Human Language Technology must always form part of a Bachelor degree for those students following language studies. This will encourage students to explore more about applied language studies and as a result, the area of translation tools will benefit more. Translation products will also improve. This will also broaden the career development for those who have done Tshivenda as a major subject.

- Further research focusing on the impact of translation tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa should be conducted because there is more to be revealed. The more concerns are revealed, the more likely to come up with the solutions. Problems that are not identified could not be solved. However, no one can solve unknown root causes of problems. Mawela (1999:254) indicates that stakeholders in Venda language, who are probably not only Venda speakers, but hopefully all South Africans, should start researching to enable the growth of the language and close the wide gap, which was created over a long period of slow development.
- The review of NLPF is necessary. The policy was adopted in 2003 and since its adoption it was never reviewed. Some of the implementation strategies mentioned in the policy have been implemented and failed, e.g. Telephone Interpreting Services of South Africa (TISSA). The policy has spoken about the issue of making language code of conduct for public servants, but so far, there is nothing. It is not even known if it will be drafted. Language matters are not static. The review of the policy will help to get it improved.
- Training for lexicographers should be done so that well-trained professionals in the field of lexicography would compile dictionaries. Most of the people who are compiling dictionaries for Tshivenda have studied general language studies and one can confidently assume that there is a lack of lexicographers in Tshivenda. Alberts (2011:50) has indicated that it is of vital importance that attention should be given to the further training of lexicographers, terminologists and students to enhance knowledge and skills in the principles and practice of general and technical dictionary compilation.
- Localisation is direly needed because through it, Tshivenda language will be usable in the computer translation technology. A computer produces what human being desires because it is a device that works according to how it has been programmed.

6.5 LIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

All projects have a starting point and ending point. This research study has been started and culminated in a dissertation. There were challenges the researcher

encountered with during its course. This research study involved time, costs and human beings. The researcher had very limited time and funds to get this project done. The other limitation was that some of the research informants disappointed the researcher by not returning the questionnaires although they had agreed that they would fill in and send back the questionnaires. Some of the respondents who were interviewed through telephone were not easily available and this seriously delayed the researcher to commence with data analysis and reporting. These are common challenges the researcher anticipated and had to bear with them.

6.6 CONCLUSION

The investigation on the effectiveness of available tools for translating into Tshivenda has been conducted and yielded the results as shown from Chapter 4 to 6 under different themes and subthemes. The results of this study reflected vividly that the situation faced by Tshivenda language practitioners does not have to be left unattended. There are very serious steps, which should be taken with the intent to curb the problem. The South African democracy is now over 24 years old and the research studies are still identifying some elements of African language underdevelopments of which is not good at this stage. This was not supposed to be this way bearing in mind that South Africa has a number of language policies, including legislations and the best supreme law in the entire world. This shows that more research on the implementation and the effectiveness of language policies should be conducted to identify the loophole(s) with regard to these matters. Those research projects can assist in the identification of the best methods to follow. Policy review is also needed. Policies that are enacted and remain without being reviewed can never help.

This research study has been able to answer all the questions it intended to answer and all its aims and objectives were also attained. It is assumed that it is going to play a fundamental role in the field of language studies. Research studies are normally not conducted for fun but to establish facts and to make conclusion about particular phenomenon being studied.

It is painful and unacceptable to find out that translation tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice are not effective. The findings of this research study are a confirmation that South Africa should do more with regard to the issues of developing African languages, Tshivenda in this regard. Lack of effective translation tools does negatively affect the quality of translation output. It is an incontestable truth that there is a relationship between the quality of translation and translation output/product.

The Ministerial Committee appointed by the Ministry of Education in September, 2003 on page 10 indicated that though all nine of the indigenous African languages now have visible-though brief-, dictionaries and terminology lists, they lag far behind English and Afrikaans in the areas of modern terminology and registers. Nthambeleni (2016:171) contends that currently, African languages such as Tshivenda lack specialised dictionaries in fields such as technology and science.

This chapter has touched on the background and problem of the research, literature review, research methodology, data analysis, limitation of the research study, findings of the research, contribution, recommendations and conclusion. *Ndima ino yo khunyeledza t̄hodisiso nga u t̄hat̄huvha-vho ngudo yothe*. [Translation: This chapter concluded the research by also appraising the entire study].

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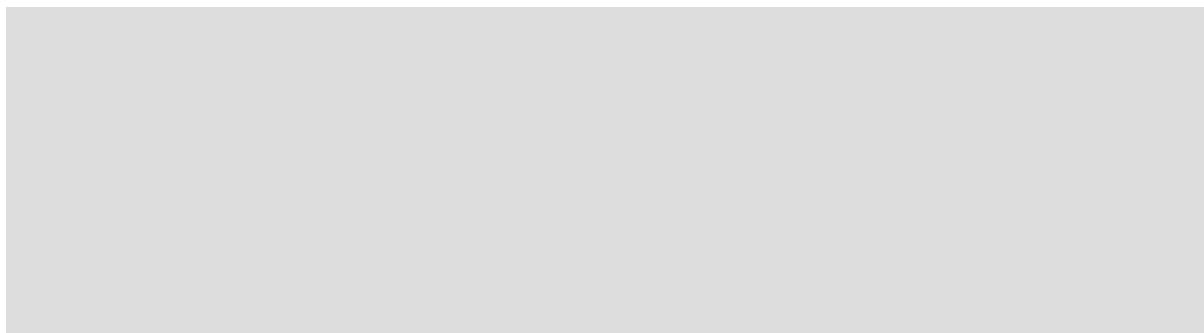
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8. ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



DEPARTMENT OF AFRICAN LANGUAGES RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 25 January 2018

Ref #: [2018_DALRERC_028]

Name of applicant:

Mr Mulalo Edward Nemutamvuni
Student No.: 45987602

Dear Mr Nemutamvuni,

Decision: Ethics Approval

Name: Mr Mulalo Edward Nemutamvuni, 45987602@mylife.unisa.ac.za, 079 371 0720

Proposal: Investigating the effectiveness of available tools for translating into Tshivenda.

Qualification: MA

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the *Department of African Languages Research Ethics Review Committee* for the above mentioned research. Final approval is granted for *the duration of the research period until 30 April 2019*.

For full approval: The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the Department of African Languages on 13 December 2017.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the Department of African Languages Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.
- 3) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.



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Pretoria Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
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Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
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Note:

The reference number [2018_DALRERC_028] should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication [e.g. Webmail, E-mail messages, letters] with the intended research participants, as well as with the Department of African Languages RERC.

Kind regards,



Prof. SE Bosch

Coordinator: Research Ethics Review Committee

Department of African Languages

Tel: 012 429 8253

E-mail: boschse@unisa.ac.za



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ANNEXURE B: REQUEST LETTER FOR INFORMANTS

**FROM: MULALO EDWARD NEMUTAMVUNI
POST GRADUATE STUDENT
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA**

Dear Mr/Ms/Dr/Prof.....

I hereby wish to share with you that I am currently a student who is doing a Master of Arts degree in African language-Tshivenda at the University of South Africa in the Department of African languages. The title of my research is “Investigating the effectiveness of available tools for translating into Tshivenda”.

The aim of this research study is to investigate and determine the effectiveness of available translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa. This research study is intended to solve the problem of lack of effective translation tools used for translating from English into Tshivenda and vice versa.

It is of significance to note that participating in this research study is not compulsory but voluntary. The information you are going to share will only be used for only this study and will be treated confidentially. No one will be able to link you with the information you shared because your name will not appear in the research report.

During the interview process, if you feel that your rights are being violated and you wish to withdraw as an informant, please feel free to inform the researcher that you are no longer interested to continue with the interview. The researcher will then destroy all the information you had provided, and you will not be held liable for anything. Please do not forget to sign the consent form enclosed as an indication that you agree to participate in this research study. You may retain a signed copy for your records.

Enquiries can be directed to me on 079 371 0720 or my research supervisor on 012 429 8227.

Thank you so much for participating in this research study.

Sincerely yours

Mr Mulalo Edward Nemutamvuni

ANNEXURE C: INFORMED CONSENT FORM



COLLEGE OF HUMAN SCIENCES

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

STUDY TITLE: Investigating the effectiveness of available tools for translating into Tshivenda.

NAME OF RESEARCHER: Mr Mulalo Edward Nemutamvuni.

The researcher is a postgraduate student at the University of South Africa (UNISA) investigating the effectiveness of available tools for translating into Tshivenda. The researcher is doing Masters Degree in African Languages -Tshivenda.

The aim of the study is to: investigate and determine the effectiveness of available translation tools used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa.

It is hoped that the study will contribute to : uncover the opinions of Tshivenda language practitioners about the effectiveness of available translation tools. The researcher will be able to make recommendations based on the research results. The results will show if there is the gap that needs to be filled by those who can create more comprehensive and helpful translation tools. This study is a wake-up call to relevant persons and institutions that something significant should be done with the intent to improve Tshivenda translation tools.

I understand that participating in the study might take some of my valuable time. I also realise that my participation in the study will take approximately ±30 minutes.

I know that my participation is strictly voluntary, that I have the right to withdraw at any time and that no penalties will be incurred for the withdrawal. If I have any questions about the study or about being a participant, I know I can contact the following people:

the researcher Mr Mulalo Edward Nemutamvuni on phone number: 079 371 0720
the researcher's Promoter Dr KY Ladzani on phone number: 012 429 8227

I have been assured that my identity will not be revealed either while the study is being conducted or when the study is published.

I agree to participate in this study, and I confirm having received a copy of this consent form.

PARTICIPANT'S SIGNATURE DATE

RESEARCHER'S SIGNATURE.. DATE. 25 JANUARY 2018

ANNEXURE D: LETTER OF GRATITUDE TO THE RESEARCH INFORMANTS

Dear Mr/Ms/Dr/Prof.....

I hereby wish to say thank you for participating in my research study as a research informant. The information you have provided me with has been analysed and reported without your name appearing in the research report. I really appreciate for the information you shared and I believe that it will bring about change in the translation industry, language services and language studies.

Sincerely yours

Mr Mulalo Edward Nemutamvuni

ANNEXURE E: QUESTIONNAIRE: ENGLISH

Participant Name: **Respondent X14**

Section A

Please tick the appropriate block below:

Gender

Male <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Female
--	--------

Age:

18 to 30 years	
30 to 40 years	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
40 to 50 years	
50 to 60 years	
Above 60 years	

Educational level

Three year qualification	
Honours degree	
Masters degree	x
Doctoral degree	
Other	

Do you translate documents?

Yes x	No
-------	----

Section B

1.1 In your own words, please define what the concept translation tools means to you.

The concept represents tools or software that automatically translates or provides direct translation of words. If one writes a word or sentence on that specific tool, it provides the translation instantly.

1.2 Can you please give a list of at least five translation tools you know that are used to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa?

- **Bilingo**
- **Glosbe**

1.3 Are the available translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa effective? Please motivate your answer.

Yes	No
	x

Motivation: **The ones I know are not as effective as one would hope. It takes time to translate. Very often, it is hard to find the translation of words one wishes to translate. They only recognise the simple words and they do not provide the translations of a sentence or paragraphs. It is easy to use them. It is useful for second language speaker.**

- 1.4 Do you consider Tshivenda as a well-developed language in terms of dictionaries and software available for translations? Please motivate your answer.

Yes	No x
-----	------

Motivation: **Tshivenda lacks both dictionaries and software for translation. The available dictionaries contain mostly words or lemmas that one would not normally look up on the dictionaries. They are more appropriate for use in primary schools or by second language speakers, they are not useful as they should be to translators. Tshivenda also has the smallest dictionary as compared to other SA indigenous languages. I would say that Tshivenda is not well-developed in this case.**

- 1.5 Do you have enough translation tools to translate from English into Tshivenda and vice versa? Motivate your answer.

Yes	No x
-----	------

Motivation: **There is a need for reliable and well designed translation tools for Tshivenda. Currently, I think that the language requires the tools for translation between the 2 languages or more, that would be as reliable such as**

Google Translate. The most used tool for translation is the trained human translator.

- 1.6 Do you have access to online Tshivenda dictionaries? If yes, please mention those online dictionaries and provide the URL/web address.

Yes	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
-----	--

- 1.7 With regard to Tshivenda bilingual or multilingual dictionaries and English monolingual dictionaries which **one** do you use most when translating into Tshivenda?

(i) Tshivenda bilingual/multilingual dictionaries	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
(ii) English monolingual dictionaries	
(iii) Both of the above (i) and (ii)	
(iv) None of the above	

Explain the reason why.

I usually use option (i) mostly because I look up the equivalence of English to Tshivenda and vice versa but not the explanation on Tshivenda words.

- 1.8 Do you know about the translation software Autshumato and Trados?

Yes	No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
-----	--

If yes, how do they accommodate Tshivenda?

Autshumato:_____

Trados:_____

- 1.9 Please give any suggestion(s) as to what should be done to develop Tshivenda translation tools for Tshivenda language practitioners.

Tshivenda language practitioners should collaborate with software developers to design and develop tools that would be used for translation purposes. Tshivenda language board should be on the forefront in championing the development of the language, working with language speakers and organisations. Money should be put aside and made available to researchers who would come up with new ideas on how to develop Tshivenda translation tools.

Thank you for answering this questionnaire

ANNEXURE F: MUTEVHE WA MBUDZISO: TSHIVENDA

MUTEVHE WA MBUDZISO: TSHIVENDA

Dzina ja muthu ane a khou fhindula mbudziso: **Mufhinduli ndi X8**

Khethekanyo ya A

Vha khou humbelwa uri vha nange nga u swaya tshibogisi tsho teaho afho fhasi

Mbeu

Munna	Mufumakadzi <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
-------	---

Miñwaha ya vhukale havho

Miñwaha ya 18 - 30	
Miñwaha ya 30 - 40	
Miñwaha ya 40- 50	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Miñwaha ya 50 - 60	
Miñwaha ya nt̄ha ha 60	

Pfunzo

<i>Three year qualification</i>	
<i>Honours degree</i>	
<i>Masters degree</i>	x
<i>Doctoral degree</i>	
Zwiñwe	

Vha a pindulela mañwalwa naa?

Ee x	Hai
------	-----

Khethekanyo ya B

1.1 Nga maipfi avho, vha khou humbelwa uri vha ḥalutshedze uri maipfi ‘zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela’ zwi amba mini u ya nga vhone vhaṇe.

Zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela ndi zwithu zwine zwa thusa kha u wana ḥalutshedzo dza maipfi musi hu tshi pindulelwa mañwalwa o fhambanaho.

1.2 Vha khou humbelwa uri vha ite mutevhe wa zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwi siho fhasi ha zwiñanu zwine vha zwi shumisa musi vha tshi pindulela u bva kha English u ya kha Tshivenda kana u bva kha Tshivenda u ya kha English.

- **English dictionaries**
- **Terminology lists**
- **Corpus**
- **Encyclopaedia**
- **Tshivenda dictionaries.**

- 1.3 Naa zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwine zwa vha hone nahone zwine vha zwi shumisa musi vha tshi pindulela u bva kha English u ya kha Tshivenda na u bva kha Tshivenda u ya kha English zwi a vha thusa vha pfa vho fushea? Vha khou humbelwa u tikedza phindulo yavho.

Ee	Hai x
----	-------

Thikhedzo ya phindulo: **Ngauri mañwe maipfi ha wanali kha izwi zwishumiswa. U tou fana na maipfi a kale kha Tshivenda** (archaic words). Mupinduli ha koni u a **wana kha vhunzhi ha izwo zwishumiswa. Mupinduli u tea u shumisa maipfi awe a tshi khou pindulela.**

- 1.4 Naa vha vhona luambo lwa Tshivenda lwo bveledzwa zwavhuđi musi vho sedza kha ḥhalusamaipfi na phurogireme dza u pindulela dza khomphiyutha dzine dza vha hone zwa zwino? Vha khou humbelwa uri vha tikedze phindulo yavho.

Ee	Hai x
----	-------

Thikhedzo ya phindulo: **Kha Tshivenda a hu a thu vha na phurogireme dza u pindulela dza khomphiyutha nahone ḥhalusamaipfi dza Tshivenda a si nnzhi vhunga u tshi nga dzi vhala wa dzi fhedza. Tshiimiswa tsha TNLU (Tshivenda National Lexicography Unit) ndi tshone tshi tshoṭhe tshine tsha khou ንwala ḥhalusamaipfi nga vhunzhi, fhedzi na tshone tshi khou balelwa ngauri Vhavenda a vha ደidini nga u ደisa maipfi na ḥhalutshedzo dzao kha tsho.**

- 1.5 Naa vha na zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwo linganaho zwine vha zwi shumisa kha u pindulela u bva kha English u ya kha Tshivenda na u bva kha Tshivenda u ya kha English? Vha humbelwa u tikedza phindulo yavho.

Ee	Hai x
----	-------

Thikhedzo ya phindulo: **Ngauri khophasi ya Tshivenda a I na maipfi manzhi. Na dzone ḫalusamaipfi dza Tshivenda a si nnzhi.**

- 1.6 Vhone vha a swikelela u wana ḫalusamaipfi dza luambo lwa Tshivenda kha inthanete naa? Arali vha tshi khou tenda vha khou humbelwa u bula madzina a dzenedzo ḫalusamaipfi nahone vha bule na ḫiresi dza webusaithi.

Ee	Hai ×
----	-------

- 1.7 Musi zwi tshi kwama ḫalusamaipfi dza nyambo mbili (Tshivenda- English bilingual dictionaries) kana dza nyambo nnzhi na ḫalusamaipfi dza luambo luthihi lwa English ndi ifhio ḫalusamaipfi **nthihi** ine vhone vha i shumisesa musi vha tshi khou pindulela u ya kha Tshivenda?

(i) ḫalusamaipfi ya nyambo mbili/nyambo nnzhi (Tshivenda na luñwe/Tshivenda na dziñwe)	
(ii) ḫalusamaipfi ya luambo luthihi lwa English	
(iii) Vhuvhili ha dzo bulwaho afho n̄tha kha (i) na (ii)	×
(iv) A hu na na nthihi afho n̄tha	

Vha humbelwa uri vhaṭalutshedza uri ndi ngani vha tshi ralo: **Bilingual I a thusa musi mupinduleli a tshi ṭoda u ḫivha zwine ipfi ḫa vhidziswa zwone nga luñwe luambo. Hone English monolingual I a thusa uri muthu a ḫivhe ḫalutshedzo ya ipfi ḫine a sa ḫi pfesese, zwa ita uri a tshi pindulela zwi leluwe.**

- 1.8 Naa vha a ñivha nga ha Autshumato na Trados dzine dza vha phurogireme dza u pindulela dza kha khomphiyutha?

Ee	Hai <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
----	---

Arali vha tshi dzi ñivha vha vhona dzi tshi kona hani u pindulela zwa luambo lwa Tshivenda?

Autshumato:_____

Trados:_____

- 1.9 Vha khou humbelwa uri vha dzinginye zwiñwe na zwiñwe zwine zwa nga itwa zwine zwa nga thusa kha u bveledzisa zwishumiswa zwa u pindulela zwi tshi itelwa vhashumi vha zwa nyambo vha luambo lwa Tshivenda.

Muvhuso kha u ite thandela dza u kuvhanganya maipfi, muthu ane a ñisa maipfi manzhi a badelwe zwi tshi ya nga zwe a ñisa kha tshiimiswa tsha luambo. Kha hu yiwe kha vhakegulu na vhakalahu hu vhudziseswe nga zwa luambo zwi tshi ñwaliwa uri luambo lu vhulungee. Maipfi a kale kha vhe na thalusamaipfi yao a oþhe (archaic words), e.g. ive, ngwaniwapo etc.

Ndi khou livhuwa u fhindula havho uyu mutevhe wa mbudziso

ANNEXURE G: EDITING CERTIFICATE

7542 Galangal Street

Lotus Gardens

Pretoria

0008

09 April 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This certificate serves to confirm that I have edited and proofread Mr ME Nemutamvuni's dissertation entitled, "**Investigating the effectiveness of available tools for translating into Tshivenda**".

I found the work easy and intriguing to read. Much of my editing basically dealt with obstructionist technical aspects of language, which could have otherwise compromised smooth reading as well as the sense of the information being conveyed. I hope that the work will be found to be of an acceptable standard. I am a member of Professional Editors' Guild.

Hereunder are my particulars:



Jack Chokwe (Mr)

Contact numbers: 072 214 5489

jackchokwe@gmail.com

