TENSE AND ASPECT TAXONOMIES AMONG TSHIVENDA MOTHER TONGUE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH: IMPLICATIONS FOR BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN ENGLISH

by

MOSES MPFARISENI RALUSHAI

MINI-DISSERTATION

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in

ENGLISH STUDIES

in the

Faculty of Humanities

(School of Languages and Communication studies)

at the

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

SUPERVISOR: Prof. L Makalela

CO-SUPERVISOR: Prof. RN Maḓadzhe

CO-SUPERVISOR: Dr. RV McCabe

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife Hlayiseka, my four children Muvhusi, Tsiko, Antondaho and Nduvho, and my dear siblings who encouraged me during these studies.

I will not forget my parents Joseph and Emely for their endless prayers towards the success of this dissertation.

Finally, I dedicate this dissertation to all my colleagues and friends for their courage and understanding that education is a key to success.

DECLARATION

I declare that **TENSE AND ASPECT TAXONOMIES AMONG TSHIVENDA MOTHER TONGUE SPEAKERS OF ENGLSH: IMPLICATIONS FOR BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN ENGLISH** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references and that this work has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other institution.

....

Full names   **Date**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Whereas research has exponentially increased on the understanding of new varieties of English worldwide, there is a paucity of studies that have assessed the degree to which Black South African English is shared and understood across a wider spectrum of the Bantu language speaking communities in South Africa. Because of this, research has been inconclusive on causes and frequencies of identified linguistic properties of the variety. This study investigated the tense and aspect usages in English among mother tongue speakers of Tshivenda learners to develop a taxonomy of characteristic features, sources of production and frequency of occurrence in an educational context. The study focused more attention on the role of mother tongue substrate system which transfers its features to the target language.

After a contrastive analysis of the collected data, learners' essays and storytelling, the findings of the study indicate that the occurrence of tense and aspect properties among grade 11 learners is first language (L1) induced and rule-governed. Secondly, the results show that the features occur with high frequency, suggesting that they are institutionalised. In particular, the study denotes that expressions of temporal reasoning follow the L1 grammatical structure that favours external formation to the verb phrase; i.e., verbal arguments are preferred to morphological conjugations.

Based on these findings, it is concluded that the logic of temporal reasoning, described as Bantu language logic as developed by Makalela (2004, 2007, and 2013), rather than grammatical forms, is transferred in the production of BSAE tense and aspect properties. When seen in this light, it is evident that BSAE cuts across different Bantu languages of South Africa, it has evolved towards being an endonormative variety, relying on its own internal logic (substrate forms) to be a new and distinct variety of English. In the end, recommendations for more robust and large scale studies in high prestige domains such as the media and institutions of higher learning are made for augmentation of these findings.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The concept, 'new Englishes' has been developed as a result of a relatively new perception of English as an adapting and evolving language in global contexts. According to McArthur (1992:688), the term 'new English' refers to "recently emerging and increasingly autonomous varieties of English, especially in a non-Western setting such as India, Nigeria or Singapore". Crystal (2008:327) also defines the term 'New Englishes' as varieties of English that are developing and have developed around the world in countries and communities where it is not an indigenous language, but where it has attained official status and is rapidly developing as First Language (L1) to large sections of these communities. Such varieties of English develop from English, traditionally recognised as standard, to become distinctly individual: they retain some cultural and linguistic characteristics of the standard of English and represent and include many aspects of the culture and language of the country in which the new English functions.

A number of conceptual models have been developed by linguists to describe the spread of English globally and the consequent emergence of new varieties of English. The most widely used model is that of Kachru (1985) which describes the distribution and use of English in the world by means of three concentric circles. Yano (2001) states that Kachru divided English speakers into three groups, that is, inner circle, outer circle and expanding circle. Since then this model of three concentric circles has been the standard framework of world Englishes studies.

Outer circle varieties of English have received attention in the World Englishes literature (Kachru, 1992:3). These varieties are formed in former British colonies and assume the local content that makes them distinctive. Kachru (1985:12) indicates that these varieties include among others Nigerian English, Indian English and Black South African English (BSAE). One distinguishing property of these varieties is that they rely on the substrate forms of the speakers' L1.

The status of BSAE as an institutionalised variety of English has been a subject of intense debate in South Africa. Earlier linguistics believed that the variety would change and evolve towards Standard English as its speakers receive more native English input in the new political dispensation (Makalela, 2004). This view was however refuted in later studies that foregrounded mother tongue transfer as the main cause of the existence of this variety. Van Rooy (2006) and Makalela (2004; 2013), for example, revealed that tense and aspect systems used in BSAE are L1-induced and contribute to internal standardisation of the variety. Although more speakers of African language background were studied in previous research, speakers of Tshivenḓa's use of tense and aspect systems have not been investigated in the BSAE literature. It is against this backdrop that the present study seeks to investigate English tense and aspect systems of Tshivenḓa grade 11 speakers in their classroom communication practices. This study broadens our understanding on the degree to which previously identified features of BSAE are generalised among mother tongue speakers of African languages in South Africa.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Tense and aspect occupy an essential position in the curricula of many language programmes. It is not uncommon for language teaching programmes to include the mastery of tense and aspect as major assessment criteria (Bouras, 2006). The temporal and aspectual systems of English are problematic areas to English second language learners. Learners in high schools who bear the properties of BSAE are subjected to a high failure rate because they experience diffulties in the use of Standard British English norms. As a result, these learners produce tense and aspect forms that differ from the Standard British English forms. In his many years of teaching, the researcher has observed, for an example, that progressive aspect is used indiscriminately in essays and spoken texts. It is worth noting that previous knowledge, mainly the learner's mother tongue, may have an influence on these deviant speech production, often to the frustration of the teachers.

In his work on English in Africa, Schmied (1991) observed that use of sequence of tense in complex and compound sentences deviate from the normative English varieties. While tense is understood within three points that govern speakers' choice

of tense globally; that is, point of speech (S), point of event (E) and point of reference (R) (Reichenbach, 1947), temporal reasoning is culture specific and induces variation of temporal points of view as it is the case in African English varieties. This implies that ways of thinking about and organising time in one language can be transferred into the second language usage.

Studies on BSAE by Makalela (2004), Van Rooy (2006) and Mthethwa (2007) indicate that mother tongue speakers of Sepedi, Xitsonga, and Setswana deviate from the Standard English usage on tense sequencing. In a series of studies, Makalela (2004, 2007, 2013) developed a Bantu logic hypothesis, which posits that a way of thinking about time or temporal logic from Bantu language systems chiefly accounts for transfer of differential tense and aspect usage into English. Whereas this model was tested in various African languages to date, there is a paucity of studies that explored tense and aspect usage among users of English who are mother tongue speakers of Tshivenḓa - one of the eleven official languages of South Africa which is spoken by 1.1 million people (Lewis, Gary and Charles, 2014). This study will therefore fill this void by assessing usage of tense and aspect among grade 11 mother tongue speakers of Tshivenḓa in Tshilamba Circuit, Limpopo Province.

1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to investigate tense and aspect usages in English among grade 11 mother tongue speakers of Tshivenḓa learners in Tshilamba Circuit, Limpopo Province.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the study are:

- To develop a taxonomy of tense and aspect from grade 11 learners' essays and speech production;
- To establish frequency counts of the tense and aspect features from the learners' written and spoken texts; and

- To trace transfer of Tshivenḓa substrate system in English tense and aspect usage from the learners' texts.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research study is meant to address the gap by investigating tense and aspect usages in English among mother tongue speakers of Tshivenḓa. The following research questions directed this study:

- What are the linguistic properties of tense and aspect usage in written and spoken texts of grade 11 learners?
- What are the frequency counts of tense and aspect features present from learners' written and spoken texts?
- Is there a relationship between Tshivenḓa substrate system and English superstrate forms of tense and aspect among the grade 11 learners?

1.6 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

This study was prompted by the researcher's observation of Tshivenḓa mother tongue learners of English who constantly produce non-standard features. After many years of teaching English as an additional language, the researcher observed that these learners resisted use of Standard English forms, and consequently his curiosity was raised to discover any causative factors. Even more conspicuously, there is a paucity of empirical research that examined tense and aspect taxonomies research of Tshivenḓa language in BSAE. This study is therefore gap-filling to contribute to the existing body of knowledge on tense and aspect among non-native speakers with an African language background in South Africa. More broadly, it will increase knowledge pool on the development of new Englishes in post- colonial contexts.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.7.1 Literature study

The problem of the study is explored using a literature review. The literature review entailed identifying, tracing and analysing documents containing information relating to the stated problem. The documents reviewed include among others, dissertations, papers delivered at conferences, professional journals and books. According to Mouton (2006:87), the importance of a literature review is to learn from other scholars, how they have theorised and conceptualised on issues, what they have found empirically, and what instrumentation they have used and to what effect.

1.7.2 Empirical study

This study used both quantitative and qualitative approaches in order to balance the depth and breadth of the investigation on the transfer of tense and aspect from Tshivenḓa to English. This research approach fits the classification as concurrent mixed method. As revealed by scholars in this field, mixed method studies combine qualitative and quantitative research methods so they work in tandem to answer the key research questions in a single study (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Yin, 2006).

1.7.3 Selection of participants

The study involved 80 grade 11 learners who are Tshivenḓa mother tongue speakers studying English as an additional language. These participants were selected through purposeful sampling strategy (Creswell, 1998). Out of the 80 learners, 30 were selected to using simple random sampling procedure. In this study, the researcher selected the sample of learners at random by assigning a number to each name and 'picking the numbers out of a hat' (Proctor, Allan and Lacey, 2010). Furthermore, among the 30 participants 12 learners were selected using stratified random sampling to ensure different proficiency levels were equally represented: lower, intermediate and advanced.

1.7.4 Data gathering

There were two data collection procedures used in the study namely, story retelling and essay writing. The data collected were analysed using thematic analysis and frequency counts in order to arrive at tense and aspect taxonomies and to understand the degree to which Tshivenda L1 is transferred in the BSAE tense and aspect patterns. The methodology of empirical research was discussed in detail in Chapter Three.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study has several implications that are significant. First, it will provide an empirical data-base for tense and aspect taxonomies among Tshivenḓa speakers of English. This provides opportunities for research and new insights into English language development in South Africa. The findings will give English additional language teachers insights into and more   understanding of the factors that lead to non-standard tense and aspect features among speakers of BSAE. Second, this study will contribute to discussions on restandardisation of English through language planning and policy mechanisms. English curriculum development, for example, will benefit in redesigning the teaching and learning materials for both teachers and learners, which are sensitive to English usage variation based on contributions from the local languages. There are also far reaching implications for language educators and textbook writers and language planners to ascertain that syllabi and teaching materials deal adequately with areas of divergence. This research is well positioned to provide the language-teaching community with clear and detailed descriptions of areas of divergence on English language usage.

1.9 DEFINITION OF TERMS

In this study the following terms have been defined: Black South African English, Bantu logic hypothesis, Creative Bilingualism, New Englishes, World Englishes, Aspect, Tense, Standard British English and contrastive analysis.

1.9.1 Black South African English

BSAE is the variety of English commonly used by mother-tongue speakers of South Africa's indigenous African languages (de Klerk, 1999). In terms of Platt et al's criteria (1984:2-3), BSAE fits the category 'new English' in that it has developed through the education system as an L2 in an area where English is not the language of majority, and has become localised for use in intra-regional communication.

1.9.2 Bantu logic hypothesis

Bantu logic hypothesis is a result of a fusion between an underlying African language language substrate system and English superstrate forms where Bantu logic becomes the dominant force that drives the surface operations (Makalela, 2013).

1.9.3 Creative bilingualism

Creative bilingualism refers to the speaker's ability to juggle two linguistic systems simultaneously (Kachru, 1986).

1.9.4 New Englishes

Crystal (2008:327) defines the term "New Englishes" as varieties of English that are developing and have developed around the world in countries and communities where it is not an indigenous language, but where it has attained official status and is rapidly developing as an L1 to large sections of these communities.

1.9.5 World Englishes

The concept of World Englishes refers to the different English varieties around the world (Kachru, 1985:355).

1.9.6 Aspect

Aspect is defined as a "different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation" (Comrie 1976:3). It means that aspect looks at a situation from inside and is merely concerned with the internal structure of the situation.

1.9.7 Tense

Reichenbach (1947:288) states that English tenses determine time with reference to the time point of the act of speech; i.e., of the token uttered. According to Comrie (1976:1-2), tense is defined as relating to "the time of the situation referred to some other time, usually to the moment of speaking."

1.9.8 Standard English

This refers to the language conventions of British English which proponents of Standard English argue all English users should aspire to use.

1.9.9 Contrastive analysis

According to Ellis and Tomlinson (1980:274) as quoted in Manthata (1991), contrastive analysis refers to useful information about learning problems which can be discovered by comparing the learners' mother tongue and the learners' target language to discover ways, in which they are the same, similar and different. Such a contrastive analysis is normally used to predict which errors are likely to be made by second language learners as a result of negative interference from their first language and thus to decide which items from the syllabus to give special care and emphasis to.

1.9.10. Mother tongue

This is the first language learned by a speaker – his or her native language.

10. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

In Chapter 1, the background of the study, problem statement, research aim and objectives, rationale, research methodology and significance of the study and clarification of the concepts are discussed.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature in order to provide a theoretical framework for the study. The literature review is focused on tense and aspect under the framework of World Englishes with reference to BSAE as studied by different scholars in order to strengthen the topic under the study. The various aspects of tense and aspect such as World Englishes, tense and aspect theories, studies on tense and aspect in new Englishes, semantics of perfect progressive in English and empirical work on tense and aspect in Black South African English were reviewed.

Chapter 3 describes the research methodology and design. The research methodology which demonstrates the scientific nature of the study consists of the following aspects: population and sampling, instruments and data collection procedures as well as data analysis.

Chapter 4 consists of presentation, interpretation and data analysis. It presents tense and aspect transfers which were extracted from learners' written essays and storytelling. It depicts various examples of tense and aspect from Tshivenda speakers of English which are regarded as deviant when compared to tense and aspect in the Standard British English. An analysis of the data is done to get information. This chapter also presents the findings which are analysed, interpreted and discussed. Tables and graphs are used for data analysis and interpretation.

Chapter 5 provides the summary, conclusion and recommendations. An overall conclusion of the entire study is detailed here.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This study seeks to investigate tense and aspect taxonomies among Tshivenda mother tongue speakers of English. In the presence of BSAE being a subject not well researched, there is however a cutting edge work based on tense, aspect and mood. The literature will be reviewed under these themes: World Englishes, tense and aspect theory, studies on tense and aspect in New Englishes and in BSAE.

2.2 WORLD ENGLISHES

The concept World Englishes refers to the different English varieties around the world (Kachru, 1985:355). These varieties are different from one another in linguistic features such as pronunciation, lexical choice or usage and grammar (Kachru & Nelson, 1996:72). Black South African English is a variety that can be understood within the frame of World Englishes. Kachru (1985) provides a model of the spread of English in three concentric circles: the inner circle, the outer/extended circle and the expanding circle.The inner circle refers to the traditional, cultural and linguistic bases of English, where English is the primary language. According to Kachru and Nelson (1996:77), the inner circle comprises the old-variety English-using countries, namely, the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The two major varieties used in this circle are British English and American English.

The outer/extended circle varieties and the dynamic model

The outer circle involves the earlier phases of the spread of English and its institutionalisation in non-native contexts. It is represented by the following countries: Bangladesh, Ghana, India, Kenya, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Zambia. These countries are multilingual and English plays a major role as a second language in them for education, government business and economy. These regions were colonised by the countries in the inner

circle (Kachru, 1985:12), and as a result, their political, cultural and linguistic structures were changed. According to van der Walt (2001:1), non-native varieties of English in the outer circle have been institutionalised and publicly legitimised. Kachru (1985:13) mentions that, by virtue of the multilingual setting, the varieties in this circle share a number of common characteristics. These include:

- English is one of two or more codes in the linguistic repertoire of the bilinguals or multilinguals.
- English has acquired an important status in the language policies of most of such multilingual nations.

BSAE in the post colonial contexts can be explained within a recent model of extrapolating developmental cycles of Englishes. It is assumed to be moving along the phases of Schneider's model. This dynamic model consists of five consecutive phases as suggested by Schneider (2003, 2007). The first phase is called the foundation phase. It is an initial stage when English settlers arrive in a new territory where English was never used before as it is the case in South Africa. The exonormative stabilisation phase is regarded as the second phase. Here, the settler strand (STL) English variety has stabilised in the new colony, but it is still heavily dependent on the norms of the settlers. The third stage referred as nativisation takes place (Schneider, 2007:248). This is when the indigenous variety (IDG) fuses with the STL with more local innovations used and accepted at the level of grammar and vocabulary. The fourth stage, endonormative stage, occurs when the newly formed local variety is used in its own right and accepted as a model in all domains of the society. Lastly, differentiation takes place when new varieties emerge out of the codified local variety. In this regard, BSAE can feature appropriately in the nativisation and endonormative phases of Schneider's model as they emphasise use of local forms.

In spite of the debates raised against BSAE features being described as failed learning and error formatted as suggested by some studies, the influence of mother tongue was perhaps forcefully argued in a positive light through what is referred to as Bantu language logic (Makalela, 2004). After an analysis of temporal reasoning in BSAE, Makalela (2004:361) concludes that BSAE features are rather a reflection of

speaker creativity enriched by a confluence of Bantu language logic and English surface manifestations. Van Rooy and Terblanche's (2006) study on a learner corpus of mother tongue speakers of Setswana and Kasanga's (2003, 2006) work on discourse analysis show that there is a presence of linguistic conventions in African languages in BSAE. Therefore, Kasanga (2006:82) and Makalela's (2013) conclusion is that BSAE, too, has been shaped by African languages.

This study is concerned with the outer circle which includes BSAE (Black South African English) as a new form of English. According to Platt et al (1984) the description of BSAE context fits well within the Kuchruvian parameter of outer circle (Kachru, 1985) based on the following reasons:

- It 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 used.
- It has become localised or nativised by adopting some language features of its own, such as sounds, intonation patterns, sentence structure, words and expressions.

Furthermore, Van der Walt also proposes the acceptance of BSAE because its linguistic features are "so widespread that they can be said to have become features of a specific code" (Van der Walt, 1997:19; Wade, 1996:2; Makalela, 1998:1; Gough, 1996:70). This means that BSAE is positioned within the outer circle of the World Englishes.

2.3 ASPECT THEORY

Aspect is defined as a "different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation" (Comrie, 1976:3). This means that aspect describes the internal temporal contour of a situation (event or state); in other words, it captures an aspect of the development of an event – its initiation, ongoingness, termination, completeness, habitualness, iteration, punctualness, etc (Comrie, 1976:3). In the

English language, aspect is used to indicate sequence. The perfect aspect is used for events before a point of reference and progressive aspect for events at or after a point of reference. According to Kortmann (1991), aspect can be categorised as non-deictic, meaning that, it has no referent to time as compared to tense.

A study by Comrie (1976) on aspect theory discusses two types of telicity from perfectivity, namely, telic and atelic. Telic refers to the situation at which the action comes to a terminal point, that is, the action has reached a point in which the process cannot continue. Atelic situation has no terminal point and can be protracted indefinitely or broken off at any time (Comrie, 1976). The semantic intuition of telic and atelic is not governed by progressive inflection /-ing/ which the verbs have. This is contrary to perfectivity which relies heavily on verbal conjugations, which show the completion or incompletion of the event.

Studies by Dahl (1985) and Comrie (1976) on the theory of aspect show that the overgeneralisation of progressive aspect occurs in some languages because they rely heavily on verbal arguments (telicity) and less on inflection (perfectivity). English tend to use inflections to distinguish habitual and progressive aspect. This contradicts with African Bantu languages which strictly use verbal arguments to articulate these aspectual meanings. That is, the morphological distinction between habitual and progressive aspects in these languages are not clearly seen (Makalela, 2007). In other words, the temporal logic in Bantu languages does not conceptually distinguish the view of present time in terms of habituality and progressiveness.

2.3.1 Empirical research on aspect

There are several scholars who studied the various aspects such as English progressives, perfect tense and present perfect progressive.

2.3.1.1 English progressives

Research carried out by Bybee, Perkins, and Pagliuca (1994:129) and Comrie (1976:98) indicate that, in the fifteen century, English progressive developed as an aspect when the present participle was identical in form to the gerund or verbal

noun. Cross-linguistically, the majority of progressive forms derive from locatives, these may be adpositions or locative verbs such as 'stand', 'sit', or 'be at'. Therefore, this is to say that progressive constitutes an appropriate answer to a location inquiry. The following example is given:

Where's Dad? The answer in response to the question is; He's having a nap. / Eating his dinner. / Playing with his grandchildren.

According to Jespersen's study (1949:168–169), the prepositional remnant suffers aphesis to give rise to the *BE* + V*ing* form. However, Mossé (1938) disbelieves that the prepositional construction had any part to play in the development of the English progressive. There has been a suggestion by a scholar like Visser (1955) that there could have been an influence from Celtic on the development of this locative periphrastic form in English. Collins (2008) emphasises that there is evidence that the periphrastic form has always been more frequent in spoken than written language, and it still has become more common in literature over the centuries, particularly in prose fiction and prose drama (Dennis, 1940; Jespersen, 1949:177). This slightly favours the hypothesis that the English progressive is modelled on the Celtic locative construction. In Welsh, however, the periphrastic form is not necessarily translated by the English progressive.

Lancelot and Arnauld (1660:19) state that English *BE* + V*ing* construction became fully aspectual around the late seventeenth century. These scholars agreed in that saying, Peter *lives* carries the same meaning as *Peter is living.*

In the case of French, Lancelot and Arnauld's argument was supported by Aquinas (2005) who wrote that 'there is no difference between saying *the man is convalescing* and *the man convalesces*'. On this basis, it is also asserted that there is a propositional equivalence between *the man walks* and *the man is walking*. It appears that the regular aspectual distinction came to be made in English because there was widespread use of both the periphrastic and the simple forms. The difference in form encouraged regularisation of the potential meaning difference that already existed.

According to Traugott (1972:178), the progressive is characterised by the coercive function which developed in the late nineteenth century. This coercive function occurs when a stative predicate occurs in the progressive. Progressive sentences such as *I am knowing that speech before I quit tonight, Harry is being a clown* disprove Vlach's (1981:274) claim that "the function of the progressive operator is to make stative sentences". Part of his reasoning is that progressives cannot range over progressives: *she is being speaking at the conference*. A progressive may properly be used of scattered subevents. Vlach (1981:280) points out that the question, *Is anyone sitting there?* indicating an empty seat in a café, can be appropriately answered, *my brother is sitting there* even though the event of sitting is interrupted because the brother has left that seat for a time. Therefore, this means that the progressive proves that it has interruptions features in it. To add on this, Meulen (1995:29) states, "Progressive descriptions presuppose that the start of the event preceded its current ongoing stage." This is only partially true; it is true for typical progressives but not for those denoting future or (other) hypothetical events. The only semantic feature common to all instances of the English progressive is that the activity denoted is incomplete, that is, not yet complete, at the time spoken of – which may be before (**P**)– past tense, at (**N**)– present tense, or after (**F**)- future tense, the deictic centre. The incompleteness of an activity is not regarded as the most salient characteristic of the progressive, but it is its default characteristic. Meulen (1995) informally defines progressive as follows: PROGRESSIVE. Where TENSEi [PROG [ΦACTIVITY]], TENSEi $\in$\{**P**, **N**, **F**\}. That is, tense identifies the time of speech and activity denotes the active event or set of active events and the event is incomplete at the time of speech.

2.3.2.2 The Perfect Tense

Research shows that the ancestor of perfect *HAVE* was like the ancestor of possessive *HAVE* in presenting the actor as the possessor of an accomplishment. The English perfect, too, probably originated from a possessive construction. One of the scholars such as Bennett (1981:15) sees the perfect as referring to completed events, and therefore comparable with the perfective aspect in Slavic languages. According to Bennett (1981), if speakers wish to refer to completed activities that

took place within the period of time that extends to and includes the present moment, without giving a definite point or period of time for any of these activities, they may use the Present Perfect Tense.

In this instance, the starting point of the period need not be indicated; e.g. *He has often been to Amsterdam* (Hornby, 1954:45). Hornby is referring to the fact that his sentence refers to a number of completed journeys to Amsterdam. Although the perfect displays some aspect-like characteristics, it is, as some scholars have recognised, primarily a retrospective (or "anterior") tense that establishes a relation between a state at one time and a situation at an earlier time (Comrie, 1976:64). Jespersen (1924:269) states that the perfect is present, but a permansive present: it represents the present state as an outcome of past events and may therefore be called a retrospective variety of the present. Moreover, that the term 'perfect' refers to a past situation which has present relevance, for instance, the present result of a past event as in *his arm has been broken* (Comrie, 1976:12).

The study done by (Comrie, 1976:3, 6) argues that perfect aspect does not satisfy the definition of aspect. Comrie (1985:14) states that aspect is non deictic since discussion of the internal temporal constituency of a situation is independent of its relation to any other time point while tense is grammaticalised expression of location in time. Comrie (1985:35) concludes his argument by stating that adequate solution to characterising the English perfect will have to combine past and present time reference. Bybee, Perkins, and Pagliuca (1994:54) affirm that anterior (perfect) signals that the situation occurs prior to reference time and is relevant to the situation at reference time. The present perfect is like the past in locating an event that precedes the moment of utterance, but, unlike the past, it is used of an event or state of affairs located within a period of time that includes the moment of utterance.

2.3.2.3 Present perfect progressive

Research on progressive aspect shows that progressive carries tense marking in its first element, the copula *BE*: for example, *am eating*, *was eating* (Meulen, 1995). It is therefore predictable that the perfect, being a tense, would be the first element when it is used simultaneously with the progressive aspect. This explains why *HAVE been*

Ving is not *BE having Vn*. According to Allan (2001:358–365), the perfect progressive has been around since the Middle English period, though he does not know of any Old English examples. Allan (2006) assumes that this may be because the perfect needed to lose its aspectual property to become a tense while the progressive was still establishing itself as an aspect. In his conclusion, Allan (2006) states that the semantics of the perfect progressive is very straightforward if the perfect is recognised as a retrospective tense and the progressive as an aspect.

2.4 TENSE THEORY

The tense model that is fundamentally used to explain tenses is Reichenbach's (1947) theory. This theory distinguishes three points governing speakers' choice of tense. They are: point of speech (S), point of event (E) and point of reference (R). Reichenbach (1947:288) states the following about the tenses in English: The tenses determine time with reference to the time point of the act of speech, i.e. of the token uttered. Accordingly, the most important feature of Reichenbach's tense model is the establishment of reference points in time. Reichenbach (1947) then argues that English tense relates events to two grammaticised reference points in time - one past and one non-past. Reichenbach's (1947) representation of tense on the time line influences even the definitions of tense and aspect. For instance, Comrie (1976:1-2) defines tense as relating to "the time of the situation referred to some other time, usually to the moment of speaking." To Reichenbach's (1947) division of S (the point of speech), E (the point of the event) and R (the point of reference), two new terms were suggested for the fourth factor. For this, Dahl (1985) suggests a fourth factor as temporal frame (F). According to Dahl (1985), the introduction of the temporal frame is more effective in accounting for the adverbial phrase, an analysis which Reichenbach (1947) could not accommodate. Dahl (1985) argues that languages with no future tense markers can indicate this through the use of temporal adverbs. Comrie (1985) and Dahl (1985) refined Reichenbach's (1947) time line by interpreting the moment of speech as the deictic centre. Deictic simply means that tense is located the within the framework of time, that is, present, past and future tenses, relative to the situation of utterance. Understanding tense in the context of non-standard English thus forms provides a foundation for interpretation of the new English varieties' logic of temporality.

2.5 STUDIES ON TENSE AND ASPECT IN NEW ENGLISHES

There are a number of empirical studies on tense and aspect in the New Englishes. Tense and aspect as part of grammar to be learnt by Southeast Asian learners of English is reported to be problematic despite ten years of English medium education (Svalberg, 1998). Studies on tense and aspect in the new English were conducted among Malay speakers of English to find out the causal factor of the problem. Svalberg (1998) conducted a study of ten students from the University of Brunei Darussalam to investigate the differences in tense and aspect between Standard (British) English grammar and output grammar. The researcher recorded the ten first year students in a conversation to find out what Malay speaking learners do with tense and aspect in English. The study showed that among non native speakers of English, tense errors occurred frequently, that is, present tense forms in the place of past tense. Therefore, Svalberg (1998) notes that tense causes the majority of errors and is considered very important when compared to any other error in the verb group. Cane (1996) also states that tense and aspect is one of major categories of 'simplification' both in learner language and on syntactic simplification and creativity in Brunei English. According to Platt et al. (1984), simplication of syntax is common in other New Englishes. Svalberg's study (1998) further reports that the recorded conversation data of non native speaker contained overuse of present tense and base forms of verbs which Cane (1993,1996) regard as a feature of Brunei English (BNE).

This persistence and frequency of non-standard forms of English is then regarded as a result of L1 transfer (Schachter, 1992:44). This transfer is seen as a constraint imposed by previous knowledge on a more general process than that of inferencing (Schachter, 1992). It is assumed that previous knowledge that concerns the non-native speakers of English is their L1 knowledge. For the Malay speakers to use tense and aspect correctly in Standard British language, they have to acquire its notion that tense and aspect are obligatory and that no verb group is totally unmarked in English.

In addition, Hartford (1993) explained tense and aspect in the Nepali English news discourse by exploring the various uses of the Nepali English pluperfect. The study

is investigated using *The Rising Nepal* newspaper, a daily English medium newspaper which consists of local international community as well as well educated Nepalis. The striking issue to a native speaker's reading this newspaper is the non-native like use of the pluperfect in local and national stories. This form is often employed where a native English story would use the simple past or a present form. According to Hartford (1993), this study shows that the Nepali English pluperfect functions like its native English equivalent, and it is characterised by a common semantic feature of remoteness. Although the native English pluperfect denotes the relative remoteness in time, its function is to indicate anteriority to another. The primary function of the NpE pluperfect in news-stories is to indicate the level of relevance of events: to signal their thematic remoteness from the main news-story, macroproposition. This remoteness semantic is a secondary characteristic of native English which has been promoted to a primary one in Nepali English. This refers to that this function of the pluperfect is derived from the Nepali language. Therefore, this study affirms that Nepali is a primary motivating factor in the Nepali English tense and aspect. This is evident in that a Nepali news story shows the Nepali 'equivalent' of the English pluperfect utilized in the same way as used in the Nepali English texts. In this case, there is a backgrounding of events concurrent in time with the thematic events. The simple past articulates the events thematised in the Headline, and the pluperfect, used for details, delivers the information that is secondary. Overall, these studies show that new English varieties develop their own tense and aspect forms that are influenced by the speakers' L1.

2.6 TENSE AND ASPECT IN BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN ENGLISH

Tense and aspectual properties in BSAE have been given attention in the literature. The following properties represent major findings on the variety.

2.6.1 Progressive aspect

Studies by De Klerk (2003), Makalela (2004), Mesthrie (2004), Van der Walt and Van Rooy (2002) have shown that there is an extension of the progressive aspect to stative verbs which is regarded as tense-aspect combination. Research on BSAE tense and aspect distinguishes progressive aspect as one of the most frequent

usages. Van Rooy (2006) provides quantitative evidence that this construction indeed occurs substantially more often in both spoken and written forms of BSAE than in comparable native English corpora. On this basis, Van Rooy (2008) conducted a study among Bantu language speakers of English in order to do a further investigation on progressive aspect. The investigation was on corpora from the inner, outer and expanding varieties. The Tswana learner English represented the outer variety, while German learner English represented the expanding circle and the inner circle was represented by American students. Van Rooy (2008) reports that in the inner circle, there is a contrast in the use of progressive aspect in dynamic stative verbs. He also indicates that the Tswana learner English (TLE) use twice more of progressive aspect when compared to German learner English (GLE) and American students. In the case of TLE it is concluded that BSAE speakers are unable to use progressive aspect as model in the inner circle variety (Van Rooy, 2008). It is further indicated that GLE and TLE use the be+v-ing differently when compared. Therefore this means that new outer circle variety of English is emerging in South Africa, which differs from inner circle varieties.

Taking this matter further, Makalela (2004) studied the conversation of university students in order to stress the use of progressive aspect/-ing/ to stative verbs in a way which is not accepted in the Standard English. Makalela finds that these students use the suffix-ing to stative. He further states that Sepedi speakers illustrate that Bantu languages in South Africa do not mark grammatical distinctions between progressive and stative aspects through inflectional conjugations. Progressive and stative aspects are distinguished by means of verbal arguments and context usage in Bantu languages of South Africa. That is, the temporal logic in Bantu languages does not conceptually distinguish the view of present time in terms of habituality and progressiveness. Therefore, Makalela (2004) concludes that the overuse of progressive aspect reflects Bantu logic where inflections do not play an important role in the articulation of aspectual meanings.

The theory aspect according to Comrie (1976) and Dahl (1985), asserts that overgeneralization aspect occurs because some languages rely on verbal argument (telicity) and less on inflections (perfectively) and vice versa. For example, English tends to distinguish habitual and progressive aspects while African Bantu languages

in South Africa strictly use verbal arguments to articulate these aspectual meanings. Roodt (1993) argued that this occurrence of progressive aspect as result of fossilizations of incorrect usage of language. But Makalela (2004) refutes this claim and explains that the Bantu temporal logic causes the production of this feature through transfer of temporal reasoning. Makalela (2004:358–9) and Wade (1996) furthermore emphasize that the overuse of inflections on verbs is due to lack of inflectional contrast between progressive and non-progressive/simple aspect in the Bantu languages of South Africa.

2.6.2 Tense sequencing

In African varieties of English, sequence of tense in complex and compound sentences does not follow the pattern as in normative English varieties. Consequently, Schmied (1991:65–6) points out that inflections, including regular past tense forms and irregular forms, are not always added to the verbs, but the unmarked forms are used instead. He suggests that pronunciation may contribute to this since final consonants, particularly in clusters, are subject to deletion in many African varieties of English. Makalela (2004) in tense sequencing states that the tense logic and discourse patterns have not been adequately studied when compared to other characteristics of BSAE like morpho-syntactic, phonological, discourse and pragmatics and lexico-semantic properties. The study of tense logic and discourse patterns will show the important role it plays and further analyse the distinctive nature of BSAE. Makalela (2004) identifies that in Sepedi, Setswana and Sesotho past tense is then marked only in the verb of the first clause. The formation of narrative tense in Sepedi depends on the present tense form and narrative pronoun which differs from English narrative as it relies on simple present tense. Once the narrative pronoun is used, the tense of the subsequent verb retains the present tense form. He also adds that this variation in linguistic representations implies that there is temporal "reasonings" between native speakers of English and speakers of Bantu languages. On the other hand, Van der Walt and Van Rooy (2002) furthermore show that teachers do not often correct unmarked verb forms that are used in the context of past time reference. They interpret their results as evidence for the acceptance of unmarked verb forms in such positions, and as a step towards institutionalisation of such forms.

Tense sequencing can also be explained according to Reichenbach's theory that distinguishes speakers' choice of tense based on point of speech (S), point of event (E) and point of reference(R) as well as temporal frame (F) (Dahl, 1985). Although this model can be used to analyse tense in every language, it should be noted that temporal reasonings are culture specific. The study according to Makalela (2004) reports that the points of event in Sepedi is not perceived as being temporal sequential or distinct because time is viewed as a big chunk of the whole sentence uttered. He also indicates that a Bantu way of thinking about temporality in narration, where the point is viewed as a continuation of the whole sum, is transferred when speakers communicate in English. This argument reflects that patterns of progressive aspect and tense sequence as they occur in Bantu languages propose the features of BSAE rather than being called fossilisation (failed learning). This process is identified as speaker's creativity which is enriched by a confluence of Bantu language logic and English surface manifestations (Makalela, 2004).

2.7. CONCLUSION

In summing the discussions based on the literature it is evident that there is a deviant usage of tense and aspect from Standard British English by English second language speakers. This leads to emerging of English varieties in different countries where English is not a native language, such as BSAE. Although, this has sparked a debate where some scholars regarded this as conglomeration of errors or fossilised learning, Makalela (2004), Van Rooy (2008), De Klerk and Gough (2002) refute this claim and states that it is a variety that is emerging and share across a wider spectrum of the educated community. While empirical research has been conducted on tense and aspect in Sepedi, Xitsonga and IsiXhosa languages (Makalela, 2004; Mthethwa, 2007; Van Rooy, 2006), a study on tense and aspect in Tshivenḓa speakers remain under researched and relatively unknown. It is recognised here that it is essential that the study of tense and aspect be carried out among Tshivenḓa speakers because there is a knowledge gap in the literature studies of BSAE. The next chapter describes the methodology and design of the study on Tshivenḓa speakers' use of tense of aspect in English classrooms.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to investigate tense and aspect usages in English among grade 11 mother tongue speakers of Tshivenḓa learners. Therefore, the methodology selected for the proposed study was detailed here. This chapter presents research design and methodology, population, methods of sample selection, data collection and analysis of results. Ethical considerations for this particular research study were detailed. It was hoped that the chosen methodology would gather in-depth knowledge on tense and aspect among mother tongue speakers of Tshivenḓa.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design of a study outlines the basic approach that researchers use to answer their research question (Polit & Beck, 2010). To meet the aims and objectives of the study it is important that the researcher selects the most appropriate design for achieving the aims of the study (Parahoo, 2006). In addition, the function of the research design is to ensure that evidence is obtained which will be instrumental in answering the research question as explicitly and accurately as possible (De Vos, 2001).

The design of the study was based on the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches to cover the depth and breadth of the scope of the study on tense and aspect transfer from Tshivenda into English. This research approach fits the classification of concurrent mixed method. As revealed by scholars in this field, mixed method studies combine qualitative and quantitative research methods so they work in tandem to answer the key research questions in a single study (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Yin, 2006). According to Creswell (2005), mixed method research is a research approach in which the researcher uses the qualitative research paradigm for one phase of a research study and the quantitative research paradigm for another in order to understand a research problem more completely.

These approaches are viewed as complementary rather than competitive methods and the use of a particular method and the decision to use both methods in a single study must be based on the nature of the actual research problem and the research questions (McKinlay, 1993, and Baum, 1995 in Migiro and Magangi, 2011).

Typically, the quantitative component is used to support or validate the qualitative study by classifying features, count them, and construct a statistical model in an attempt to explain the findings. Creswell (1994) has given a very concise definition of quantitative research as a type of research that is explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics). This research approach is an objective, formal systematic process in which numerical data findings are presented. It describes, tests, and examines cause and effect relationships (Burns and Grove, 1987), using a deductive process of knowledge attainment (Duffy, 1985).

A quantitative examination was undertaken of a corpus parts constructed for this study in order to determine the frequency counts of tense and aspect forms in BSAE. In the spoken text, which is a story retelling, learners were recorded and the texts were analysed on tense and aspect usages. A further assessment was also done in written texts or learners' essays, where frequency counts were identified. These features were classified, defined and exemplified in the analytical framework. The results led to the development of tense and aspect taxonomy by the researcher from the data collected using this design. On completion of the analysis, data in the form of densities (involving a calculation of frequencies) was tabulated and analysed contrastively by means of describing the patterns that the data reflect.

After the quantitative examination, the data was examined qualitatively. Johnson and Christensen (2000:313) describe qualitative research as "naturalistic inquiry" where non-interfering data-collection strategies are used to discover the natural flow of events and processes and how participants interpret them. Furthermore, Lemmer (1992:294) outlines qualitative research methodology as a "tradition which focuses on the in-depth, the detail, the process and the context of schooling offers the educationist a valid and worthwhile research method". Holliday (2002:4) adds that qualitative research "invokes the need to discover as much about how the research

subjects feel about the information they provide as about the information itself". In the light of this discussion, the qualitative research methodology systematically provided answers to questions related to the problem statement of a research study.

In this study, qualitative methodology helped to interpret the taxonomies that occur within the tense and aspect of learners' speech and written texts due to the influence of Tshivenda mother language. Furthermore, the researcher traced the possible transfer of Tshivenda substrate system that may have impact on the learner's second language. Lastly, qualitative approach, which has a holistic focus, allowed for flexibility and the attainment of a deeper, more valid understanding of the findings for the study.

3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

A population is the total group of subjects that meet a designated set of criteria. Polit and Hungler (1998:278) distinguish between the target population and accessible population. The target population includes all cases about which the researcher would like to make generalisations. The accessible population comprises all the cases that conform to the designated criteria and are accessible to the researcher as a pool of subjects of study. In this study, the target population consisted of 80 learners from grade 11 (Further Education Training band) who registered English as First Additional language, whereas the 30 learners were the accessible population. These learners were L1- Tshivenḓa speakers of English aged from 14-16 years. They were from a Tshivenḓa community in Tshilamba Circuit from a school with high density of Tshivenḓa speaking learners. The language spoken at home and at school was Tshivenḓa, and their onset exposure to English was six years or older and none of them lived in English speaking family or area.

This population was selected because the researcher believed it to be information rich, which supplied valid and reliable first-hand information. In other words, it yielded the most comprehensive transfer of tense and aspect usages in English because these learners were Tshivenḓa mother tongue speakers. Furthermore, Tshivenḓa is offered as one of the subjects at this school and the selected learners had registered for this subject as a home language. In addition, these grade 11 learners were

believed to be a suitable population because they have acquired a better command of English, in writing and speaking when compared to the other lower grades.

These Tshivenḓa mother tongue speakers of English were identified as low socioeconomic status, meaning that they were from low income families with low level of education. In this case, most of these learners' parents are illiterate while few have received basic education. The participants in this study were attending a high school in a village situated in rural areas, which is 230 km north east of Polokwane city. The school falls within a quintile three category, that is, previously disadvantaged and underserved school. These learners do not have good infrastructure and the necessary resources at their disposal. There is no library at school and even in the communities where they live. School textbooks were the only written texts which these learners used for reading and they have to share among themselves. Therefore, they have limited opportunity to interact with texts written in English for their reading. Moreover, the learners spoke in English only when they were at school and it was the only place where they could get English written texts for reading purpose. In other words, English was less likely used outside the school environment.

3.3.1 Sampling

Sampling is defined as the process of drawing a sample from a population (Johnson and Christensen 2000:175). This implies that the people selected are representative of a population. Patton (1990), Miles and Huberman (1994), Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) identified twenty-four sampling schemes that qualitative and quantitative researchers have available for use. All these sampling schemes fall into one or two classes namely, random sampling (probabilistic sampling) schemes or non- random sampling (non-probabilistic sampling). This study followed a combination of non probability and probability sampling.

3.3.1.1 Non-probability sampling

Research participants were selected through purposeful sampling strategy (Creswell, 1998). The participants met the following criteria, they were 80 grade 11 learners

who were Tshivenḓa mother tongue speakers and had registered English as an additional language. According to Polit and Beck (2010), quantitative researchers should select the largest sample possible so that it is representative of the target population. This means that they are capable of generating data which is representative of the population. In addition, the researcher selected the school for the study because it was easily accessible and he was also well known by members of the school teaching staff. That is, a convenience sampling was used for the selection.

3.3.1.2 Probability sampling

Yamane (1967) states that probability samples are samples in which every member of the defined population has an equal likelihood of being selected for inclusion. Out of the 80 learners, 30 were selected to participate in the research according to simple random sampling. In this study, the researcher selected the sample of learners at random by assigning a number to each name and 'picking the numbers out of a hat' (Proctor *et al.* 2010). Furthermore, among the 30 participants 12 learners were selected using stratified random sampling to ensure different proficiency levels were equally represented. Proctor *et al.* (2010) maintain that the use of probability sampling in quantitative research reduces errors and biases in the study.

For the sake of convenience and time effiency, systematic sampling was done with the 90 written essays that learners presented. According to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007), systematic sampling refers to choosing individuals from a list by selecting every kth sampling frame member, where k typifies the population divided by the preferred sample size. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:199) also define systematic sampling as selecting of individuals or clusters according to a predetermined sequence. In this study, the researcher selected every third essay from the 90 presented essays. This implies that 30 essays were assessed to find tense and aspect transfers as presented by the learners.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION

The researcher made an appointment with the headmaster requesting for permission to collect data in the school. The participants were from two classes of the same grade. The participants were informed a day before that they would write essay tasks for research purpose. Among the 30 participants 12 learners were selected with the help of the English teacher based on their performance, that is, 4 above average, 4 average and 4 below average, they were recorded when doing storytelling. The researcher used stratified random sampling to select the learners. In other words, in stratified random sampling, the researcher samples equally from each of the layers (strata) in the overall population (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:202). Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) identify 12 participants as an appropriate sample size for recording data. The writing task was done during English period which was allocated an hour, on the first day. After the completion of essay writings, storytelling was recorded during study time.

3.4.1 Instruments

3.4.2 Learners' essays

The researcher's main source of data used to find answers to the research question were the written essays presented by 30 learners from the two classes of grade 11. They were requested to write all essays on the topics on different days, that is, from Tuesday to Thursday to avoid disruption of lessons. Each task was allocated one hour for writing.

1. It was the greatest day in my life.

2. The person I respect the most.

3. The day I will earn my first salary.

These narrative compositions helped in yielding the various tense and aspect usages, namely, essay 1 past tense, essay 2 present tense and essay 3 future tense. Furthermore, these topics brought forth future tense wherein learners wrote

about their feelings and wishes for future events. Assessment of assigned tasks was another way to observe learners' possible transfer of their mother tongue language substrate system in English tense and aspect usage.

3.4.3 Story re-telling

The researcher gave the following instructions to the learners; first, they created their stories in Tshivenḓa mother tongue language. These stories were folklore or real stories which they might have encountered in their lives. They drafted some main points down in order to avoid incoherence during narration. The researcher also gave them a chance to practise the narration only in their mother tongue. When drafting was completed, they were given 10 minutes on the speaking task. The learners were instructed to narrate the stories in Tshivenḓa language and later retell in English. The researcher informed the learners that recording would be done in private, as this would help increase their level of confidence. Some of the following titles were narrated:

Maswina a vhutshilo hoṱhe - Foes for life

Vhusiwana - Poverty

Bako ḽa musuku – A cave of gold

Ndi khwine u humbela – It is better to ask

Vhuṱali ha Sankambe – The wisdom of the rabbit

Ndi mushumo ya ṱhangu – The works of the ancestral bones

Vhathu vhe vha vha tshi tswa vhana – People who stole children

Nḓila ye mbiḓi ya wana ngayo mavhala -How zebra got the black and white stripes

Mukegulu we a vha a tshi dzula kha tshienda – An old woman who lived in a shoe

Ntsa ye ya vha i tshi lela ṅwana – A springbok that looked after a child

Mbevha tharu na mufamakadzi wa rabulasi – Three mice and the farmer's wife

Shango ḽa swiswi – A country of darkness

There were some challenges that learners experienced. It took much longer time to retell the story in English while it was easy doing that in their mother tongue. In some instances, the meanings of some sentences were completely distorted and the stories could not be understood. The narration of these different stories helped the researcher to trace possible transfer of Tshivenḓa substrate system in English tense and aspect usages from the learners' spoken texts. The storytelling was recorded and transcribed by the researcher in order to get the learners' spoken texts in written form for purposes of analysis.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Glesne (1999:130) observes that "data analysis involves organising what you have seen, heard, and read so that you can make sense of what you have learned. Working with data, you describe, create explanations, pose hypotheses, develop theories, and link your story to other stories".The qualitative data for this research was analysed by means of thematic content analysis, which involved immersion in the data, familiarisation, theme induction, coding, elaboration, interpretation and checking (Terblanche and Durrheim, 1999). In qualitative analysis, only the use of the three English morphemes, namely, the 3rd person singular $-S$, the present progressive aspect, suffix $-ing$, and the copula be $-$in obligatory contexts were examined. The researcher approached the analysis of story retelling and written essays from the perspective of concepts and categories of the English morphemes. Each task of the essays was marked by circling or underlining the tense and aspect features and frequency counts were indicated.

3.5.1 Data analysis as a process

Data analysis refers to a process of making sense out of the collected data and involves consolidating, reducing and interpreting responses of the respondents. The question of consolidating, reducing and interpreting demonstrates that there is a process involved and that analysis is not an eventual occurrence. With reference to this study, analysis of data followed quantitative equation (Merriam, 1998:178). Data analysis in quantitative paradigm does not in itself provide the answers to the

research question. It is necessary that interpretation of data and results be done to get the required answers.

For this study, Miles and Huberman's (1994) flow model was used analyse the data qualitatively. According to these scholars data analysis consists of three concurrent flows of activity, namely data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification.
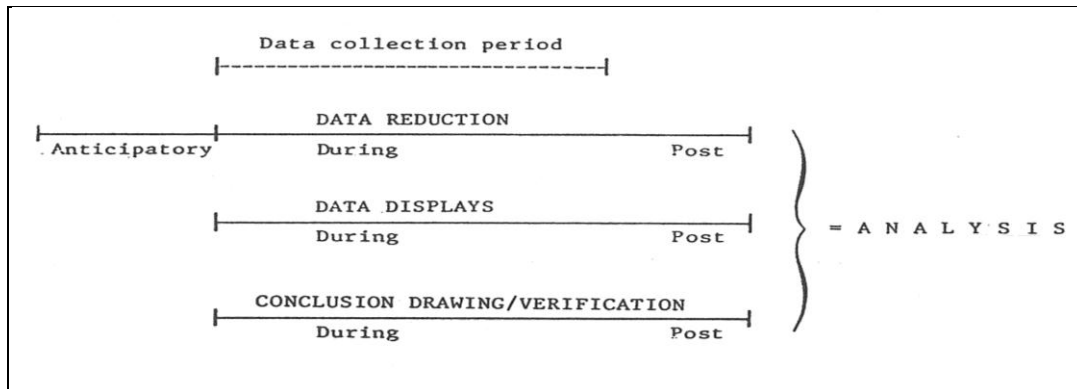
Figure 3.1 Components of data analysis: Flow model, (Miles & Huberman, 1994)

In their study, Miles and Huberman (1994:10) define data reduction as, "the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appear in written-up field notes or transcriptions". In other words, data reduction means displaying data systematically in order to make it simpler and clearer.

In terms of data display, Miles and Huberman (1994:11) suggest that it needs to move from the frequently used extended text to matrices, graphs, charts and networks. These forms of data displays are far more accessible and compact. The creation of data displays is also not separate from analysis, but forms part of the analysis process, externalising the thinking of the analyst. In this study, the researcher used tables and graphs to display all the transfers and deviations of tense and aspect usages extracted from learners' written and spoken texts.

The third flow of analysis activities (Figure 3.1) as proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) is conclusion drawing and verification. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the researcher should be aware of regularities, patterns, possible configurations and logical causal flows throughout the research process. The

researcher approached the analysis of storytelling (oral narratives) and written essays from the perspective of concepts and categories of the systems. The provided data were coded to capture related data. Miles and Huberman (1994:56) define coding as "tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information during the study". The indexing of the data through the use of codes was a way of reducing and organizing the data for subsequent analysis.

In this study, each morpheme token was coded in terms of two types of performance; namely, correct and incorrect use. On this basis, correct use is referred as Standard English whereas incorrect use means non-Standard English. This led to development of tense taxonomies as they appeared in the corpora collected. In the quantitative data, frequencies of use of each morpheme as non-standard forms were counted and analysed.

