

**THE IMPACT OF NORTHERN SOTHO ON
BLACK SOUTH AFRICAN SPOKEN ENGLISH**

BY

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ABSTRACT

The study investigates the influence, which Northern Sotho language speakers have on South African spoken English, subsequently contributing to Black South African English. The superimposition of Northern Sotho speech sound on South African English speech sounds plays a greater role in the creation of this variety of BSAE. This is caused by certain English speech sounds, which are not present in the Northern Sotho language. In addition, there are other Northern Sotho speech sounds, which are not present in English.

With the permission of the Department of Education in Limpopo province, the research was conducted in the Capricorn District high school, in an area previously known as Mankweng and Polokwane District. Forty learners and five educators from each of the following schools were selected:

Manoshi High School

Nkoshilo High School

Hwiti High School

Mountainview High School

Capricorn High School

Flora Park Comprehensive High School

The study concentrates on the problematic consonants and vowels encountered by the Black South African English speakers, particularly the native speakers of Northern Sotho.

It pays much attention to the central vowels, affricates of diphthongs, nasalised vowels, tense and lax vowels, mother tongue influence, inadequate teacher training and teaching methods in English Second Language Teaching and poor learning strategies. The researcher used both quantitative and qualitative methods in data collection and data analysis.

Through a comprehensive questionnaire, the researcher found that more learners from township and villages were interested in having Northern Sotho as a medium of instruction in other content subjects. Through the analysis of data, the researcher recommends that learner should communicate in English while they are on school premises. The school authorities should monitor this. The researcher further recommends that English First Language teachers should be deployed in black schools, particularly in rural areas. The introduction of General Linguistics at secondary school levels will be an added advantage. Although they will sensitize teachers and learners about the existence of this variety, thus leading to greater tolerance of language and cultural diversity.

Based on this particular study, the conclusion drawn is that Northern Sotho variety of Black South African English does exist.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is mainly dedicated to my late younger sister Mathea Marry Mamabolo and my dearest parents Mologadi Agnes and Malesela Titus Mamabolo with the great help by aunt Ramatsimele Matane Mphahlele for laying the foundation in educating me.

To my wife Lucy Raesibe and my loving children Thabo, Malogadi and Moela for their support for inconveniencing them, I say thank you.

The names of the people mentioned supra, contributed a lot to my studies, and I will never forget them.

DECLARATION

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

Signed: _____

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'J. Robb', written over a horizontal line.

Date : _____

30 - 03 - 2005

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Black South African English (BSAE) is generally regarded as a variety of English commonly used by mother-tongue speakers of South Africa's indigenous African Languages in areas where English is not a language of the majority. This study will explore some of the problems experienced in the pronunciation of South African English (SAE) speech sounds. One may also assume that Black South African English is the English of those learners who have encountered only a smattering of English in informal contexts or the variety of English acquired during formal schooling. Africans in South Africa are compelled to learn English due to economic, political and ideological constrain. This makes the choice of English inevitable.

The present study will focus on the influence which Northern Sotho, commonly known as Sepedi, has on Black South African English (BSAE). This influence has been in process for many decades, and this did not go unnoticed. The same observation has been taking place for generations in many African Languages in South Africa such as Sesotho, previously known as Southern Sotho spoken largely in the Free State Province, Setswana in North West, Xitsonga in Limpopo Province, isiZulu in Kwazulu Natal and isiXhosa in all the Cape provinces. The influence of Northern Sotho on English is realised during oral communication between native English speakers and the native Northern Sotho speakers. This influence is possibly caused by the absence of English speech sounds of English in Northern Sotho.

The absence of these speech sounds in Northern Sotho language, will obviously lead to the native speakers of Northern Sotho unconsciously affecting English phonetically or phonologically, thereby affecting the speaker's pronunciation and lead to the wrong interpretation of a certain portion of the English lexicon. Generally, native speakers of Northern Sotho do have features in their speech that native English speakers do not have.

1.1 Statement of the research problem

The dissertation focuses on the investigation of the influence which Northern Sotho has on Black South African Spoken English (BSAE). During an investigation the researcher found out that this influence is caused by the inability of Northern Sotho speakers in the pronunciation of English speech sounds. Native speakers of Northern Sotho encounter difficulties in the pronunciation of certain English consonant clusters form. The absence of certain vowels in Northern Sotho such as diphthongs was another problem. It lacks central vowels, tense and lax vowels. Furthermore, Northern Sotho speakers are faced with the problem of mother-tongue influence, inadequate teacher training in English Second Language Teaching (L2) and poor learning strategies.

In the sections that follow, we discuss the problem relating to consonants, diphthongs, mother-tongue influence, teacher training and poor learning strategies.

1.1.1 Consonants

There are English consonants that present difficulties to non-mother-tongue speakers of English, especially those consonants that are in a cluster form (see Appendix 3). Most English consonants are pronounced according to their positions within a word and also depending on which vowels follow immediately after such consonants. For an example:

c → [s] in words such as civic, city, circuit, circular in word initial.

c → [k] as in civic, word final and immediately preceded by [ɪ] . An aspirated [k^h] word initial immediately followed by [ə] as in words like combine [kəmbain], [əv] in comb [kəvmb], [ə] in collective [kəlektiv]. English consonants such as voiceless stops [k] and [t] also become aspirated when they are word-initial but without aspiration

while they are word-medial and aspiration and non-aspiration in free variation word-finally.

1.1.2 The problem of Diphthongs

Richards et al (1985:82) defines a diphthong as a speech sound which is usually considered as one distinctive vowel of a particular language but really involves two vowels, with one vowel gliding into the other, for example, diphthong [ai] in the English words my [mai] which consist of the vowel [a] gliding into the vowel [i].

The initial vowel of the diphthong usually does not present a problem, unless it is a central vowel like a schwa. In that case the replacement is used. Rising diphthongs do not present difficulties in pronunciation, but falling or centering ones do.

1.1.2.1 Rising diphthongs

Examples:

[eɪ] as in **eight**.

[oʊ] as in **go**.

[aɪ] as in **my**

[aʊ] as in **gown**

1.1.2.2 Falling or Centring Diphthongs

Examples:

[ið] as in **fierce**

[eð] as in **scarce**

[ð] sometimes surface with a [a] as in **farther**.

1.1.3 Tense and Lax Vowels

A lax vowel is defined as a speech sound produced with relatively little muscular tension and a tense vowel as a speech sound with sound produced with relatively grade muscular tension (Akmajian et al 1984: 524). Lax vowels such as [ɪ] and [ʊ] do exist in Northern Sotho but they are pronounced as tense vowels.

Examples:

[ɪ] as in **big**, **fig**, **bid**, are pronounced as [i] or [I] and [ʊ] in **pull**, **full**, **book**, **push** are pronounced as [u]. The difference is not made between **fool** and **full**, between **pill** and **peel**. A possible explanation in pronunciation could be the fact that Vowel Raising derives the lax vowels in Northern Sotho. They are rather the allophones of the phonemes /o/ and /e/. The lax vowels are independent phones. They create mispronunciation for the BSAE speakers.

Almost all African learners rely on their teachers for pronunciation through imitation and drills. The results are definitely a fossilisation of the new pronunciation, which can be regarded as a marker of BSAE. Minimal contact with native speakers of English has also led to an over-reliance on the written word or spelling. The complex orthography of English has therefore also contributed to the pronunciation evidenced in BSAE such as the following:

these [ði:s] vs. this [ðɪs]

[i] vs. [ɪ]

pool vs pull. [pu:l] vs [pʊl].

[u] vs [ʊ].

Because of mispronunciation some parents try to solve the problem by taking their children to Model C Schools and Private Schools where White teachers are in the majority.

1.1.4 Mother-tongue Influence.

The influence of the mother-tongue is one of the major reasons for the emergence of new pronunciation evidenced in BSAE. This exists because of the lack of central vowels in Northern Sotho such as [ə] in father, [ʌ] in cub, [ɜ] as in first. This has led to speakers of BSAE to create variants by transfer from the inventory of vowels existent in their own mother-tongue. As quoted by (Mmusi 2000 unpublished) Gimson (1980: 306) predicted this phenomenon in his research on the pronunciation of English.

1.1.5 Inadequate Teacher Training and Teaching method in English Second Language Teaching

African teachers of English in South Africa received poor training in English teaching method, the emphasis is rather on reading and writing English. They are furthermore not exposed to native speakers of English. Some of them are not even trained at all in the teaching of English. This phenomenon has resulted in a majority of students, who display English language problems at tertiary level, in reading, writing, listening and speaking. African teachers of English were taught English pronunciation by Black teachers who had little or no input from native speakers of English due to the segregation of schools as a result of the imposition of Apartheid in 1948, and the Bantu Education Act of 1953, (Ntlhakana, 2000, 16, 2 (62), April. 11-17).

1.1.6 Poor learning strategies

Students tend to memorise or employ rote learning of Standard English. They also do not read books or newspapers outside of the school environment. In other words they do not read for pleasure. The communication skills in English for learners are thus limited and this leads to poorer pronunciation, which is mostly influenced by spelling.

1.1 Definition of concepts

The concepts used in the study are discussed below:

1.2.1 Vowel

According to Richards et al (1985:309) a vowel is a speech sound in the articulation of which the airstream from the lungs is not blocked in anyway in the mouth or, through the nose and, which is usually pronounced with a vibration of the vocal cords/bands, e.g. English /i:/ in, /si:/ see and /u:/ in /tu:/too.

1.2.2 Consonant

It is a speech sound where the airstream from the lungs is either completely blocked or stopped, [p, k, t] partially blocked [s, f] or where the opening is so narrow that the air escapes through the nose, e.g. [n, m]. (Richards et al 1985: 59).

1.2.3 Schwa [ə]

It is a reduced vowel. A Schwa is a short vowel, which is usually produced with the lips unrounded. The phonetic symbol of a schwa is [ə]. This vowel is not found in Northern Sotho (Richards et al 1985: 284)

1.2.4 Native Language

It is a language that, a person acquires in early childhood because it is spoken in the family and or it is the language of the country where he/she is lives. A native language is often the

first language a child acquires from a nurse or an older relative. It is only later that he/she learns a second language, one that he/she considers not to be his/her native language (Richards et al 1985: 187).

1.3 Rationale for the study

The study was conducted to find problems that native speakers of Northern Sotho encounter in the pronunciation of certain speech sounds of SAE.

The aim of the study is to find solutions and to provide possible answers for the elimination of pronunciation difficulties experienced by native speakers of Northern Sotho.

The objective is to promote the learning of phonetics by language learners and second language users, because every language has its own inventory of speech sounds.

The researcher assumes the existence of mother-tongue influence in learning of a Second Language (L2).

The research will be beneficial in the field of Second Language or foreign language or will contribute to the field of phonetics and phonology, specifically to the area of linguistics in general.

1.3 Research Methodology

The research problem to be addressed in this study will centre around the following questions.

1.4.1. Research Questions

- a) Which vowels and consonants are problematic?
- b) Why these vowels and consonants are problematic?
- c) Which factors do contribute to the impact of Northern Sotho on BSAE?
- d) To what extent do these factors have impact of Northern Sotho on BSAE?
- e) Is there need for Second Language learners in Secondary and high schools to be taught phonetics and phonology?
- f) How relevant is the deployment of English first language speaking teachers in Black School?

1.4.2 Hypothesis

The study was based on the following hypothesis:

- a) Northern Sotho has an impact on BSAE.
- b) Native speakers of N. Sotho have difficulties in pronouncing certain SAE speech sounds.
- c) The problem could lie in the lack of certain SAE speech sounds.
- d) The influence of certain phonological rules from the mother-tongue on English, create BSAE.
- e) There is an existence of different pronunciations between rural, township and urban Northern Sotho speaking learners.

1.4.3 Delimitation of the study

The researcher chose Limpopo Province as the area of research. This was done because the majority of native speakers of Northern Sotho live in that area. Due to the size of the province, the researcher identified Polokwane and Mankweng in Capricorn District to be the area of the study. A selection of two hundred and twenty subjects was made (one hundred and eighty learners and forty teachers).

The researcher's scope of work concentrated on the problematic speech sounds encountered by the BSAE speakers, particularly the native speakers of Northern Sotho.

1.4.4 Limitation of the study

The researcher experienced problems from learners, mostly in grades ten who could hardly read certain words selected for recording. This forced the researcher to repeatedly ask them to read aloud. Some learners did not understand some questions on the questionnaire and this caused the researcher to explain for them in their mother-tongue. Only thirty educators were made to read the selected words, the other five were said to be committed with schoolwork since some of the interviews were made during school hours.

1.4.5 The Research Design

The following is the description of qualitative and quantitative methods:

a) Qualitative method

(Nazir 2004:21) describes qualitative research as empirical in nature. It also goes beyond what appears in texts. Qualitative research is not concerned with quantity or numbers, but with reasons and the motives. Quality is emphasised rather than quantity.

The researcher used open-ended questions in the questionnaire, see Appendix 1. These opened-ended questions do not prescribe answers but leave people free to answer questions in the ways they see fit.

Appendix 1 provides questions 5, 11 and 13 as examples for open-ended questions. These questions need reasoning answers. Vowel charts were also used, in qualitative method, see figures 1, 2, 7, 8 and 9. Figures 3-5 display classifications of consonants. Figures 10 and 11 display phonetic properties of vowels and consonants respectively. Figures 13-22 are provided for statistical analysis of learners' responses.

b) Quantitative method

According to (Nazir 2004:19) quantitative research is empirical in nature. It is not only conceptual, but also works with data that is not found in texts. This method emphasises quantity. It is concerned with numbers. Because of its emphasis on numbers, it generates statistics about particular things. The researcher collected data of one hundred and eighty learners and forty educators from six schools, as demonstrated in the tables below:

Table 1. Sample of learners by school

Hwiti High School	Manoshi High School	Comprehensive High School
Grade 10 = 10 learners Grade 11 = 10 learners Grade 12 = 10 learners	Grade 10 = 10 learners Grade 11 = 10 learners Grade 12 = 10 learners	Grade 10 = 10 learners Grade 11 = 10 learners Grade 12 = 10 learners
Mountainview High School	Nkoshilo High School	Capricorn High School
Grade 10 = 10 learners Grade 11 = 10 learners Grade 12 = 10 learners	Grade 10 = 10 learners Grade 11 = 10 learners Grade 12 = 10 learners	Grade 10 = 10 learners Grade 11 = 10 learners Grade 12 = 10 learners
60	60	60

Table 2: Sample of forty Educators by school.

Hwiti High School	Nkoshilo High School
5 females 5 males	5 females 5 males
Mountainview High School	Manoshi High School
5 females 5 males	5 females 5 males

The population was selected randomly irrespective of the fact that the educator is offering either English or Northern Sotho in those schools. Selection of educators was not made on Model C Schools since the majority of them are English and/or Afrikaans native speakers. In the section below a description of the sample procedure is discussed:

1.4.6 Sample

The researcher consulted learners from different schools, by selecting two schools from different villages, two schools from Mankweng Township and other two schools from Polokwane City. The focus was on grades ten to twelve. Convenient sampling was used in order to select the school to maintain a balance and avoid bias. The researcher believed that different schools from different areas should also bring about different learners' articulation of speech sounds. Educators from the targeted schools were asked to read passages and lists of words. The researcher also assumed that learners from different grades would not produce speech sounds in the same manner due to their experiences at schools because of

grade level. Only learners were given access to questionnaires since they were designed for them and not for the educators.

The schools selected are listed below:

- a) Hwiti and Mountainview High Schools situated in Mankweng Township where the majority of the residents are native speakers of Northern Sotho.
- b) Manoshi High School in the area of Ga-Molepo at Sehlale village, not far from Boyne village where the great ZCC church of Bishop Lekganyane is situated.
- c) Nkoshilo High School situated at Komaneng Village in Ga-Mamabolo area in the vicinity of Boyne. All the learners in the above schools have registered Northern Sotho as a primary language.
- d) Model C schools: Capricorn and Comprehensive High Schools are situated in Polokwane.

1.4.7 Validity

One questionnaire, a passage from a newspaper with targeted words and two lists consisted of vowels and consonants were used (Appendices 2-4). The researcher used tape-recorded material to determine the pronunciation of vowel and consonant speech sounds. These instruments were structured in such a way that they would determine the extent to which the hypothesis might be applicable to other schools in the Limpopo Province.

1.4.8 Data Collection

Data for the survey was collected through the distribution of questionnaires completed by randomly sampled respondents. Questionnaires, lists of words and paragraphs selected from a newspaper were distributed personally by the researcher to the respondents. Learners were made to read targeted words on these lists and passages provided. Completed questionnaires were collected after every grade of learners has participated.

1.4.9 Data Analysis

Statistical analysis was used to analyse the data collected. Tables displaying numbers, ages, gender, grades and percentages were used. These assisted the researcher in evaluating the hypothesis. Through these the researcher hoped to get the targeted pronunciation of speech sounds of respondents. A high number of learners' responses showed positive results in line with the hypothesis.

1.5 Literature Review

Black South African English is regard as a micro-linguistic study on the pronunciation of native English vowels by the Black South African speakers. In this study, Black South Africans refer to native Africans who speak one of African languages as first language. These native Africans received their English language education in rural areas and semi-urban (townships) areas. The BSAE differs from other forms of English in other African countries such as Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi, and Nigeria etc. BSAE is highly spoken in Black community.

According to Platt, Weber and HO's criteria (1984:2-3) as cited from <http://ehostvgw4.epnet.com>. BSAE results ultimately from colonialism. English was introduced to South Africa in early 1800 when the British took over Cape.

The language was imported by the ruling classes to an area, which already had different indigenous languages. It thus fit the above cited linguistics' criteria. The imposition of Apartheid in 1984 and the Bantu Education Act of 1953 worsened the situation in South Africa. This took place against the weight of informed Black opinions at the time. It entrenched mother-tongue instructions up to the possible level for Black pupils' access to native English speakers. This excludes few remaining mission schools, mainly under Roman Catholic Missionaries.

From the South African Journal of Linguistics, Supplement 38, a workshop on BSAE was organised by Daam Wissing. It was held on the 14 January 2000 during the LSSA Conference in Cape Town. Two discussion sessions were held during the discussions, one session was dealing with the attitudes towards the BSAE while the other dealing with the linguistic features of BSAE pronunciation. Prior to the workshop, various posters were displayed. Some posters and other works on BSAE were presented. The original presentation were published by (Wissing 2000) and distributed at the conference. Very recently, a couple of overviews were written by (Buthelezi 1995) and (Gough 1996), in addition to longer tradition on attitude work and some older work on the pronunciation of BSAE by (Len Lanham 1967, 1984).

(Mmusi 2000, unpublished) has conducted research on the Sotho-Tswana language group focusing on Sesotho language. She only concentrated more on vowels and not much has been done on consonants and other aspect of language.

Linguistics such as Van Rooy and Van Huyssteen examined the vowels of BSAE. During the conference in Cape Town held on the 14 January 2000, their article presented an overview of previous research alongside new transcription data on the monophthongs of Nguni-English and Sotho-English. They found out that the monophthongs of BSAE are fewer than the monophthongs of other varieties of English. This is due to the neutralisation of the tense/lax contrast and the absence of central vowel phones.

The two linguists support the researcher in this study that the lack of monophthongs, particularly central vowels in Northern Sotho language brings an impact on BSAE.

Van Rooy (2001) finds that there are more similarities than differences between BSAE and other varieties of SAE as far as the consonant inventory is concerned. In this study, the researcher also finds that there are very little differences between the BSAE and SAE consonant inventory. Van der Pas, Wissing and Zonneveld (2001),

focus on the suprasegmental property of stress. They also pointed that stress in BSAE is a very interesting phenomenon from the perspective of second language acquisition spoken in South Africa.

Van Rooy, Wissing and Van den Heever (1999) find that Tswana speaking and English speaking listeners are roughly similar in their responses to the vowels produced by Tswana-English speaker, although the native English listeners perceive the vowels produced by the native speaker of English more accurately than do the Tswana listeners.

The findings by Van Rooy, Wissing and Van den Heever (2001) produce similar evidence, which is experienced by the researcher in this study in comparison to Northern Sotho-English speakers in their production of vowels with those of the native speakers of English.

Hundleby (1964: 63, 74-75) conducted research on the Xhosa vowels and points out that the vowels occurring in the neutralised position in Xhosa-English is generally higher and approximates the quality of the tense member of three contrasting pairs as in *kit* vs *fleece*, *sit* vs *seat* and *foot* vs *goose*.

Northern-sotho English does not show any difference in the production of the following contrasting pairs: *pool* vs *pull*, *pill* vs *peel* and *fool* vs *full*. All the contrasting words are produced with a tense vowel.

According to (Simo Bobda 2000: 254) African Englishes generally tense the second component of the three raising diphthongs in *price*, *choice* and *mouth* to [ai, u, au], while monophthongising the other two raising diphthongs as well as many of the centring diphthongs.

Sotho as a language group refers to Setswana, Northern Sotho (Sepedi) and Sesotho, which is a cluster that constitutes Sotho language group. Mmusi (2000, unpublished) has made

research on Sotho language groups concentrating more on vowels and not much has been done on consonants and other aspects of language.

English is the only language in South Africa whose second language speakers outnumber the mother-tongue speakers and this amazing fact has an effect on the form this changing language takes. One of these so called 'new' varieties of English with its own particular identity and ownership is Black South African English (Kachru, 1986). Black South African English emanated for colonialism.

The politically entrenched separateness, despite its potential to promote black consciousness and despite the obvious advantages in acquiring initial literacy in the mother-tongue failed dismally, mainly because it led to deep suspicion that the government was intending to create a semi-literate isolated labour force (Mawasha, 1982: 25). As a result, because it was forbidden, English became more desirable, seen by many as the magic to socio-economic advancement and power.

In contrast, indigenous languages were regarded by both their native speakers and non-speakers as worthless because of their functional limitations with regard to access to participation and mobility in the wider society.

After the tragic Soweto uprising of 1976, in which pupils protesting about language issues lost their lives, the education policy was rapidly changed to increase access to English, but changes came too late to save the teetering Black educational system from ruin or to have any real impact on the course of development of Black South African English. Despite the desire for English, many people could not acquire it in prestigious form. For fifty years the contexts for learning English for the average African child had been appallingly inadequate. By 1980 most teachers of English in the Department of Education and Training were products of Bantu Education who acquired their matric certificates with English Second Language Higher Grade, and sometimes with a non-quality symbol converted to Standard Grade.

The long-term effects of under-funding, overcrowding and teacher incompetence, combined with limited contact with native English speakers led to characteristic patterns of pronunciation and syntax becoming entrenched as norms of spoken Black South African English, with resultant reduced levels of comprehensibility (Wright 1996: 151). The nature of schooling provided in South Africa also deserves consideration, since the English taught and heard in former Department of Education and Training schools is vastly different from that used in the formally whites only-schools. This is a question which deserves serious consideration, since it is clear that Black South African English forms a continuum in relation to such variants as educational level and degree of exposure to mother-tongue English speakers (Mugoya 1991, Cough 1996: 54)

Organisation of Study

The study is arranged as follows:

Chapter one is the introduction of the study. Chapter two focuses on the Northern Sotho and English vowels and consonants. Chapter three entails data collection on BSAE vowels and consonants. Chapter four provides the research findings and data analysis. Chapter five presents conclusion and recommendations of the dissertation.

CHAPTER 2: NORTHERN SOTHO AND SOUTH AFRICAN ENGLISH VOWELS AND CONSONANTS

This chapter outlines the terminology and principles according to which the Northern Sotho and South African English speech sounds are classified and described. It also makes available examples in phonetic script, illustrating the classification and description of the sounds of Northern Sotho and South African English. Vowels and consonants are the main groups of speech sounds in Northern Sotho like in other languages. The two glides; that is, 'w' and 'y', phonetically transcribed as [w] and [j] respectively, form part of the Northern Sotho and South African English inventory of speech sounds.

The vowels of Northern Sotho are typically voiced and pulmonic (that is, they are produced by pushing the air from the lungs out of the body through the oral cavity). Vowels are voiced because during their production the state of the vocal cord is relatively closer to each other. This does not occur during the production of voiceless sounds. When the vocal cords vibrate, a voiced speech sound is produced. The air stream moves along the oral cavity relatively unimpeded. Voiceless speech sounds are speech sounds, which are produced without vibration of the vocal cords. For example, [t] as in tin, and [s] as in see. [t] is a voiceless alveolar stop while [s] as a voiceless alveolar fricative (Richards et al 1985:338).

In both Northern Sotho and South African English languages, consonants are characterised by the fact that the airstream is either pulmonically, laryngeally or lingually initiated and consonants may be voiced, breathy voiced or voiceless. During the production of some voiceless speech sounds, [s, ʃ, θ, t, t'] to mention but a few, only a hissing sound is heard from the first two speech sounds, such as in the two speech sounds. These are usually referred to as fricatives. Consonants may also be completely stopped or continuous, hence

the speech sounds produced in that manner are called “continuants”. Consonants may be produced orally, nasally or both nasally and orally. Some may be produced through the sides of the tongue (laterally).

The individual vowels and consonants have distinguishing features or characteristics.

Trubetzkoy (1969: 68) defines the term, distinctive feature as follows:

“... in phonology, the major role is played not by the phonemes but by distinctive opposition. Each phoneme has a definable phonemic content only because the system of distinctive opposition shows a definitive order and structure”.

The features in (Chomsky and Halle 1968) from their text “The Sound Patterns of English” are intended as a universal set, that is, as a set of all the phonetic distinctions, which the human vocal tract is able to make, and from which every individual language makes its own selection. A distinctive feature is a device, which is used in modern phonology for the description of both the phonetics and phonology of a language sound system. An individual feature is a label, which refers to a single component of the articulation of a speech sound. Furthermore, a feature may refer to any phonetic aspect of a speech sound, and not only the articulatory aspects, but also the acoustic and the auditory once. What follows is a discussion of the Northern Sotho vowels:

2.1. Northern Sotho Vowel System

Figure 1 below shows the Northern Sotho vowel system. Northern Sotho has seven vowels. The seven-vowel system is one of the characteristics by which the Sotho languages are distinguished from most of the other Southern African languages. The others have a five-vowel system as in the Nguni language and Tshivenda language.

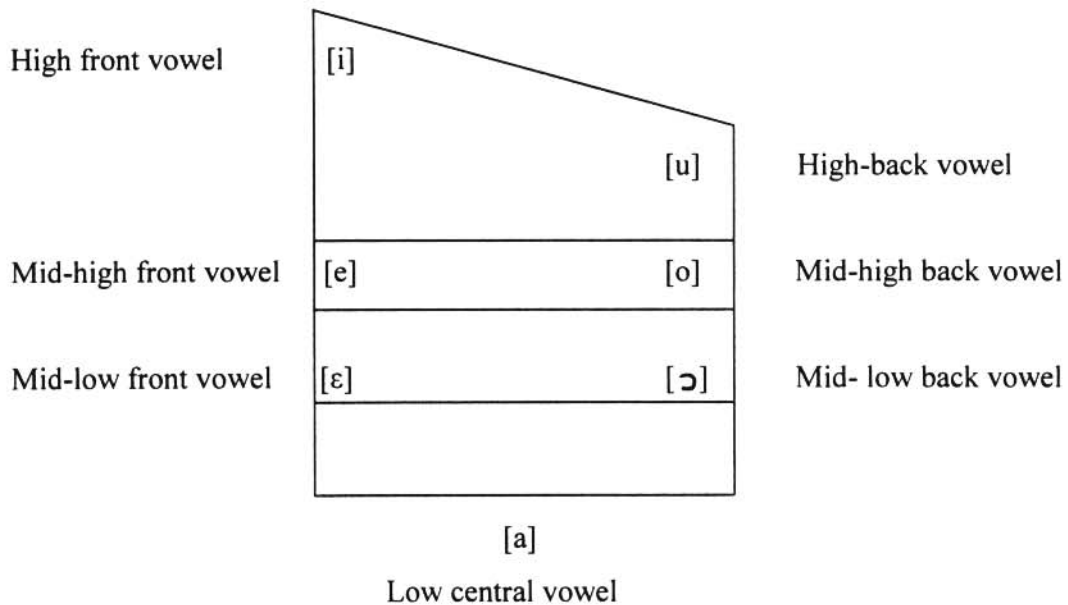


Figure 1: Northern Sotho Vowel System: (Kotze' 1989: 53).

In addition to the seven basic vowels of Northern Sotho, there are four other raised vowels, which bring the total number of Northern Sotho vowels to eleven. The Northern Sotho basic and raised vowel chart depicts the relative frontness and backness of low and high vowels. In phonetic script of Northern Sotho the raised vowels are marked with a diacritic [̤] below a vowel.

Vowels are generally classified according to **Tongue Position and Tongue height**. The two classifications are elucidated below:

a) Tongue Height

This includes vowels that are **low**, **mid-low**, **high** and **mid-high**.

- i. Low vowels are formed by placing the body of the tongue relatively far from the roof of the mouth and with a wide jaw opening. Northern Sotho has only one low vowel [a].
- ii. Mid-low vowels are [ɛ , ɛ̃ , ɔ̃ , ɔ̣]
- iii. High vowels are produced by placing the body of the tongue relatively close to the roof of the mouth. High vowels include [i, u].

b) Tongue Position is used to describe back, front and central vowels.

- i. Back-vowels are produced by retracting the body of the tongue from the neutral position, i.e. the body of the tongue is behind the resting position. Examples of back vowels are [ɔ̃ , ɔ̣ , o , ɔ̣ , u]
- ii. Front vowels
Ackmajian et al (1984: 522) describe **front** as an articulation that describes speech sounds in which the body of the tongue is forward from the resting position. Front vowels can be represented by the following: [i, ɛ̃ , e , ɛ , ɛ̣]. See how they appear in Fig. 2.
- iii. Central vowels
During the articulation of central vowels, the body of the tongue is neither forward nor back in the mouth. Example of such vowel is [a]. Northern Sotho has only one central vowel.

Ackmajian et al (1984: 519) define **central** as an articulation that describes speech in which the body of the tongue is neither forward nor back in the mouth.

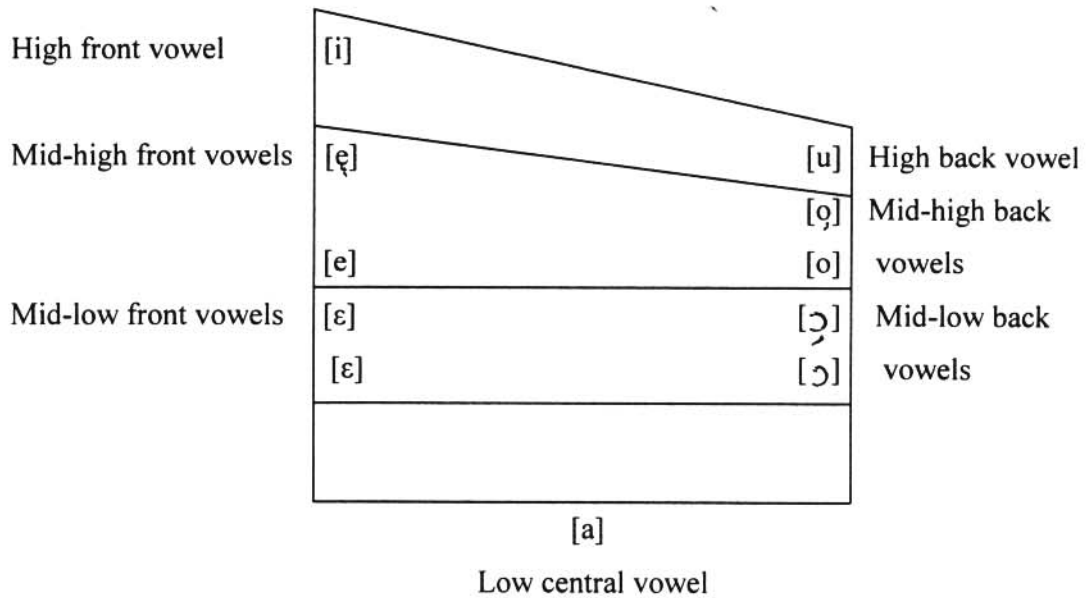


Figure 2: Northern Sotho seven basic vowels and four raised ones (Kotze' 1989: 59).

Vowels shown in Fig. 2 above are represented in the following Northern Sotho verbs and nouns according to their tongue position and tongue height. The vowels are indicated in bold letters below. Please note that Northern Sotho orthographic vowels a, e, i, o, and u, do correspond with their phonetic script [a], [e], [i], [o] and [u].

[i] as in **d**iba (delay)

iri (hour)

bina (dance)

bitša (call)

ipona (see oneself)

“I” in ipona is used as a reflective prefix morpheme, which means to ‘see oneself’ or to refer to when someone has a ‘pride’ and to refer again when a female person is experiencing menstruation. The vowel [i] is described as a high front vowel pronounced with lip spreading.

[e] as in pele (ahead)

sepela (walk)

senya (destroy)

sefa (dunk)

sediba (fountain)

[e], is a mid-front vowel with slightly spread lips.

[ɛ], in the following examples is described as a mid-low front vowel which is pronounced with a little lip spreading.

fêra (sit with legs crossed)

sêla (hunt for food)

rêma (chop with an axe)

êpa (dig)

pêê (Afrikaans borrowed word which means “horse”).

[a], it is a low central vowel pronounced with lips in neutral position.

[a] as in apea (cook)

akanya (suggest)

amuša (breast feeding)

amega (narrate)

hlapa (wash)

[u] is a high back vowel pronounced with lips in neutral position.

[u] appears as in **bula** (open)

buna (reap)

buša (rule)

khudu (tortoise)

[o] is a mid-high back vowel pronounced with moderate lip rounding.

[o] as in **motho** (person)

noka (river)

šoma (twork)

raloka (play)

[ɔ] is a mid-low back vowel pronounced with lip rounding.

[ɔ] appears in words such as:

ôpêla (sing)

gôhlôla (cough)

ôtla (punish)

hlôgô (head)

Raised vowels

According to Kotzé (1989:58) raised vowels in Northern Sotho are the result of vowel assimilation. The process of assimilation takes place because vowels pronounced with a “higher” tongue position “raised”, the tongue position of vowels pronounced with a “lower” tongue position.

Examples of raised vowels are as follows:

[e] as in molemi [molemi] (farmer)

[ɛ] as in seledu [seleɽu] (chin)

[ɔ] as in kgomo [kx^hmo] (cattle)

[o] as in moromi [moromo] (sender)

2.2. The phonetic version of the system of Northern Sotho consonants

The phonetic version of the system of Northern Sotho consonants is displayed in figures 3 and 4 below. These consonants are classified here according to their place of articulation, manner of articulation, channel of airstream release and manner of airstream release (Kotze' 1989:63)

2.2.1. Place of Articulation

By place of articulation here, we refer to many parts of the mouth and throat (the oral cavity) that are used in the production of speech sounds, such as the lower and upper lips (bilabials), the tongue and the teeth (interdentally), the tongue and alveolar ridge (alveolus) and the back of the tongue and soft palate (velum) (Richards et al 1985: 221).

Bilabial	p'	p ^h	β	m					
Alveolar	n	s	t'	t ^h	l	ts'	ts ^h	tl'	tl ^h
Labiodentals	f								
Labio-alveolar	fs	ps'	ps ^h						
Palatal	ɟ	ɲ	ʒ	j					
Labio-palatal	β ʒ	fʃ							
Alveo-palatal	tʃ'	tʃ ^h							
Velar	k'	k ^h	kx ^h						
Labio-velar	w								

Figure 3: Classification of consonants according to Place of Articulation (Kotze' 1989: 63)

All the speech sounds from Fig.3 are indicated with their place of articulation as discussed below:

Bilabials are speech sounds which are produced with two lips. **Alveolar** sounds are those consonants produced by the front part of the tongue touching or nearly touching the gum ridge behind the upper ridge. **Alveo-palatals** are those speech sounds (consonants) which are in cluster form, called affricates, i.e. a combination of consonants which forms a speech sound as seen on the table above. The speech sounds are articulated from both the alveolar and the palatals. **Palatal** speech sounds are typically consonants produced by the front upper surface of the tongue, behind the alveolar ridge touching the hard palate at the top of the mouth. Speech sounds called **Labio-palatal** are those which are produced at the same time from the lips and the **hard palates**. **Glottal** speech sounds are typically **stops**, and are

produced by the rapid closing of the **glottis**, (which is the space between the vocal cords) which traps the airstreams from the lungs followed by a sudden release of the air as the glottis is opened.

Speech sounds are said to be **velars** when they are articulated by the back part of the tongue touching the soft palate (the velum) at the back of the mouth. The **Labio-velar** can be seen from the diagram as a glide [w]. Active articulators are the lips and the soft palate. The glide [w] is described as a labio-velar sound while the glide [j] is termed a palatal glide. The **Labio-dental** is a speech sound which is produced by the lower lip touching the upper teeth, for example, [f] as in the Northern Sotho word **fofa** (fly), (Fromkin & Rodman 1988: 38).

2.2.2 Manner of Articulation

This describes the way in which a speech sound is produced by the speech organs. With consonants, the airstreams may be stopped and released suddenly, e.g. [t'] and allowed to escape with friction, such as a fricative [f], and stopped and released slowly with friction, such as an affricate, e.g. [ts^h] (Richards et al 1985:170).

Figure 4 below displays the manner in which consonants are produced. They are classified according to pulmonic, Laryngeal, Lingual and pulmonic and lingual respectively. A discussion of these classifications follows:

Pulmonic		Laryngeal	lingual	Pulmonic lingual
Voiced	Breathy Voiced	Voiceless	Voiceless	Voiced
[β], [m], [β̞]	[ɦ]	[p ^h], [f]	[pʼ]	[ŋ]
[ɟ], [w], [j]		[ps ^h], [fs]	[pʃʼ]	[ŋ!]
[r], [n], [ɟ]		[pʰ], [fʃ]	[tʼ]	[ŋ]
[l], [ɭ], [ɹ]		[t ^h], [ts ^h], [s]	[tsʼ]	
[ŋ], [ʎ]		[ʃ], [tʰ]	[tʃʼ]	
		[ɕ]	[tʰ]	
		[ɸ]	[kʼ]	
		[k ^h]		
		[kx ^h]		

Figure 4: Classification of consonants according to Manner of Articulation (Kotzé 1989:65).

Pulmonic speech sounds are those sounds which are produced when the airstream is released from the lungs up the wind-pipe and escapes through the mouth and or through the nasal cavity (Katamba 1989:2). These speech sounds are said to be voiced or voiceless.

Voiced speech sounds are produced with the vocal cords vibrating.

Vibration takes place when the air particles touch the vocal cords through the passage between them, called glottis.

Voiceless speech sounds are produced without any vibration of vocal cords. The air particles escape unimpeded through the glottis without touching the vocal cords since the latter are apart. Laryngeals are speech sounds produced from the larynx. The larynx is the cartilaginous membrane at the top of the windpipe which contains the vocal cords.

According to (Fromkin and Rodman, 1988: 34) the production of any speech sound involves the movement of an airstream. They say most speech sounds are produced by pushing air from the lungs out of the body through the mouth and sometimes through the nose. Speech sounds are called egressive because the air is pushed out and called pulmonic because the lung air is used. Pulmonic sounds are produced by a pulmonic egressive airstream mechanism. Other languages produce ingressive speech sounds, such as ejectives, implosive, and clicks examples. During the production of these sounds, lung air is not used, the body of air in the mouth can be moved. When this air is sucked instead of flowing out, ingressive sounds like implosives and clicks are produced.

2.2.3 Channel of airstream mechanism

Figure 5 below shows whether the speech sounds on the diagram are produced through the mouth (orally), nose (nasally) or nasally and orally.

Mouth or oral			Nose or	Nasally & orally
Medial		Lateral	Nasally	
[p']	[r]	[l]	[m]	[ŋ]
[p ^h]	[s]	[tɫ']	[ɱ]	[ŋ']
[β]	[tʃ']	[t ^h]	[n]	[ŋ]
[ps ^h]	[ts ^h]	[ɸ]	[ɳ]	
[fs]	[ʃ]	[l]	[ŋ]	
[βʒ]	[ʒ]			
[w]	[j]			
[t']	[ɟ]			
[t ^h]	[k']			
[ts']	[k ^h]			
[ts ^h]	[kx ^h]			
	[ɣ]			

Figure 5: **Classification of consonants according to Channel of Airstream** (Kotze' 1989: 66).

Speech sounds are classified according to the channel of airstream mechanism in figure 5 above. Sounds are said to be oral when they are produced while the soft palate at the back of the mouth is raised so that the airstream from the lungs cannot escape through the nose. Medium sounds occur in the middle of the mid-sagittal plane. See examples in figure (5) above. Lateral sounds are speech sounds which are produced by partially blocking the airstream from the lungs, usually by the tongue letting it escape at the sides of the tongue. Nasal sounds are produced by stopping the airstream from the lungs (at some place in the mouth) and letting the air escape through the nose. The production of such speech sounds takes place when the back part of the velum moves away from the back wall of the

pharynx. The passage created by this movement is called velopharyngeal passage or the velic opening (Kotze' 1989: 67). Nasal speech sounds appear on the far side on fig. 5 which are produced as nasals with a click feature.

2.2.4. Manner of airstream mechanism

This section deals with the manner in which the airstream is released from the lungs through the mouth cavity. The manner of airstream mechanism includes plosives, affricates, clicks, flaps, trills, fricatives, resonants and vocalics. Figure 6 below indicates how these speech sounds are categorised according to their manner of airstream release (Kotze' 1989: 68).

Plosive	[pʼ]	[pʰ]	[tʼ]	[tʰ]	[tʰ]	[tʰ]	[kʼ]				
Affricate	[psʰ]	[psʼ]	[pʃʼ]	[psʰ]	[tsʼ]	[tʃʼ]	[tʰ]	[tsʰ]	[kxʰ]		
Click	[l]	[ŋ!]	[ŋ!]	[ŋ!]							
Flap	[ɺ]										
Trill	[r]										
Fricative	[β]	[f]	[fs]	[f]	[βʒ]	[s]	[ʃ]	[ʒ]	[ɸ]	[χ]	[ħ]
Resonant	[m]	[ɹ]	[n]	[ŋ]	[ŋ]						
Vocalic	[w]	[j]									

Figure 6: Classification of consonants according to manner of airstream release (Kotze'1989: 72).

(a) According to Richards et al (1985:307) stops are classified as plosives, affricates, clicks, flap and trill.

i. Plosives

These are speech sounds which are produced by stopping the airstream from the lungs and suddenly releasing it. The three speech sounds, i.e. [p'], [t'] and [k'] are phonetically described as follows.

[p'] a voiceless bilabial plosive.

[t'] a voiceless alveolar plosive

[k'] a voiceless velar plosive

ii. Affricates

Affricates are speech sounds which are produced by stopping the airstream from the lung, and slowly releasing it with friction. An affricate is a combination of a stop and a fricative, i.e. [t] and [ʃ] to make [tʃ] which is a voiceless alveo-palatal stop versus [dʒ], a voiced alveo-palatal of English.

iii. Clicks

(Katamba 1989: 46) describes a click speech sound as being produced with an ingressive velaric airstream mechanism. He further says that the production of a click involves two crucial phases. The two phases are a structure made using the back of the tongue and the velum, hence velic closure and that there must be some constriction in the labial, dental, alveolar or alveo-palatal. See examples of click on fig. 6 above.

iv. Flaps

(Richards et al 1985: 107) define flap as a speech sound which is produced by making a single tap, usually by the tongue against a firm surface in the mouth. For example; r –

sound in words like *very*, *sorry*, and *Mary* may be produced by English speakers as a flap, i.e. being produced by a slight tap with the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge.

(b) Continuants

(Akmajian et al 1984:520) define a continuant as a distinctive feature that characterises speech sounds produced without a blockage of their airflow in the oral cavity. Examples of continuants are identified on fig. 6 as trill, fricative, resonant and vocalic. The four distinctive features will be discussed below.

i. Trills

(Richards et al 1985:280) describe 'trill' as a speech sound (a consonant), which is produced by a series of rapid closures or taps by a flexible speech organ, e.g. the tip of the tongue against a firm surface, e.g. the gum ridge behind the upper teeth (the alveolar ridge).

(Sloat et al 1978:42) also describe a trill as consisting of several rapid interruptions of the airstream. According to them, if the tongue tip vibrates against the alveolar ridge, the result is an apical trill. It is the type of sounds which small children often make when imitating an airplane motor. An apical trill occurs in the Spanish word '*perro*' which means a 'dog' and in the Swedish word '*rod*' meaning 'red' and it is symbolised as [ɾ].

These authors further say that another kind of r – sound is produced by trilling the uvular, and such a sound is called an uvular trill. An uvular trill occurs in some German dialects as in '*rot*' which means 'red' and '*rund*', meaning 'round' and symbolised as [ʀ̥].

ii. Fricatives

These are speech sounds which are produced by allowing the airstream from the lungs to escape with friction. The friction is caused by bringing the two articulators, e.g. the upper teeth and the lower lip close together, but not close enough to stop the airstream completely. Examples of English words are '*push*' [ʃ], '*size*' [z]. Northern Sotho examples: *sepela* 'to walk'[s] and '*foła*' (recover) [f]. (Akmajian et al 1984:522) describe a fricative as a manner of articulation in which the airflow is channelled through a narrow

opening in the vocal tract, producing turbulence. The English words 'fill' and 'soup' begin with fricatives.

iii. Resonants

Resonants include the nasal speech sounds. These are the sounds produced by lowering the velum and blocking the oral cavity, allowing the airstream to escape through the nasal cavity. These sounds are produced with constrictions, which are part of shaping articulation. For example, [n, ŋ, ŋ, m]. There are also lateral resonants. They are made with the severe constriction employed in the production of [l] in 'leap'. According to (Sloat et al 1978:40), the lateral articulation serves merely to shape the oral cavity other than to impede or block the flow of air.

iv. Vocalics

Vocalic sounds are produced with an oral cavity in which the most radical obstruction does not exceed that found in the high vowels [i] and [u] and with vocal cords that are positioned so as to allow spontaneous voicing. All vowels are identified as [+VOCALIC]. Figure 6 above also shows [w, j] as vocalic speech sounds, according to (Kotzé 1989:72).

The next section, that is, item 2.2 deals with the classification and description of English vowel displayed on the vowel chart, figure 7

2.3. Classification and description of English vowels and Consonants.

There are some Northern Sotho speech sounds, namely, consonant, vowels and glides which are found in South African English. These speech sounds share the same place of articulation; similar manner of articulation, the airstream mechanism and the state of the glottis English vowel system will be presented in the form of a chart on the next page.

2.3.1. English Vowel Chart

The diagram below taken from (Sloat et 1978:12-14) shows that vowels are positioned as mid, front, low, back and central. These represent the features of these vowels according to the manner and place of articulation.

Front vowels as indicated in fig.7 are those speech sounds which are produced without retraction from the neutral position. Front vowels are [- BACK]. Back vowels are produced by retracting the body of the tongue from the neutral position and they are described by the feature [+ BACK]. For example [u, ʊ, o, ɔ, ɑ] are [+BACK] and [+ROUND]. They are described as [+Round] speech sounds because of the shape of the lips during their articulation as they take 'o' shape, as compared to their counterparts. They are produced with a narrowing of the lip orifice (the opening between the lips).

The following is the English Vowel Chart as shown by (Sloat et al 1978: 12-14):

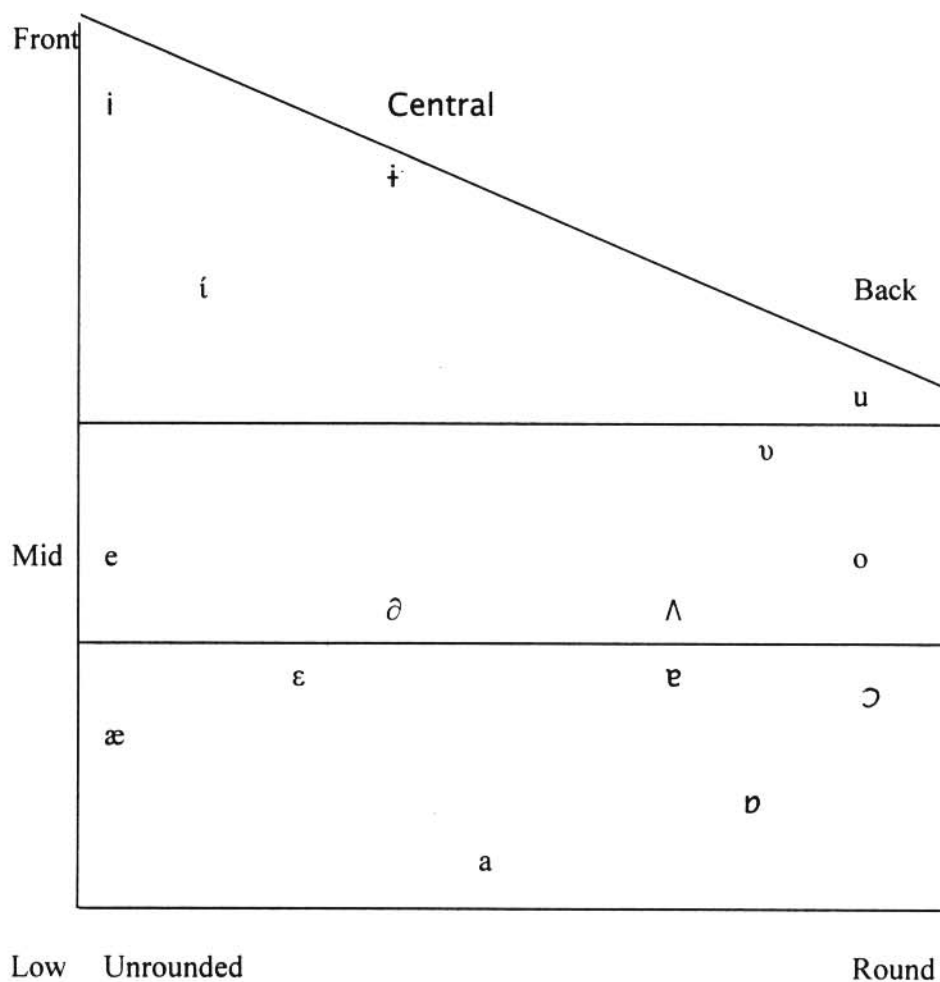


Figure 7: English Vowel Chart (Sloat et al 1978: 12-14).

Low vowels are produced by lowering the body of the tongue below the level that it occupies in the neutral position. They are described as [-HIGH]. High vowels are produced by raising the body of the tongue above the level that it occupies in the neutral position. They are identified as [+HIGH]

Vowels can also be classified as Tense and Lax. For example, the following vowels are described as tense; [a, e, i, o, u] and their counterparts are [ɪ, ɛ, æ, ɪ̯, ɔ̯, ɐ, ʊ, ɒ, ɑ]. The feature Tense specifies the manner in which the entire articulatory gesture of a given sound is executed by the supraglottal musculature (i.e. the speech organs above the Larynx). Tense vowels are produced with a deliberate, maximally distinct gesture that involves considerable muscular effort. Lax vowels are produced rapidly and somewhat indistinctly. In tense vowels, the appropriate configuration i.e. (the length of time of the articulation) is relatively long, while in lax vowels the entire gesture is executed in a somewhat superficial manner. Tense vowels are represented with the feature [+TENSE].

The vowels from the chart above can be represented in the following English words:

- [i] **heat, see, tea**
- [u] **sue, two, hoot**
- [æ] **at, hat, lag**
- [ɑ] **car, hot, tars**
- [e] **fen, fence, fender**
- [ɪ̯] **fought, caution, caused**
- [ʌ] **cut, custody, cup**
- [ɒ] **hall, crock, dog**
- [ʊ] **pull, woman, put**
- [ɔ̯] **woman, father**
- [ɪ̯] **basket**
- [ɛ] **bed, bet (Sloat et al 1978:19).**

2.3.2. Diphthong

(Akmajian et al 1984: 521) define a diphthong as a vowel that consists of two parts, a louder vowel and either an on-glide or off-glide, which together serve as the nucleus of a single syllable. The English words buy, boy, cow end in diphthongs.

For example:

by, buy = [ai]

boy, joy = [ɔi]

fowl, found = [aʊ]

Unlike English, Northern Sotho lacks diphthongs, but native speakers of Northern Sotho simply pronounce them clearly and unconsciously without realising their absence in their language (Northern Sotho). Diphthongs are vowels whose quality changes during their production. They are the counterparts of monophthongs. A monophthong is defined by (Richards et al 1985: 181) as a vowel which is produced without any noticeable change in vowel quality. For example, in English [ʌ] as in 'hut' is a monophthong.

The above diphthongs appearing in words such as by, boy, fowl can be represented in figure 8 as presented by (Sloat et al 1978) on the next page:

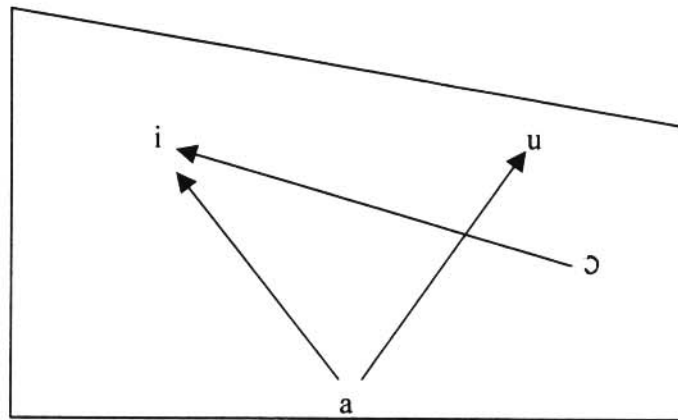


Figure 8: Diagonal Diphthongs: (Sloat et al 1978: 17).

High = [ai]

How = [au]

Boy = [ɔi]

The diphthong [ai] moves from the central region to the front (figure 8); [au] moves from the central region to the back (figure 8) in pronunciation of English word ‘boy’, moves from back to front.

The following diphthongs can also be represented in the English words as follows:

[ei]

late

bate

gate

pane

paine

[ou]

note
goat
coat
robe
coke
coast

[aʊ]
cow
house
town
round

[eɪ]
chair
air
fair
wear

The movements of the above diphthongs can be shown on the chart below:

The direction of movement in vertical diphthongs is always upwards as described by (Sloat et al 1978; 16)

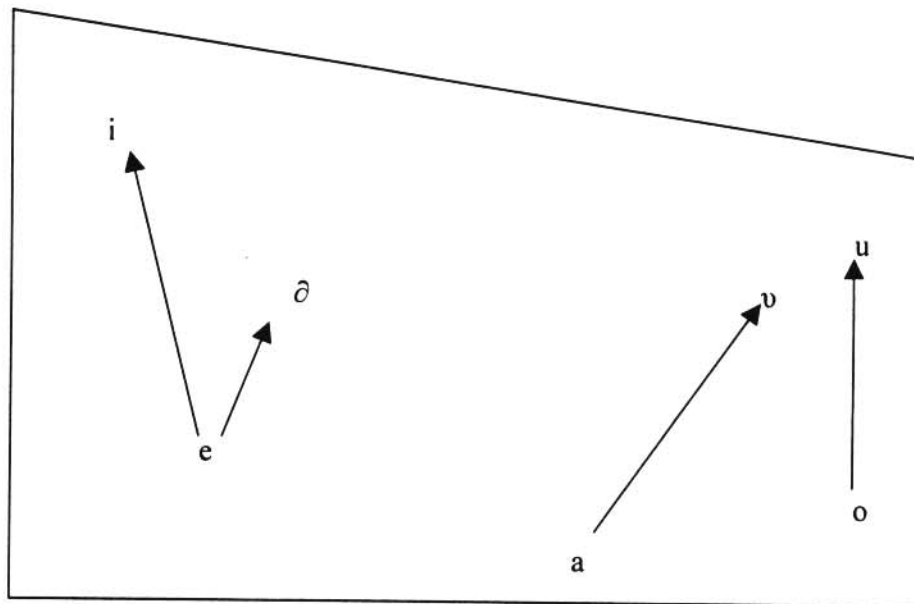


Fig 9: Vertical Diphthongs (Sloat et al 1978:17)

2.3.6. Phonetic properties of vowels

The phonetic properties of vowels are conventionally represented in the following diagram:

	i	í	u	ʊ	e	ɛ	ɔ	ɨ	ɥ	œ	o	ɔ	æ	a	ɑ	ɒ	ʌ
High	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Low	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+
Back	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Tense	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-
Round	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-

Figure 10: Distinctive Feature Matrix of Vowels (Katamba 1989: 54).

2.3.4. Phonetic properties of consonants

Some English consonants can be represented by means of the following distinctive features in Figure 11 below, extracted from an unpublished guide prepared by (Rawson 1992: 16), a former Linguistic lecturer at UNIN. Distinctive features already discussed in Figure 3 will not be repeated under this section. Only those which were not included will be discussed.

	p	t	k	f	s	z	ʃ	θ	ð	m	n	l	r	j	h	w	y
Vocalic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-
Consonantal	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-
High	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+
Back	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
Low	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
Anterior	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
Voiced	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+
Continuant	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	-
Nasal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
Coronal	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-

Figure 11: Distinctive Feature Matrix for Consonants (Rawson 1992: 16 unpublished).

The following distinctive features will be discussed under this section: consonantal, anterior and coronal (because they appear for the first time in this study).

i. Consonantal

Consonantal sounds are produced with a radical obstruction in the midline of the vocal tract, while non-consonantal sounds are produced without such obstruction.

The symbol plus [+] on the diagram means that the speech sound is consonantal and minus [-] refers to the fact that the speech sound is not consonantal. On the diagram above, only [h, w, y] are non consonantal.

ii. Anterior

The feature Anterior refers to the sounds which are produced with an obstruction which is located in front of the alveo-palatal region of the mouth. The palato-alveolar region is the place where the ordinary English [ʃ] as in **sheep** is produced.

iii. Coronal

Coronal sounds are produced with the blade of the tongue raised from its neutral position; non-coronal is produced with the blade of the tongue in its neutral position. The feature Coronal can be represented as either [+ CORONAL] or [- CORONAL].

2.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we have described and discussed the consonant and vowel system of the Northern Sotho and English languages. The classification and description of English vowels are discussed. Vowel Charts and distinctive feature matrix for consonants and vowels are also illustrated. We have noted that some of the orthographic simples and their phonetic script of Northern Sotho do correspond while others differ.

The Northern Sotho Vowels [a, e, i, o] and [u] do correspond to their phonetic script [a, e, i, o, u]. The lack of English central vowels and diphthongs is realised. The next chapter will focus on data collection and findings.

CHAPTER 3: PRESENTATION OF DATA

This chapter includes data collected from learners and educators in six schools from three different environmental areas; rural, township, and urban. A total number of two hundred and twenty (220) samples forms a population comprising forty (40) educators and one hundred and eighty (180) learners from identified schools. Thirty learners (30) and ten (10) educators from each school were selected.

During data collection a questionnaire, lists of words, and paragraphs were included.

3.1. The Questionnaire

This questionnaire was designed to assist the researcher with information regarding gender, school qualification, age, whether the learner is offered English first language as a subject; whether the school authority allows learners to communicate in the language Northern Sotho within the school premises, and also to find out whether these learners are interested in English as a medium of instruction. This information will help the researcher know to what extent this English language is used by native speakers of Northern Sotho. The assumption will then be that the less English is used within the Northern Sotho Communities, the more influence will the latter have on the English language.

The questionnaire consisted of structured and unstructured questions. They are eight in number (question 1 – 8). Question 1 and 2 provide biographic information. Questions 3 up to 8 are question which focus on the content of this study. Schools were given alphabetical letters as their labels. Nevertheless, these letters attached to them has nothing to do with any discrimination or any way of evaluation, but only as an alphabetical positioning of these institutions without degrading them.

These schools were thus represented in alphabetical letters as follows:

- i. Manoshi Senior Secondary School (A)
- ii. Nkoshilo Senior Secondary School (B)
- iii. Hwiti High School (C)
- iv. Flora Park Comprehensive High School (D)
- v. Mountainview Senior Secondary School (E)
- vi. Capricorn High School (F)

3.2 Data collection through recording

Recordings made by the researcher personally, without assistance from any person in the classrooms allocated for that purpose. Subjects were made to read a list of words one after the other while the researcher recorded their voices with a tape recorder.

The following figures are the results through recordings on the questionnaire from schools A, B, C, D, E and F:

School A;		Grade 10 10	Grade 11 10	Grade 12 10	Totals 30
Question	Block Ticked	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners
3	1	None	None	None	0
	2	2	3	None	5
	3	None	None	None	0
	4	5	4	5	14
	5	3	3	5	11
4	Yes	None	None	None	0
	No	10	10	10	30
6	Not interested	None	None	None	0
	Somehow interested	4	2	None	6
	Not sure	None	None	None	0
	Definitely interested	6	8	10	24
7	Yes	9	9	10	28
	No	1	1	None	2
8	Yes	None	1	None	1
	No	10	9	10	29
Totals		60	60	60	180

Figure 12 above shows data collection from school A, above where learners from different grades responded. School A is situated in Ga-Molepo at Mamatsha village

Figure 12 above displays responses of the learners from Manoshi Senior Secondary School. Numbers on the extreme left column represent questions on the questionnaire (see appendix 1 at the end of the study). The other columns provide the number of learners who responded to each question corresponding to it.

From question 3, none of the learners ticked, “Not important”. Two learners ticked to “Somehow important”, three learners selected “Not sure” while learners ticked “Extremely important”. Question four shows that English is not offered by a native speaker of English. Twenty-four learners out of thirty indicated that the school authority allows them to communicate in their mother-tongue within the school premises while only six were negative. Twenty-four learners are “Definitely interested” in the subject English. Only six of them responded as “Somehow interested”. Twenty-eight learners who responded to question seven agreed that English should be used as a medium of instruction. Only two learners declined. Almost all the learners found it necessary that other content subjects should be taught in their native language, i.e., Northern Sotho. Only one learner is against the idea.

Figure 13: NKOSHILO HIGH SCHOOL (SCHOOL B)

School B:		Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	Totals
		10	10	10	30
Question	Block Ticked	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners
3	1	None	None	None	0
	2	None	None	None	0
	3	None	None	None	0
	4	3	5	10	18
	5	7	5	None	12
4	Yes	None	None	None	0
	No	10	10	10	30
5	Yes	10	10	10	30
	No	None	None	None	0
6	Not Interested	None	None	None	0
	Somehow Interested	1	None	None	1
	Not sure	None	None	None	0
	Definitely Interested	9	10	10	29
7	Yes	9	7	9	25
	No	1	3	1	5
8	Yes	None	6	2	8
	No	10	4	8	22
Totals		60	60	60	180

Figure 13 displays responses from learners of school B, which its settlement is in the area of Ga-Mamabolo at Komaneng village

Data collected from school B shows that eighteen learners ticked the column that indicates “Definitely important” for English to be learned while twelve of them selected “Extremely important”. All the learners agreed that English as a subject is not offered by a native English speaker. All the learners enjoy the freedom of communicating in the mother tongue on the school premises. Question six shows that 29 learners are “Definitely interested” in the subject English. Only one out of thirty learners ticked to “Somehow interested”.

Twenty-five learners from question seven are in favour of English to be taught as a medium of instruction. Five of the thirty were against the idea. From question eight, school B recorded eight learners who say Northern Sotho should be used as a medium of instruction. Twenty-two learners do not share the idea.

The data shows that from question three, School C had fourteen learners’ who ticked “Definitely important” for English as an important subject to be learned while sixteen learners opted for “Extremely important”. Question four indicates that twenty-eight learners confirmed that English as a subject is not taught by a native speaker of English.

Question five indicates that school C has twenty-seven learners whose school authority allows them to communicate freely in their mother tongue within the school premises. In question six, thirty learners are “Definitely interested” in the subject English. Twenty-six learners in question seven are in favour of English to be used as a medium of instruction, while only four from thirty learners ticked “No”.

Figure 14: HWITI HIGH SCHOOL (SCHOOL C)

School C:		Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	Totals
		10	10	10	30
Question	Block Ticked	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners
3	1	None	None	None	0
	2	None	None	None	0
	3	None	None	None	0
	4	5	4	5	14
	5	3	3	5	16
4	Yes	None	2	None	2
	No	10	8	10	28
5	Yes	10	7	10	27
	No	None	3	None	3
6	Not Interested	None	None	None	0
	Somehow Interested	None	None	None	0
	Not sure	None	None	None	0
	Definitely Interested	10	10	10	30
7	Yes	9	8	9	26
	No	1	2	1	4
8	Yes	2	8	3	13
	No	8	2	7	17
Totals		60	60	60	180

Figure 14 also indicate how learners from school C responded. This school is situated in Mankweng Township in the vicinity of University of the North.

Thirteen learners in question eight are in favour of Northern Sotho to be used as medium of instruction in other content subjects, whereas seventeen did not support the idea.

Numbers on school D also represent the responses from their learners. Institution D is situated in Polokwane.

Figure 15: FLORA PARK COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL (SCHOOL D)

School D:		Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	Totals
		10	10	10	30
Question	Block Ticked	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners
3	1	None	None	None	0
	2	None	None	1	1
	3	None	None	None	0
	4	4	4	5	13
	5	6	5	5	16
4	Yes	5	7	7	19
	No	5	3	3	11
5	Yes	7	8	9	24
	No	3	2	1	6
6	Not Interested	None	None	None	0
	Somehow Interested	3	1	3	7
	Not sure	1	None	None	1
	Definitely Interested	6	9	7	22
7	Yes	8	10	8	26
	No	2	None	2	4
8	Yes	6	None	3	9
	No	4	10	7	21
Totals		60	60	60	180

School D has one learner, who ticked “Somehow important” for English as an important language to learn. Thirteen ticked “Definitely important” and sixteen as “Extremely important”. Question four indicates that nineteen learners are taught by a native speaker of English while eleven are not. Twenty-four learners say that the school authority allows them to use their mother-tongue within the school premises, whereas six do not share the same idea. Question six shows that seven learners say they are “Somehow interested” in English as a subject. Only one is not sure and twenty-two ticked to “Definitely interested”. Twenty-six learners are in favour of English to be used as a medium of instruction. Only four ticked “No”. Nine learners who ticked question eight are in favour of Northern Sotho to be used as a medium of instruction in other content subjects while twenty-one, the majority did not agree as shown on fig 16.

Mountainview Secondary School indicates the following data as presented in fig. 16.

Fourteen learners ticked question three that English is definitely an important subject to be learned and sixteen learners ticked “Extremely important”. Thirty learners who ticked question four confirmed that there is no native speaker of English offering the subject. Twenty-three learners who responded to question seven indicated the authorities do not refuse them to communicate in their mother tongue within the school premises. Only seven learners indicated that they do not enjoy such a freedom. In question six, only three learners are “Somehow interested” in the subject English whereas twenty-seven are “Definitely interested”. Question 7 shows twenty-seven learners in favour of English to be used as a medium of instruction. Only three ticked “No”. Twelve learners want Northern Sotho to be used as a medium of instruction but eighteen do not share the same idea.

Figure 16: MOUNTAINVIEW SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL (SCHOOL E)

School E:		Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	Totals
		10	10	10	30
Question	Block Ticked	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners
3	1	None	None	None	0
	2	None	None	None	0
	3	None	None	None	0
	4	3	6	5	14
	5	7	4	5	16
4	Yes	None	None	None	0
	No	10	10	10	30
5	Yes	8	7	8	23
	No	2	3	2	7
6	Not Interested	None	None	None	0
	Somehow Interested	None	2	1	3
	Not sure	None	None	None	0
	Definitely Interested	10	8	9	27
7	Yes	9	8	10	27
	No	1	2	None	3
8	Yes	7	2	3	12
	No	3	8	7	18
Totals		60	60	60	180

Figure 16 represents responses from school E situated in Mankweng Township.

Figure 17: CAPRICORN HIGH SCHOOL (SCHOOL F)

School F:		Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	Totals
		10	10	10	30
Question	Block Ticked	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners	Number of learners
3	1	None	None	None	0
	2	None	None	None	0
	3	None	None	None	0
	4	4	1	5	10
	5	6	9	5	20
4	Yes	10	10	10	30
	No	None	None	None	0
5	Yes	None	None	None	0
	No	10	10	10	30
6	Not Interested	None	None	None	0
	Somehow Interested	1	None	None	1
	Not sure	None	None	None	0
	Definitely Interested	9	10	10	29
7	Yes	10	10	10	30
	No	None	None	None	0
8	Yes	None	None	None	0
	No	10	10	10	30
Totals		60	60	60	180

Figure 17 above displays learners' responses from school F situated in Polokwane.

School F responded to question three with ten learners ticked 'definitely important' for English to be an important subject to be learned and twenty saying 'extremely important'. Thirty learners confirmed that English is offered by native speakers of English at their school. All the learners (30) confirmed that authorities do not allow them to communicate in their mother-tongue within the school premises.

Responding to question six, only one learner says 'some how interested in English' while the rest (29) say definitely interested. Thirty learners are in favour of the idea that English should be used as a medium of instruction. Thirty learners say no for Northern Sotho to be used as a medium of instruction in other content subjects.

3.3. Data Collection from "City Press" extract.

An extract from "City Press" Business Magazine on page 1, date 5 May 2002 on the next page was taken for reading by the pupils, and the following are the results:

Reference item	SAE	BSAE
Recovered	[ʌ]	[a]/[ʌ]
Some	[ð]	[ʌ]/[a]
The horse	[ð]	[ɛ]
Process	[ðv]	[ɔ]
Fractured	[æ]	[a]
Raided	[e]	[ɛ] + High
Third	[ɜ]	[ɛ]
of	[ð]	[ɔ]
having	[ð]	[ɛ]
almost	[ðv]	[ɔ]
future	[ð]	[a]
much	[ʌ]	[a]/ [ʌ]
roses	[ðv]	[ɔ]
this	[ɪ]	[i]
said	[e]	[ɛ]
several	[e]	[ɛ]
factors	[æ,ð]	[ɛ,a]
continued	[ð]	[ɔ]

Figure 18 List of words from “City Press” extract

3.4. Problematic consonants for Northern Sotho speakers.

The table below shows that words “class” and “clock are pronounced by both learners and educators as [tʰ] of N. Sotho which is described as voiceless alveo-lateral ejective, “glass” is also pronounced with sounds [g] an [l] as one speech sound in the same manner as “class” word-initial. Northern Sotho English speakers do not experience many problems in the production of SAE consonants.

Reference item	SAE	BSAE
Class	[kl]	[tʰ]
Clock	[kl]	[tʰ]
Glass	[gl]	[tʰ]
Chaise	[ʃ]	[tʃ] [+ Aspiration]
Champaign	[ʃ]	[tʃ, k] [+ Aspiration]
Chalet	[ʃ]	[tʃ] [+ Aspiration]
Chic	[ʃ]	[tʃ] [+ Aspiration]
Little	[tl]	[tʰ]
Space	[p]	[p] [+ Aspiration]
New	[n]	[ɲ]

Figure 19: Data collection on list of problematic consonants to particular mother-tongue speakers of Northern Sotho.

3.5. Conclusion

This chapter provided us with the presentation of data and it leads us to chapter four, which will focus on the analysis, based on the data collected and findings gathered by the researcher in chapter three.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter focuses on the research findings and data analysis. Figure 20 displays a list of monophthongs and diphthongs. Percentages were used in order to get different findings amongst the schools selected. Schools were identified as A = Manoshi High School, B = Nkoshilo High School, C = Hwiti High School, D = Flora Park Comprehensive High School, E = Mountainview Senior Secondary School and F = Capricorn High School.

4.1 Analysis of recordings from a questionnaire on schools A & B, C & E, and D&F.

These schools are categorised according to areas such as villages, township and urban respectfully, and they are paired.

MONOPHTHONG S	Schools A & B				Schools C & E		Schools D & F	
	SAE	%	BSAE	%	SAE %	BSAE %	SAE %	BSAE %
1. bacon	[ɒ]	16.6	[ɔ]	83.3	23.3	76,7	46.6	53.4
2. bird	[ɜ]	10	[ɛ]	90	33.3	66.7	40	60
herd	[ɜ]	6.6	[ɛ]	93.3	46.6	53.4	36.6	63.3
turn	[ɜ]	0	[ɛ]	100	43.3	56.6	43.3	56.6
3. back	[æ]	0	[ɛ]	100	26.6	73.4	46.6	53.4
cap	[æ]	0	[ɛ]	100	16.6	83.3	46.6	53.4
tap	[æ]	0	[ɛ]	100	26.6	73.4	56.6	43.3
lam	[æ]	0	[ɛ]	100	26.6	73.4	46.6	53.4
4. pit	[ɪ]	26.6	[i]	73.3	23.3	76.6	53.3	46.6
list		13.3	[i]	86.6	40	60	46.6	53.3

MONOPHTHONG S	Schools A & B				Schools C & E		Schools D & F	
thin	[ɪ]	6.6	[i]	93.3	50	50	40	60
this, live	[ɪ]	10	[i]	90	33.3	66.6	43.3	56.6
	[ɪ]							
5. heat, these,	[i]	23.3	[i]	76.3	36.6	63.3	30	70
keep	[i]	10	[i]	90	33	66.6	23.3	76.6
6. pot, hot, stop	[ɒ]	3.3	[ʌ]	96.6	30	70	53	47
7. port	[ɒ]	0	[ʌ]	100	6.6	93.3	40	60
8. bark, stark	[ɑ]	13.3	[ʌ][a]	86.6	20	80	33.3	76
cart, lark,	[ɑ]	10	[ʌ][a]	90	12	88	40	60
carp	[ɑ]							
9. not	[ɒ]	5	[ʌ]	95	7	93	45	55
cot								
cock								
cost								
rob								
10 Cup	[ʌ]	35	[a]	65	38	62	55	45
buck								
luck								
stuck								
let	[ɛ]	100	[ɛ]	100	100	100	100	100
bet								
get								
met								
pet								
DIPHTHONGS								

MONOPHTHONG S	Schools A & B			Schools C & E			Schools D & F		
late	[ɛi]	100	[ɛi]	100	100	100	100	100	100
mate									
gate									
gale									
bait									

Figure 20: Data collection through Recording (SAE and BSAE)

From the statistics above, it is evident that the results generally confirm the existing analysis of BSAE, though there are some few findings which show the existence of Schwa [ə] as in bacon, [ɜ] in bird and the substitution of [æ] by [ɛ]. No distinction is shown between [i] and [ɪ] in words such as “these” and “pit”. The substitution of [ɒ] in words like pot, hot, stop is also realized and it is therefore replaced by [ɔ], commonly used in Northern Sotho lexicon as a mid – back vowel in words like “hlôgô” [ʰɔɔ], which means “head”. Northern Sotho speakers produce [ʌ] and [a] interchangeably in words like much, run, up and cup. Northern Sotho English speakers encounter no problem in the pronunciation of words like let, pet, get and met, because of their frequent usage of a mid-front vowel [ɛ]. This vowel appears in Northern Sotho words like êma [ɛma] = stop, rêma [ɾema] = chop, rêka [ɾek’a] = buy.

4.2 Diphthongs in Northern Sotho English (Variety of BSAE)

Although Northern Sotho speakers lack diphthongs in their language, no problems were encountered in the production of such speech sounds.

Price [ai]

Face [ei]
Late [ɛi]
Choice [ɔi]
Mouth [av]
Here [ið]
Throw [ðu]

The above list of diphthongs shows that even if Northern Sotho lacks central vowels in its inventory, the speakers of Northern Sotho make use of their existing vowels to replace those of their counterparts, and because of closeness of place of articulation, the manner of articulation indicates a very little difference between SAE and BSAE pronunciation of vowels.

This statement is supported by linguists who presented data for BSAE vowels such as, Addendorff and Savini-Back (1993), Gough (1996), Huddleby (1964), Lanham (1967 a, 1967 b), Mmusi (2000 unpublished), Van der Weever (1999), Van Rooy, Wissing and Van der Heever, in *South African Journal of Linguistics*, Supplement 38, (December 2000), Wells (1982) and Wade (1996).

Figure 15 shows that nineteen learners from school D ticked “definitely important for English to be learnt. While eleven ticked “extremely important” School F Figure 17 has a record of 10 for definitely important and 20 as extremely important. School F has 100% for learners who have registered English 1st language higher grade and are taught by native speakers of English, or even Afrikaans speaking educators who have studied English as 1st language higher grade at secondary and high schools. Their methods in teaching English are relevant.

Because school D has majority of black learners and educators, 76,6% enjoyed the freedom of communicating in their mother-tongue at school. This contrasts with school F as they record 100% without using Northern Sotho to communicate among themselves and also to the staff members. It is very easy in the latter to avoid their mother-tongue because the

majority of learners are whites. This shows that the disciplinary measures from the school authorities do have an influence. School D has 40% of learners who are in favour of Northern Sotho to be taught as a medium of instruction. The latter also has 100% in support of English to be taken as a medium of instruction.

Learners from school F are mainly whites, either Afrikaans speaking or English speaking. A few Indians and Africans are noticed. Most or if not all, teaching and administrative staff are mainly whites with a handful of domestic workers composed of blacks. This is an advantage to learners who will not have a chance of learning even a single word of Northern Sotho. It is also understood that these Northern Sotho speaking learners have gone to an extent of communicating in English at home and also in the streets. This is an evidence when one meets them in the shopping areas.

An analysis is made below on a total number of 180 learners, showing percentages with regard to their responses on various questions from the questionnaire on Fig. 21.

Figure 21 indicates a total number of learners answered questions 3 – 8.

Question 3, as some how important = 3,3%, definitely important = 48,8%, extremely important;

Educators who have been interviewed do not show many differences in the pronunciation of both vowels and consonants for the reason that educators are academically and professionally experienced adults who together with learners have once been taught by educators who never registered for English as their first language at Secondary and high school level.

The researcher could observe some disappointments in the eyes of some learners in various grades from other schools who could hardly read certain words with confidence, and sometimes resort to read them very slowly and with faint voices. Findings among male and female subjects show that gender does not play a major role in the pronunciation of speech sounds. Only different grade levels showed such differences.

Question 4: regarding English being offered by a native speaker and the answer as Yes = 28% and as No = 72%,;

Question 5: those who responded to the question of whether the authorities allow the learners to communicate in their mother-tongue within school premises as “Yes” = 73% and 27% as “No”;

Question 6: personal interest in English, for somehow interested = 10%, Not sure = 1%, definitely interested = 89%.

Question 7: for those who agree with the idea that English should be used as a medium of instruction = 90%, those who say No = 10%;

Question 8: those who say yes to the fact that Northern Sotho should be used as a medium of instruction in other content subjects = 24% and 76% for No.

In brief we can conclude that school authorities in township and village schools with school D inclusive appear to be ignorant in encouraging learners to practise English within school premises and also outside school premises. These learners enjoy a lot of freedom in communicating in their mother-tongue without monitored. A 73% is an evident as compared to 27% of those who stick to English within school premises. The results of this non-practice of English lead to learners sometimes developing a negative attitude toward English as a subject and results in wrong pronunciation and spelling of English words. Non-participation of native speakers of English in these schools is a contributing factor too.

4.3 Statistical analysis of individual schools from a questionnaire.

Figure 21 below displays the statistics taken from the number of learners who responded to each question from individual schools (see Appendix 1 of the questionnaire attached). Percentages are also indicated for each institution according to the number of learners that participated.

Figure 21: Questions

	S		C		H		O		O		L		S	
	A	%	B	%	C	%	D	%	E	%	F	%		
3. Somehow important	05	16.6	00	0	00	0	01	3.3	0	0	00	0		
Definitely important:	14	46.6	18	60	19	63	13	43.3	14	47	10	3.3		
Extremely important:	11	36.6	12	40	11	37	16	53.3	16	53	20	67		
4. Native Speaker of English														
Yes:	00	0	00	0	02	07	19	63	0	0	30	100		
No:	30	100	30	100	28	93	11	37	30	100	00	0		
5. Communication in mother tongue														
Yes:	24	80	30	100	27	90	24	80	27	90	0	0		
No:	06	20	00	0	03	10	06	20	03	10	30	100		
6. