Presence of Xitsonga linguistic features in Black South African English (BSAE): An investigation of mother-tongue transfer

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo for the degree of Master of Arts in English Language Studies has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other University, that it is my own work in design and in execution, and that all the material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

Signed: Mhetwa Gugu Marie

Date: 20/03/2008
DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family
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Abstract

The study was carried out with the aim of determining the presence of Xitsonga language features in Black South African English (BSAE) by investigating the transfer of Xitsonga features to English linguistic features. The literature reviewed provided a theoretical foundation of the study and it revealed that mother tongue transfer from South African's indigenous languages to English language features are classified as BSAE. The qualitative approach was used in this research. Two instruments were used for collecting data: Identification of non-standard constructions for educators; and a Discourse obligatory completion task for learners. The collected data were analyzed through inductive analysis. The major research finding is that educators and learners transfer Xitsonga structures to English linguistic structures. As such transfers are classified under BSAE, the researcher concluded that Xitsonga features are present in BSAE. It is recommended that the awareness of these transfers and their impact on present classroom standards be made through writing of manuals for educators.
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CHAPTER 1

1. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The language situation in South Africa is, according to Reagan (1995:421), characterised not only by the variety of African, Asian, and European languages that coexist, but also by alternative varieties of these languages. Reagan (1995) argues that despite the high degree of linguistic diversity in the country, South Africa also shares a number of linguistic characteristics with the world's "developed" nations. The country's linguistic diversity includes a language of wider communication, English, which is widely spoken throughout the country, and by members of virtually all the different ethno-linguistic groups. This use of English as a lingua franca has significantly risen with the advent of the new political dispensation that began in 1994 (Makalela, 1999).

Wissing (2002:128) has observed that the majority of the people who use English have a Bantu language such as IsiXhosa, IsiZulu, Southern Sotho, Setswana and Northern Sotho or Afrikaans as their first language. Wissing (2002) concludes that it is to be expected that different varieties of English will be developed in such an environment. Wissing (2002:129) gives an example of the different varieties of English as Black South African English (henceforth, BSAE) which he has used as a cover term for the English spoken by mother-tongue speakers of IsiSwati, XiTsonga, IsiXhosa and IsiZulu (from the Nguni group), Southern Sotho, Setswana and Northern Sotho (from the Sotho group) and TshiVenda (from an independent branch of the Southern Bantu language family). Wright (1996:155) defines BSAE as an emerging system of non-native varieties standing in uncertain relation to international standard, with greater input from South African English.

Makalela (2004:362) shows that Black language logic has a direct influence toward nativization of BSAE linguistic properties and their widespread usage among the educated Black population. Despite its widespread usage, BSAE has not been accorded any status as yet. In this regard, Makalela (2004:355) states that the development of BSAE as a
distinct variety of English is still riddled with social complexities. De Kadt (1993) poses questions about the definition of BSAE asking: Is it "...a non-standard variety of SAE (South African English), characterised by fossilised forms; or a learner language continuum; or a number of ethnic varieties of English?" Lanham and Macdonald (1979) view BSAE as unimportant, while Butler (1964) sees BSAE as a conglomerate of errors. With regard to errors, Ellis (1996:29) points out that there is recognition that transfer may not always manifest itself as errors, but as avoidance, overuse and facilitation. De Klerk and Gough (2002) require tougher measure if BSAE is to be recognised stating that the attitudes towards BSAE of both the South African and other speakers of English will need careful investigation before any serious claims can be made about changes in the status of BSAE. Wright (1996:151) views as "misguided" a popular response from some language commentators who advocate the "restandardising" of English to accommodate BSAE as a separate but equal variety of English.

However, Makalela (2004) has observed that there are those who see BSAE as an evolved distinct variety of English that is widely shared and understood across a wider spectrum of the educated black population. On this view Van der Walt and Van Rooy (2002:113) acknowledge that there have been calls in recent years for the restandardization of South African English, specifically to acknowledge some emerging norm of BSAE. Such calls are based on the assumption that BSAE is growing in status as a result of the democratisation of South Africa. Kachru (1985), points out that this argument falls securely within the new or world Englishes paradigm, which aims to validate institutionalized varieties of English.

Description of the selected features of BSAE shows that a distinct variety of English used by speakers of indigenous African languages is institutionalized in South Africa. Varieties of new English reflect a phase in the history of English language resulting not from the imperfect learning of the non-mother-tongue speakers but from the nature of the process of the macro-acquisition, language spread and changes. Macro-acquisition of English and nativization tendencies have found their footing in the global context where a large percentage of the speakers of English are non-traditional mother tongue speakers. The case for BSAE argues that South Africa is not an exception to the changing sociolinguistic
reality of English. This new reality implies that the outer-circle varieties of English will need to be assessed in terms of the social function they have for their speakers. One of the causes for the emergence of BSAE is the African language structures that are used as the reference point in the acquisition and use of the English language (Makalela, 2004). It is against this background that this study seeks to investigate the transfer of Xitsonga language (one of the African indigenous languages in South Africa) structures to English linguistic features. In a South African context, transfers made from South African Black languages to English language features are classified under BSAE. In the context of this study, transfers from Xitsonga would be classified under BSAE features. The result of this transfer would be the presence of Xitsonga language structures in BSAE.

1.2. AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to investigate the transfer of Xitsonga language features to English linguistic features traceable to BSAE.

1.3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.3.1. To examine writing protocols among high school learners with a Xitsonga first language background with regard to mother tongue logic transfer to English linguistic features.

1.3.2. To determine linguistic deviations that have been institutionalized among educators with a Xitsonga first language background.

1.4. PROBLEM STATEMENT

It would probably be a futile exercise if one attempts to do research on languages in South Africa without getting into some politics. Murray (2002:435) points out that it is a truism to say that policies of language and education are inherently political, but nowhere more so than in South Africa where language has been closely bound up in the system of ethnic and racial division where language was a defining characteristic of ethnicity and was used to set boundaries of ethnic identities. A racially and ethnically segregated education
system was central to the maintenance of these boundaries (Murray, 2002).

This political situation effectively separated Black South Africans of school going age from the native English using community through the implementation of the 1953 Bantu Education Act (Wright, 1996:150). The result of such ethnic division is that generations of Black South Africans have been forced to learn English from each other in situations which offered limited occasion for its use and little contact with native-speaker norms (Wright, 1996). This political situation became a source of the problems which are experienced in the education system.

According to Wright (1996), conditions such as explained above favoured entrenchments of deviance in the following ways:

- Restricted contact with the native-speaker community confines acquaintance with the standard language largely to experience of printed text;
- Deviance arising from mother-tongue influence, which would normally reduce or disappear in the course of formal instruction, becomes habitual and reinforces itself through unchecked incremental repetition;
- Further, non-standard forms accumulate when the “language capacity” of incipient bilinguals goes to work on the arrested “interlanguage” acquired in their own speech communities;
- And where large numbers in successive generations participate in this linguistic evolution, a hard core of deviances become endemic and naturalized. These deviances are experienced by members of such communities as norms of English.

In making judgement, based on the above, it maybe assumed that learners and educators in the study; who are first language speakers of Xitsonga, might have found themselves in the same predicament; not forgetting the other ethnic groups as mentioned by Makalela (1999) such as North Sotho, IsiZulu, South Sotho, IsiNdebele, Setswana, IsiSwati, TshiVenda and IsiXhosa, which all contribute to the emergence and development of Black
South African English.

Wright (1996) concludes that such conditions favour the entrenchment of deviance. Nwaila (1993) reports on the consequences in the South African classroom as follows: “These teachers think, understandably and justifiably, that they can speak and teach Standard English; and the students in the process think they are learning Standard English”.

Although this study focuses on investigating the presence of Xitsonga linguistic features in BSAE, which is the result of mother tongue transfer to English linguistic features, there is a need for research on each of the former marginalised indigenous languages for a better understanding of BSAE.

1.5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is significant in more ways than one; not only is Xitsonga one of the previously disadvantaged indigenous languages in South Africa, but it is also a language of a minority group. Its speakers are reluctant to bring it to a written text through research; the result of such reluctance would be what Edwards (1994) calls “linguistic suicide”. This study is significant in that it attempts to bring this minority language to its rightful place as a role player towards the understanding of BSAE, which is a collective result of the transfer of some linguistic features from all the indigenous South African languages to English linguistic features. Although the study here undertaken may be a drop in the ocean, it attempts to indicate the presence of Xitsonga language features in BSAE which is the result of mother tongue transfer to English linguistic features.

This study would hopefully provide a base for future research on BSAE from the Xitsonga point of view. It could also serve as a useful foundation for a student researching the BSAE phenomenon which is a new field. Makalela (2004:355) has appropriately titled his article “Making Sense of BSAE for Linguistic Democracy in South Africa”. This study is significant at this point because if BSAE as an emerging language hasn’t made sense as yet, the results from this study would suggest that more research on BSAE has still to be
done. This is especially true since Gough (1996) has noted that research in this field of BSAE is still in its infancy. On the issue of researching BSAE, Makalela (2004:355) observes that the development of BSAE as a distinct variety of English in South Africa is riddled with social complexities that merit a systematic enquiry.

The significance of the study can be summarized as follows:

- It would broaden literature on BSAE for future research
- It will bring Xitsonga language to its rightful place as a role player in the development of BSAE
- Results of the study will hopefully be helpful to English educators in a Xitsonga language environment
- The study also raises awareness of BSAE features produced by Xitsonga first language speakers

1.6. RATIONALE

The BSAE phenomenon is a new field which attracted the attention of the researcher. In the literature reviewed, BSAE is defined as a collective term for English spoken by Black South Africans as a result of mother tongue transfer. In the literature reviewed calls are made for more research to be done on BSAE. South Africa is a multilingual country with nine indigenous black languages classified as official. For a better understanding of BSAE, research has to be done to determine how each of these indigenous languages contributes to BSAE. The main justification for conducting this study is to determine whether Xitsonga (one of the nine indigenous languages) features are present in BSAE. The calls for more research also provided justification for undertaking this study for better understanding of BSAE. Through this study, it is hoped that others who are first language speakers of this indigenous language would be motivated to do further research on BSAE.
1.7. DEFINITION OF TERMS

In this section, terms are defined as used in the study:

1.7.1. **Creative Bilingualism** is defined as a situation where a speaker juggles between two linguistic systems and creatively produces a well formed and rule governed variety of English (Makalela 2004:357).

1.7.2. **Black South African English (BSAE)** is defined as a cover term for the English spoken by mother-tongue speakers of South Africa’s indigenous languages (Wissing, 2002:129).

1.7.3. **Errors** are defined as non-standard linguistic structures which are correctable through intensive remedial approaches as the learner progresses to an advanced stage of learning of a second language (Makalela, 1999:59).

1.7.4. **Deviations** are described as structures which are stabilized and which become difficult, if not impossible to remedy owing to social factors associated with the environments in which the target language is used (Makalela, 1999:59).

1.7.5. **Mother Tongue Transfer** refers to the incorporation of the features of the first language into the knowledge systems of the second language which the learner is trying to build (Ellis, 1996).

1.7.6. **Interlanguage** is defined as a transitional system reflecting the learner’s current second language (L2) knowledge (Ellis, 1996:16). Makalela (2004:358) cites Selinker (1972) describing interlanguage as a transitional occurrence between one’s mother tongue and the target language.

1.7.7. **Grammars** are pre-programmed cognitive systems that characterize the structure underlying people ‘s linguistic capacity (Lightfoot & Fasold: 2006)
1.7.8. **Nativization** is a process whereby English is adjusted, both structurally and functionally to meet the needs of its users in non-native contexts (Kamwangamalu, 2002).

1.7.9. **Institutionalization** is described as a process where English is being domesticated and indigenized in accordance with the tense logic and cultural repertoires as practiced in the local communities (Makalela, 1999).

1.7.10. **Codification** is aimed at attaining minimal variation in form through setting down the prescribed language code in a written form – in grammars, dictionaries, and spelling books. (Fairclough 1989:5-7)

1.8. **OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY**

Chapter two discusses literature review. This is conducted within the framework of world Englishes with reference to BSAE. The literature review is conducted according to the following themes:

Theoretical framework: World Englishes and BSAE
English in South Africa
Developments of varieties of languages in Second Language Acquisition
Emergence and spread of BSAE
Standardization and Restandardization
Features of BSAE

Chapter three provides a description of the research methodology which consist of the following:

Population and sampling
Instruments and data analysis
Chapter four provides the analysis and interpretation of the collected data. The findings will be presented in detail in chapter five.

Chapter five discusses the implication of the findings to the education system. It also provides the summary, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the literature read relevant to the study. Literature on Black South African English and on World Englishes were the major source of information discussed in this chapter.

This chapter is reviewed under the following themes:

- World Englishes and Black South African English
- English in South Africa
- Developments of the varieties of Languages in Second Language Acquisition
- Emergence and spread of Black South African English
- Standardization and restandardization
- Linguistic features of Black South African English

2.2. WORLD ENGLISHES AND BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN ENGLISH

The spread of the English language in many parts of the world has raised concerns about the future of the language as well as about its impact on the languages with which it comes into contact. The concern arises against the backdrop of the emergence of new varieties of English in former British and American colonies as a result of the nativization of English (Kamwamamalu, 2002). Pennycook (1994:7) divides the number of speakers of English into three groups:

- The native speakers of English
- Speakers of English as a second (or intranational) language
- Speakers of English as a Foreign (or international) language
It is said that the last group is the fastest growing section of the world speakers of English. Pennycook (1994) acknowledges that there is a fairly broad agreement on the reasons for and the implications of this spread. One reason why English has become so widely used is that the world has opted for English, and the world knows what it wants and what will satisfy its needs. Those in linguistic circles consider the spread of English to be natural, neutral and beneficial. The spread of English is considered natural because, although there maybe some critical reference to the colonial imposition of English, its subsequent expansion is seen as a result of inevitable global forces. It is seen as neutral because it is assumed that once English has in some sense become detached from its original contexts, particularly England and America, it becomes a neutral and transparent medium of communication. And it is considered beneficial because the optimistic view of international communication assumes that this occurs on a cooperative and equitable footing (Pennycook, 1994:8-9). Kachru (1986) is identified by Pennycook (1984) as being one of the most effective campaigners for the recognition and study of local varieties of English.

Kachru (1986) argues that the main issue of debate is whether efforts should be made to maintain the central standard of English or whether the different varieties of English should be acknowledged as legitimate forms in their own right. Pennycook (1994) points out that in academic circles, the two leading figures to debate the two ideologies—one or multiple standards—have been Kachru (1985) and Quirk (1985). According to Pennycook (1994), Kachru (1985) argues that the native speakers of English seem to have lost the exclusive prerogative to control its standardization. On the other hand Quirk (1985) argues that the existence of standard is an endemic feature of our mortal condition and that people feel alienated and disorientated if a standard seems to be missing. Pennycook (1994) also points out that the principal focus of work on English as an international language has been on question of standards or on descriptions of varieties of English.

According to Kachru (1986) there are three stages through which attitudes towards a nativised standard variety develop. In the first stage, the existence of a nativised variety is not recognized. Next its existence is recognized, but it is ascribed to "other" users of the language, not the "self". Finally, public support develops for the local variety, which may
result in the development of public controversy between the proponents and opponents of nativised standard. Van der Walt & Van Rooy, 2002: 114) point out that the attitudes of teachers as gatekeepers are particularly important in this respect.

The international debate, according to van der Walt and van Rooy (2002: 114-15), on the status of indigenized varieties of English between Quirk (1985) and Kachru (1985) is reflected in the local exchange (South Africa) between, for example, Titlestad (1996) and Webb (1996). This exchange reflects the attitudinal conflict, noted by Kachru (1986), which accompanies the recognition of nativised varieties of English. Titlestad (1996) supports this argument of the English Academy of Southern Africa (EASA) that the official standard of English in South Africa should be British English (English spoken by the inner circle). It is argued that it is an international variety that would empower its speakers, and is a model for use in education. Webb (1996), on the other hand, identifies the dangers of elitism and discrimination inherent in such an approach to non-standard English. He regards standard British English as an unrealistic norm that cannot be achieved in South Africa and emphasizes that it is ultimately the attitude of language teachers that is crucial in the determination of a norm.

According to Makalela (2004), the description of the context of BSAE development fits well with the Kachruvian parameter of the outer circle varieties. Makalela (2004:363) argues that the marginalization of BSAE and its people in South Africa lies, among other reasons, in the fact that an exogenous variety of English, namely British English, is imposed as norm. Localizing the standards implies the harmonization of the varieties of English which are to date racially constructed as South African English (spoken by British descendants), Afrikaans English, Coloured/Cape English, South African Indian English and Black South African English. Makalela (2004:364) concludes that harmonization, which is a concept used for the proposal to unify African languages/ dialects into common orthography (Heugh, 2002) means, in this case, a unification of written English varieties and their codification into dictionaries, grammar texts and teaching materials for schools.
2.3. ENGLISH IN SOUTH AFRICA

English came to South Africa via the occupation of the Cape of Good Hope, now Cape Town in 1795 (Kamwangamalu, 2002). Lass (1987) advanced the reason for the occupation as part of Britain’s struggle for control of the strategic Cape sea-route between Europe and Asia. Kamwangamalu (2002) sums up the position of the English language in South African history by stating that language, English in particular, has played a pivotal role in South Africa’s transition from Dutchification (1652-1795) to Anglicization (1795-1948) to Afrikanerization (1948-1994) to Democratization (1994- ). Up until 1994 South Africa was officially known as a bilingual state, with English and Afrikaans as co-official languages. However, Mazrui (2002) points out that partly in response to the racist and coercive manner in which “Bantu Education “ was administered, Africans rebelled during the 1976 Soweto protest against Afrikaans and in favour, not for an indigenous African language, but for English, the language that is more widely used in the rest of Africa. English became not just the language of oppression but also, by a strange twist of destiny, the language of liberation, with enhanced status among Africans.

The linguistic diversity was deeply entrenched by the Afrikaner government (1948-1994). The infamous Bantu Education Act of 1953 effectively separated Black South Africans of school going age from the English speaking community (Mazrui, 2002). However, as a result of the demise of apartheid, South Africa has adopted a multilingual language policy giving official recognition to eleven languages including the former two languages, English and Afrikaans, and nine African languages: XiTsonga, Sepedi, IsiSwati, TshiVenda, Sesotho, Setswana, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu. The constitution of South Africa does not accord English any special rights or advantage over the other official languages (Kamwangamalu, 2002).

However, Murray’s (2002) observation is that Black students and their parents do not seem to favour a move away from English as a language of learning and teaching. While Black students maintain a strong allegiance to their home languages, they seem to see their languages as just that – the languages of the home – whereas English is perceived as the language of aspiration. Murray (2002) has further observed that many parents
believe that the home language is learnt quite adequately at home; it is the job of the school to teach the language of wider communication. Kamwangamalu (2002) explains that Black South Africans see English as the language of liberation. Kamwangamalu (2002) attests that English has, in the post-apartheid era, become the most dominant official language due to its association with social mobility. Further, Makalela (1999) asserts that the new Black elite who migrated to the metropolitan areas tend to use English even in their homes and send their children to English medium schools as early as kindergarten stage.

In terms of intergenerational transmission, English receives a lot of support not only from the minorities, e.g. South African whites of British descent and South African Indians, who speak it as a native tongue and so pass it on from generation to generation, but also from two key constituencies including many Afrikaans-speaking parents, who believe that their children’s future lies with the global language, English; and all black South Africans, who speak English as a second language or third language but value it more highly than their own indigenous languages. Multilingualism in the new South Africa in practice means English plus any other languages; and not the use of any two languages without English. It is concluded that in the new South Africa, English reigns supreme, and its hegemony is felt country-wide, especially in the higher domains, to the extent that none of other official languages can match it (Kamwangamalu, 2002:162)

In conclusion, Wright (1996:153) cautions that it should be noted that the desire for English language education is spreading through the society and reflects, not so much enthusiasm for the language, still less for its culture, but rather the desire to succeed, to place one’s children in a position to realize their aspiration. This social motivation is a force far more powerful than ideology, tradition, linguistic probity or cultural pride, and our education system (South Africa) must be prepared to cope with its implications. Some researchers sound even more serious concerns or warnings on the spread of the English language. Kamwangamalu (2002) describes English as a killer language, because contacts between English and indigenous languages tend to lead to the demise of the latter. Pennycook (1994) describes English as a “Trojan Horse”, arguing that it is a language of imperialism and of particular class interests; and draws attention to moral and
political implications of English teaching around the globe in terms of the threat it poses to indigenous languages and the role it plays as a gatekeeper to better jobs in many societies.

Kamwangamalu (2002) argues that despite its entire positive attributes, in South Africa (and other former British colonies on the African continent), English has been accused of being a double-edged sword:

- Although it provides access to education and job opportunities, it also acts as a barrier to such opportunities for those who do not speak it, or whose English is poor (Branford, 1992).

- It is an important key to knowledge, science and technology, but it is increasingly being seen as a remnant of colonialism and a cause of cultural alienation and as a vehicle of values not always in harmony with local traditions and beliefs (Schmeid, 1991).

It is against the background of these multiple identities of English (Kamwangamalu, 2002) that the study seeks to investigate the transfer of Xitsonga language features to English linguistic structures where such transfers are traceable to BSAE.

2.4. DEVELOPMENT OF VARIETIES OF LANGUAGES IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Developments of varieties of languages in second language acquisition have, according to Makalela (1999:58-59), always been viewed with scepticism and referred to as “errors”: that is, something which must be prevented and eliminated in one’s target language. Varieties of English as a second language are often stigmatized as errors in South African context at present. In South Africa, there are Englishes spoken by Afrikaners, Indians, Blacks and native speakers of English who are in the minority. These Englishes are perceived as containing errors and students at schools and universities are failed for not complying with British standards English norms. He argues that while the drive in our
curriculum is towards standard British norms, it is questionable whether these stigmatized errors in English could be entirely eliminated to produce a dialect similar to Standard English. Makalela (1999) distinguishes between errors and deviations. Errors are non-standard linguistic structures which are correctible through intensive remedial approaches as the learner progresses to an advanced stage of learning a second language. Deviations, on the other hand, are structures which are stabilized, and which become difficult, if not impossible, to remedy owing to social and cultural factors with the fossilization phenomena in second language research. Selinker (1972) describes fossilizable phenomena as “Linguistic items, rules and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their first language, no matter what the age group of the learner or amount of explanation or instructions he receives”. This explanation (Selinker, 1972), shows that despite remedial approaches, standardized errors tend to persist in one’s target language. This expansion could be the cause of some characteristics features of BSAE.

Ellis (1996:29) points out that the issue of language transfer has undergone considerable change. It was initially assumed that the “habits” of the first language (L1) would be carried over into second language (L2). In cases where the target language differed from the L1 this would result in interference or negative transfer. In cases where the patterns of the L1 and the target language were similar, positive transfer will occur. Thus, the L1 could both impede and facilitate the acquisition of the L2. Despite the counterarguments on L1 transfer, there is a large and growing body of research that indicates that transfer is indeed a very important factor in second language acquisition. Evidence of transfer in all aspects of language – phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics - is now abundant, and that there is recognition of the fact that transfer may not always manifest itself as errors (the focus of the early studies), but also avoidance, overuse, and facilitation (Ellis, 1996).

In accordance with the aim and objectives of this study, transfers such as explained above result in the emergence of varieties of Englishes. One such variety is BSAE which is a product of the transfers of linguistic features from the South African indigenous languages. The question under investigation is whether Xitsonga ( one of these indigenous
languages) features are present in BSAE.

2.5. EMERGENCE OF BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN ENGLISH

Wright (1996:155) defines BSAE as an emerging system of non-native varieties standing in uncertain relation to international standard, with greater input from South African English.

Makalela (2004: 356-57) cites several reasons for the emergence and spread of distinctive properties of BSAE:

- The demographic power of BSAE speakers: the majority of English speakers in South Africa are to date those who will likely produce BSAE-like features. The traditional native speakers of English, on the other hand, have always constituted a small percentage of the population and they cannot exert sufficient influence to "spread" traditional English norms to the overwhelming majority of second language speakers.

- The educational spread: English is taught to students by teachers who are already speaking the BSAE variety themselves. BSAE is spread from one generation of non-native speakers to another.

- The mother-tongue influence - the Bantu subtractive system: the Bantu language structures (competence) that are used as the reference point in the acquisition and use of English is also important for the emergence of BSAE. As in most bilingual contexts, by the time the majority of Black children start schooling, they have already acquired a certain degree of conversational competence in their mother-tongues that share a common Bantu substrate system. BSAE is partly a result of creative bilingualism where its speakers juggle between two linguistic systems and creatively produce a well formed and rule governed variety of English.
The value of English in the new dispensation: the new political dispensation that began in 1994 has accelerated the spread and value of English among the Blacks and this has a wider array of social domains despite the constitutional commitments to eleven official languages. In the post apartheid era, English has become the most dominant official language that is used in the media, technology, commerce and government.

In line with the above, Makalela (2004) concludes the following about BS AE:

- BS AE has developed through the education system.
- It has developed in an area where a native variety of English was not the language spoken by most of the population.
- It is used for a range of functions among those who speak or write it in the region where it is being used.
- It has become localized or nativized by adopting some language features of its own, such as sounds, intonation patterns, sentence structure, words and expressions.

This study will focus on this fourth criterion of the description of BS AE illustrated through a description of selected linguistic features.

Wright (1996:151) concludes that the result of the Bantu Education act of 1953 is, among other factors, that generations of Black South Africans have been forced to learn English from each other in situations which offered limited occasion for its use and little contact with native-speaker norms.

On explaining the causes of the transmission of BASE, Van der Walt & van Rooy (2002) state that most speakers of African languages acquire English as a second language at schools. Most teachers of English are second language speakers who have themselves acquired English from other second language teachers. For this reason, most learners are exposed to non-standard forms in input, passed on from second language teachers to
second language learners. This is because English teacher's own proficiency is often suspect. This is particularly true in primary schools, where English is first acquired. Furthermore, incipient bilingualism creates the conditions for transfer from the mother tongue to take place. As a result, a hard core of non-standard forms accumulate and these become the characterizing markers of BSAE.

This study will focus on Makalela’s (2004:357) fourth criterion of BSAE selected linguistic features; and Wright's (1996:151) “deviance” arising from mother –tongue influence. Its specific focus will be on the transfer of Xitsonga language structures to English linguistic features where such a transfer would result in the presence of Xitsonga linguistic features in BSAE.

2.6. STANDARDIZATION AND REStandardIZATION

According to Wright (1996:150), the vernacular languages are, at present, not sufficiently developed to carry the burden of South Africa's urban-industrial energies either technically or in relation to demographic distribution. The full strain, by popular choice of the black South African community, falls on English. A first step towards averting replication of Africa's English crises would be for language specialists, educational planners and policy advisors to reach an informed consensus on the question of standardization. Standardization issues are important especially for the largest grouping using the language, the black speakers of English. However, differing views emerge as researchers argue on the issue of standardization and restandardization.

Nwaila (1993) describes a situation in South African schools where educators believe that they speak and teach standard English while learners also believe that they are learning standard English. Wright (1996:151) observes that the situation described by Nwaila (1993) epitomizes a critical problem of inter-comprehensibility. Wright (1996) sees it as unfortunate that the nature of this problem and its extent are often misunderstood. A popular response, which he views as misguided, from some language commentators, advocates the “restandardising” of English to accommodate BSAE, or alternatively, the
development of BSAE as a separate but equal variety of English. Ndebele (1987) holds that: "South African English must be open to the possibility of it becoming a new language. This may happen not only at the level of vocabulary, but also with regard to grammatical adjustments that may result from the proximity of English to indigenous languages". To strengthen his view on the question of restandardization, Wright (1996) asks the question: "Is the restandardization of English a realistic option?" of which three variables influence its answer:

- The way BSAE is defined;
- The manner in which the functioning of a language standard is conceived;
- And the extent to which the potential for communication breakdown is acknowledged.

In discussing these variables, Wright (1996) quotes de Kadt (1993) who poses questions about the definition of BSAE: "Is it a non-standard variety of South African English (SAFE), characterized by fossilized, or a learner language continuum; or a number of ethnic varieties of English?" Wright (1996) argues that BSAE is increasingly in contact with South African English (SAFE) and it displays fossilized forms, but the prevalence of non-native input in a linguistic environment dominated by vernacular languages makes the notion of BSAE as primarily a variety of SAFE questionable. Wright (1996) further explains that BSAE could be defined as an arrested stage in a learner-language continuum, but this definition implies compliance in an incomplete educational process, an attitude scarcely acceptable to the proponents of BSAE, let alone the masses who are demanding quality education. And if BSAE is actually composed of a number of ethnic varieties of English, then its role as a national medium of communication must be called to question. Wright (1996) recognizes that no advocates of restandardization are prepared to countenance the creation of a new standard English which is not nationally and internationally comprehensible. This implies an educated variety of BSAE highly responsive to the norms of international standard English. Wright (1996) concludes that if this is the case, then the argument for restandardization falls away.
Wright (1996:153-54) further argues that it is well-recognized that the fight for the institutionalization of non-standard English, alongside the resuscitation and promotion of the vernaculars, tend to become an orthodox component in the armoury of anti-neocolonial opposition, hence the political desire to accommodate such tendencies in the immediate past-settlement phase of South Africa’s reconstruction. However, this political dimension is typically ambiguous in that the champions of non-standard BSAsE are often those who have achieved social success. The answer to the question why non-standard linguistic capital of marginalized people are rejected in favour of a dominant model is that to ensure greater equality of access, increased social mobility and more coherence in this shattered society, the rural poor and the urban under classes have to be given the education which will empower them to the same extent as those in developed and privileged areas of the country. They should be entitled to Standard English (Wright, 1996). As a researcher, I would like to align myself with Wright’s (1996) view that rural people should be entitled to standard English. In my view, BSAsE is an ‘apartheid regime product’ which can only retard the progress of rural people. BSAsE is a variety of English made up of errors made by Black South Africans due to their political isolation where they had to teach English to each other in the absence of English first language speakers in their communities. Our institutions need to produce learners who are equipped with standard English norms. However, since BSAsE is a reality in our institutions (South Africa), it can be given a place in the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) as a third additional language.

Wright (1996) goes on to argue that those who express this concern for the recognition and acceptance of the English language standard in the education system are sometimes accused of ignoring socio-linguistic realities. Allied with this attitude is the suspicion that what the debate is really about is the maintenance of British hegemony over the language through the agency of White English-speaking South Africans referred to as WESSA’s. However, Wright (1996) argues that neither accusation bears examination, and puts forward the following:

- BSAsE is not usefully assessed as a variety of SAFE: it is an emerging system of non-native varieties standing in uncertain relation to the
international standard, with greater input from SAFE as we move up the varietals cline towards educated norms.

- It is precisely an awareness of the socio-linguistic realities of the South African context that leads to recognition of the enormous practical value of the language standard. The very real danger exists that an educational language dispensation too hospitable to linguistic variation in English could prove a socio-political disaster.

Titlestad (1996), refers to the proposals that BSAE should be standardized as “unorthodox proposals” which would work against the argument in favour of English in South Africa, the purely pragmatic that the country needs an additional language which enables communication between different speech communities within and without South Africa and which has the technical resources to allow the country’s formal economic and educational sectors to operate effectively. To fill this function successfully, English has to work. Wright (1996:155) rests his argument by addressing the assumption that BSAE should be standardized: the question of acknowledging the radical vulnerability of English once the force of the international standard is removed. The advocates of a highly indigenized English as South Africa’s future means of national communication seldom take seriously the potential for communication breakdown inherent in their proposal.

Makalela (1999:58) argues for the adoption, standardization and use of BSAE as a language variety of English in its own right. He puts forward his argument by stating that owing to the social significance of English among the Blacks, who are the major population group in South Africa, it becomes vital to ask: “which English are they using or will they be using? Whose interests will it serve?” Lanham and Macdonald (1979) view BSAE as unimportant, while Butler (1964) sees BSAE as a conglomeration of errors. Still there are others, according to Makalela (2004:335) who are confined to the above view, who are thus affirming De Kadt’s (1993) question (e.g., van Rooy, 2002; Wissing, 2002). De Klerk and Gough (2002) require tougher measures if BSAE is to be recognized by stating that the attitudes towards BSAE of both South Africans and other speakers of English will need careful investigation before any serious claims can be made about
changes in the status of BSAE. Van der Walt and van Rooy (2002) argue that in a second language, new English or indigenized situation one cannot speak of standardization in the traditional sense of the word. Kachru (1985) claims that norms are being developed in the outer circle and that the variety must be accepted. Van der Walt and van Rooy (2002) conclude that the situation is fluctuating, with real-time changes occurring, and the end result is still unknown.

According to Makalela (2004:355) one further problem parallel to the BSAE question and debate is that a codified standard South African English does not yet exist and, instead, the English Academy of Southern African (EASA) promotes “British Standard English” as an authentic English to be modelled in South Africa (Titlestad, 1996; Webb, 1996) because it is acceptable world wide. However, Makalela (2004) argues that the adoption of an exogenous English model has proved over time to have damaging effects on the literacy development of Black children. Imposing British English as a norm has resulted in the marginalization of BSAE and its people in South Africa. Lanham and Macdonald (1979) assert that the real standard English of South African English is near-British or what is taken to be British English. This generally held view among traditional native speakers was confirmed in 1992 by the English Academy of Southern Africa on language policy when proposing that the official standard of English in South Africa should be Standard British English (Webb, 1996). Makalela’s (2004) argument is that the adoption of an exogenous model of English is not only an unrealistic, but also virtually impractical goal. He further argues that for over 150 years of teaching foreign-based English in South Africa, the majority of the Black population is still functionally illiterate by the British norms.

Van der Walt and van Rooy (2002) points out that the international debate on the status of indigenized varieties of English between Quirk (1985) and Kachru (1985) is reflected in the local exchange between Titlestad (1996) and Webb (1996). At issue is the question whether standard English is an appropriate or even a realistic goal for learners in South Africa. According to Van der Walt and van Rooy (2002:114-15), Titlestad (1996) supports the argument of the English Academy of Southern Africa that the official standard of English in South Africa should be Standard British English. The argument is that it is the international variety that would empower its speakers, and is a model for use in education.
On the other hand, Webb (1996) identifies the dangers of elitism and discrimination inherent in such an approach, and argues for a “more tolerant approach to non-standard English”. Webb (1996) regards standard British English as an unrealistic norm that cannot be achieved in South Africa and emphasizes that it is ultimately the attitude of language teachers that is crucial in the determination of a norm.

Makalela (2004:364) asserts that the answer lies in the local standards. One implication of localizing the standards of English is the harmonization of the varieties of English that are to date racially constructed as South African English (spoken by British descendants), Afrikaans English (Watermeyer, 1996) Coloured/Cape English (Malan, 1996), South African Indian English, and Black South African English. Harmonization of English merits official language planning involving corpus, status and acquisition planning that would evolve into a new South African English that will empower the local people who are affected by years of linguistic discrimination. Makalela (2004:364) concludes his argument by stating that if, as some would argue, English has a unifying role in the new South Africa; it would be effective when South Africa does not take wholesome British English that continuously dis-empowers those who are culturally removed from it. In supporting the locally based standards, Bamgbose (1998) indicates that the new reality (e.g. the case for BSAE that South Africa is not an exception to the changing socio-linguistic reality of English) requires bottom-up reconceptualization of intelligibility involving speakers of inner-circle English learning varieties of outer-circle contexts and making an effort to be understood. According to Makalela (2004:363), this tallies with one of the processes of decolonization, named “horizontal counter-penetration”, where the new Englishes can make an impact in the global scene if they are accepted and used in their own right.

2.7. FEATURES OF BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN ENGLISH

A cause of some characteristic feature of BSAE could be that, as explained by Selinker (1972) on second language acquisition, despite remedial approaches, standardized errors tend to persist in one’s target language. Makalela (1999) states that linguistic deviations may be associated with the fossilization phenomena in second language acquisition.
Makalela (1999) has categorized features of Black South African English
In accordance with tense logic and discourse patterns; and it is this categorization that the
researcher will use to determine the transfer of Xitsonga language features to English
language features.

2.7.1. Tense Sequencing

Gough (1996) explains that BSAE speakers avoid using complex tenses in complex and
compound sentences.

1. He arrived late for the examination but finish in time.

The first clause in the above sentence (1) is marked for simple past tense whereas the
second clause is marked for simple present tense. This type of construction deviates from
the standard English rule of tense sequence: the second clause normally takes the tense
form of the first clause. This feature can be associated more with mother tongue influence
from Bantu languages than with simplification strategies in Second Language Acquisition.
Tense logic in Xitsonga is flexible to allow the switch from past to present in complex
sentences such as: Wansati u fikile tolo a xava swakudya which is an equivalent of “A
woman arrived yesterday and buy food” instead of “A woman arrived yesterday and
bought food”. This knowledge from mother tongue is ultimately mapped on to English to
produce sentences as in (1) above (Makalela, 1999:61).

2.7.2. Idiosyncratic prepositional usage

According to Makalela (1999; 63) BSAE characteristically deviates from standard English
norms with regard to the use of prepositions. Mother tongue influence plays a significant
role in these deviations. While standard English has more than forty prepositions, Bantu
languages use fixed inflections as markers. In Xitsonga the locative prefix l e-i and suffix l-
eni l are to mark places as in “e- + xikolo + -eni”, “e- doroba + -eni” equals exikolweni
and edorobeni respectively, which may be translated as “at/in school”, “at/in town”
respectively. Absence of these prepositional structures in Bantu languages makes it difficult to understand the full meanings of English prepositions amongst BSAE speakers. Sentences (2) and (3) illustrate idiosyncratic usages:

2. I thank my mother very much for what she did to me. (for)
3. They were angry for him. (at)

2.7.3. Extension of progressive aspect to static verbs

Standard English distinguishes between action verbs and static verbs (Makalela, 1999). The former can be used with the progressive aspect /-ing/ as in “Children are running into the hall” whereas the latter does not take the progressive aspect. Speakers of BSAE, in contrast, use this aspect with all verbs (Wissing, 1987; Buthelezi, 1995; Gough, 1996; Makalela1998) as in sentence (4) below. In this sentence, the progressive aspect/-ing/ is extended to the static verb “know” and “belong”.

4. The place is belonging to the people. (The place belongs to the people)
5. The woman was not knowing where her child was. (The woman did not know where her child was)

2.7.4. Redundant use of near-synonyms

Redundant use of words which belong to the same meaning paradigm is one of the most obvious features of BSAE (Makalela, 1999: 64) as can be seen in sentences (6a) and (6b) below:
6a. The girl was asked to repeat again what she said before. (The girl was asked to repeat what she said before / The girl was asked to say again what she said before)

6b. His mother became ill since from last year. (His mother became ill since last year / His mother became ill from last year)

2.7.5. Usage of resumptive pronouns

Schmeid (1991) explains that resumptive pronouns occur when the pronoun is used subsequently to the subject noun it qualifies. The use of the pronoun “she” after the subject “the woman” in the following sentence (7) makes the pronoun redundant and deviates from the Standard English word order.

7. The woman she is very pretty.
8. The husband and the wife they are happy.

2.7.6. Invariant use of tag question

Tag questions (Makalela, 1999) are determined by the phrase of the preceding clause where the negative verb would elicit a positive tag in standard English. In contrast to the standard usage, these questions are used indiscriminately in BSAE as illustrated in sentences (9) and (10) below:

9. They are here already, is it? (aren't they)
10. They didn't like it, isn't it? (did they)

These two sentences deviate from the standard English form of tag question usage.
2.7.7. Topicalization

Mesthrie (1997) expresses that closely related to resumptive pronouns, topicalization occurs when stressed parts of the sentence are foregrounded. Instead of using sound stress, BSAE speakers show stress by putting important (topical) issue at the initial position and as a result the standard English word order is affected. This construction is illustrated in sentence (11) and (12) below:

11. In fact, I failed to submit my work.
12. Actually, you are smartly dressed today.

2.7.8. Omission of the third person agreement marker

Unlike standard English which uses the third person agreement marker/-s/ according to the number of the subject, agreement in BSAE is confused with the /-s/ often being omitted (Makalela, 1999). Morphological and syntactic structures in Bantu languages, which show agreement markers, are determined by the noun class prefix, which has an influence on these formations. The following sentence (16) shows the omission of this agreement marker:

13. The baby cry when hungry. (cries)

2.7.9. Invariant use of articles

BSAE is, according to Makalela (1999), characterized by the idiosyncratic use of articles probably owing to a lack of this feature in Bantu languages. Standard English follows definite/ indefinite as the basic distinction, but this rule is not followed by BSAE speakers as in this example below:

14. I saw a boy walking down the street. Then a boy met a girl. The boy and a girl greeted each other. Then a boy went his way and a girl did the same.
2.7.10. Lexical-semantic shifts

The following sentences are examples indicating shifts in meaning:

15. *I told myself* that losing my parents does not mean that I have to leave school.
16. I have looked everywhere but I can’t *see* my bracelet.
17. Have you seen him limping?, that’s how he *goes*.
18. My friends *collected* me in the morning to go on a trip.
19. The boy’s father is *late* that’s why he left school.
20. The young lady was very happy that the man *proposed* her.
21. *Sorry* sir, may I ask something?

Makalela (1999) explains that very common in the lexical semantic shifts of standard English expressions is the phrase “I told myself” (sentence 15) which is an equivalent to ‘I thought to myself”, this expression has Bantu language logic. In Xitsonga, for example, there is an equivalent “ndzi tibyerile” when one has taken a decision alone. Sentence (16) shows the shift in meaning of the word “see” for “find”. In Xitsonga the verb “vona” is “see” in English. The deviation is traced to Xitsonga logic where “I can’t see it” is used instead of “I can’t find it” for “*a ndzi xi voni*” in Xitsonga. The same applies to sentence (17) which shows the shift in meaning of the word “goes” for “walks”. Sentence (18) shows a shift in meaning of the word “collected” for “fetched”. The word “*late*” for “dead” is also common in BSAE, as reflected in sentences (19) (Buthelezi, 1995). The word “proposed” is commonly used as in sentence (20) to mean declaring love for a woman and it is understood across a wider section of the Black population. The most frequently used expression both in South Africa and other African English States (Schmeid, 1991 and Bamgbose, 1998), is the idiosyncratic use of the word “Sorry” as seen in sentence (21). “Sorry” is used normatively when one accepts blame for the wrongdoing especially if one’s action hurts or disturbs other people. But it is common in BSAE to use this discourse marker to draw someone’s attention, and subordinate oneself before a higher-ranking person because it is customary for Blacks to show this gesture of respect.
2.8. CONCLUSION

The literature reviewed shows that mother tongue language structures are transferred to the features of first languages. In narrowing down the field to “features of Black South African English”, the literature review shows that errors caused by transfers or Black language features to English language features are categorized as BSAE. It can be added that the literature reviewed is relevant to this study as the study seeks to find out if Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE.

In general the literature also calls for the recognition of BSAE:

- Circles calling for the codification of BSAE claim that this process would empower the local people who are affected by years of linguistic discrimination. Several studies recommend codification of BSAE features and their use in the classrooms in order to bridge the gap between standard English and students with African language backgrounds. In Makalela’s (2004) view this process merits official language planning involving corpus and status acquisition planning that would evolve into a new South African English.

- The harmonization of BSAE is a call for the unification of the racially constructed varieties of English used in South Africa.

With these calls in mind, an assumption could be made that BSAE does exist whether linguistically recognised or not. However, what is missing is how this English has emerged up to a point where it was termed BSAE without studying how each of the nine official indigenous languages has made its contributions to this new phenomenon.
CHAPTER 3

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives a detailed description of the population, the methodology used for research, and how data was collected for analysis.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a set of guidelines and instructions to be followed in addressing the research problem. It gives an overview of how the actual research will be conducted and also determines how data should be analyzed (Mouton, 1996: 107). The qualitative method was employed. According to Nunan (1992: 1-2), research and the conduct of research, involves rigour and the application of specialists’ knowledge and skills. It is further said that writers on research traditions have made binary distinction between qualitative and quantitative research. Nunan (1992:4) has provided terms associated with quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. As the qualitative method was used in this study, only the terms which apply to the qualitative research method have been highlighted:

- Qualitative research advocates use of qualitative methods.
- It is concerned with understanding human behaviour from the actors’ own frame of reference.
- It is naturalistic and an uncontrolled observation.
- It is grounded; discovery-orientated; exploratory; expansionist; descriptive; inductive; valid; and process-orientated
- It is close to data: the “insiders” perspective

The aim of the research was to investigate the presence of Xitsonga language features in BSAE caused by the transfer of Xitsonga language features to English linguistic
features.

The objectives of the study were:

- To examine writing protocols, among high school learners with a Xitsonga first language background with regard to mother tongue logic transfer to English linguistic features.
- To determine the extent of linguistic deviations that have been institutionalized among educators with a Xitsonga first language background.

3.3. RESEARCH METHOD

The qualitative method was employed. A response schedule was developed which involved educators and learners of eleven senior secondary schools.

First, educators were given a set of non-standard sentences, accumulated through years of experience in the teaching profession, to identify the nonstandard constructions and to correct them. Secondly, Grade 10, 11 and 12 learners from five of the same eleven high schools were given a discourse obligatory completion task to write. Responses from educators and learners provided evidence needed to determine mother tongue (Xitsonga) transfer to the target language (English).

3.4. POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The population on which the research was focused and the results of the sample were extracted from 11 high schools which form part of the Thulamahashe circuit in Bushbuckridge region (a former region of Limpopo Province which has recently, April 2007, been incorporated into Mpumalanga Province) in South Africa. In an effort to see to it that teaching and learning take place in earnest in schools, the Department of Education in Mpumalanga has adopted a system of clustering schools for each learning area in each circuit at FET (Further Education and Training) level. A cluster of this nature for FET English educators (grades 10, 11 & 12) were involved in the sample. The cluster consists
of ± 35 educators. These educators are in a rural area, so are the schools and the learners. A rural setting was selected for two reasons;

- Because of its proximity to the researcher
- The Xitsonga language spoken in rural areas is not as contemporary as Xitsonga of urban areas, and this suited the nature of this research.

Singh, Mbokodi & Msila (2004: 303) point out that of importance to the qualitative researcher is to understand the setting studied. Both purposeful sampling and convenience sampling were used in this study. Convenience sampling is a strategy of selecting cases simply because they are available. Convenience sampling was preferred in this study as these educators already form an intact group, and the researcher is their cluster leader. However, three responses from this readily available group were not entered for data analysis as these three educators' mother tongue is not Xitsonga. Purposeful sampling method had thus also been used for selection.

Cresswell (1994) points out that the idea of qualitative research is to purposefully select participants without attempting to select them randomly. 3 educators were purposefully excluded because they were not first language speakers of Xitsonga which was the language under investigation to determine the presence of its features in BSAE.

The sample comprised learners who were taught by the educators participating in the study. The learners were from five of the same eleven high schools in the circuit. The five high schools were selected by writing the names of the eleven high schools on separate small pieces of paper. The small pieces were folded after which five pieces were randomly picked. Learners were selected using purposeful sampling. Gay and Anderson (2000), Singh, Mbokodi & Msila (2004) point out that qualitative researchers generally rely on purposive selection of participants, and that qualitative researchers typically deal with small purposefully selected samples that can enrich data, and that ethnography, being a qualitative research method, regards any person from a group a good sample. The educators and learners represented a population of Xitsonga first
language speakers, whose target language is English.

The educators were involved in the selection process of grade 10 to 12 learners who were to write the discourse obligatory completion task. Forty four learners in total from five high schools wrote the task. Though not so significant for this study, participants were selected while taking into consideration gender representation. Schools were randomly visited for learner participation. A visit to each school was concluded within two hours. During such visits there was minimal disruption by the researcher to normal routine of activities within the schools.

3.5. INSTRUMENTS AND DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Two instruments were used for collecting data:

3.5.1. Identification of nonstandard constructions

This instrument (see annexure A) was aimed at educators in the study. Each educator was given a set of written non-standard sentences which were created by the researcher.

In order to make the study more manageable, the non-standard sentences were categorized into the following BSAE features (Makalela, 1999): Extension of progressive aspect to stative verbs; omission of the third person agreement marker; tense sequencing; invariant use of articles; idiosyncratic prepositional usage; redundant use of near-synonym; invariant use of tag questions; usage of resumptive pronouns; topicalization; and lexical – semantic shifts. These features were however not mentioned or written on the tool.

The educators were asked to identify the non-standard constructions and to correct them. Identification was done by underlining such non-standard constructions. Corrections were done by writing the correct constructions just above the underlined non-standard constructions on the very sheet the non-standard
constructions appear. This instrument was designed to capture data needed to provide evidence of the transfer of Xitsonga language features to English linguistic features. The captured data was analyzed, and figures derived from such an analysis were expected to provide evidence that Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE and this would lead to a better understanding of the BSAE phenomenon.

The following are examples for non-standard sentences (see annexure A):

- We have to study hard to can pass the examination
- I have 20 years old
- I am having a brother who works in Nelspruit.

3.5.2. Discourse obligatory completion task

This second instrument (see Annexure B) for data collection was completed by the 44 learners (grade 10, 11 & 12) from 5 of the 11 high schools in Thulamahashe circuit. The guided completion task was in the form of a composition of four paragraphs. The four paragraphs, each with a different tense, were started for them by the researcher to oblige them to use that tense for that particular paragraph (see Annexure B for the task sheet). The task was designed in a manner that was appealing to the learners because it was centred on an imaginary learner of their age; and that they were asked to give advice to the imaginary learner in the last paragraph.

Learners responded on sheets which were provided by the researcher. Learners were asked to follow the format of the discourse completion task handed to them. After learners have completed their tasks, the response sheets, and the discourse completion task sheets handed to them, were collected by the researcher for marking and collecting data.

When marking, the researcher collected data by writing down all the nonstandard sentences (whether classified as errors or deviations) made by learners. Both the
identification of nonstandard constructions by the educators, and the construction of nonstandard sentences by learners, complemented each other in determining mother tongue (here Xitsonga) transfer to the linguistic features of target language (here English).

3.6. Data Analysis Procedure

The data captured from the identification of nonstandard constructions by educators were analyzed for frequency counts. Analysis of their responses sought to establish frequencies through a mass count of (a) unidentified errors (UE); (b) appropriate corrections (AC); (c) inappropriate corrections (IC); (d) identified uncorrected errors (IUE). Through this count, a profile of standardized errors was drawn through the use of percentages. If there was, for example, a high percentage of “unidentified errors” or “inappropriate corrections” on errors, it would mean that the feature is so widespread that educators themselves did not notice it as error. Bar graphs were used to indicate the counts, with percentages on the vertical axis and BSAE features on the horizontal axis. From the discourse obligatory completion task by learners, data were collected by capturing all the sentences constructed with the influence of Xitsonga language structures. Percentages were used to determine the frequency of counts. A 100% count would mean that all learners did transfer Xitsonga language features to English linguistic features where such constructions would be classified under BSAE features.

Ellis (1996: 30) indicates that learners may use their L1 as a means of learning an L2. This would then be supportive of the aim of this study which is to determine whether Xitsonga (L1) linguistic features are transferred to English (L2) linguistic features. Such a transfer would result in the presence of Xitsonga language features in BSAE.
CHAPTER 4

4. DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

This part of the study reports on the results of data gathered from the responses made by educators on the non-standard sentences and the responses of learners to the discourse obligatory completion task.

4.2. Results and discussion

4.2.1. Educators' grammatical judgements

Here follows educators' responses on each of the selected BSAE features to determine whether educators with a Xitsonga language background do transfer their mother tongue language features to English linguistic features, which result in deviations from standard English norms. In the South African context, these deviations are classified as BSAE features. If Xitsonga language structures are thus transferred by its speakers to English linguistic features, it would suggest that Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE.

a. Idiosyncratic prepositional usage

The nonstandard constructions in this category involve deviations from standard English norms with regard to the use of prepositions. In studying their responses, educators failed to identify 55% of errors in sentences such as (1) and (2) below which illustrate idiosyncratic usages of prepositions:

1. The learners were singing with the top of their voices. [at]
2. I'm thankful for all the wonderful things my mother did to me. [for]
KEY:
AC = Appropriate Corrections
UE = Unidentified Errors
IC = Inappropriate Corrections
IUE = Identified Uncorrected Errors

A combination of the percentages of UE, IC, and IUE would be indicative of a widespread usage and acceptability of deviations from standard English norms among educators. Responses to these sentences are as follows: 33% appropriate corrections, 55% unidentified errors, 10% inappropriate corrections, and 2% identified uncorrected errors. Educators have failed to identify 55% of errors, with only 33% of errors identified and corrected appropriately. The overall lack of appropriate corrections of 67% (55% of UE + 10% of IC + 2% of IUE) reflects that this BSAE feature is so accepted among these educators with a Xitsonga language background that they did not notice it as error (see figure 1 above). If errors of this nature are unnoticed by educators in the teaching-learning situation, it would suggest that educators are part of the nativization and institutionalization of BSAE, thus bringing Xitsonga features to BSAE. The reason for this linguistic behaviour may be traced to the absence of prepositional structures in Xitsonga which makes it difficult for these BSAE speakers with Xitsonga language background to understand the
full meanings of the more than forty standard English prepositions (Makalela, 1999). In Xitsonga fixed inflections are used as place markers instead of prepositions, for example, the locative prefix and the suffix/e-/-i/-en are respectively used to mark places as in “e + ndlela + en” for “endleleni” which may be translated as “on/at/in the way/path/road” or the use of the locative prefix /le-/-i alone as in “e + kaya” for “ekaya” which may be translated as “at home”. The inability by educators to detect these errors indicates that they may not be too helpful to the learners to make them aware of this lack of prepositions in their mother tongue. It would seem that the 67% of lack of appropriate corrections of errors would, if anything, exacerbate the institutionalization of outer-circle English as learners would accept as standard English the nativized version spoken by educators.

b. Omission of the third person agreement marker

Omission of the third person agreement marker is one of the characteristic features of BSAE on which educators were tested. Sentences (3) and (4) illustrate this omission:

3. The old woman like cats. [likes]
4. She usually arrive here early everyday. [arrives]

Responses to these omissions are as follows: 50% appropriate corrections, 40% unidentified errors, 7% inappropriate corrections, and 3% identified but uncorrected errors (see figure 2 below). These figures indicate that educators could identify and appropriately correct only half the errors of this BSAE feature but failed to identify and correct the other 50% (40% of unidentified errors, 7% of inappropriate corrections, and 3% of identified but uncorrected errors) of errors resulting from the omission of the third person agreement marker. This overall lack of appropriate corrections reflects that this feature is so widespread that educators do not notice it as error. If half the errors have not been corrected by educators, it could be signalling that learners’ English usage would be influenced by both their educators and their mother tongue.
These omissions stem from Xitsonga substrate system. Unlike standard English which uses the third person agreement marker /-s/ according to the number of the subject, agreement in Bantu language structures is confused with an /-s/ being omitted (Makalela, 1999). The reason for these omissions is that morphological and syntactic structures which show agreement markers in Bantu languages are determined by nounclass prefixes (Makalela, 1999). The same logic applies in Xitsonga as in: “xitimela xi famba eziporweni” which is an equivalent of “a train moves on rails” and “switimela swi famba eziporweni” which is equivalent to “trains move on rails”. The noun class prefixes “xi” in “xitimela” (train) and “swi” in “switimela” (trains) become agreement markers as in “xi famba”, and “swi famba”. The verb “famba” (move/moves) in both sentences is the same regardless of the number of the subject: “xitimela” (train) is a singular subject, while “switimela” is a plural subject. This knowledge from Bantu language logic is ultimately mapped on to English linguistic structures to produce sentences such as (3) and (4) above.
c. Topicalization and modality markers

Sentences with topicalization and modality markers were put together for educators to identify. According to Mesthrie (1997), topicalization occurs when stressed parts of the sentence are placed at the subject position. According to Makalela (1999) BSAE speakers show stress by putting important (topical) issues at the initial position and as a result the standard English word order is affected. On the other hand, modality markers denote a degree of directness and politeness in a discourse. House and Kasper (1981) distinguish downgraders, which play down the force of impact an utterance has on the addressee, and upgraders, that increase the impact of the utterance. Makalela (1999) has found that prototypical downgraders are found in BSAE speakers with a Sepedi language background. In this study, BSAE speakers with a Xitsonga language background were tested for the usage of topicalization and modality markers in sentences such as the following:

5. This problem I will take it to court.
6. Myself I think I can say divorce is not a solution to marital problems.
7. In fact you have to do the work yourself.
8. Actually, they chose an appropriate venue.

Responses to these sentences were as follows: 47% appropriate corrections, 46% unidentified errors, 4% inappropriate corrections, and 3% identified uncorrected errors (see figure 3 below). The overall lack of appropriate corrections stands at 53% (46% of unidentified errors, 4% of inappropriate corrections, and 3% of identified uncorrected errors) which could indicate that these characteristic features of BSAE, resulting from mother tongue features transfer, have been stabilized and accepted as normal usage among Xitsonga speakers.
In sentence (5), which is an example of topicalization, word order is affected because of putting what is important to the speaker, namely “This problem”, at the initial position. More than 55% of these errors were not recognized as errors by educators. The reason for this failure is that sentence (5) has been constructed in line with Xitsonga language structures. The Xitsonga equivalent of sentence (5) is: “mhaka leyi ndzi ta yi yisa ehubyeni”. Foregrounding the phrase “This problem” has topicalized the sentence. For sentence (6), the responses are again influenced by Xitsonga language thinking where its speakers employ double or multiple downgraders (e.g. “I think + I can say”) to play down the impact of mentioning a seemingly offensive or disagreeable issue. Reducing the impact of an utterance is valued as a signal of politeness strategy common among speakers of Xitsonga. The figures drawn from the responses indicate that educators with Xitsonga language background have employed this strategy of politeness by using modality markers. Schmied (1991) indicates that these modality markers reflect a face-preserving culture that is deeply rooted in Black languages. The 53% of lack of appropriate corrections reflects that educators were looking at sentences with modality markers from the point of view of Xitsonga language logic of down playing the impact of mentioning a disagreeable or offensive issue as in sentence (6) above where the issue of “divorce” is down played. In Xitsonga topicalization could also be the result of the need for
“self-importance” such as in sentence (6) above where the pronoun “myself” is placed at
the subject position.

For further analysis, sentences (7) and (8) which contain fronting expressions “in fact” and
“actually” were singled out. Educators who responded appropriately to only one of the two
expressions were set aside. Those left for analysis were to have both expressions
appropriately corrected or inappropriately corrected. The responses were as follows: 70% of
educators failed to identify the two modality markers or fronting expressions as
deviations from standard English norm, with only 30% identifying them as error (see figure
4 below).

![Figure 4](image)

It is worth noting that when the two fronting expressions “in fact” and “actually” were put
together with other errors of this BSAE feature, only 46% of errors were unidentified.
When the two fronting expressions were singled out, 70% of errors were unidentified.
These figures could be indicating that the use of “in fact” and “actually” is widespread
amongst BSAE speakers with a Xitsonga language background, whose culture is that of
face-preserving. It would be logical to conclude that Xitsonga language logic, based on cultural thinking, is transferred to English linguistic features resulting in the presence of Xitsonga language features in BSAE.

The equivalents of the two fronting expressions “in fact” and “actually” are as follows: “in fact” is synonymously used as “in truth” and its equivalent is “entiyisweni”, while “actually” is “kahle-kahle”. These fronting expressions are used by BSAE speakers of Xitsonga background to “prepare” the addressee of what is to come which the speaker suspects won’t be “palatable” to the addressee, hence the use of modality markers as strategies for politeness in sentences such as: “entiyisweni [in fact] n’wana wa wena u suriwire etibukwini” which is the equivalent of “in fact your child has been removed from the register”. The use of the fronting expression “entiyisweni” [In fact] is believed to cushion the impact of bluntly saying: “your child has been removed from the register”. So, to reduce the impact to the addressee the speaker opts to use modality markers.

The 47% of appropriately corrected errors and the 46% of unidentified errors (see figure 3) is worth commenting that the positive (appropriate) and the negative (inappropriate) responses are almost 50-50. On the one hand it would mean that educators are aware of the English linguistic rules governing word order, on the other hand, mother tongue logic seem to have a “pulling force” from which they do not seem to completely get rid of. The result is that the target language is met “halfway” by the mother tongue. Such a transfer leads to the nativization of native English, and the institutionalization of BSAE.

d. Redundant use of near-synonyms

Redundant use of words which belong to the same meaning paradigm has been identified by Makalela (1999) as one of the characteristic features of BSAE. Sentences with redundancies such as in (9) below were presented to educators for identification of redundant constructions.

9. It is surprising that he repeated his bad behaviour again.
Responses indicate that BSAE speakers with a Xitsonga language background do use redundancies as it can be observed in the following counts: 74% appropriate corrections, 23% unidentified errors and 3% of inappropriate corrections (see figure 5 below).

The 74% of appropriate corrections indicates that educators are aware of this deviation from standard English norm even though this feature is very prevalent in Xitsonga language features. The equivalent of sentence (9) "He repeated his bad behaviour again" is "u engetile vubhihi bya yena nakambe". This logic is quite acceptable in Xitsonga where both "engetile" (repeated) and "nakambe" (again) are used together in one sentence. This knowledge from mother tongue is mapped on to English to produce sentences such as in (9) above. Xitsonga can even go further adding another redundant word to sentence (9): "u tlhele a engeta vubhihi bya yena nakambe". The redundant words here are: "tlhele" (gone back/regressed), "engeta" (repeated), and "nakambe" (again). The English version of this redundant sentence is: "He has regressed and repeated his bad behaviour again". This is an acceptable feature in Xitsonga.
Even though the 74% of appropriate corrections indicate some awareness of this error, the 23% of errors which were not identified raises some concern of passing over to learners' erroneous constructions as learners look up to their educators as role models of standard English norms.

**e. Invariant use of tag questions**

Tag questions are used indiscriminately in BSAE (Makalela, 1999). Sentences (10) and (11) below are some of the sentences which educators were expected to identify indiscriminate usage of such tag questions and correct them.

10. You can't cook, isn't it? [can you?]
11. They like oranges, isn't it? [don't they?]

Responses are as follows: 31% appropriate corrections, 37% inappropriate correction, 29% unidentified errors, and 3% of identified uncorrected errors (see figure 6 below).

![Invariants use of question tags](image)

In analyzing these responses, it is detected that there is a high degree of uncertainty amongst educators concerning the use of tag questions. Not only did educators fail to
identify errors (29%), but they also failed to correct errors which they have identified by underlining those errors. The inappropriate corrections standing at 37% is higher than the 31% of appropriate corrections. This adds to 69% (37% inappropriate corrections, 29% unidentified errors, and 3% of identified uncorrected errors) of the overall lack of appropriate corrections. An explanation for this indiscriminate usage of tag questions could be that there are no tag questions in Xitsonga. If we were to translate (10) and (11) directly, we would come up with constructions like: “a wu swi koti ku sweka, a ndzi ri?/ a hi swona?” and (11): “va rhandza malamula, a ndzi ri?/ a hi swona?” this is an alien way of asking questions in Xitsonga. For example, for sentence (10) a normal question in Xitsonga would be: “wa swi kota ku sweka xana/ke/xana ke?” or, for sentence (11): “va rhandza malamula xana/ke/xana-ke?” The expressions “xana/ke/xana-ke” have nothing to do with verb phrases as it is in standard English. The expressions xana/ke/xana-ke” only denote that a question is being asked.

This uncertainty amongst educators regarding tag usage may lead to random usage by learners as well. This indiscriminate usage of tag questions indicates that educators with a Xitsonga language background transfer what is a normal usage in their mother tongue to English linguistic features.

f. Tense Sequencing

Another BSAE feature on which the educators were tested is tense sequencing. Gough (1996) explains that BSAE speakers avoid using complex tenses in complex and compound sentences. Educators were asked to identify errors on sentences such as in (12) below:

12. The police arrived and arrest the thieves.

The first clause in sentence (12) is marked for simple past tense whereas the second clause is marked for simple present tense. This type of construction deviates from the standard English rule of tense sequence where the second clause normally takes the tense form of the first clause.
Responses to the given sentences show appropriate corrections of 75%, unidentified errors of 23%, and 2% of identified uncorrected errors (see figure 7 below).

According to these figures, the majority of educators are aware of this error. However, the 23% of unidentified errors plus the two percent of identified but uncorrected errors indicate that there is a significant presence of this error among the educators. The equivalent of sentence (12) is: "maphorisa ma fikile ma khoma makamba". The first clause is marked for simple past tense with the verb "fikile" (arrived), and the second clause is marked for simple present tense with the verb "khoma" (arrest). It would then be within logic to associate this feature with mother tongue influence from Xitsonga. This makes it possible to align with Makalela (1999) when saying that tense sequence in N.Sotho, Tshivenda, XiTsonga and other Black languages is flexible to allow the switch from past to present in complex sentences. This knowledge from mother tongue (here Xitsonga) is ultimately mapped onto English to produce sentences as in (12) above. In this manner, the English language is nativized resulting in English varieties such as BSAE in which traces of Xitsonga language features could be found.
g. Lexical-semantic shifts

Educators were tested for mother tongue influence on sentences with lexical-semantic shifts as in the following:

13. After the accident, I just told myself that I will be fine.
14. The boy is staying with relatives because his father is late.
15. Sorry sir, may I take my pen?
16. The man told everyone that he proposed the woman.

Responses are as follows: 79% of unidentified errors, 14% of appropriate corrections, and 7% of inappropriate corrections. A staggering 79% of the shifts in meaning were not recognized by educators. They neither saw the shifts in meaning as errors nor attempted to correct them. Only 14% of errors were recognised and corrected while 7% inappropriate corrections were made (see figure 8 below).
Very common in the lexical semantic shifts of non-standard English expressions is, according to Makalela (1999), the phrase “I told myself” (sentence 13) which is the equivalent of “I thought to myself”. The utterance “I told myself” is the result of mother tongue logic influence which in Xitsonga is an equivalent of “ndzi tibyerile” when one has taken a decision alone. Sentence (14) shows the shift in meaning of the word “late” for “dead” which, according to Makalela (1999), is common in BSAE speakers. In standard English “late” is used to refer to death when it is used as a pre-modifier of the noun-phrase as in “my late uncle” while “my uncle is late” would mean that he is not punctual. According to Schmied (1991) and Bamgbose (1998) the most frequently used expression both in South Africa and other African English speaking States is the idiosyncratic use of the word “sorry” as used in sentence (15) above. “Sorry” is used in standard English when one accepts blame for wrong doing, but in BSAE it is common to use this discourse marker to draw someone’s attention, and subordinate oneself before a higher-ranking person as it is customary for Blacks to show this gesture of respect. The word “proposed” is commonly used as in sentence (16) to mean declaring love for a woman, and it is understood across a wider section of the Black population, and in this study the Black population includes educators and learners with a Xitsonga language background. Educators failed to recognize 79% of errors emanating from shifts in meaning which leads to deviations from standard English norms. Failure to recognize these errors shows that the error is so widespread that it is accepted as normal usage by educators. It can be suggested that learners may be “adversely” affected by educators’ performance as learners look up to educators as carriers of standard English norms. The performance by educators confirms that first language features are transferred to the target language. In the context of this study, the results of such transfer are traced to BSAE linguistic features.

h. Usage of resumptive pronouns

Educators were tested for resumptive pronoun usage in sentences as in (17) below:

17. The girl she runs very fast.

The use of the pronoun “she” after the subject “the girl” makes the pronoun redundant and
deviates from standard English word order. Responses are as follows: 98.3% appropriate corrections with only 1.7% unidentified errors (see figure 9 below).

![Figure 9 Use of resumptive pronouns](image)

Based on these figures, educators are aware of this error and they have identified it as such. However, the 1.7% of unidentified errors could affect learners as it would be seen later in this study when analyzing learners' responses. Based on the 98% of appropriate corrections, it can be concluded that educators seem to be aware of the English rule on pronoun usage. The graph (figure 9 above) illustrates this very clearly: the errors are either identified (98.3%) or they are not (1.7%) with no in-betweens. If educators were not aware of the English rule on pronoun usage, responses could have been different as sentence (17) above is constructed according to Xitsonga language structures. The equivalent of sentence (17) is: "wa nhwana u tsutsuma ngopfu", not "wa nhwana ...tsutsuma ngopfu" as in English language rules. The "u" therefore is replaced by "she" in Xitsonga language structures which results in sentences such as in (17) above. The 1.7% suffices to conclude that a transfer of Xitsonga language features to English linguistic features does take place, in this case, with regard to the usage of resumptive pronouns. However, the figure (1.7%) indicates that this BSAE feature is not so widespread amongst educators.
i. Extension of progressive aspect to stative verbs

Sentences with progressive aspect extended to stative verbs were included for educators to identify errors. According to Makalela (1999) BSAE speakers extend the progressive aspect to stative verbs unlike standard English which distinguishes between action verbs and stative verbs where the former can be used with the progressive aspect /-ing/ as in "a girl is calling her mother" whereas the latter do not take this aspect. Sentences such as sentence (18) below were used:

18. I am having one sister who works in Nelspruit

Responses are as follows: 92.7% appropriate corrections, and 7.3% unidentified errors (see figure 10 below).

![Figure 10](image)

Judging by the responses as illustrated in figure 10, it could be concluded that educators were aware of the error of extending the progressive aspect to stative verb. However, it could also be possible that this feature is more dominant in the spoken communication than the written mode. Responses to this feature of extending the progressive aspect to stative verbs show an understanding by educators of rules governing this linguistic feature in English. It is worth noting that educators were either able to identify the errors and
appropriately correct them or they failed to identify them. Failing to identify 7.3% of errors would suggest that in their interaction with learners, this failure could have a negative impact on learners' English language usage.

j.Invariant use of articles

BSAE is characterized by the idiosyncratic use of articles which could probably be due to lack of this feature in African languages. Standard English follows definite/indefinite as the basic distinction, but this rule is not followed by BSAE speakers (Makalela, 1999). Educators in the study were tested on the use of articles as in example (19) below:

19. A boy and his friend ran down the street. As a friend was crossing a street, he was knocked down by a bicycle. The boy was unaware of what had happened to a friend as he was talking to the girl.

Responses were as follows: 46% unidentified errors, 36.7% appropriate corrections, 10% inappropriate corrections, and 6.6% identified but uncorrected errors (see figure 11 below).

![Figure 11: Invariant use of articles](chart.png)
These responses indicate that educators were not aware of this error and some sentences were unidentified and uncorrected. Errors which were not identified scored 46.7%, which is higher than the 36.7% of appropriate corrections. An overall percentage of idiosyncratic usage of articles stands at 62.6% (46.7% of unidentified errors + 10% of inappropriate corrections + 6.6% of uncorrected errors). This percentage (62.6%) signifies lack of understanding of English language rules governing the use of articles. Educators managed to identify 10% of errors but they did not attempt to correct them. This idiosyncratic use of articles could be traced to a lack of this feature in Xitsonga. The percentage for unidentified errors is higher (46.7%) than the percentage for appropriate corrections (36.7%), which would be indicative of the absence of this feature in Xitsonga. The equivalents of the first two sentences in (19) are as follows: "mufana wa munghana wa yena va tsutumile va ehla hi xitarata. loko munghana a ri karhi a tsemakanya xitarata, u tlumbiwile hi xikanyakanya". In the phrase "loko munhgana" there is no article between "loko" and "munghana" which is the case in Xitsonga language structures, while in English the equivalent phrase would read "when the friend". The lack of articles in Xitsonga is probably a major contributory factor to the displayed misunderstanding in the usage of articles. On the basis of this observations it can be concluded that traces of Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE.

4.2.2. Summary of educators’ responses

The results of educators’ responses are summarized in Table 1 below. The BSAE features are arranged as they were introduced in the study. Each feature shows the frequency of counts of appropriate corrections (AC); unidentified errors (UE); inappropriate corrections (IC); and identified uncorrected errors (IUE).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Appropriate Corrections (AC)</th>
<th>Unidentified Errors (UE)</th>
<th>Inappropriate Corrections (IC)</th>
<th>Identified Uncorrected Errors (IUE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement Marker</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topicalization</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near Synonyms</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tag questions</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense Sequence</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical Semantic Shifts</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resumptive Pronouns</td>
<td>98.3%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive Aspect</td>
<td>92.7%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this table, BSAE features are arranged as they were introduced in the study. The frequency of counts of AC, UE, IC and IUE are displayed across the table opposite each feature. The resumptive pronouns have the most frequency of counts of AC (98.3%). The interpretation could be that educators are aware of rules governing the use of pronouns in English language. However, what is of importance in this study is what educators could not identify as errors, and what they could not appropriately correct. Failure to identify
errors and failure to appropriately correct errors would be a confirmation that educators transfer Xitsonga language structures to English linguistic structures. It is of importance for this study to take note that lexical semantic shifts feature has the most frequency of counts of unidentified errors (79%), that invariant use of tag questions has the most frequency of counts (37%) of inappropriate corrections, and that under the column of unidentified errors (UE) it can be observed that there is no feature with a nil count of errors. This could be confirming that Xitsonga language features are transferred to English linguistic features. BSAE features with the most frequency of counts of UE, as in usage of lexical semantic shifts, would suggest that such errors are widespread amongst educators and that they accept them as normal usage. These figures would be in line with the aim and objectives of the study which investigate the presence of Xitsonga features in BSAE.

The next table gives a summary of educators’ responses starting with the feature with the most frequency of counts of unidentified errors (UE) to the lowest (see table 2 below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BSAE Features</th>
<th>Unidentified Errors (UE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Lexical semantic shifts</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Prepositions</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Articles</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Topicalization</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Agreement marker</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Tag questions</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Near synonyms</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Tense sequence</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Progressive aspect</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Resumptive pronoun</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In studying table 2 above the following comments can be made: The content of table 2 is arranged numerically for quick identification of those errors which were seen as normal usage by educators. The table shows the percentage of unidentified errors in each feature, starting with the feature with the highest frequency of counts to the lowest. This table makes it easy to view areas where mother tongue transfers are frequently taking place. The 79% of unidentified errors in sentences with lexical semantic shifts indicates that this feature is accepted in educational institutions as normal usage. This count (79%) of UE also exposes this feature as the highest area where mother tongue transfer to English features takes place among Xitsonga speakers. As this error is classified under BSAE features, this would mean the presence of Xitsonga language features in BSAE. As educators have failed to identify these errors, it would indicate that learners would be affected by the educators’ lack of awareness of standard English linguistic norms.

The 1.7% of unidentified errors of resumptive pronoun usage would indicate that educators were aware of this error even though traceable to Xitsonga logic. However, this low frequency of counts of unidentified errors does not mean that learners would not be affected by educators’ performance. On the contrary, learners would adopt as norm what they learn because they believe that what they learn from their educators is standard English norm. This summary also makes it easy to see that of all the BSAE features there is no 0% of unidentified errors. The absence of a 0% of unidentified errors indicates that in all of the ten categories of BSAE features educators were, to a lesser or higher extent, unable to detect errors. These BSAE features are characteristic of mother tongue logic transfer. The figures would then be interpreted to indicate that Xitsonga language features are transferred to English linguistic features which would mean that Xitsonga features are present in BSAE.

The trend which develops when studying table 1 above is that the counts for inappropriate corrections (IC) in all the features but one are lower than the appropriate corrections (AC). However, the trend is broken when it comes to the usage of tag questions. The inappropriate corrections (IC) for tag questions stands at 37% while the appropriate corrections is 31% (see table 3 below).
Table 3 above reveals that educators were aware of the errors caused by invariant use of tag questions but they could not correct some of the errors. It would seem that in the features where the IC is lower than the AC, educators had transferred their mother tongue language features but with tag questions, educators seem to have nothing to “fall back on” as this feature is absent in Xitsonga hence the inappropriate corrections of 37% + 29% of unidentified errors (see table 4 below) which is higher than 31% of appropriate corrections.
Table 4 below seeks to illustrate the extent of the transfer of Xitsonga language structures to the target language by adding the percentage of UE (unidentified errors) to the percentage of IC (inappropriate corrections). A high percentage of UE would show that that BSAE feature is widespread and accepted to Xitsonga BSAE speakers as norm. On the other hand, a high percentage of IC would indicate that educators were aware of the error but failed to correct it. The combination of UE and IC which equals the overall lack of AC (appropriate corrections), highlights the extent to which errors are accepted as normal usage in educational institutions. For this study the failure to identify errors, and the failure to correct errors appropriately, would mean that the transfer of Xitsonga language features to the target language (English) is taking place in institutions. Judging by these figures, it would suffice to conclude that Xitsonga features are present in BSAE.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Overall lack of appropriate corrections</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Lexical semantic shifts</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Tag question</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Prepositions</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Articles</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Topicalization</td>
<td>46%</td>
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<td>7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Resumptive pronoun</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KEY: Table 4: OAC = Overall lack of appropriate corrections
(failure to identify errors + failure to correct errors)
Table 4 above gives the overall lack of appropriate corrections for each BSAE feature starting with a feature which has the most frequency of counts to the lowest. Lexical semantic shifts feature is still at the top of the summary list at 86% followed by tag questions at 66%. This percentage (86%) reflects that errors caused by lexical semantic shifts are the most common for BSAE speakers with a Xitsonga language background. This would suggest that this feature is generally accepted as normal usage in educational institutions. The inappropriate corrections in tag questions has moved from being sixth (as in table 2) to the second slot as the second most common BSAE feature which educators accepted as normal usage. The IC of 37% plus the UE of 29% equals 66% of the overall lack of appropriate corrections. An explanation for this linguistic behavioural pattern is that this feature does not exist in Xitsonga, hence the high percentage of IC which stands at 37% which is the highest of all the IC's of the tabled BSAE features. While table 2 placed the invariant use of tag questions in 6th position, Table 4 seems to have placed the invariant use of tag question in its rightful place as it has the highest IC than all the others where educators could not correct the errors they had identified. The third BSAE feature, in table 4 is the idiosyncratic usage of prepositions which stands at 65%. Random usage of prepositions takes place amongst educators as this feature is not traceable to Xitsonga substrate system. If educators were unsure of which prepositions to use, learners might also be affected in the same manner. Any lack of clarity on the correct usage of English linguistic features by educators may lead to random usage by learners as well. Random usage of preposition is characteristic of BSAE features. The responses of educators to the usage of this BSAE feature confirm that errors made by Xitsongga speakers could be traced to BSAE.

4.2.3. Learners' responses

Learners, on the other hand, were given an obligatory writing task where they were expected to write four paragraphs of different tenses (present indefinite tense, present continuous tense, past tense and future tense). The aim was to determine if the sentences learners constructed had traces of Xitsonga language features in them. The nonstandard constructions were categorized into linguistic properties of BSAE according to Makalela’s (1999) categorization of BSAE features. These nonstandard constructions were analyzed
to establish frequencies of counts for each feature through the use of percentages. Analysis of the collected data proved Selinker (1972) right that standardized errors tend to persist in one’s target language no matter what the age group of the learner or amount of explanation and instructions he receives. The non-standard constructions written by learners were grouped into five BSAE categories:

- omission of the third person agreement marker
- usage of resumptive pronouns
- idiosyncratic prepositional usage
- tense sequencing
- usage of modality markers

**a. Omission of the third person agreement marker**

In marking sentences which learners have written in their controlled writing task, the most common error learners made is the omission of the third person agreement marker. All the learners (100%) have constructed sentences in which they have omitted the third person agreement marker as in sentence (20) below:

20. On weekdays Tsakani **go** to school [goes]

As all learners have constructed sentences in which they have omitted third person agreement marker, there has to be a reason why this error is dominant amongst learners. Makalela (1999) indicates that standard English uses the third person agreement marker *-s* according to the number of the subject. However, BSAE speakers omit the *-s* because the morphological and syntactic structures in Bantu languages, which show the agreement markers, are determined by the noun class prefixes. This seems to be true of the Xitsonga language structures based on the 100% figure. Sentences such as the following suffice to explain how Xitsonga language logic works: “wanuna wa famba hi masiku” [a man walks/goes everyday], and “vavanuna va famba hi masiku” [men walk/go everyday]. The noun class prefixes “wa” and “va” are the agreement markers determined
by the noun class prefixes and not by the format of the verb, for example “famba” (goes/go) remains the same for both subjects “wanuna” which is singular, and “vavanuna” which is plural. The fact that all learners (100%) have constructed sentences omitting the third person agreement marker could be an indication that knowledge from their mother tongue (Xitsonga) is mapped on to English (the target language) linguistic features to produce sentences like (20) above. The transfer of Xitsonga language features to English linguistic features leads to deviations from standard English norms where such transfers are classified as BSAE features.

In comparison, educators have failed to identify 40% of errors caused by the omission of the third person agreement marker while 100% of learners have constructed sentences omitting the third person agreement marker. It would be reasonable to assume that if educators have failed to identify errors of this BSAE feature the situation could affect learners. Learners look up to educators as speakers of standard English and they accept what they are taught as norm, hence their performance on this feature. The fact that educators have failed to identify some omissions, and that learners have constructed sentences omitting the third person agreement marker could indicate that Xitsonga language structures are transferred to English linguistic features. The result of this transfer could mean the presence of Xitsonga language features in BSAE. These findings could thus contribute to a better understanding of BSAE.

b. Usage of resumptive pronouns

Thirty five percent of learners have constructed sentences with pronoun redundancies which is a deviation from standard English word order (see sentence 21 below).

21. Tsakani’s brother he likes to play soccer [Tsakani’s brother likes to play soccer].

The use of the pronoun “he” after the subject “Tsakani’s brother” makes the pronoun “he” redundant and deviates from the standard English word order. The usage of resumptive pronoun can be traced to Xitsonga language logic. The Xitsonga equivalent of sentence
(21) above is “bhuti wa Tsakani u tsakela ku tlanga bholo”. To a learner with a Xitsonga language background it is unheard of to have the Xitsonga equivalent of sentence (21) above without the “u”, it would sound incomplete to a learner who knows his/her mother tongue well to say “bhuti wa Tsakani… tsakela ku tlanga bholo”. To them, something is missing in this sentence. As a result of this logic, the standard English version of sentence (21) “Tsakani’s brother likes to play football” does not sound complete, hence the use of resumptive pronoun “he” to “complete” it. Deducing from the figures obtained, it can be concluded that Xitsonga language structures are transferred to English linguistic structures, a transfer that would result in non-standard English constructions that would be classified under BSAE features. A conclusion could be made that Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE.

Educators have failed to identify 1.7% of errors caused by usage of resumptive pronouns, while learners (35%) have constructed sentences with these redundancies. Not only do these figures indicate that Xitsonga language features are transferred to English linguistic structures, but they also indicate that no matter how little the presence of deviations from correct English usage amongst educators, learners are affected by educators’ nativized English.

c. Idiosyncratic prepositional usage

BSAE characteristically deviates from standard English norms with regard to the use of prepositions. Mother tongue plays a significant role in these deviations. Black languages use fixed inflections as place markers (Makalela, 1999). Learners in the study have proved Makalela (1999) right by constructing sentences with these deviations as in the following sentences:

22. Nkiru goes at home in the afternoon [Nkiru goes home in the afternoon].
23. Tsakani’s parents are good from the children [Tsakani’s parents are good to the children].
24. Her brother likes to take care about the garden [Her brother likes to take care of the garden].
The above sentences contain the actual prepositions used by learners in the study. Prepositions in the sentences above are so way off from standard English usage which shows indiscriminate usage of prepositions. These deviations from standard English norms are also proof that these learners’ mother tongue (here Xitsonga) has no prepositions but use fixed inflections as place markers. To explain this linguistic feature, sentence (22) “Nkiru goes at home in the afternoon”, is singled out for further explanation. The Xitsonga equivalent of sentence (22) is: “Nkiru u muka ekaya ni ndzhenga”. In Xitsonga the locative prefix le- is used to mark places as in “e-Afrika Dzonga” or “e-Nghilandhi” to read “eAfrika Dzonga” or “eNghilandhi” which may be translated as “in South Africa” or “in England” respectively. To a learner with a Xitsonga background to say “She goes home” does not sound complete without “at”. This shows the influence which mother tongue logic has on the target language. The almost bizarre prepositional usage in sentences (23), (24), (25), and (26) highlight the fact that absence of prepositional structures in Xitsonga makes it difficult for learners to understand the full meaning of English prepositions.

Random usage of prepositions is one of the BSAE features. If learners have constructed sentences with prepositions used randomly, it can be concluded that Xitsonga logic is present in BSAE. Forty five percent of learners have used prepositions idiosyncratically in their sentences while educators failed to identify 55% of prepositional errors. The 55% of unidentified errors by educators may affect learners as learners tend to accept what they are taught as standard English. It can thus be concluded that educators’ nativized English together with the influence or the “pull” from the learners’ mother tongue (Xitsonga), have played a role in the learners’ construction of non-standard English sentences or sentences which deviate from standard English linguistic patterns. Such deviations are classified as BSAE features. This would suggest that Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE.

d. Tense sequencing
Sixty five percent of learners have constructed sentences in which the first clause is marked for simple past tense whereas the second clause is marked for simple present tense. Gough (1996) indicates that BSAE speakers avoid using complex tenses in complex and compound sentences. This avoidance leads to constructions which deviate from the standard English rule of tense sequence where the second clause normally takes the tense form of the first clause. Makalela (1999) states that this feature can be associated with mother tongue influence where tense sequence in African languages is flexible to allow the switch from past to present in complex sentences. Learners in the study have done just that-switching from past to present in constructing complex sentences as in sentence (27) below:

27. Tsakani visited Durban and she enjoy herself very much [enjoyed]

In constructing sentences as in sentence (27) above, learners have applied the flexibility of tense sequence applicable in their mother tongue to English linguistic features. The first clause in sentence (27) is in simple past tense while the second clause is in the simple present tense. Learners have switched from the past tense “visited” in the first clause to present tense verb “enjoy” in the second clause. This flexibility of tense sequence can be traced to Xitsonga language features as can be seen in sentences such as in: “wanuna u ng yenile evhengeleni a xava xihuku”. The equivalent of this is “a man went into a shop and buy a hat”. In standard English rule of tense sequence the second clause “and buy a hat” takes the tense form of the first clause “a man went into a shop”, which would then read “a man went into the shop and bought a hat”. However, in Xitsonga the verb “xava” (buy) in the second clause does not take the past tense form of the verb “ngyenile” (went into) of the first clause. If 65% of the learners, according to the result of the study, have constructed sentences of this nature, it would then mean that the learners' mother tongue structures have been transferred to English linguistic features the result thereof being the presence of these non-standard constructions in BSAE.

While 65% of learners have constructed sentences with tense deviations, educators have failed to identify 25% (23% UE + 2% IUE) of errors of this nature. These figures indicate that deviations resulting from tense sequencing are widespread among learners. However,
no matter how low the percentage involving educators’ inability to detect these deviations, the consequences of such deviations are observed in learners’ performance. The 65% of learners’ performance also indicate that educators who are already BSAE speakers themselves teach learners who unconsciously adopt these deviations as normal usage.

e. Modality markers

While educators were to identify modality markers in sentences, learners’ written tasks were scrutinized for the presence of modality markers. 28.3% of learners had indeed constructed sentences with modality markers. It is worth mentioning that learners who constructed sentences with modality markers were those learners with fewer deviations in their compositions. The learners who constructed sentences with too many deviations from standard English norms did not have any modality markers. Educators in the study could not identify 46% of modality markers in their given sentences. Learners have constructed sentences such as the following:

28. To me I think it is a bad decision to leave school [It is a bad decision to leave]
29. I will say that you must stick to your education [You must stick to your education]
30. I want to give you advice, don’t leave school. [Dcn’t leave school]

Modality markers, according to Makalela (1998), denote a degree of directness and politeness in a discourse. House and Kasper (1981) distinguish two categories: downgraders, which play down the force of impact an utterance has on the addressee and upgraders that increase the impact of the utterance. BSAE speakers with a Xitsonga background seem to prefer downgraders as can be observed in sentences (28), (29) and (30) above. Sentence (28), for example, seem to be politely saying that “it is a bad decision to leave school” but only “to me” the speaker, and not to the addressee. “I will say that” in sentence (29) the speaker is also preparing the listener for what is coming next, which is probably a disagreeable issue. It is a common practice for Xitsonga speakers to start their speech with words like “ndzi ta vula leswaku” (I will say that) or “ndzi nga vula
"leswaku" (I can say that). For a BSAE speaker with a Xitsonga background to say directly to the addressee “stick to your education” seem to be too direct and harsh or too much of a command. Sentence (30) also prepares the listener of what is to come after the words: “I want to give you advice”, as this is believed to cushion the impact of what is to follow. Reducing the impact of an utterance is highly valued as a signal of politeness strategy common among BSAE speakers (Makalela, 1998). This politeness strategy is also very common among BSAE speakers with a Xitsonga language background. Mother tongue, here Xitsonga, has thus played a role in the production of these expressions which, according to Makalela (1998), reflect a face-preserving culture that is deeply rooted in Black languages. Sentences constructed with these politeness strategies are classified under BSAE features. As these strategies are used from the Xitsonga point of view it would mean that Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE.

The 28.3% of learners have constructed sentences with modality markers. This figure may lead to the assumption that usage of modality markers is not widespread amongst learners. On the contrary, Learners who wrote better constructions seemed to be the ones “capable” of using these expressions. The trend seems to be that as BSAE speakers progress to the level of the “Black educated elite” so increases the usage of modality markers. This analogy could be linked to the responses of educators when they were given two sentences with modality markers “in fact” and “actually”. These two fronting expressions were left intact by 70% of educators which would mean that educators accepted them as normal usage. This failure to detect modality markers can lead to the conclusion that the usage of modality markers is widespread and understood across a wider spectrum of the educated Black population with a Xitsonga language background. If this be the case, then Xitsonga language features should be present in BSAE.

Educators were tested on ten BSAE features involving tense logic and discourse patterns to determine if Xitsonga language logic plays role in entrenching these linguistic forms. Educators’ performances have confirmed that Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE by transferring Xitsonga features to English linguistic features. With learners’ performances, only five BSAE features were found to have formed a general trend in their written tasks. The reason for the absence of the other five BSAE features could be the
result of avoidance as most learners probably do not have enough vocabulary yet to construct sentences which, for instance, include topicalization or tag questions which learners have completely steered clear of.

The result of learners' performance is summarized in table (5) below starting with a BSAE feature with the highest percentage to the lowest percentage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BSAE feature</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Omission of the third person agreement marker</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Tense sequencing</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Idiosyncratic prepositional usage</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Usage of resumptive pronouns</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Modality markers</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interpretation of this table is that the most common error made by learners as a result of the influence of Xitsonga language logic on English tense logic and discourse patterns is the omission of the third person agreement marker which was made by all learners (100%). This is closely followed by tense sequence errors made by 65% of learners; idiosyncratic prepositional usage stands at 45.7%; with 35% of learners using pronouns resumptively; and followed by 28% of learners using modality markers. These figures confirm that one's mother tongue (here Xitsonga) logic does have an influence on the outcome of the linguistic structures of the target language which, as expected in this study would result in BSAE. This would then be interpreted to suggest that Xitsonga features are traceable in BSAE.
4.2.4. Educators’ and learners’ responses

In this subsection the responses of educators and learners were studied together for comparison. Only the BSAE features they have in common were compared (see figure 6 below):

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Unidentified errors by educators</th>
<th>Learners with errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Omission of third person agreement marker</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense sequencing</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage of resumptive pronoun</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idiosyncratic prepositional usage</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>45.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usage of modality markers</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In studying table (6) above, the pattern or trend created is that whatever error educators failed to identify, the number of learners more than doubled the percentage of that error in their sentence constructions. Three out of the five cases in table (6) above prove this point. This trend is visually illustrated by using bar graphs as in figure (12) below.
Figure 12 is of a comparative nature, comparing educators' responses and learners' performances. The percentages for failure to identify errors on the part of educators is indicated by grey bars in figure (12) above while the percentages for learners who constructed sentences with errors are indicated by the black bars. The first three sets of bars (representing omission of the third person agreement marker, tense sequencing, and resumptive pronouns) illustrate that errors made by learners in the study have exceeded errors made by educators: Educators failed to identify 40% of errors in sentences where
the third person agreement marker was omitted while 100% of learners constructed sentences omitting the third person agreement marker; 23% of errors caused by tense sequencing were not identified by educators while 65% of learners constructed sentences with errors of the tense; and thirdly, while educators failed to identify 1.7% of resumptive pronouns 35% of learners constructed sentences with resumptive pronouns. These figures may illustrate that in addition to the “pull” of mother tongue (Xitsonga) logic on learners, learners are also adversely influenced by their educators who are already speakers of a nativized variety of English. The most remarkable of all these figures is the 100% figure of learners who have all omitted the third person agreement marker in most of the sentences which called for the third person agreement marker. This would lead to these conclusions: Xitsonga language features are transferred to English linguistic features; Xitsonga linguistic features are present in BSaE; and that learners' performance (construction of non-standard English sentences), is affected or influenced by their educators' nativized English and by their mother tongue “grammars”.

In doing further calculations, it is observed that in 60% of the five BSaE features, learners' errors are more than those for educators (the first three pairs of bars). The last two pairs of bars in figure (12) above indicate that learners have, in two BSaE features, done less errors than educators: Idiosyncratic prepositional usage by educators is 55% while that for learners stands at 45%; and usage of modality markers is 46% for educators and 28% for learners. This would mean that in only 40% of the cases did learners make fewer errors than educators. An explanation for this change in pattern could be attributed to either of three factors: one could be that the task at hand for learners offered no chance for them to make “expected” BSaE errors; or that learners avoided venturing into linguistic features they were unfamiliar with and simply stuck to what they knew or that learners had not yet reached a stage of “the educated Black elite” to use expression such as “in fact”, “this issue”, “in my opinion” or “according to me” or “actually” which were seen as normal usage by educators. For example, learners have completely avoided using tag questions. Tag questions which were used idiosyncratically for educators to correct, were seen as normal usage by educators where 69% of errors were left unidentified and uncorrected. Another feature which seemed to be accepted by educators concerned lexical semantic shifts which rocketed to 79% of unidentified errors. It would seem that Learners avoided
complicating their sentences. However, the trend which was displayed by the first three sets of bars in figure (12) could probably not have been broken had learners been given a task similar to that of educators.

Conspicuous by their absence in sentences constructed by learners are the errors of extending the progressive aspect to stative verbs. According to Makalela (1999) speakers of BSAE use this aspect with all verbs as in sentence (31) below.

31. The land is belonging to us [belongs]

However, in this study, not one learner has made the error of extending the progressive aspect to stative verbs. Learners had ample opportunity to create such sentences as the context of their guided writing task was obligatory, for example, paragraph 2 of their writing task read: “write about Tsakani’s family (parents, brothers and sisters). Learners could have constructed sentences like, “Tsakani is having two sisters and one brother”, for example, but they did not. An explanation for the absence of this error could be traced to their mother tongue substrate system. Xitsonga linguistic features do not distinguish between stative verbs and action verbs as distinguished in standard English. For instance, the equivalent of the correct version of sentence (31) above is “Tiko i ra hina”. [The land belongs to us]. Judging by the Xitsonga equivalent of sentence (31) above, learners do not have anything to transfer from their mother tongue structures to English linguistic features, which would result in stative verbs like “belonging”. However, educators have failed to recognize 7.3% of errors caused by extending the progressive aspect to stative verbs. The fact that educators did fail to identify some errors of this nature, no matter how low the percentage of unidentified errors, it can be concluded that this error does exist amongst BSAE speakers with a Xitsonga language background, and that learners might have simply chosen not to write such sentences. However, the fact that learners did not construct sentences with this BSAE feature and that educators failed to identify only 7.3% of errors in this category would indicate that this BSAE feature is not so widespread amongst Xitsonga speakers but it may be possible that this feature could be traced in the spoken version than in the written mode. Two other features of BSAE, which learners did not venture into, are the invariant use of articles and the redundant use of near-synonyms.
Similarly, the reason for such absence could be that the task for learners was such that learners could opt to write what they knew or wanted.

4.3. Conclusion:

The figures obtained from the responses of educators and performances of learners have given evidence that Xitsonga language features are transferred to English linguistic features. As the results of such transfers are classified under BSAE features, it can be concluded that Xitsonga linguistic features are present in BSAE.
Chapter 5

5. SUMMARY OF RESEARCH, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter concludes the research. It provides the following: summary of the study, findings, recommendations and conclusion.

5.2. Summary of the study

Chapter 1 gave the general introduction to the study. It introduced the aim and objectives of the study. The study investigated the transfer of Xitsonga (mother tongue) language structures to English (target language) linguistic features. The expected result was the presence of Xitsonga language structures in BSAE. The objectives of the study were as follows:

- To examine writing protocols among high school learners with a Xitsonga language background with regard to mother tongue logic transfer to the target language.

- To determine the linguistic deviations that have been institutionalized among educators with a Xitsonga language background.

With regard to the first objective data were collected and analysed from the writing samples done by the learners to test linguistic deviations (see annexure B) from standard English norm. In order to achieve the second objective, educators were given grammar judgement tests for traces of linguistic deviations from standard English norms.

Chapter 1 also included background information to the study. The above provided a "map" for the researcher to achieve the aim and objectives of the study.
Chapter 2 provided a detailed literature review within the framework of World Englishes with reference to BSAE under the following:

- English in South Africa
- Developments of the varieties of languages in second language acquisition
- Emergence and spread of Black South African English
- Features of Black South African English. These features were applied in accordance with Makalela’s (1999) categorization as follows:

  - Tense sequencing
  - Idiosyncratic prepositional usage
  - Extension of progressive aspect to stative verbs
  - Redundant use of near-synonyms
  - Usage of resumptive pronouns
  - Invariant use of tag questions
  - Topicalization
  - Omission of the third person agreement marker
  - Invariant use of articles
  - Lexical-semantic shifts

The literature showed that BSAE is a product of mother tongue transfer of Black indigenous language structures to English features. It also showed that BSAE is a new field which needs more research. Calls for the recognition of BSAE were also made in the literature reviewed.

Chapter 3 gave a detailed description of the research design and methods used in the study. The qualitative research method was used. This enabled the researcher to achieve
the aims and objectives of the research. Data were collected in the following ways: educators were tested on grammatical judgement; and learners were tested on writing protocols after which data was collected and analysed. Through the usage of these instruments for collecting data, and the use of data analysis procedures, the aim and objectives of the study were successfully achieved.

In chapter 4 the data collected were analysed and interpreted through schematic analysis and usage of tables. The analysis and interpretation of the findings are summarized in 5.3 below.

5.3. Findings

The findings of the research revealed that educators transfer their mother tongue structures to English language structures. For example, educators could not identify more than three quarters of errors caused by lexical semantic shifts. Educators could not identify 79% of these errors. One possible explanation for this failure is that educators have accepted lexical semantic shifts as normal usage in institutions. These shifts are traceable to Xitsonga “grammars”. One other finding which may confirm that Xitsonga features are transferred to English features is that no single feature had all its errors identified by educators. The least of them all was the 1.7% of unidentified errors of resumptive pronouns. This count does not in any way suggest that there are no transfers taking place in this category. A logical conclusion is that educators transfer their mother tongue structures to English linguistic features where such transfers are categorized under BSAE features.

The data collected from learners have also confirmed that learners transfer their mother tongue language structures to English features. One example which confirms this claim is the instance where learners (100%) have constructed sentences omitting the third person agreement marker. This omission is traceable to Xitsonga features. If learners have omitted the third person agreement marker in their constructions, and educators have failed to identify 40% of errors in this category, a fair conclusion could be reached that learners and educators are transferring mother tongue structures to English linguistic
features.

In line with the aim and objectives of the study, these findings have proven that Xitsonga structures are transferred to the linguistic structures of English. It can thus safely be concluded that Xitsonga features are present in BSAE and that both educators and learners are part of the nativization of the English language.

In analyzing data, it was observed that educators could be part of the institutionalization of BSAE. Where educators have failed to identify an error in one of the categories, learners have more than doubled that percentage in constructing sentences with errors of the same category, for example, when educators failed to identify 40% of errors caused by omitting the third person agreement marker, 100% of learners made this error. In “tense sequencing”, where educators failed to identify 23% of errors in this category, 65% of learners produced sentences of this error. These findings reveal that educators are responsible for macro-acquisition and are thus agents of institutionalization. Nativization and institutionalization are stages, necessitated by second language speakers, through which a target language has to go. The result of these stages for the English language is the development of BSAE. If English (the target language) is going through these stages, and if these stages are necessitated by Xitsonga speakers it can be concluded that the aims and objectives of the study have been met: that Xitsonga features are present in BSAE.

The study has, on the other hand, revealed that learners, fully equipped with innate “grammars” (Lightfoot & Fasold: 2006), also play their own part in producing sentences which are traceable to their mother tongue substrate system. According to Lightfoot & Fasold (2006), people are “preprogrammed” with principles of grammar which characterize the structure underlying their linguistic capacity. Figures in this study show that educators failed to identify 7.3% of errors stemming from extending the progressive aspect to stative verbs. However, not one learner constructed a single sentence containing errors of this category. The expected trend, according to this study, in comparing educators’ and learners’ performances was that learners should have doubled or tripled the 7.3% in making errors of extending the progressive aspect to stative verbs, but they did not. An explanation for this could be that the extension of the progressive aspect to stative verbs
is not traceable to Xitsonga language structures. On the other hand, a BSAE feature which is traceable to Xitsonga language structures as was the case with omitting the third person agreement marker; learners have constructed sentences with this error. Learners have actually swung from 0 to 100% of non-error and error-constructions respectively. If learners had a zero percent on the feature not traceable to their mother tongue language structures and a 100% on the feature traceable to Xitsonga language structures, it can be concluded that learners come equipped with “grammars” (Lightfoot & Fasold: 2006) of their own which would influence their performance besides the influence of their educators’ already nativized contributions. A summary of these findings with regard to mother tongue transfer to the target language, which I choose to call “The kite-transfer”, can be schematically presented as follows:

Figure 13
Mother tongue-target language transfer: “The kite-transfer”

This schematic presentation shows that the learner receives innate knowledge or “grammars” from mother tongue, and the innate knowledge is mapped on to the target language. During interaction, the learner is influenced on two fronts: the innate knowledge from his/her mother tongue and the nativized English version from the educator. In this
study, transfer (educator to learner) could be exacerbated by the fact that both the educator and the learner have a common language background. The end product of these transfers of linguistic features from mother tongue to English by both educators and learners is BSAE. It can thus be concluded that Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE.

5.4. Recommendations

The findings have shown that Xitsonga language features are transferred to English language features by both educators and learners. It is recommended that awareness of this transfer and its impact on present class room standards be made through writing of manuals for educators.

The findings have also revealed that the progressive aspect was irregular and least institutionalized. This area needs further research among Xitsonga speakers. It is recommended that students doing research on BSAE can take this aspect deeper.

It is also recommended that large scale research be done to test the findings of this study as the study was limited in scope and depth.

The transfer of mother tongue features to English features suggests that BSAE is used in class rooms. It is therefore recommended that BSAE be acknowledged as a third additional language, and that manuals be developed in this regard for dissemination to relevant stake holders.

5.5 Conclusion

This study aimed at determining the presence of Xitsonga language features in BSAE by investigating if Xitsonga features are transferred to English language. Results of the analysis have confirmed that mother tongue transfer does take place. The aims and objectives of the study have therefore been successfully met: that Xitsonga language features are present in BSAE. Contrary to the view that educators are responsible for the institutionalization of BSAE, this study has shown that learners are also responsible for their own non-standard constructions which are traceable to BSAE.
REFERENCES


Mazrui, A.M. 2002. 'The English language in African Education: dependency and


ANNEXURE A

IDENTIFICATION OF NON-STANDARD CONSTRUCTIONS

Decide whether the sentences hereunder are standard or non-standard English. Underline the faulty parts or the non-standard constructions and then write the correct word/s above the underlined word/s or delete what is unnecessary.

a. The man is wanting to marry that woman

b. The girl has 20 years

c. This land is belonging to us

d. That student is knowing all the answers

e. I'm having one sister who works in Nelspruit.

f. What do you meaning by that?

a. Tomas does his work very well, so does the girls.

b. The old woman have many cats

Nxalati usually arrive here very early in the morning

Everybody have arrived already

a. The women went to Durban and buy clothes

b. The street children come here everyday and begged for food
My grandmother baked a cake and we eat it.

The police arrived and arrest the thieves.

a. There is no transport in rural areas, so children go to school with legs.

b. The child was looking attentively to what was happening.

The learners were singing with the top of their voices

The other children were screaming for me because I did not sweep the class

I'm very thankful for all the wonderful things my mother did to me.

5. (a) I searched for the book everywhere but I can't see it

(b) You have to study very hard to can pass the examination

(c) Tsakani's father is a preacher while her brother is a cooker in the local hotel

(d) Me and you will go together

6. a. Our school gets 100% pass rate for the Matric results since from 1999.

b. It is very surprising that he repeated his bad behaviour again

c. After a decade of 10 years things will be better

d. All the children were given an opportunity time to voice their opinions.
When I bake I take my flour and mix it with my sugar and my water.

7. a. They have arrived, isn’t it?

   b. He is a good fellow, is he?

   c. You can’t cook, isn’t it?

   d. Khensile likes oranges, is it?

   Our visitors will be here soon, isn’t it?

8. a. The two boys they are in class.

   b. This girl she can run very fast

   c. The problem it can be solved right now

   d. The wife and the husband they love each other

9. a. This issue I will tell my children

   My children I will see them in the morning

   Myself, I think I can say divorce is not a solution

   i. In fact I did not write your test last week sir.

   ii. Why didn’t you?

   iii. Actually, I was not at school.
According to me I think all workers should be given a raise.

A boy and his dog ran down the street. As a dog was crossing the street, it was nearly knocked down by a car. A boy was unaware of what could have happened to a dog as he was talking to a girl he met on the way.

11. a. After the accident, I just told myself that I will be fine

b. Sorry Sir, may I take my pen?

c. The boy is staying with relatives because his father is late.

d. That man is a very important somebody in the community.

e. Pass my regards to your family.

f. The man was excited and told everyone that he proposed the woman

g. My parents came and collected me from school.
ANNEXURE B

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK

Topic: Tsakani, 16, is in Grade 10.....

Instruction:
Complete the following paragraphs about Tsakani. Each paragraph indicates what you are supposed to write. Write a full page or more on the sheets provided.

Paragraph 1: What does Tsakani do on weekdays / during the week?

On weekdays Tsakani .........................

Paragraph 2: Write something about Tsakani's family members (brothers, sisters and parents)

..................................................

Paragraph 3: Last year Tsakani visited her aunt during school holidays....

......................... (tell about the visit)

Paragraph 4: Tsakani wants to leave school to join a band of singers.
Tell her what you think of her decision; also give her advice.

Tsakani, I heard that ..............................
happened to a dog as he was talking to a girl he met on the way.

11. a. After the accident, I just told myself that I will be fine

b. Sorry Sir, may I take my pen?

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On weekdays Tsakani ___________________________

Paragraph 2: Write something about Tsakani's family members (brothers, sisters and parents)

...........................................................

Paragraph 3: Last year Tsakani visited her aunt during school holidays....

................................. (tell about the visit)

Paragraph 4: Tsakani wants to leave school to join a band of singers.

Tell her what you think of her decision; also give her advice.

Tsakani, I heard that ____________________________
10. A boy and his dog ran down the street. As the dog was crossing the street, it was nearly knocked down by a car. A boy was unaware of what could have happened to a dog as he was talking to a girl he met on the way.

11. a. After the accident, I just told myself that I will be fine.
   b. Sorry Sir, may I take my pen?
   c. The boy is staying with relatives because his father is late.
   d. That man is a very important somebody in the community.
   e. Pass my regards to your family.
   f. The man was excited and told everyone that he proposed the woman.
   g. My parents came and collected me from school.
ANNEXURE A

IDENTIFICATION OF NON-STANDARD CONSTRUCTIONS

Decide whether the sentences hereunder are standard or non-standard English. Underline the faulty parts or the non-standard constructions and then write the correct word/s above the underlined word/s or delete what is unnecessary.

1. a. The man is wanting to marry that woman
   b. The girl has 20 years old
   c. This land is belonging to us
   d. That student is knowing all the answers
   e. I'm having one sister who works in Nelspruit.
   f. What do you meaning by that?

2. a. Tomas does his work very well, so does the girls.
   b. The old woman have many cats
   c. Nxalati usually arrive here very early in the morning
   d. Everybody have arrived already

3. a. The women went to Durban and buy clothes
   b. The street children come here everyday and begged for food
   c. My grandmother baked a cake and we eat it.
d. The police arrived and arrested the thieves.

a. There is no transport in rural areas, so children go to school with legs.

b. The child was looking attentively to what was happening.

c. The learners were singing with the top of their voices

d. The other children were screaming for me because I did not sweep the class.

e. I'm very thankful for all the wonderful things my mother did to me.

5. (a) I searched for the book everywhere but I can't see it.

(b) You have to study very hard to pass the examination.

© Tsakani’s father is a preacher while her brother is a cooker in the local hotel.

You and me?

(d) Me and you will go together

6. a. Our school gets 100% pass rate for the Matric results since from 1999.

b. It is very surprising that he repeated his bad behaviour again.

C. After a decade of 10 years, things will be better.

d. All the children were given an opportunity to voice their opinions.

f. When I bake I take my flour and mix it with my sugar and my water.
7. a. They have arrived, isn't it? ✗
   b. He is a good fellow, is he? ✗
   c. You can't cook, isn't it?
   d. Khensile likes oranges, is it? isn't it?
   e. Our visitors will be here soon, isn't it?

8. a. The two boys they are in class.
   b. This girl she can run very fast
   c. The problem it can be solved right now
   d. The wife and the husband they love each other

9. I will tell my children about this issue
   a. This issue I will tell my children
   b. My children I will see them in the morning
   c. Myself, I think I can say divorce is not a solution
   d. i. In fact I did not write your test last week sir.
      ii. Why didn't you?
      iii. Actually, I was not at school.
   e. According to me I think all workers should be given a raise.
10. A boy and his dog ran down the street. As the dog was crossing the street, it was nearly knocked down by a car. The boy was unaware of what could have happened to the dog as he was talking to a girl he met on the way.

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c. The boy is staying with relatives because his father is late.

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e. Pass my regards to your family.

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1. a. The man is wanting to marry that woman
   - Corrected: The man wants to marry that woman
   - Underline the faulty part: is wanting

   b. The girl has 20 years old
   - Corrected: The girl is 20 years old
   - Underline the faulty part: has 20 years old

   c. This land is belonging to us
   - Corrected: This land belongs to us
   - Underline the faulty part: is belonging

   d. That student is knowing all the answers
   - Corrected: That student knows all the answers
   - Underline the faulty part: is knowing

   e. I have one sister who works in Nelspruit.
   - Corrected: I have one sister who works in Nelspruit.
   - Underline the faulty part: I have

   f. What do you meaning by that?
   - Corrected: What do you mean by that?
   - Underline the faulty part: meaning

2. a. Tomas does his work very well, so does the girls.
   - Corrected: Tomas does his work very well, so does the girls.
   - Underline the faulty part: does the girls

   b. The old woman have many cats
   - Corrected: The old woman has many cats
   - Underline the faulty part: have

   c. Nxalati usually arrive here very early in the morning
   - Corrected: Nxalati usually arrive here very early in the morning
   - Underline the faulty part: arrive

   d. Everybody have arrived already
   - Corrected: Everybody has arrived already
   - Underline the faulty part: have

3. a. The women went to Durban and buy clothes
   - Corrected: The women went to Durban to buy clothes
   - Underline the faulty part: buy clothes

   b. The street children come here everyday and begged for food
   - Corrected: The street children come here everyday and beg for food
   - Underline the faulty part: begged

   c. My grandmother baked a cake and we ate it
   - Corrected: My grandmother baked a cake and we ate it.
   - Underline the faulty part: ate
d. The police arrived and arrested the thieves.

4. a. There is no transport in rural areas, so children go to school with legs.
   b. The child was looking attentively to what was happening.
   c. The learners were singing with the top of their voices
   d. The other children were screaming to me because I did not sweep the class
   e. I'm very thankful for all the wonderful things my mother did for me.

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   c. You can't cook, isn't it?  

   d. Khensile likes oranges, is it?  

   e. Our visitors will be here soon, isn't it?  

8. a. The two boys they are in class.  

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9. a. This issue I will tell my children this issue  

   b. My children I will see them in the morning  

   c. Myself I think I can say divorce is not a solution  

   d. i. In fact I did not write your test last week sir.  

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d. That man is a very important somebody in the community.

e. Pass my regards to your family.

f. The man was excited and told everyone that he proposed the woman.

g. My parents came and collected me from school.

\[\text{AC} - \text{O} \]
\[\text{UE} - \text{O} \]
\[\text{IC} - \text{6} \]
\[\text{MC} - \text{O} \]
\[\text{MLEwc} - \text{O} \]
\[\text{MLEwc} - \text{O} \]
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   b. The girl has 20 years
   c. This land is belonging to us
   d. That student is knowing all the answers
   e. I'm having one sister who works in Nelspruit.
   f. What do you meaning by that?

2. a. Tomas does his work very well, so does the girls.
   b. The old woman have many cats
   c. Nxalati usually arrives here very early in the morning
   d. Everybody have arrived already

3. a. The women went to Durban and buy clothes
   b. The street children come here everyday and begged for food
   c. My grandmother baked a cake and we eat it.
d. The police arrived and arrest the thieves.

4. a. There is no transport in rural areas, so children go to school with legs.
   b. The child was looking attentively to what was happening.
   c. The learners were singing with the top of their voices.
   d. The other children were screaming for me because I did not sweep the class.
   e. I'm very thankful for all the wonderful things my mother did for me.

5. a. I searched for the book everywhere but I can't see it.
   (b) You have to study very hard to pass the examination.

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(d) We will go together.

6. a. Our school gets 100% pass rate for the Matric results since from 1999.
   b. It is very surprising that he repeated his bad behaviour again.
   c. After a decade of 10 years things will be better.
   d. All the children were given an opportunity to voice their opinions.
   f. When I bake I take my flour and mix it with my sugar and my water.
7. a. They have arrived, isn't it?
   b. He is a good fellow, is he?
   c. You can't cook, isn't it?
   d. Khensile likes oranges, is it?
   e. Our visitors will be here soon, isn't it?

8. a. The two boys they are in class.
   b. This girl she can run very fast
   c. The problem it can be solved right now
   d. The wife and the husband they love each other

9. a. This issue I will tell my children this issue my children
   b. My children I will see them in the morning
   c. Myself, I think I can say divorce is not a solution
   d. In fact I did not write your test last week sir.
      i. Why didn't you?
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1. a. The man is wanting to marry that woman
   - Underline "The man is wanting to marry that woman"
   - Write "wants to marry"

   b. The girl has 20 years
   - Underline "has 20 years"
   - Delete "has"

   c. This land is belonging to us
   - Underline "is belonging to us"
   - Write "belongs to us"

   d. That student is knowing all the answers
   - Underline "is knowing all the answers"
   - Write "knows all the answers"

   e. I'm having one sister who works in Nelspruit.
   - Underline "I'm having"
   - Write "I have"

   f. What do you meaning by that?
   - Underline "meaning by that"
   - Write "meaning"

2. a. Tomas does his work very well, so does the girls.
   - Underline "does the girls"
   - Write "do"

   b. The old woman have many cats
   - Underline "have many cats"
   - Write "has many cats"

   c. Nxalati usually arrive here very early in the morning
   - Underline "arrive here very early in the morning"
   - Write "arrive very early in the morning"

   d. Everybody have arrived already
   - Underline "have arrived already"
   - Write "have arrived"

3. a. The women went to Durban and buy clothes
   - Underline "went to Durban and buy clothes"
   - Write "went to Durban and bought clothes"

   b. The street children come here everyday and begged for food
   - Underline "come here everyday and begged for food"
   - Write "come here everyday and ask for food"

   c. My grandmother baked a cake and we eat it.
   - Underline "baked a cake and we eat it"
   - Write "baked a cake and we ate it"
d. The police arrived and arrest the thieves.

4. a. There is no transport in rural areas, so children go to school by foot.

b. The child was looking attentively to what was happening.

c. The learners were singing with the top of their voices.

d. The other children were screaming for me because I did not sweep the class.

e. I'm very thankful for all the wonderful things my mother did to me.

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   b. My children they will see them in the morning
   c. Myself, I think I can say divorce is not a solution
   d. i. In fact I did not write your test last week sir.
   ii. Why didn't you?
   iii. Actually, I was not at school.
   e. According to me I think all workers should be given a raise.
10. A boy and his dog ran down the street. As a dog was crossing the street, it was nearly knocked down by a car. A boy was unaware of what could have happened to a dog as he was talking to a girl he met on the way.

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b. Sorry Sir, may I take my pen?

c. The boy is staying with relatives because his father is late.

d. That man is a very important person in the community.

e. Pass my regards to your family.

f. The man was excited and told everyone that he proposed to the woman.

Wrong Corrections

g. My parents came and collected me from school.
Educators: 30

Question 4

Idiosyncratic prepositional usage

a. \(\frac{56}{150} \times 100 = 37.33 \approx 37\%\)

b. \(\frac{82}{150} \times 100 = 54.66 \approx 55\%\)

c. \(\frac{14 + 1 + 1 + 9 + 3 + 2 + 1 + 2 + 1}{100} = 25\%\)

d. \(\frac{1132}{1666} = 0.67 \times 100 = 67\%\)

e. \(\frac{11112111111121}{150} = 10.0 \approx 10\%\)
Question 4: Concord: 120 sentences

\[
AC = \frac{60}{120} \times 100 = 50.0\% = 50\%
\]

\[
UE = \frac{48}{120} \times 100 = 40.0\% = 40\%
\]

\[
IC = \frac{9}{120} \times 100 = 7.5\% = 7.5\%
\]

\[
EC = \frac{12}{120} \times 100 = 10.0\%
\]

\[
IUE = \frac{0.3}{120} \times 100 = 0.25\% = 0.25\%
\]

Question 11: Lexical-semantic shifts

\[
AC = 14.0\%
\]

\[
UE = 79.0\%
\]

\[
IC = 7.0\%
\]

\[
IUE = 0.0\%
\]
Question 9: Topicization errors

\[ AC = \frac{85}{90} \times 100 = 94.44 \% = 94.4\% \]

\[ UE = \frac{82}{26} \times 100 = 310.77 \% = 310\% \]

\[ IC = \frac{0.7}{2.0} \times 100 = 35 \% = 35\% \]

\[ RC = \frac{13}{10} \times 100 = 130 \% = 130\% \]

\[ SUE = \frac{0.5}{100} \times 100 = 0.5 \% = 0.5\% \]

Question 10: Redundant use of near-synonyms. 4 sentences \( \times \) 30 = 120

\[ AC = \frac{89}{120} \times 100 = 74.17 \% = 74.2\% \]

\[ UE = \frac{28}{120} \times 100 = 23.33 \% = 23.3\% \]

\[ RO = \frac{0.3}{120} \times 100 = 0.25 \% = 0.25\% \]

\[ IC = \frac{0.3}{120} \times 100 = 0.25 \% = 0.25\% \]
**Question 7:** Invariant use of tag

\[ AC = \frac{47}{150} \times 100 = 31.33\% \approx 31\% \]

\[ UE = \frac{44}{150} \times 100 = 29.33\% \approx 29\% \]

\[ IC = \frac{56}{150} \times 100 = 37.33\% \approx 37\% \]

\[ IUE = \frac{0.14}{150} \times 100 = 0.0933\% \approx 0.1\% \]

\[ RC = \frac{0.2}{150} \times 100 = 0.1333\% \approx 0.1\% \]

**Question 3:** Tense Sequencing

120 sentences

\[ AC = \frac{90}{120} \times 100 = 75\% \]

\[ UE = \frac{28}{120} \times 100 = 23.33\% \]

\[ IUE = \frac{0.2}{120} \times 100 = 0.167\% \]

\[ RC = \frac{0.04}{120} \times 100 = 0.333\% \]
Question 5: Pronouns

to check sentence (d) only (Me and you)

\[ AC = \frac{11 \times 100}{18} = 61.11\% \] 61.1%

\[ IC = \frac{05}{18} \times 100 = 27.78\% \] 28%

\[ UE = \frac{02}{18} \times 100 = 11.11\% \] 11.1%

To add those who have not identified and

\[ IC = \frac{07}{18} \times 100 = 38.89\% \] 38.9%

Question 8

Usage of

Recessive pronouns

\[ AC = \frac{18}{120} \times 100 = 15\% \] 15%

\[ IC \]

\[ UE = \frac{9}{120} \times 100 = 7.5\% \] 7.5%

\[ IUe \]
Question 1: Extension of progressive Aspect to static verbs. ISO

\[ AC = \frac{139}{150} \times 100 = 92.7\% \]

IC

\[ UE \cdot \sqrt{12 - \frac{N}{11}} = 11 \times \frac{100}{150} = 7.3\% \]

Question 10

Invariant use of articles

\[ AC = \frac{11}{30} \times 100 = 36.7\% \]

\[ UE \cdot \sqrt{11 - \frac{M}{11}} - 14 = 14 \times \frac{30}{30} \times 100 = 46.7\% \]

\[ IC \cdot \sqrt{12} = 3 \times 10 \times \frac{2}{30} \times 100 = 10\% \]

\[ UE \cdot \sqrt{2} = 2 \times \frac{2}{30} \times 100 = 6.67\% \]
On weak days Tserani go to school and in she arrived home she clean, cook and wash dishes for her own and its a usual girl and she go to her friends to relax with them. She don't like school that much.

His mother is dead and his sister has her own husband and her brother is a criminal live in jail and that's makes Tserani to be like this. All this mass she was going for its all.

Tserani visited her aunt and there she meets new people and she change her life style and all the things that she likes was changed and stais everything after so she changed for everything.

Tserani, I heard that you want to leave school to join a band of singers. But I know it will help you but focus on your studies. Don't follow other one's choice because education is the key to success. First focus on your studies after you will
Paragraph 1: What does Tsakani do on weekdays / during the week?
- Tsakani wake up at 05:00 every morning. She first study her book for 2hrs before she go to school. Then she wash her self and she eat breakfast food. After breakfast food Tsakani go to school.

Paragraph 2: Write something about Tsakani’s family members (brothers, sisters and parents)
- Tsakani have one brother and three sisters. Tsakani’s father is a pilot. He drive aeroplanes from JHB at OR Tambo international airport to PLK internation airport. Tsakani’s Father love people and he is humble to others, and he love to give respect to them.

Paragraph 3: Last year Tsakani visited her aunt during school holidays... (tell about the visit)
- Last year Tsakani have visited her aunt at JHB. She was very interested in most things that were happening at Johannesburg.

Paragraph 4: Tsakani wants to leave school to join a band of singers. Tell her what you think of her decision also give her advice.
- Tsakani, I heard that most singers are drug dealers.
Paragraph 1: What does Tsakani do on weekdays during the week? Explain your answer in detail.

On weekdays, Tsakani likes to wash his clothes before he starts to clean and after he cleans, he will start to cook some food and wash his self and he like to read magazine and write some story.

Paragraph 2: Write something about Tsakani’s family members (brothers, sisters, and parent).

The Tsakani’s family like to enjoy together and Tsakani’s parents like to go church during weekend and her bother like to take care about her garden and they like to stay together and eat soup.

Paragraph 3: Last year Tsakani visit her aunt during school holidays... (Tell about the visit.)

Tsakani be was visit at vendo village and he was so very succeed full about her trip and vendo at makhado it was a good and perfect place and it was so very nice place that next year he can visit again to vendo at makhado.
Paragraph 1

On weekdays tsakeni use to go to school after she return home. After she clean the house washes dishes and she cook late at night. she studies her books and she do her homeworks.

Paragraph 2

Tsakeni's family consist of 6 members; first her father and mother, then 2 brothers and a daughter. Her father he is very kind and humble and her mother she's also kind. Her brothers on Sundays they go to church to praise god. And they don't love people love gossiping. And her little sister she's very natty.

Paragraph 3

Her aunt was very excited to see Tsakeni because it was 3 years without seeing her. So on that day she bought her a chicken and a box of chocolates just to welcome her on the family. After tsakeni received those gift she gave her aunt a huge hug. Her aunt daughter was out when she return's home she
Topic: Tsakanani, 16, is in Grade 10...

On weekdays Tsakanani usually goes to school every day. Tsakanani woke up in the morning preparing herself to go to school to get education. And all she does, she respects her teacher, do her work properly, she wears her uniform according to the school rules. When she got home from school, she does her homework and watch TV and listening to Radio.

Tsakanani's parents died which means she is an orphan and Tsakanani's brother got married with a woman twice his age and they have three children and they got divorced. About her sister, she was a heroin and decided to leave the team and join a certain church around the street.

Tsakanani's aunt was pleased to see her, she even organised a trip to Pot Holes to welcome Tsakanani in her family. Tsakanani had lots of friends at her aunt's place, she was treated the same as the other kids in the house. She felt so welcomed and she even didn't want to go home after the holidays.
Annexure B: Learners

Non-Standard Constructions

1. She play netball.
   Tsakanii like to watch Television.
   Tsakanii's brother like to play football.
   She love too much to visit her.
   She love too much her studies.
   When you are addic to a singer you become addicted with drug and its easy to mad.

2. Her parents are proud of her because she perform w.
   When she comes back she visit her granny.

3. Tsakanii wakes up and brush her teeth.
   She go at the shop, she like church.
   She go eat at home and she wash herself.

4. She visit on her aunt.
   Tsakanii on weekdays she do this.
   On break she eat her lunch.
   I want to advise you not to do the band.

5. I can just say no Tsakanii don't leave school.
   Tsakanii when she finish she like going out.
   On weekends Tsakanii help other school children.

6. She visited her aunt in Durban so she enjoy very much.
   On weekdays Tsakanii go to school.
   She go home.
   Tsakanii say she love her aunt.
   Tsakanii have two brothers.

7. They wanted Tsakanii to belong at University.
   She like to guide the lecture.
   Tsakanii travel to work on school.
   Her aunt was so excited to see her and she ask her about school work.
On weekdays Tsakani visit her friends. Sometimes she go to tavern in music. She is living with her family.

Tsakani was very happy when she visit her friends. Her teacher said, "Tsakani is very handsome."

Tsakani's parents are good to their children. When she was there, she do everything that her aunt said.

On weekdays Tsakani go to school. She go to her friends to relax. She don't like school very much.

Tsakani's brother is dead and his sister has her own husband and her brother is a criminal.

Tsakani visited her aunt and there she meets new people.

She makes sure that her room is tidy and clean before she go. She ask her room to give her money.

Tsakani wake up at 6:00 every morning. She first study her books before she go to school. She wash herself. Tsakani have one brother. Tsakani have visited her aunt.

On weekdays Tsakani like to wash he cloth before she start to clean he start to cook some food and she wash herself. Tsakani's family they like to enjoy together. Her brother he like to take care about her garden.
Tsakani's mother [She likes to go to the garden]

During the week Tsakani [She is going to school]

Tsakani's sister [She likes to watch TV]

Tsakani's father [He likes God]

Tsakani's brother [He likes playing soccer.]

At home Tsakani eats cornflakes but at her aunt's
She eats porridge and [mogog]

On weekdays Tsakani go to school at morning

Tsakani's father [He works as a manager.]
She make sure that her room is clean

When she come back from school she do her homework

Every morning Tsakani wake up at 6 o'clock.
Tsakani [She has visited her aunt.]
She eat breakfast before she go to school.

Everybody they want people who passed grade 12
Tsakani. She has influence.
Everybody they want people who passed grade 12

Tsakani [She is a good girl]

During the week Tsakani she wash dishes and
She help her mother to cook food.
She love to sing songs.

On weekdays Tsakani go to school. I think that ok,
Tsakani have two sisters. Tsakani have to finish her
studies.

She do her homework

Tsakani have three brothers.

Tsakani (She) wake up and she wash herself
before she do everything.
After doing all these things, she goes to play.

* L23 Tsakani's father works in Johannesburg.

What I can advise you is that education is a key to success.

* L24 Tsakani used to go to school and she does her homework. Her brothers they go to church on Sundays.

√ To me I think it is a bad decision.

Now you want to leave school about music. So my advice to you is that stick on your education.

L25 I want to tell you that you are doing a big mistake.

When Tsakani gets home she takes a rest and after that she does the cooking.

* Tsakani lives in a small family.

She likes to read her books.

L26 Tsakani makes sure she does her classwork and homework.

L27 She (Tsakani's sister) is a very nice person and she is very close with Tsakani. She puts motivation on her.

Tsakani's sister is very close with Tsakani.

* You must stick on your books.

* I will say that you must stick to your education.

L28 Tsakani likes to read story books.

* Tsakani used to prepare her work.

Tsakani she is the first born.

* What I can advise Tsakani to do is to first finish her school.

Tsakani she got two brothers.
You know my advice to you is that you should finish school.

Well, Tsakani was very excited.

She changes her clothes and do her daily chores.

Her aunt helps her if she have a problem.

Her sisters make sure she do her homework.

On weekdays, Tsakani wake up in the morning.

She go to her study room and studies.

She have two brothers and one sister.

When she finish to clean, she go to the study room.

She give respect to them.

Tsakani love her family. She don't want to see them hurt.

* Are you sure about that decision you are doing. That decision you are doing will affect your future.

When she come back from school, she do her homework.

A: Her father like to go to church.

She give herself time to play with her friends.

Tsakani on the morning, they wake up and wash themselves and do the work. They start to read.

Tsakani's family, they are proud of her.

If you leave school, you are not going to get a job and you can make a poor woman.

Tsakani wake up early and wash his face. After that, she washes dishes and cook.

When she finish eating, she go to her friends.

Tsakani love his aunt very much.

Best wishes for you.
She told her friend:

**Today my body is sick.**

**Please come back at university.**

**She gave me money every day.**

**She loves her family.** She took care of her brothers.

**She came home at about 6 o'clock.** After bathing,

**She watched TV.**

I would like to give you advice:

Tell yourself that anything that will happen you will face.

On weekdays Tsakani goes to school and after school, she does her homework.

On Saturdays, she goes out to watch movies.

The brother has moved out from the family because he is having his family.

Tsakani is a person that she loves school.

Tsakani, I want to give you advice:

Every morning, she first cleans her house.

In the evening, she starts reading books.

On weekdays, Tsakani wakes up early in the morning and does her housework.

Tsakani has four siblings.

After school, she does her homework and reads her books.

When she gets home, she does her homework.

Tsakani's aunt was pleased to see her and she even organised a trip.

It is not bad to join a band of singers, but I would like to tell you.
45. After school she do her house chores, after that she watch TV.

46. On weekdays she wake up early in the morning and prepare herself for school. Tsakani only have one brother and one sister.

So I wanted to advice and tell you not to leave school.
Annexure B

1. Omission of the third person agreement marker. √

100% - all learners have omitted the third person agreement marker "s" according to the number of the subject, some to a larger extent, some to a lesser extent.

E.g., she like church instead of she "likes" church but they like church.

In Xitsonga " u' shanda kereke
    u' shanda kereke

The two verbs in Xitsonga show no difference regardless of singular and plural subject.
She do her homework
She go to the shop
During breaks she eat
She cleans her room before she go etc etc.

2. Topicalization.

I can just say no Tsakani don't leave school.
* I want to tell you that you are making a big mistake
So I wanted to advice you
Some I think it is a bad decision
So my advice to you is that
What I can advice Tsakani to do is you know my advice to you is
learn
I would like to give you advice.

Tsakani: I want to give you advice.

* Tense sequence

\[ H_{\text{tense sequence}} = \frac{30}{4.6} \times 10 = 65.2\%

* Idiosyncratic Prepositional usage

\[ H_{\text{idiosyncratic preposition}} = \frac{21}{4.6} \times 100 = 46\% = 45.7\%

Resumptive Pronouns

\[ H_{\text{resumptive pronoun}} = \frac{16}{4.6} \times 100 = 34.78\%

\[ 00000000000