3.6. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

3.6.1 Reliability

According to Polit and Hungler (1999:713), reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure. De Vos et al (2002: 169) explain that reliability is primarily concerned not with what is being measured but with how well it is being measured. Gay and Airasian (2003:141) define reliability as "the degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it is measuring". In other words, reliability is used to gauge whether the same results can be obtained if this study was to be replicated. In order to ensure reliability, in this particular study the researcher used multiple methods of data collection; that is, data were triangulated. In quantitative approach, triangulation for confirmatory purpose is normally applied to confirm if instruments were appropriate for measuring a concept (Flick, Kardoff & Steinske, 2004).

3.6.2 Validity

As noted above, reliability is regarded to be the main requirement for the data-gathering instrument; validity is considered the main criterion by which the quality of

the instrument is measured (Uys and Basson, 1991). Moreover, validity is defined as the degree to which a test succeeds in measuring what is supposed to measure (Mulder, 1996:215). A test is valid for a particular purpose and for a particular group. The areas covered by the test are validated by experts in those areas and the literature study (Gay, 1995:155). In this study, tense and aspect in BSAE were validated by experts and the literature review in Chapter 2 to sample these concepts adequately. In addition, the researcher presented data from learners' written and spoken texts to illustrate participants' meanings which ensure validity. Therefore, Babbie (1995) referred to validity as the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the meaning of the problem under consideration. In summary, validity simply means that the researcher's conclusion is true and that it corresponds to actual lived reality (White, 2002).

In this study, validity and reliability were enhanced because a variety of data collection instruments were used. Data were broken down into separate parts, closely examined, compared for similarities and differences.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The participants were not subjected to unusual stress, embarrassment or loss of self-esteem. In case where the nature of study would involve creating psychological discomfort, participants were informed about this ahead of time. Factors involved in protection include informed consent for the participants, confidentiality of data, right to privacy and protection of individual from harm. They were told the nature of the study to be conducted and given the choice of either participating or not. The researcher further told the participants that if they agreed to participate, they had the right to withdraw from the study. Their participation was voluntary. The researcher kept the nature and the quality of participant's performance strictly confidential or revealed under his or her permission.

3.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was a small-scale research conducted in one high school in Vhembe District, and it was identified as a classroom based research. That is, 30 learners in

grade 11 were selected to participate. It was difficult to make a generalisation from this small sample.When research is conducted in the classroom, such research is inherently constrained. Such limitation was often beyond the control of the researcher. However, the attempt to triangulate the data both qualitatively and quantitatively has reduced the impact of small size.

3.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter described the research design and methodology that were followed during the interaction with the participants. It detailed the population, sampling processes, data collection methodology and analysis that would be employed. A sequential use of mixed methods was preferred since qualitative and quantitative research methods were found to be complementary rather than opposed approaches and that would give sufficient data for the study to enrich the findings of the study. Finally, validity and reliability measures of the study were flagged. The report on the findings of the study follows in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The research design and methodology were presented in the previous chapter. Therefore, this chapter deals specifically with data analysis and presentation. It also presents tense and aspect transfers of Tshivenda mother tongue speakers of English which were analysed contrastively. The chapter also shows how data were analysed and presented in tables, charts and graphs. Data were analysed and quantitatively presented in percentages. The findings are qualitatively and quantitatively presented in line with the objectives of the study.

4.2 DATA PRESENTATION

According to Mouton (2001:108), data presentation can be displayed in different formats and properties. The analysis of data in the form of graphs and tables is one way of formatting. Data presentation in graphic form was deemed necessary because it is easy to interpret data.

4.3 LEARNERS' WRITTEN AND SPOKEN TEXTS

The tense and aspect usage by the participants were extracted from the 30 learners' written essays and 12 stories narrated by learners. These written texts displayed the use of present, past and future tenses while story telling display the use of past tense. In order to organise and reduce data in this study, the researcher used the following codes:

NON STD E means Non Standard English.
STD E means Standard British English.

4.3.1 Extension of progressive aspect to stative verbs

Research on BSAE tense and aspect distinguishes progressive aspect as one of the most frequent usages. In this case, it is concluded by van Rooy (2008) that BSAE speakers are unable to use progressive aspect as modelled in the inner circle variety. The results of the study shows that there is an extension of progressive aspect (+ing) to stative verbs such as know, feel, and understand. In the BSAE literature (Van Rooy, 2006), this feature is cited as typical. In the present study extension of progressive aspect occurred with higher frequency in the oral narratives and written texts of non Standard English than in Standard English. The following Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 illustrate the frequency of occurrences:

Table 4.1: Extension of progressive aspect to stative verb

	NON STD E		STD E	
TEXT	ORAL	WRITTEN	ORAL	WRITTEN
N	65	207	42	93
%	61	69	39	31

Figure 4.1 below presents the frequency occurrence of extension of progressive aspect to stative in oral narratives and written text in terms of percentages.

EXTENSION OF PROGRESSIVE ASPECT TO STATIVE VERB
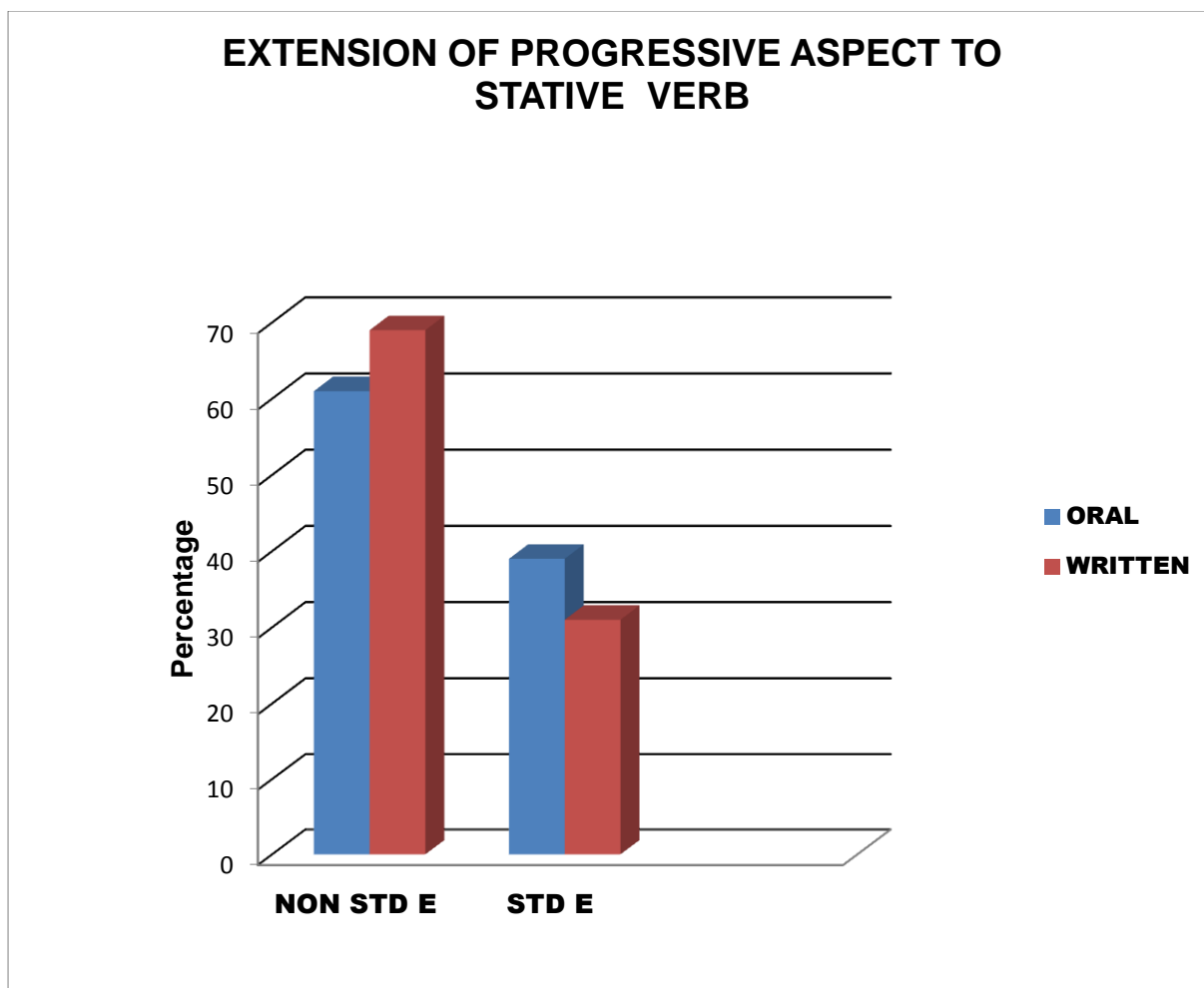
Figure 4.1: Extension of progressive aspect to stative verb

The graph above (Figure 4.1) shows that, in obligatory contexts, extension of progressive aspect has a 61% and 69% frequency occurrence in oral and written texts, respectively while only 31% and 39% are of instances which reflect Standard English use of the aspect. The high frequency occurrence of extension of progressive aspect to stative verbs in non-Standard English gives a clear indication that the participants in this study use progressive aspect/-ing/ to stative verbs in a way which is not accepted in Standard English. As illustrated by Makalela's study (2004), these participants like Sepedi speakers do not mark grammatical distinctions between progressive and stative aspects through inflectional conjugations. In other words, progressive and stative aspects are distinguished by means of verbal arguments and context usage in Bantu languages of South Africa. Therefore, the overuse of progressive aspect reflects Bantu logic where inflections do not play an important role in the articulation of aspectual meanings. This means that extension of

progressive aspect is a characteristic feature of the Tshivenḓa corpus and its frequency confirms previous observations in the BSAE literature (Makalela, 2013, 2004; Van Rooy, 2006).

The study further sought to determine causes of this feature in BSAE by comparing and contrasting samples of sentences produced by the participants. The English and Tshivenḓa contrasts are represented in sentences 1-4 below:

1. My father is having a car.

    "Khotsi anga vha na goloi".

2. I accepted him because I was knowing him.

    "Ndo mu ṱanganedza ngauri ndo vha ndi khou mu ḓivha."

3. There was an old woman, she were having a farm or orchard.

    "Ho vha hu na mukegulu we a vha a na bulasi."

4. That car was having dogs and the driver was having a black sjambok.

    "Heiḽa goloi yo vha i na mmbwa na mureili o vha a na mboma ntswu."

In sentence 1, the equivalent of car, *'goloi,'* is considered a concrete object. From Tshivenda point of view, *'Khotsi anga vha na goloi'* is grammatically acceptable due to the conceptualisation of car as a concrete object. In this case, differences on whether an object noun is concrete or abstract do not differentiate progressiveness or habituality in Tshivenḓa. Standard English only permits the use of a stative verb such as *having* with non-possessive (abstract) objects (Quirk, 1990). For example, *Our school is having a concert tonight*. However, this stative verb *having* creates a non-standard formation when used with possessive (concrete) objects as in *My father is having a car*.

 The next sentences '...knowing him' (2), '...having a farm' (3), and '...having a black sjambok' (4) show that distinction between abstractness and concreteness is blurred in the Tshivenḓa versions; that is, '*ndi khou mu ḓivha',* 'we *a vha a na bulasi'*, and '*o vha a na mboma ntswu'*. In this connection, the extensive use of progressive aspect

by Tshivenḓa users of English does not carry the progressive meaning as the examples show. This study therefore shows that there is a transfer of the Tshivenḓa substrate system among these participants. Similarly, this study like other studies on BSAE shows that BSAE speakers tend not to observe these standard norms in favour of indiscriminate usage of the progressive aspect. This preponderance of the progressive aspect is thus influenced by language transfer where Bantu temporal logic plays a vital role in the speech production of BSAE speakers. This explains that the temporal logic in Bantu languages does not conceptually distinguish the view of present time in terms of habituality and progressiveness and this led to the overuse of the progressive aspect.

4.3.2 Consecutive tense (C-tense)

BSAE literature indicates that in African varieties of English, the sequence of tense in complex and compound sentences do not follow the pattern as in normative English varieties. It is in this regard that Schmied (1991:65–6) points out that inflections, including regular past tense forms and irregular forms, are not always added to the verbs, but the unmarked forms are used instead. This study also reveals that there are non-standard forms of consecutive tense present among the Tshivenda mother tongue speakers of English which cites another feature of BSAE. Therefore, in the case of Tshivenḓa language complex and compound sentences, the past tense is marked only in the first clause. However, this contradicts with the consecutive tense in the Standard English which marks the first clause for past tense and the consecutive clause in the second clause of complex and compound sentences. The Table 4.2 and the Figure 4.2 below present frequency occurrences of written texts and oral narratives both in Standard English and non Standard English.

Table 4.2: Consecutive tense

	NON STD E		STD E	
TEXT	ORAL	WRITTEN	ORAL	WRITTEN
N	68	223	47	122
%	59	65	41	35

This table above shows that in consecutive tense has a high frequency occurrence of 59% and 65% in non-Standard English (BSAE) than in Standard English which reflects instances of this aspect at 41% and 35% in oral narratives and written text, respectively. The present study illustrates that consecutive tense of the non-Standard English forms occurs with high frequency in the corpus. This persistence and frequency of non-standard forms of English show that the L1 logic has an influence (Schachter, 1992:44). Figure 4.2 below presents the frequency occurrences of the oral narratives and written text for non-Standard English and Standard English in terms of percentages.

Figure 4.2: Consecutive tense

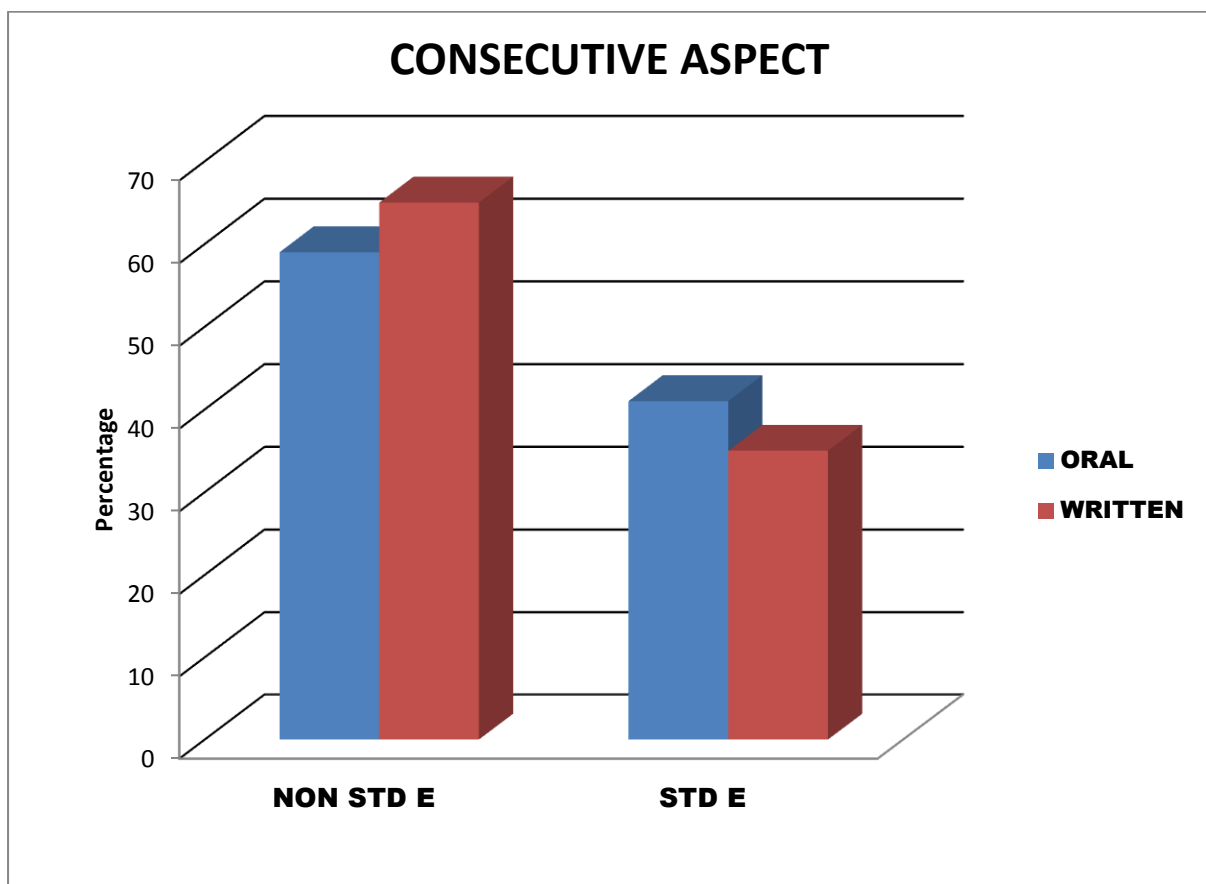The graph shows that non-Standard English forms of consecutive tense are a common feature among these participants in both oral and written texts. That is, there is a transfer of mother language to English forms. Here it is assumed that the previous knowledge that concerns the non-native speakers of English is their L1 knowledge. This study points out the presence of BSAE features among Tshivenḓa

speakers which is caused by variation in linguistic representations of temporal "reasonings" between native speakers of English and speakers of Bantu languages (Makalela, 2004).

In order to find out the causative factor of this feature in BSAE, the study compared and contrasted samples of sentences produced by the participants. The English and Tshivenda contrasts are represented in sentences 5-9 below:

5. After the braai we <u>ate</u> everything we <u>have</u>.

   "Nga murahu ha u gotsha <u>ro ḽa zwo</u>ṱhe zwine <u>ra vha</u> nazwo."

6. When we <u>arrived</u> atṮhohoyanḓou, teachers <u>go</u> to the shops to buy.

   "Musi <u>ro swika</u> Ṱhohoyanḓou, vhadededzi <u>vha ya</u> mavhengeleni u renga."

7. Sankambe <u>said</u> that we <u>have</u> to go and have fruits.

   "Sankambe <u>o amba </u>ari ri ṱuwe ri yo <u>u wana</u> mitshelo."

8. One day the springbok <u>killed</u> the child and <u>give</u> some parts to the mother.

   "Ḽiṅwe ḓuvha ntsa <u>yo vhulaha</u> ṅwana <u>ya fha</u> miṅwe miraḓo kha mme"

9. Her husband <u>asked</u> her where <u>the child is</u>.

   "Munna wawe <u>o vhudzisa</u> uri ṅwana <u>u ngafhi</u>."

The sentences above reflect narrative tense in Tshivenḓa language in which the past tense of the subsequent clauses is marked by verbal inflections. In other words, the argument structure of the whole sentences marks the narrative tense. In sentences 5-8, there are special narrative pronouns like, /ra/, /vha/, /u/ and *ya/* which depend on the subject pronoun /ro/, */o/,* and */yo/.* For an example, in sentence 8, the narrative pronoun /ya/ depends on the subject pronoun /yo/. Once the narrative pronoun is used, the tense of the subsequent verb retains the present form (...<u>yo vhulaha</u>, meaning *killed,*...<u>ya fha</u>...meaning *to give*). This implies that in Tshivenḓa, the present tense form and the narrative pronoun are the determining factors of marking the narration in this language. As this is the case, this illustrates the different

linguistic representation which reflects differential temporal reasoning, between native speakers of English and Tshivenḓa speakers.

Furthermore, this study also reports that a high frequency in the deviation of consecutive tense among Tshivenḓa speakers. This can be understood from the theory of tense developed by Reichenbach (1947) which suggest three points of governing the speakers' choice of tense: point of speech(S), point of event (E) and point of reference (R). However, Dahl (1985) made a modification by adding temporal (F) to create a context of speech. When this model is used to analyse tense in Tshivenḓa language, it results in different temporal points of perception. In this regard, sentence 6, points the following, "*ro swika*" Ṱhohoyanḓou (*we arrived*) and "*vha ya*" *mavhengeleni* (*they go to the shops*) are not seen as distinct or different temporal events. Here, in Tshivenḓa time is perceived as a big chunk of the whole expression. Therefore, among Tshivenḓa mother tongue speakers of English, a Bantu way of thinking about temporality in narration, where the point of events is viewed as one continuous chunk of time is transferred to English. In this regard, Tshivenḓa speakers produce non-Standard English forms of tense sequencing both in written and spoken forms as an alignment with Tshivenḓa speech patterns on tense usage.

4.3.3 Habitual aspect

The habitual aspect in Standard English states that a constant, unchanging, or repeated action, state, or habit exists in the present. Furthermore, English habitual aspect refers to those activities that are always done and repeated such as going to school, going to church and so forth. English present tense is formed with emphasis on subject-verb agreement (concord). Adding inflections such as -'s' or -'es' to verbs in the third person singular is one of the most basic English grammar rules that must always be followed. For all other persons, that is, 1st and 2nd persons, a base form of the verb is used. Then, this rule conflicts with habitual aspect in Tshivenḓa language.

The omission and the use of third person agreement marker /-s/ or /-es/ with plural subjects has been reported as one of the predominant features in BSAE (De Klerk &

Gough, 2002; Lanham, 1967). The frequency of the oral narratives and written text is displayed by the Table 4.3 and the Figure 4.3 below:

Table 4.3 Habitual aspect

TEXT	NON STD E		STD E	
	ORAL	WRITTEN	ORAL	WRITTEN
N	40	153	15	102
%	73	60	27	40

This table above shows that habitual aspect has frequencies of 60% and 73%, respectively, in non-Standard English while only 27% and 40% of instances reflect Standard English use of this aspect both in oral narratives as well as in written text. The present study illustrates that habitual aspect of the non-Standard English forms occur with higher frequency than in Standard English. This explains that the participants in this study are predominated by BSAE features because of mother tongue influence. The graph in Figure 4.3 below further presents frequency occurrences of oral narratives and written text in percentages.
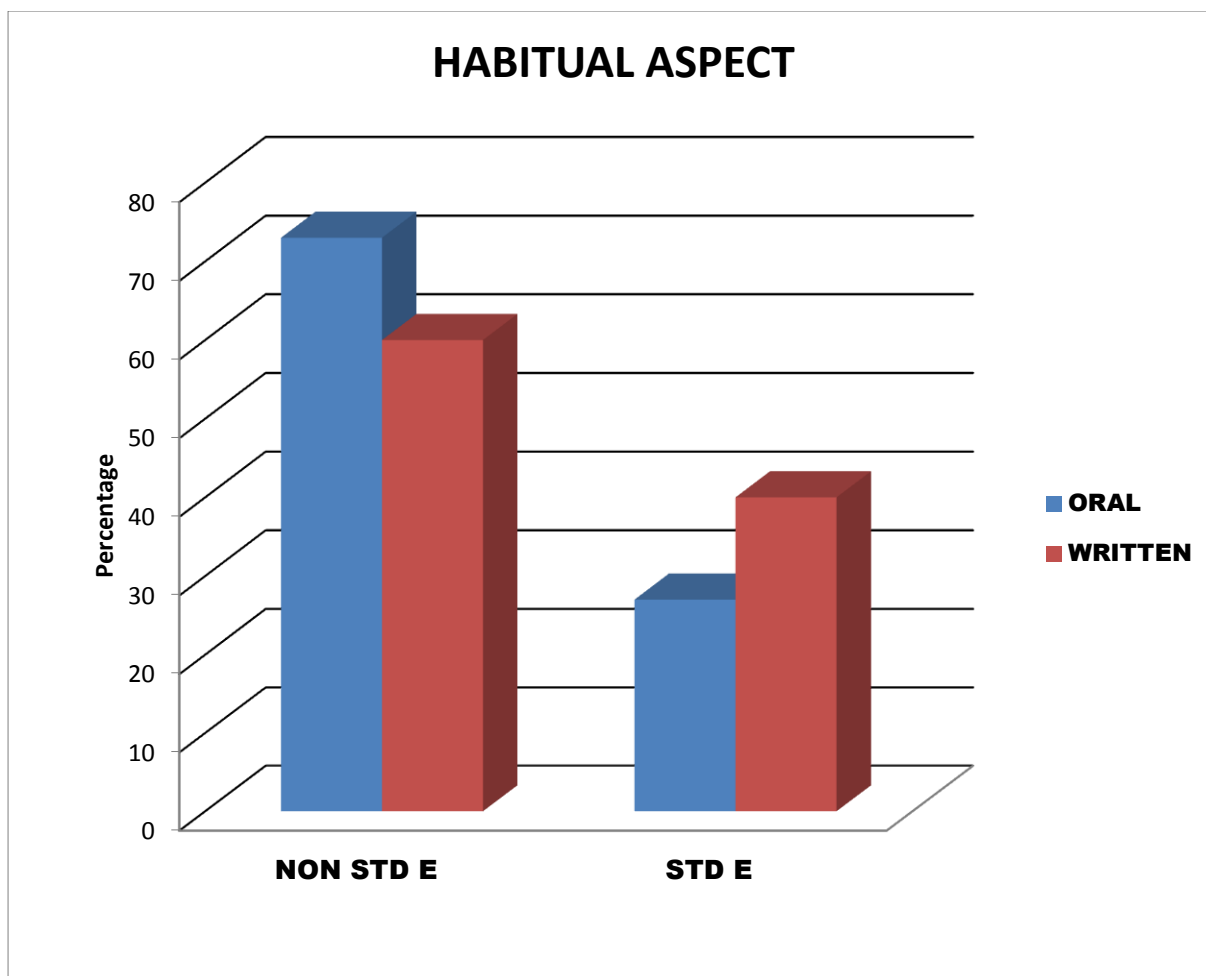
Figure 4.3: Habitual aspect

The graph above (Figure 4.3) illustrates that the frequency occurrence in non-Standard English is higher than in Standard English as it occurs in oral narratives and written text. The omissions of habitual present tense inflections by the participants in this study indicate that these inflections which are added to the verbs do not play a role in their habitual aspect tense forms. The frequency occurrences which are higher in non-Standard English than in Standard English show the presence of BSAE features among these participants. Examples of the English and Tshivenda sentences appear below to be used for comparing and contrasting.

The English and Tshivenḓa contrasts are represented in sentences 10-12 below:

10. If Mandela die, we are going to be a poor country.

"Arali Mandela a nga lovha, ri khou u ya u vha shango ḽa vhusiwana"

44

11. Itumeleng <u>have</u> a good performance.

"Itumeleng <u>u na</u> kutambele kwavhuḓi."

12. Something that <u>make</u> me happy is when the bride <u>start</u> kissing.

"Tshithu <u>tshi</u> ntakadzaho, ndi zwa musi muselwa a tshi thoma u khisa."

The sentences indicated above illustrate that these features produced are a result of logic of the agreement system in Bantu languages which regularised agreement marking. In the Bantu languages, like Tshivenḓa, agreement marking is dependent on the noun class prefix system that regularizes subjectival concords that are paired into singular noun classes and even plural noun class numbers.

For example, in sentence (12) all nouns in class 7 use /tshi/ as the agreement marker. That is the agreement marker /tshi/ correlates with noun prefix /tshi-/ in the noun 'tshithu'- (*something*). Furthermore, sentence (10) has */a/* while (11) has */u/* as agreement markers in class 1 *(mu-)* which refers to personal pronouns, however proper names were used. In these examples sentence (10) illustrate 'Mandela' - a noun with agreement marker */a/* and 'Itumeleng' – a noun with agreement marker */u/*. In the case where proper names are not used, the Tshivenḓa class 1 /mu-/ can be represented in this way: '*Mutukana u hama kholomo'* meaning '*The boy milks the cow'*. This means that the noun prefix */mu-/* correlates with agreement marker */u/*. This is clearly resembled in sentence (11) and in sentence (10) the subject concord or agreement marker */a/* is used due to usage of *'Arali'* meaning *'If'*. The word *'Arali'* is used to show the possibility of an action which in this sentence refers to possibility of Mandela's death.

The above discussions based on sentences 10-12 illustrate a regularized Tshivenḓa agreement pattern that influences agreement marking omissions in the English verbs, as in sentences 10 and 12 '*Mandela <u>die</u>'* and *'Something that <u>make</u>'*. Worth noting is the unnecessary role of inflections in marking agreement in Tshivenḓa language and because of this, omissions of inflections /-es/ and /-s/ are expected to recur among Tshivenḓa speakers.

In addition, the study also shows that there is also a tendency of using plural verbs with singular subject (sentence 11) - '_Itumeleng have good performance_'. This is to say that, in Tshivenḓa, the verbs of the sentence do not change a singularity or plural form because of the subject noun like in the case of English. In this study, it was found that the Standard English and Tshivenḓa habitual aspects forms are completely different from one another.

The major difference between Tshivenḓa and English languages lies in the use of inflections. For instance, while English language uses the following inflections – 's' or 'es' when using the habitual aspect, Tshivenḓa speakers use agreement markers to differentiate between the two tense forms. In addition, the habitual aspect is not used in relation with the persons of the noun or pronoun in Tshivenḓa. In English language, on the other hand, the habitual aspect is used in relation with the persons of the noun or pronoun. For instance, when the habitual aspect is used with the 3rd person singular it takes the inflected form of the tense morpheme or verb, which is either 's' or 'es'. While English is characterised by the presence of irregular verbs and the absence of it in Tshivenḓa, the participants in this study tend to produce non-Standard forms of habitual aspect in both the oral narratives and the written text. In addition, it has also been observed that the high frequency occurrence of non-Standard English forms of habitual aspect is a result of the participants transferring their tense and aspect usage from their L1 into English. This implies that mother tongue transfer has contributed to these non-Standard forms of habitual aspect.

4.3.4 Simple Past tense

BSAE literature as far as simple past tense is concerned has not been thus far widely researched. On the basis of Standard English grammar, simple past tense is characterised by use of suffixes /-d/ or /-ed/ which is attached to the verb. In this case, this study found that omission of suffixes /-d/ and /-ed/ to verbs has been a highly noted deviation among these participants' oral and written texts. The omissions of suffixes to verbs occurred although the subject of the sentence is singular and plural. Table 4.4 and the Figure 4.4 below display the frequency occurrence of oral narratives and written text in both non-standard and Standard Englishes:

Table 4.4 Simple past tense

TEXT	NON STD E		STD E	
	ORAL	WRITTEN	ORAL	WRITTEN
N	97	203	33	85
%	75	70	25	30

The table above provided a high occurrence of non-Standard English simple past tense usage at 70% and 75%, while the Standard English usage occurred lower at 25% and 30% in oral and written texts, respectively. This indicates that non-Standard English features are prevalent among these participants as a result of L1 transfer.

The bar graph below in figure 4.4 below presents simple past tense transfers of oral narratives and written text in percentages.
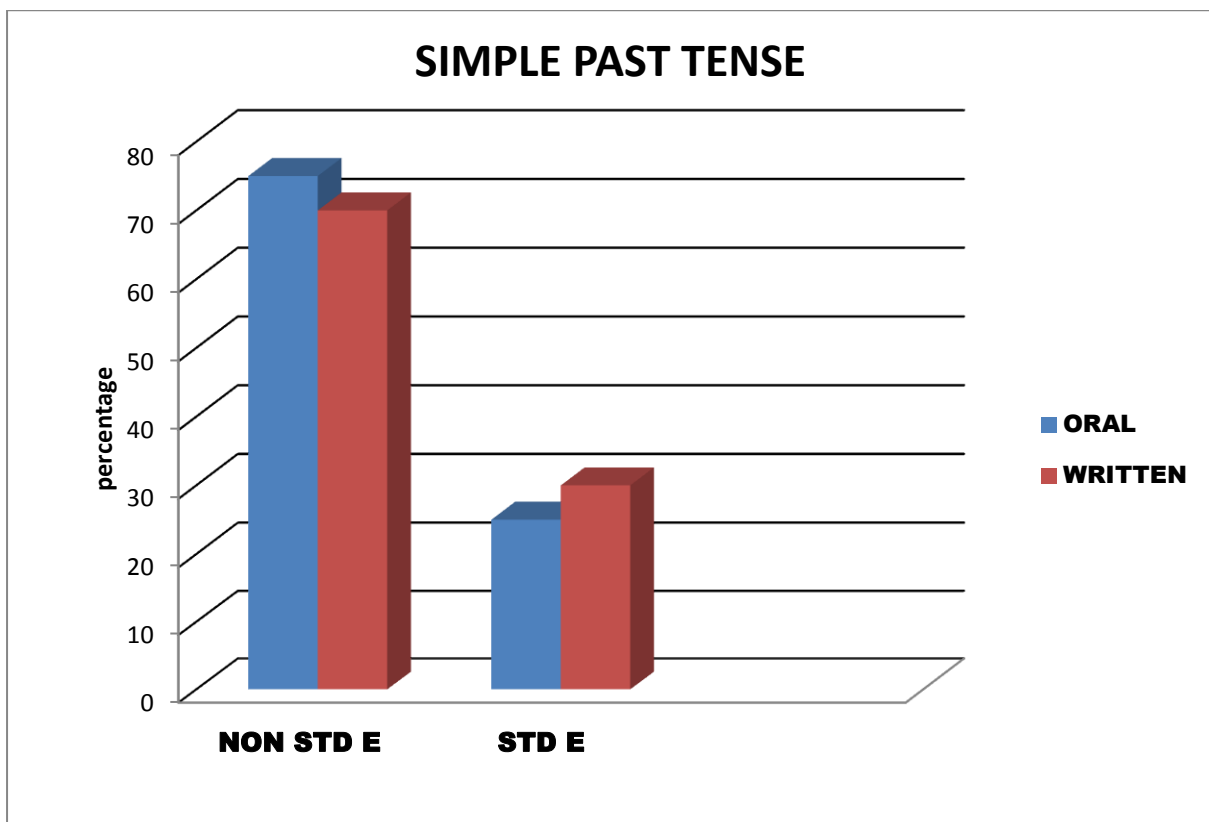

Figure 4.4: Simple past tense

Figure 4.4 indicates that non-Standard English forms of simple past tense are occurring at a higher frequency than in Standard English. This implies that deviations have taken place here. In other words, simple past tense forms among these participants divert from Standard English norms because the inflections /-ed/ and /-d/ added to the verb do not apply in their mother tongue language. These participants rely on Bantu logic where inflections do not play an important role in the articulation of aspectual meanings (Makalela, 2004).

In other words, the persistence in simple past tense deviations both in oral narratives and written texts show BSAE features present among Tshivenda speakers. As this case clearly demonstrates non standard form usages, it is important that the study compares and contrasts the sentences produced by the participants. The English and Tshivenda sentences are presented below:

13. My mother <u>was make</u> me happy.

   "Mme anga <u>vho ita</u> uri ndi takale."

14. Khune <u>was loved</u> football.

   "Khune <u>o vha</u> a tshi funa bola ya milenzhe."

15. Mandela <u>live</u> many years in jail during apartheid time.

   "Mandela <u>o dzula</u> khothoni miṅwaha minzhi nga musi wa khethano nga lukanda."

16. That morning, I <u>wake</u> up and I prepare myself for the trip.

   "Nga matsheloni <u>ndo vuwa</u> nda ḓilugisela lwendo"

17. The woman <u>use</u> clay to make her baby.

   "Mufumakadzi <u>o shumisa</u> vumba u vhumba ṅwana."

Sentence 13 indicates that the regularised agreement marker system has been followed when the past tense is formed. That is, the subject concord or the agreement marker /*vho*/ for class 2b was used which marks plurality with a singular subject *(mother)*. In this case, the subject concord /*vho*/ implies showing respect to an elderly person. However, the use of the subject concord /o/ in class 1 is allowed,

for example, '*mme anga o ita uri ndi takale'* meaning *'my mother made me to be happy'*. That is, a singular subject *'mme'* (mother) is used with the singular agreement marker /o/. Similarly, sentences 14, 15 and 17, '*Mandela o dzula*...,' '*Khune o vha*...' and *Mufumakadzi o shumisa*..., demonstrate a subject concord agreement /o/ (in singular form with singular subjects – *Mandela, Khune and Mufumakadzi*) which relates to past tense. Likewise, the subject concord agreement */ndo/* is also a past tense marker as used in sentence 16. The subject concord agreement */ndo/* is particularly used with the first person pronoun in singular form. Taken together, these discussions suggest that the past tense form in Tshivenda is formed with all nouns in classes followed by a subject concord*/o/* (in singular),/ndo/ (in singular) or /*vho*/ (in plural). For example, 'Mandela'- a noun in class 1 agrees with /o/, a subject concord followed by the verb *'dzula'* meaning /*stay*/. The tendency of the participants to add an auxiliary verb *'was'* before a verb (in sentences13 and 14) indicates that Tshivenda speakers follow a pattern of Bantu agreement system where the subject concord is paired with singular/ plural noun classes. Finally, this study observed that the participants in this sentences relied on transferring their previous knowledge from mother tongue into English to form simple past tense. It is as such that the Standard English norms are used incorrectly and this led to high frequencies of deviations.

4.3.5 Simple future tense

In the absence of BSAE literature with regard to future tense, this study intends to interpret its findings based on Standard English grammar rules. The English grammar states that events in relation to time have past and non-past as reference points, although the number of reference points in time is infinite in the real world (Svalberg, 1991; Comrie, 1985:75).The Standard English, simple future tense refers to events that are non-past reference. The non-past reference point is the speaker's present, that is, the moment of speech. In English, events can be located before, at or after either of these reference points (Reichenbach, 1947).The English simple future tense is denoted by the use of two auxiliary (modal) verbs namely; *shall* and *will* and a verb in the present tense. On this basis, future tense expresses that the event is located after a reference point.

In this present study, the results indicate that participants used simple future tense correctly in accordance to Standard English norms. However, there are deviations that occurred in both written and oral narratives and this resulted in 100% correct usage. In other words, a transfer has taken place in the participants' written and oral texts.

Table 4.5 below presents simple future tense transfers in written text and oral narratives in terms of numbers and percentages. This is followed by a bar graph in Figure 4.5 indicating the transfers in percentages.

Table 4.5: Simple future tense

	NON STD E		STD E	
TEXT	ORAL	WRITTEN	ORAL	WRITTEN
N	0	0	42	383
%	0	0	100	100

The bar graph below (figure4.5) presents the transfers of future tense in written text and oral narratives in terms of percentages.
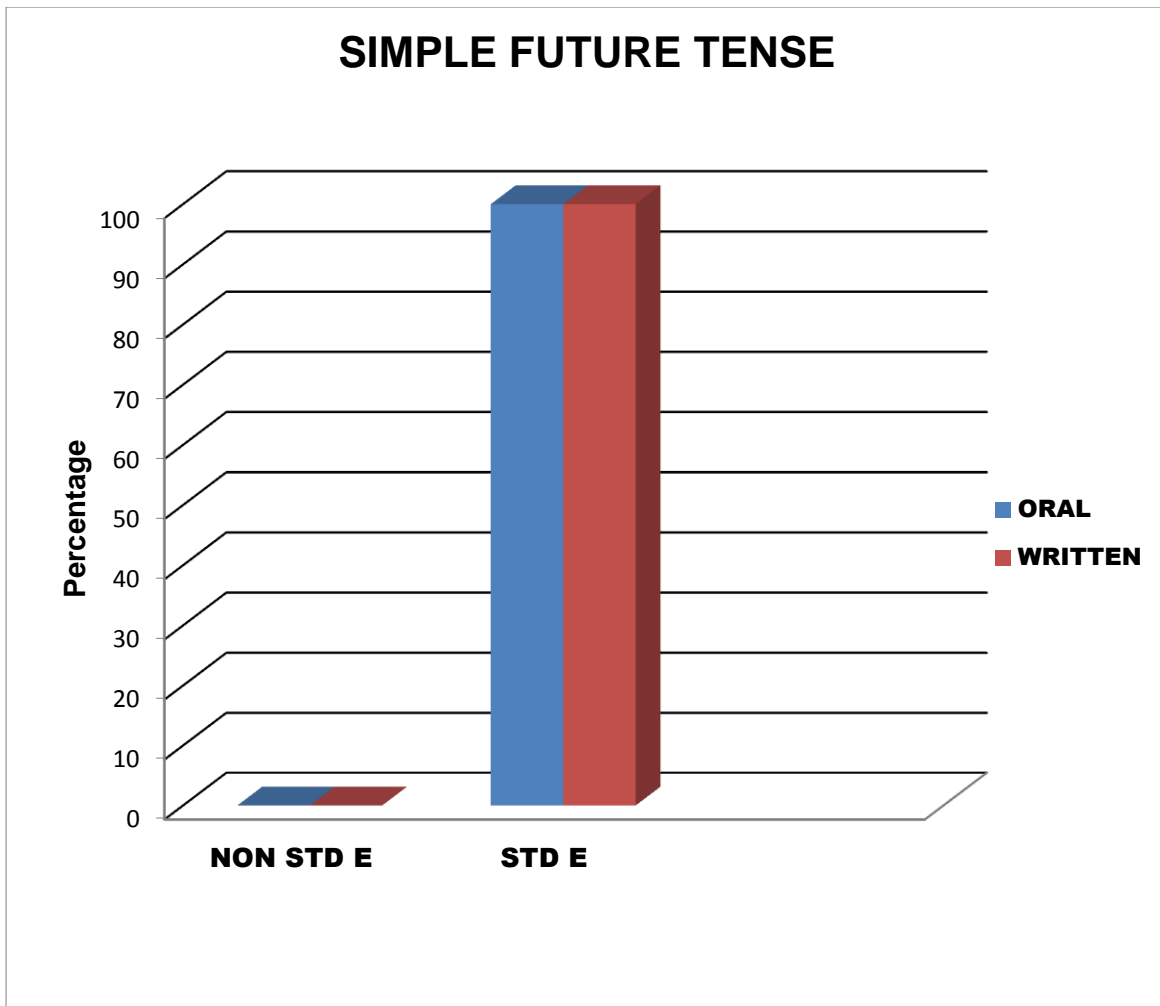
SIMPLE FUTURE TENSE

Figure 4.5: Simple future tense

Table 4.5 and Figure 4.5 above show that participants used simple future tense correctly by applying the Standard English norms. The transfers that occurred deviated from the Standard English; however, they are counted correct because they resemble a Standard English pattern. Therefore, Figure 4.5 shows correct usage of simple future tense of Standard English norms at 100%.On the other hand, there is 0% of non-Standard English simple future tense formation that occurred. In other words, Standard English and Tshivenḓa bear some similarities in simple future tense formation.

Taking this discussion further, the study also sought to determine the factors leading to correct usage of the simple future tense by these participants. A contrastive analysis was carried out between Tshivenda and English sentences. The following sentences are presented:

18. We <u>will</u> no longer have debts.

"A ri tsha <u>do vha</u> na zwikolodo."

19. I <u>will</u> buy clothes for my brother.

"Ndi <u>do rengela</u> murathu wanga zwiambaro."

20. I <u>want</u> to do good things in future.

"Ndi <u>toda</u> u ita zwithu zwavhuḓi tshifhingani tshi ḓaho."

21. I <u>am going</u> to spend half of my salary half of my salary on expensive clothes.

"Ndi <u>khou ya</u> u shumisa hafu ya muholo wanga kha zwiambaro zwi

ḓuraho"

The sentences above, 18-19, indicate a usage of the morpheme */ḓo/*, which indicates a simple future tense and is followed by a verb stem. As in sentence 19, *Ndi* is the subject concord of the sentence while*/ḓo/* is the future tense morpheme followed by the verb /*rengela*/ meaning '*buying for someone*". This also applies to sentence 18; however the use of phrase, "*A ri tsha*", meaning *"We won't"* shows a negating statement. The subject concord of the sentence is */ri/* while the future morpheme */ḓo/*, is followed by a verb stem /*vha*/ meaning /*have*/. In comparison to English future tense, the Tshivenda morpheme */ḓo/*, is used as auxiliary verbs /*shall*/ or /*will*/. In other words, the Tshivenda and English simple future tense forms have similar pattern. Therefore, these participants deviated in accordance to Standard English simple future tense forms.

In addition, the study also found that Tshivenḓa speakers use the verb /*ṱoḓa*/ in sentence 20 which means <u>want</u> followed by a verb stem /*to do*/ while sentence 21, the auxiliary verb /*khou*/ used in conjunction with verb /ya/ which means "Am going" is used. Arguably, the two sentences 20 and 21 imply that the actions to be done by the speaker, that is, *"doing good things*" and "*spending half of the salary on expensive clothes"* are events that will happen in the future. In other words, these participants also form the simple future tense using the auxiliary verb /*khou*/ and

/*want*/ with the exception of a regular used future tense morpheme /*do*/. Similarly, Standard English does accept the use of present progressive to indicate simple future tense action.

The most striking issue here is that the Tshivenda auxiliary verb, verb and future tense morpheme which mark the simple future tense, that is, /*khou*/; /*toḓa*/ and /*ḓo*/ are used randomly with any subject of the sentence or noun class prefix. Likewise, English also allows the use of auxiliary verbs /*shall*/ or /*will*/ randomly with subjects; therefore, participants are compelled to transfer positively their mother tongue linguistic features to English. It is not surprising that the participants deviated positively towards the Standard English simple future tense forms. Here, the transfer is justified because the structure of the two languages is similar; in this case we find 'positive transfer' or 'facilitation' (Wilkins, 1972:199). In all the tenses and aspects studied above, this study reflects that it is only in the simple future tense where participants apply the Standard English rules appropriately and deviations that occurred were regarded as correct.

4.4 A COMPARISON OF FREQUENCY OCCURRENCES OF TENSE AND

ASPECT BETWEEN STANDARD ENGLISH AND BSAE

Following on the analysis presented above, it is necessary to compare all the features and their frequency of occurrence in order to assess overall degree to which the non-standard features can be interpreted as typical BSAE forms. The line graph (Figure 4.6) below displays a comparison in frequency occurrences between non-Standard English and Standard English usages. The graph displays high frequency occurrences prevalent in non-Standard English usage of the participants' written and spoken texts.
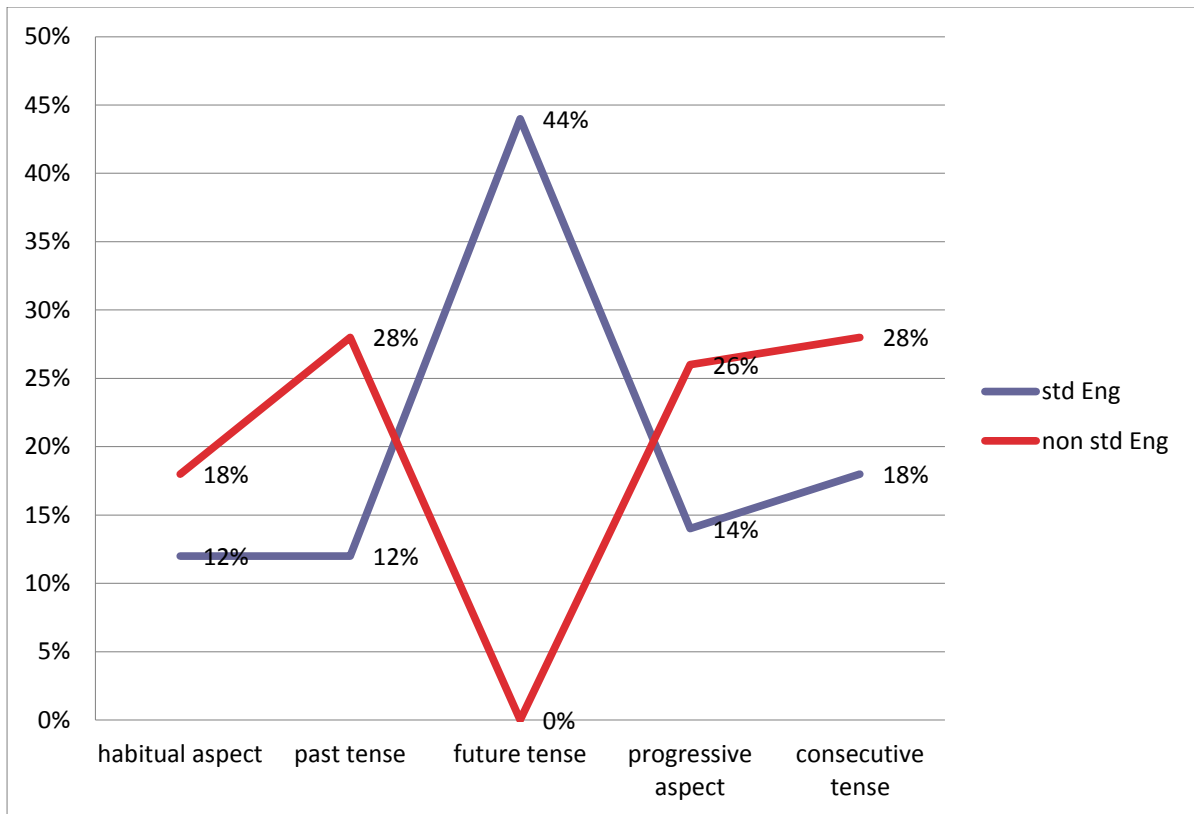
Figure 4.6: Tense and aspect in Standard English against non Standard English

The figure above (4.6) shows a summary on the frequency occurrences of the Standard English tense and aspect against the non-Standard English. The habitual aspect of the non- Standard English has a frequency occurrence of 18% while the Standard English is 12%. In the simple past tense, non-Standard English frequency occurrence is 28% while Standard English usage is 12%. The progressive aspect shows a frequency occurrence of 26% in non-Standard English is while Standard English is 14%. Finally, the consecutive tense has a relative frequency of 28% in non-Standard English and 18% in Standard English context. These results suggest that that non-Standard English tense and aspect usage occurs with relatively higher frequency than it does in Standard English contexts of use.

The only striking difference is in the future tense where deviations occurred which matched well with the Standard English forms, that is, the non Standard English frequency rate is 0% while the Standard English is 44%. This to say that a positive transfer has occurred. Here, the participants were able to produce correct forms of

simple future tense because Tshivenḓa relies on subject concord (preverbal marker) to form a future tense while English uses auxiliary verbs. That is, in Tshivenḓa the verb stem is preceded with a subject concord while the English verb is preceded with an auxiliary verb. This implies that the similarities in the two languages led to deviations of the simple future tense which are considered correct. It is seen here that mother tongue influence is playing a vital role towards a positive transfer in the simple future tense of these participants. The results of the study indicate that a similar pattern exists, that is, tense and aspect in Tshivenḓa rely on verbal arguments rather than inflectional conjugations. It is these outer aspectual properties of Tshivenḓa that are transferred. One thus interpret use of BSAE features among the participants as an indication of transfer of the Bantu language temporal reasoning presented in Makalela's (2004, 2007, 2013) work. The degree to which these features occur, too, reflect that these are systematic features that are shared across a wider spectrum of the Tshivenḓa grade 11 mother tongue speakers in the context of the study.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This study indicates participants deviated from the Standard English norms while forming the tense and aspect in oral narratives and written texts. The figures and the tables displayed in this chapter indicate high frequency occurrence of non-Standard English tense and aspect while the Standard English usage occurs with lower frequency. The written and the spoken texts are all characterised by this high frequency of incorrect usage. The tendency to deviate from the Standard English tense formation in all the tenses and aspects, namely, the habitual aspect, simple past tense, simple future tense, progressive aspect and consecutive tense in written text and oral narratives implies that there is a transfer of mother tongue features to the target language. In other words, first language influences a different way of using tense and aspect in English which is only acceptable among the participants in this study. This study, therefore, reports that there are BSAE features evident such as extension of progressive aspect to stative verbs and consecutive tense. A mother tongue transfer of tense and aspect usages is prevalent among the participants of this study, both in written and oral narratives. As shown throughout the analysis, both frequencies and evidence of Tshivenda temporal logic in the English sentences

presented denote the development of BSAE as both an institutionalised variety and an L1 rule-governed new English.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of the study was to investigate tense and aspect usages in English among grade 11 mother tongue speakers of Tshivenḓa learners in Tshilamba Circuit, Limpopo Province. This chapter is the final section of the research study where the investigation is summarised, concluded and recommendations are given.

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

The design of the study was based on the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches to cover the depth and width of the scope of the study on tense and aspect transfer from Tshivenḓa into English. This research approach fits classification as mixed method. This study followed the use of mixed methods since qualitative and quantitative research methods were found to be complementary in producing complete and unbiased findings of the study. The two instruments used to collect data were written essays and storytelling, which yielded the results that corroborated one another.

5.3 OVERVIEW

Chapter One of this research study presented the introduction of the study, which dealt with introducing the reader to the concept of the study under review. It also outlined the statement of the problem of the study. The problem of the study was that learners in high schools who bear the properties of BSAE are subjected to a high failure rate because they experience diffulties in the correct usage of Standard English norms.The implication was that these learners produce tense and aspect forms that differ from Standard English. Therefore, it is necessary to note that previous knowledge, mainly the learner's mother tongue may have an influence on these deviant speech production, often to the frustration of the teachers. This chapter explained Bantu hypothesis, which posits that a way of thinking about time or temporal logic from Bantu language systems chiefly accounts for transfer of

differential tense and aspect usage into English (Makalela, 2004,2007,2013). This hypothesis was tested in various African languages; however this chapter showed that there is a paucity of studies that explored tense and aspect usage among users of English who are mother tongue speakers of Tshivenḓa. The problem statement of the study was based on these research objectives:

- To develop a taxonomy of tense and aspect from grade 11 learner essays and speech production;
- To establish frequency counts of the tense and aspect features from the learners' written and spoken texts; and
- To trace transfer of Tshivenda substrate system in English tense and aspect usage from the learners' texts.

This chapter also includes the aim of the study, rationale of the study, research objectives, significance of the study as well as the definition of the terms used in this study.

Chapter Two gave a detailed literature review. The literature review revealed the works of different scholars which pointed out that African languages deviate from the standard norms of tense and aspect in English. The various aspects of tense and aspect such as World Englishes, tense and aspect theories, studies on tense and aspect in new Englishes, semantics of perfect progressive in English and empirical work on tense and aspect in Black South African English were reviewed. Here too, it was emphasised that there is a knowledge gap on understanding a full account of BSAE as a new English in South Africa.

Chapter Three described the research design and methodology followed during the interaction with the participants. It thoroughly explained the methodological procedures that were followed during the process of data collection. The two instruments used to collect data of the study were written essays and oral storytelling. A concurrent use of mixed methods was preferred since qualitative and quantitative research methods were found to be complementary. The chapter also reported on the use of frequency counts and contrastive approach as two most suitable techniques to analyse the data for the study.

In **Chapter Four**, data analysis and presentation of the collected data for this study was discussed. A process of contrastive analysis was used to draw a comparison between Tshivenḓa and English sentences. The tense and aspect transfers of written and spoken texts were summarised in tables and graphs. Numbers were expressed in terms of percentages. The chapter also presented the findings with detailed analyses, interpretations and discussions.

The overall conclusion of the study is presented in this chapter and the major findings and recommendations are discussed hereunder.

5.4 MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The main finding of the study is that Tshivenda home language speakers make frequent use of English tense and aspectual properties that are L1-induced. That is, there is strong evidence that L1 transfer plays a vital role in the development of unique tense and aspect features that deviate from the Standard English forms.

First, it was found that in expressing habitual meanings, Tshivenda speakers produce non-standard forms of concords, which occur with the third person, and a high frequent omission of suffixes /–s/ or /–es/ to the verb. These omissions were further seen to be prevalent in the simple past tense where regular verbs are suffixed with /–d/ or /–ed/ to form a simple past tense. The leading causative factor of these deviations is that in Tshivenḓa, habitual aspect and simple past tense are largely dependent on the regularised Bantu agreement system. This means that agreement marking in Tshivenda relies on the noun class prefix system that regularises subject concords that are paired into singular noun classes and even plural noun class numbers. It is recognised here that tense and aspect in Tshivenda, with reference to habitual aspect and simple past tense, is formed external to the verb phrase; that is, it is an outer aspect.

The single most striking observation that was found in the data was that the use of future tense, unlike the past and present tense forms, among the participants resembled Standard English forms. A plausible explanation is that Tshivenḓa future tense is not marked morphologically; that is, there are no inflectional conjugations as

the case is with the present and past tense structures. Because future tense is not marked morphologically in both Tshivenḓa and English, it follows that BSAE usage will rely on verbal arguments, not on inflections. This observation proves the definite role of Bantu language logic in the production of non-standard English forms.

Further, the study revealed that Tshivenda speakers transfer L1 induced tense and aspect forms in consecutive tense and progressive aspect. There is an extended use of progressive aspect to stative verbs. From Tshivenda point of view, there is no meaning differentiation between concrete or abstract objects to draw a distinction between progressive and habitual marking. Similarly, past tense meaning in consecutive tenses is determined by a preverbal marker in complex and compound sentences, not a verbal conjugation. This grammatical system shows that that time is not viewed as discrete units; rather, the point of events is viewed as one continuous chunk of time. Overall, these results indicate that use of non-standard English forms can be explained as being caused by the logic of the speaker's home language. This data thus supports the view that BSAE is rule-governed and institutionalized among many speakers of Bantu languages in South Africa (Makalela, 2013).

Evidence of institutionalisation of Tshivenḓa-like features of English among the participants is found in the high rate of occurrence across all the tense and aspect taxonomies identified. The frequencies occurring in high rate are an indicator that BSAE features are evolving towards the endonormative phase of Schneider's (2007) model. In this phase of post colonial English development of new varieties, innovations and creative use of language due to a confluence of two or more linguistic systems (i.e., L1 and target language) are accepted and used widely by the speakers. One observes that the participants' frequent use of the BSAE-like features may also be a case of macro-acquisition. This means that non-native speakers transfer non-standard English norms to other non-native speakers as the case it is between the grade 11 learners and their teachers. In other words, the use of BSAE features, outside of the influence of Bantu logic, shows a cycle that is teacher-induced.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The high frequent use of institutionalised and L1-induced tense and aspect properties in the study lends to the following recommendations;

First, the small sample size used to generate the results of the study leave more room for more extensive enquiries to fill in the knowledge on Tshivenḓa features of English in particular and BSAE evolution as a new variety of English. In particular, the direction of the variety in the new socio-political dispensation where its speakers are increasingly gaining political clout and prestige needs to be investigated. The future role of BSAE in education which lies with English planning requires the standardisation of the South African Englishes. An internal innovation of BSAE norms based on large corpora is necessary which will employ the following steps:

- Studying corpora of different sub-varieties and sister varieties in South Africa.
- Using cross variety corpora to identify commonly shared features,
- Codification of written norms through dictionaries and grammar outlines; and
- Material design and teacher (re)training programmes used on the local forms (Makalela, 2007).

Given the primary role of the teacher and the educated elite in spreading the features of the variety, further research can be done in other schools, work places, and tertiary institutions to corroborate the findings of the study.

5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study investigated the tense and aspect usages in English among mother tongue speakers of Tshivenda learners in order to assess the degree to which BSAE is spread among speakers of various Bantu languages in South Africa. Using contrastive analysis and frequency counts of the speech tokens elicited through written and spoken samples of grade 11 learners in Vhembe District, Limpopo Province, the results of the study showed two interrelated findings. First, there is a high prevalence of BSAE features among grade 11 learners in both oral and written

texts. Second, these features were found to correlate with the substrate system of Tshivenda- a Bantu language, which relies on verbal arguments and an outer aspect to grammaticalised tense and aspect meanings.

Taken together, the results of the study lead to a conclusion that BSAE is an institutionalised variety that is shared and understood across a wider spectrum of different Bantu language speakers in South Africa. A related conclusion is that BSAE is L1 rule governed, not a conglomeration of errors- as seen through the grade 11 learners' output relying on verbal arguments and outer aspect to express temporal meanings. This creative juggling between two or more linguistic systems is at the core of the evolution of new Englishes worldwide. However, there is a need for more robust studies especially among educated speakers to validate the findings reported in the study and to assess the levels of acceptance if indeed BSAE will evolve fully to an endonormative phase where its own usages are used widely for materials development and teaching in schools.

6. REFERENCES

Allan, K. 2001. *Natural Language Semantics*. Oxford & Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Allan, K. 2006. *Clause-type, primary illocution, and mood-like operators in English. Languages Sciences*, 28: 1-50.

Aquinas,T. 2005. *Sententia Metaphysicae.* From: http://www.corpusthomisticum.org/ cmp05.html (accessed 30 November 2012).

Babbie, E. 1990. *Survey research methods*. Belmont, CA: Wardsworth.

Baum, F. 1995. Researching public health: Behind the qualitative-quantitative methodological debate. *Social Science and Medicine*, 40: 459-468.

Bennett, MR. 1981. Of tense and aspect: one analysis. In *Syntax and Semantics 14:Tense and Aspect*, ed. Philip J. Tedeschi and Annie Zaenan, 13–29. New York: Academic Press.

Bouras, M. 2006. *A Form Oriented Study of the Acquisition of Tense and Aspect by Algerian Adult Learners of English.* Doctoral Dissertation. Mentouri University, Constantine.

Burns, N & Grove, SK. 1997. The Practice of Nursing Research: *Conduct, Critique and Utilisation*. London: WB Saunders.

Bybee, JL, Revere, P & William, P. 1994. *The Evolution of Grammar: Tense, Aspect, and Modality in the Languages of the World.* Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Cane, G. 1993. *A linguistic description of spoken Brunei English in the 1990s.* Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Strathclyde.

Cane, G. 1996. Syntactic simplification and creativity in spoken Brunei English. To appear in P. Martin et al. (eds.) *Language use and language change in Brunei Darussalarn* Athens, *Ohio: Ohio* University Center for International Studies.

Collins, P. 2008. The progressive aspect in world Englishes: a corpus-based study. *Australian Journal of Linguistics,* 28: 225–249.

Comrie, B. 1976. *Aspect: An Introduction to the Study of Verbal Aspect and Related Problems.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Comrie, B. 1985. *Tense.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Creswell, JW. 1994. Research design: *Qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Thousand Oaks: Sage publications.

Creswell, JW. 1998. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions.* London. Sage.

Creswell, JW. 2005. Educational research: *Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research;* 2nd edition*.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Crystal, D. 2008. *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*; 6th edition. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Dahl, Ö. 1985. *Tense and aspect systems*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Dennis, L. 1940. *The progressive tense: frequency of its use in English.* PMLA 55: 855–865.

De Klerk, V. 1999. Black South African English: where to from here? *World Englishes, 18*: 311–24.

De Klerk, V. 2003. Towards a norm in South African Englishes: the case for Xhosa English. *World Englishes*, 22: 463–81.

De Klerk, V & Gough, D. 2002. *Black South African English. In Language in South Africa*, edited by M Rajend. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 356–78.

De Vaus, D. 2001. *Research design in social research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

De Vos, AS, Strydom, H, Fouche, LB & Delport, CSL. 2002. *Research at grassroots level: For the social science and service professions;* 3rd edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Duffy, ME. 1985. Designing nursing research: the qualitative-quantitative debate. *Journal of Advanced Nursing,* 10: 225-232.

Ellis, R & Tomlinson, B. 1980. *Teaching Secondary English: A guide to the teaching of English as a second language.* London: Longman.

Flick, U, Kardoff, E & Steinske, I. (eds). 2004. *A Companion to Qualitative Research.* Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Gamaroff, R. 1986. *Native language transfer in Tswana speakers' English.* Unpublished master's thesis. Potchefstroom University, South Africa.

Gay, LR. 1995. *Educational Research: Competences for analysis and application*; 5th edition. New York: Macmillan.

Gay, LR & Airasian, P. 2003. *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.

Glesne, C. 1999. *Becoming Qualitative Researchers: An introduction.* New York: Addison Wesley Longman.

Gough, D. 1996. *Black English in South Africa. In Focus on South Africa*, edited by V de Klerk. Amsterdam: John Benjamins: 53–77.

Greene, JC, Caracelli, VJ & Graham, WF. 1989. Toward a conceptual framework for mixed – method evaluation designs. *Educational. Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3): 255– 274*.*

Guest, G, Bunce, A & Johnson, L. 2006. How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods,* 18: 59-82.

Hartford, BA. 1993. Tense and Aspect in the news discourse of Nepali English. *World Englishes,* 12(1): 1-13.

Holliday, A. 2002. *Qualitative research: Doing and writing.* New York: Thousand Oaks.

Hornby, AS. 1954. *A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English.* London: Oxford University Press.

Jespersen, O. 1924. *The Philosophy of Grammar.* London: Allen and Unwin.

Jespersen, O. 1949. *A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles. Part VII: Syntax.* London: Allen and Unwin.

Johnson, B & Christensen, L. 2000. Educational research: *Quantitave and qualitative approaches.* Boston: Ally & Bacon.

Johnson, RB & Onwuegbuzie, AJ. 2004. Mixed methods research: a research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher,* 33(7): 14–26.

Kachru, BB. 1985. Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: the English language in the outer circle. In Quirk, R & Widdowson, HG. (eds) *English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press and the British Council: 11-30.

Kachru, BB. 1986. *The Academy of English.* London*:* Pergamon Press.

Kachru, BB. 1992. World Englishes: *Approaches, Issues and Resources. Language Teaching*, 25(1):1-14.

Kachru, B & Nelson, CL. 1996. World Englishes. *In* McKay, SL & Hornberger, NH. (eds). *Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching.* Pp 71-102. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kasanga, LA. 2003. 'I am asking for a pen': Framing of requests in Black South African English. In Jaszolt, KM & Turner, K. (eds). *Meaning through language contrast.* Amsterdam: Menjamin: 213-235.

Kasanga, L. 2006. Requests in a South African variety of English. *World Englishes,* 25(1): 65-90.

Kortmann, B. 1991. "The triad Tense-aspect-Aktionsart: Problems and possible solution". In Vetters, C & Vandewegde, W. (eds). *Belgian Journal of Linguistics,* 6: 9–30.

Lanham, L. 1967. *Teaching English in Bantu Primary Schools: Final report on research in Johannesburg schools.* Johannesburg: University of Witwatersrand.

Leedy, PD & Ormrod, JE. 2005. *Practical research. Planning and design.* Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.

Lemmer, E. 1992. Qualitative research methods in education. *South Africa Journal of Education, 12(3): 292-296.*

Lewis, M. P; Gray, FS & Charles, DF (eds). 2014. Ethnologue: *Languages of the world, 17th edition.* Dallas, Texas: SIL International.

Makalela, L. 1998. Institutionalised Black South African English. *National Association of Teachers of English,* 13: 58-71.

Makalela, L. 2004. Making sense of BSAE for linguistic democracy in South Africa. *World Englishes,* 23(3): 355-366.

Makalela, L. 2007. Nativization of English among Bantu language speakers in South Africa. *Issues in Applied Linguistics, 15*:129–47.

Makalela, L. 2013. Black South African English on the radio. *World Englishes,* 32(1): 93-107.

Manthata, SM. 1991. *Error analysis: a sample study of errors made by Northern Sotho speaking learners (urban and rural) in written English with special reference to standard 6, 8 and 10.* Unpublished M. Ed. Dissertation Sovenga. University of the North.

McArthur, T. (ed). 1992. *The Oxford Companion to the English language.* Oxford: Oxford University press.

McKinlay, JB. 1993. The promotion of health through planned socio-political change: Challenges for research and policy. *Social Sciences in Medicine*, 36: 109-113.

Merriam, SB. 1998. *Qualitative Research and Case Study Application Education*: Josrey-Brass.

Mesthrie, R. 2004. Synopsis: morphological and syntactic variation in Africa and south and Southeast Asia. In Kortmann, B, Burridge, K, Mesthrie, R, Schneider, EW & Upton, C. (eds.), *A Handbook of Varieties of English*, vol. 2: *Morphology and Syntax,* 1132–41. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Meulen, AG. 1995*. Representing Time in Natural Language: The Dynamic Interpretation of Tense and Aspect.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Migiro, SO & Magangi, BA. 2011. Mixed methods: A review of literature and the future of the new research paradigm. *African journal of Business management, 5(10):3757-3764.*

Miles, M & Huberman, M. 1994. *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*; 2nd edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mouton, J. 2001. How to Succeed in your Masters and Doctoral Studies: South African Guide and Resource Book. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Mouton, J. 2006. *How to succeed in your Masters and Doctoral studies: a South African guide and resource book.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Mthethwa, MG. 2007. *Presence of Xitsonga features in Black South African English: An investigation of mother tongue transfer.* Unpublished MA Dissertation. University of Limpopo.

Mulder, JC. 1996. *Statistical techniques in education*. Pretoria: Kagiso Tertiary.

Onwuegbuzie, AJ & Leech, NL .2007*.* Sampling in qualitative research: Making the sampling process more public. *The Qualitative Report*, 12(2): 238-254.

Parahoo, K. 2006. *Nursing Research: Principles, Process and Issues*, 2nd edition. Houndsmill: Palgrave Macmillan.

Patton, MQ. 1990. *Quantitative research & evaluation methods*. 2nd edition. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Platt, J, Weber, H & HO, ML. 1984. *The New Englishes*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Polit, DF & Hungler, BP. 1998. *Nursing research and methods.* Philadelphia: Lippincott.

Polit, DF & Hungler, BP. 1999. *Nursing research. Principles and methods, 6th* edition. Philadelphia: Lippincott.

Polit, DF & Beck, CT. 2010. *Essentials of Nursing Research: Appraising Evidence for Nursing Practice,* 7th edition. Wolters Kluwer Health / Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Philadelphia.

Proctor, S, Allan, T & Lacey, A. 2010. Sampling*. In The Research Process in Nursing*, 6th edition. In Gerrish, K & Lacey, A. (eds), Singapore: Wiley-Blackwell.

Quirk, R. 1990. Language varieties and standard language. *English today*, 21, 3-21.

Reichenbach, H. 1947. *Elements of symbolic logic.* Berkeley: University of California Press.

Roodt, MP. 1993. *Fossilization in South African Black English.* An Investigation. Unpublished master's thesis. Potchefstroom University, South Africa.

Schachter, J. 1992. A new account of language transfer. In S, Gass & L, Selinker (eds.) *Language transfer in language learning, 2nd* edition. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Schmied, JJ. 1991. *English in Africa: An Introduction*. London: Longman.

Schneider, E. 2003. The dynamics of new Englishes: From identity construction to dialect birth. *Language, 79*:233–81.

Schneider, E. 2007. *Post-colonial Englishes.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Svalberg, AML. 1998. Are English and Malay worlds apart? Typological distance and the learning of tense and aspect concepts. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 8(1): 27-59.

Tashakhori, A & Teddlie, C. 1998. *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Terblanche, M & Durrheim, K. (eds). 1999. Interpretive methods. *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*: 123-146. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Traugott, EC. 1972. *A History of English Syntax: A Transformational Approach to the History of English Sentence Structure.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Uys, HHM & Basson, A A. 1991. *Research methodology in nursing.* South Africa: Pearson.

Van der Walt, JL. 2001. Some Implications of New English Forms for Language Assessment. *Journal for Language Teaching,* 35(1): 1-11.

Van der Walt, JL & Van Rooy, B. 2002. Towards a norm in South African Englishes. *World Englishes*, 21(1), 113–28.

Van Rooy, B. 2002. Stress placement in Tswana English: Making of a coherent system. *World English*, 21, 145-160.

Van Rooy, B. 2006. The extension of the progressive aspect in Black South African English. *World Englishes,* 25(1): 37-64.

Van Rooy, B. 2008. An interpretation of tense and aspect in Black South African English. *World Englishes,* 27(3/4): 335-358.

Van Rooy, B & Terblanche, L. 2006. A corpus-based analysis of involved aspects of student writing. *Language Matters, 37*: 160–82.

Van Rooy, B. 2006. The extension of the progressive aspect in Black South African English. *World Englishes*, 25(1), 37-64.

Visser, GJ. 1955. Celtic influence in English. *Neophilologus,* 39: 276–293.

Vlach, F. 1981. The semantics of the progressive. In Philip, JT & Annie, Z. (eds).*Syntax and Semantics 14: Tense and Aspect*, 271–291. New York: Academic Press.

Wade, R. 1996. *An investigation of the putative restandardisation of South African English in the direction of a "new" English, Black South African English*. Unpublished MA dissertation. Department of Linguistics, Natal University.

White, K. 2000. *Maintaining meaning in life: The central challenge for palliative care practice*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia.

Wilkins, DA. 1972. *Linguistics in Language Teaching.* London: Edward Arnold.

Yamane, T. 1967. *Elementary Sampling Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Printice-Hall.

Yano, Y. 2001. World Englishes in 2000 and beyond. *In World Englishes,* 20(2): 119- 131.

Yin, RK. 2006. Mixed methods research*: are the methods genuinely integrated or merely parallel?* Research in the Schools, 13(1): 41–47.

7. APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: LETTERS OF PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

PO Box 701

Hluvukani

1363

30 October 2012

The Principal

Rammbuda High School

PO Box 878

Dzimauli

0975

Dear Mr Ramasimu

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FOR THE STUDY

I, the undersigned person, hereby request permission to conduct a research for the study titled; Tense and aspect taxonomies among mother tongue speakers of Tshivenda: Implications for Black South African English.

I am a student enrolled for Masters Degree at University of Limpopo, faculty of Humanities who intends to submit this research for study purpose. Your school was selected to participate in this research study. The participants will be engaged in a two day activity, where they will be writing essays and doing storytelling.
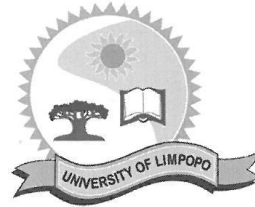

I am looking forward to a positive respond.

Yours sincerely

....

Ralushai M.M

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO
Turfloop Campus

To: The Principal
Rammbuda High School
Tshilamba Circuit

From: Dr R.V. McCabe
English Studies Department
MA Programme Coordinator

Private Bag x 1106
Sovenga
0727
SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: (015) 268 2586
Fax: (015)268 2868
Email: Rose-marie.Mccabe@ul.ac.za
Website:www.ul.ac.za

Date: 15 October 2012

SUBJECT: **PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

I wish to request permission for Mr M. Ralushai to collect data at your school for a research project towards his MA degree.

He requires information from eighty grade 11 learners. This will be an initial pilot study which must be conducted at the beginning of his data collection for his research project: *Tense and Aspect taxonomies among Tshivenda mother tongue speakers.*

Your assistance in this project will be greatly appreciated.

Finding Solutions for Africa

APPENDIX 2: CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN A RESEARCH

Title: **Tense and aspect taxonomies among Tshivenḓa mother tongue speakers of English: Implications for Black South African English**

Purpose: This is a research conducted by Mr Ralushai M.M which will be submitted at the University of Limpopo in part fulfilment of a Master Degree. The study investigates tense and aspect usages in English among grade 11 mother tongue speakers of Tshivenḓa learners in Tshilamba Circuit, Limpopo Province
.
You are hereby requested to participate in the research, and will write a one page essay from the given topics and narrate a story of your choice.

Participation is voluntary, and your identification is not required, so anonymity is guaranteed. Please also note that the information given in the narrative and written texts will be used for this study, however, it will be treated with the fullest confidentiality and your personal privacy will be respected.

If you agree to participate in this research, please sign this form, but also note that you can voluntarily withdraw from the research at any time you feel to do so.
Thanking you in advance.

Signature of participant: ………………….….... Date: ....
Researcher's signature: .... Date: ....

2. The day I will earn my first salary

The day I will earn my first salary I will be happy. I will buy for me a clouths and I will build a big house and I shall buy a car. I will be happy because is the first day I will get my first salary

I will buy my parent a present and a good something so that she/he can remember when I alive or I die. I shall put another money to the money box or to the bank to make me happy. I shall make a party to celebrate I have my friends

I shall buy a clouths to my brothers and sisters and my dad I shall buy for her a brownish a suit my mother I will buy for her a dress Pink in colour. Ather money I will go to the church give a god a frrewell ofaring and I will buy a food so that we can eat I shall go to Salun to make a good style to make me beutiful

have = Cu = 01

shall/wills In = 10

4 = Cu = 07

2. The day I will earn my first salary

The day I will earn my first salary I want to do things which i never do it for my whole life as to bu firstly, i want to buy a food which I like a most for my first salary and when i buy i am going to eat all of those food without giving somdone even a piece of that kind of food.

The day i will earn my first salary I shall buy the clothes which is coasted a most in order to plan a new life when i earn a fist salary. I am going to spend a half of a salary with expensive clothes and food for delicious as the way to suprise myself by new things.

At a remaining half price of my salary i am going to make a deposit of a luxury car because on that time it goes to be an a single because I am not in race i am doing my own things which is better to me and that can help me at the end of the day to find a way of successfully.

At the same time i am going to give my parents a remaining money to every thing that they want to do on that time by my first salary and if the salary still more i am going to give my young brother and sisters a help by a things which is still needed on that time.

Topic: The to day I will earn my first salary

The day that I will earn my first salary
is going to be the bestes day of my life,
because my first salary is the biggerst thing
i allowes dream about since I was at
primary because is the opening of new life
in future, is the moment of saying good
bye to the poor life.

When i earn my first salary I will start by
planning the things i want to achieve in
life, like buying the bigest house and manying
a wife so that I will have a fimily to
work for, then I will start by buying my
self a better house and a cool car. After
buying my self and house and care I will
start supporting my fimily who was there
for me supporting by everything they have to
make me who i am today.

After all that I can also build a house
for my mother and sisters and brothers, I want
to make good things about my money like puting
some of my money on the bank and leave
it their, so that it will help me to take
my brothers and sisters to school so that
someday they will not relay on me forever.
                              IN = 06
                              CU = 02

77

It was the greatest day of my life when i was going to Polokwane for the first day i was so happy. It was June 15 2009. At the morning i wake up and after bath and i prepear prepear to my self for the trip after prepering my self I go to school waiting for the bus. the bus come and when we were at Thohoyandou our teacher go to the shops to buy for us

Then we go on with our trip. The bus over stop at sasol for a petrol. We arrive at Polokwane at 08:30 we first go to vist Snake park. the was many snakes there and other Animals.

We also went to Savana game park there were so many game to play. And there were so many people white and Black people. We also vist misium to i see many things there we also teached about those things i saw

We also go to polokwane airport i realy enjoy myself the. i see many thing. We also go to mirupa to play game after the we go to eat at 12:00. we eat bread and Juice.

We also go to vist Phalaphala i saw those people who act the drama the at 15:30 were we going to eat we eat KFC and the rise then we went to Tshitandani to buy things

After that we turn back i was so happy i realy enjoy going to vist Phalaphala.

78

Topic : It was the greatest day of my life.

Firstly I want to great you in the name of our lord Jesus Christ and tell you more about the greatest day of my life and therefore I want to tell about the day when I was at the wedding at Ishiamba town hall and therefore it was very fantastic day because I enjoyed that day. Things that makes me happy is when the bridge maid start kissing each other, I was very happy because is my first day seeing people kiss each other and therefore it was very very big day to me. That people they did their things best not ameouerate bone.

That people they planned their things because they did that things in an orderly way and at that day we eat thing that we want to eat and without knowing what is that where we are eating because the are many salad that we don't know, this means that is the any prosperity in our country because development is about people and I just want to say this wedding is a developed one.

At that day we learn more things in the wedding and things that I want to tell you is I am going to do rather than what was happened in the past or at that wedding because at that wedding we learn more skill or how to do a wedding, so that we are able to do it because we can & dont Judge our selfs.

It was the greatest day of my life

It was on friday of December 1st 2010. I was at
Luphephe with my fimelly. We were sweeming and
playing soccer and othar games.

The fast thing I want to tell you is when some
one Fell on the dam. He was the guy that I came
with, he Fell on the dam because he was drunk. If you know water and alcahol its not friends
and its can't be friends.

The guy who Fell on the dam was Randima
Rudzani. And he's my best friend, he said that
he know's about sweeming that, way I let him
to go at the dams, because I was knowing
that he know about sweeming.

Wen he Fell on the dam it's take me a time
to see that my friend is in trobble, because of knowing him about sweeming game. I think
he was playing in the water because he knew
about sweeming, then someone Shout and say some
one is in trouble then I knew it was my
friend cause he was drank and then fast, damp
on the water to help him fast but
it was toolet to make the help for
my friend.

Cry's were Cry's but nothing happen to bring
his life back. I was Jast praying for

lake that. I Just think about what happen
if someone drink and sweem it make's me
sked about water and drink all that makes
my mind to be freezing by nothing.

My mother said that we will never goo to
place with water, and wen we go there will
be noone drink because it is not good for
health and life of people's of today

Dont you drink and playing on water it
can take you life. Dont you think about
dring at your life, drink is not good for
our health.

The person I admire the most is Itumeleng Khune.
I admire that person because is the best keeper in
South Africa was give soo bafana bafana good
position and other team who give excellent
position is kaizer chiefs.

That goalkeeper is the best in premier soccer
lenger and anther thing is the first keeper who
Play football who have 19 years old. He get
9 awards because of performance in 2006, 2008
and 2010 as a goalkeeper of the years.

Itumeleng khune is a good player because he can
Communication with other players. The coach of
the kaizer chiefs told the soccer laduma
that Itumeleng khune is going to be a captain
of kaizer chiefs on Saturday.

Itumeleng khune who have change to be a
goalkeeper of the world because is play at
bafana bafana is doing a great job.

I like to follow all information about
Itumeleng khune because I admire them
in South Africa.

Itumeleng khune is have a good future at
football is was the start football as a young boy.
I like a itumeleng khune's nickname called "spider ked

The person I Admire the most

To Admire is to like Something or liking Something
that makes you feel better When you are near that
thing. Or to love Someone

The person I Admire most is the most wonderful
women who Showed me position and direction
in life, who taught me how to eat, how to bath
and how to look after my Self that person
raise me alone. She is the but and only my mother
Mukumutela Josphinah Phophi.

Something that makes me to Admire her is that
She carried me for 9 full mothes, She gave me
all the but the parent can give to her Chiled, She raised
me with the money that She have started her own
Small business At Thohoyandou, Selling fruits and vegetables
but look where I am today because of her
I did not leave School because the was no Enough
money at home. My mom is my hero

I used to be Sturborn Sometimes but my mom careless
about that. I was ashamed of my self When I found
out tha I was pregnant. I did not want my
mother to know. But She was seen aircady see then
She told me that it was not the end of the
world It have not started and it will not end by
you

my mother did not tell me to abort my Chiled
we let me to have the baby

The person I admire the most is Nelson Mandela.
He fighting? For Freedom. In South Africa we have
apartheid of black person and white person. He live
many years in jail. He frightened to kill. In South
Africa we have bad people who are in apartheid.
He admire those who are poor. Sometimes South Africa
we have been Freedom? of speech. After 1994 we have
learnt banty education.

He is trying to encourage people who are in apartheid
He also afraid of white people. He is fighting for us
I interesting he can leave for many years I must
thank his for Freedom. If Nelson die we are pooring
country. We cannot find a person who like him. He
gives us pension and He give us a social grant. People
who are rapped they didnot leave for 25 years because
he cannot do. We are staying with bad people.
He take people who are abnormal to go to another
school and they didnot pay for schools fees.
People who are blind they attend other schools
in province. Street are governed by Nelson Mandela

He has a beau handsome hurt. In our country we not
find this man. In the world cannot find this man.
In other country people release of presidente. We
are trying to think Nelson Mandela for giving us payment.
We have many children in South Africa who are not
support their children because of Nelson Mandela gives
her his grants. We can do many things for his
Nelson Mandela has good luck for his country

Grade 11B

English Short Storry tell

Wesdom of Sankambe

There was two animals, these animals were live at found at Rambubu bush. One of these animals was Sankambe and one was Muzhou. Sankambe was the animal who was waser. Then it was sammer were there was many food and these food was fare from them then Sankambe came with a plan that can halp them for having food, Sankambe said that we have to statter cooking acher athe for having food to eat then Muzhou said ok but what can be the first person to be cooked Sankambe said we are stating by you, when you are geting more hitted you have to say i am stuting hitted Muzhou stuted gatting in the pot few ouh he stated celling (I am hitted, I am hitted) Sankambe said that you have to be hitted more because there will be more sweet soup to eat there for Sankambe open the pot and eat the soup So Muzhou said its your time Sankambe he get in the pot, whe the pot stated berning he stated celling am hitted, am hitted can you put me oup Muzhou said you have to be more hitted For the serke moment of getting more soup to eat when Sankambe

The springbok who was looking after a child

Once upon time there was a woman who was having a child. That child was very much crying. Then some day the woman went to the farm to harvest nuts. there she met a springbok and she asked the springbok to look after her child when she is harvesting. The springbok agreed. Then the springbok take a child from his the woman and go with him.

When the day become darker the woman started to call the spring bok by the song which Says: Iwe muntsi wee!
                    kulende-kulende gangali kulende-kulende
                    Nachre nwamangi ndi tuwe
                    kulende-kulende gangali kulende-kulende
The springbok after hearing that it will bring a child to the woman. The woman put the child into her back and go home. It was a daily work. Then someday the springbok killed the thild and give some of his parts to his mother.

The woman amazed where the meat come from but the springbok told her that i poached. When the day become darker the woman start to expect the springbok to bring the child when the day become darker more darker start to sing for the springbok: Iwe muntsi wee
                    kulende-kulende gangali kulende-kulte
                    Nachere nwananga ndi tuwe
                    kulende-kulende gangali kulende-kulend
The springbok replied by a song: Iwe tshizwa tshiwe a wongo la naa?
                    kulende-kulende gangali kulende-kulende
                    Thobo yawe ndi ita ngoma
                    kulende-kulende gangali kulende-kulende

86

12 Augaus 2013

One day thare wes a two men called squard and Mangusa and on this village thare was a grand mother this grandmother she wara having a farm or orchad

This farm thare ware orange tree and on this tree thare were a lot of orange. One day those two man plan to Staal oranges. Than of the sacondy day they wont he was eating orange he left the orange at the Manguses packat

Than that grandmother whan she found that thare is oranges that are stolan but she cannot say are steal by who. The she askad her self that who is steaing her orange but know one says that who is steaing orange. Than while she was searching on squarals packet and Manguses packet than she gat the orange on Manguses packet than Meguses he was Suprise bacause he did not ate oranges than from that day the realetionship ands batu aan those two best Friand than that was the and of story.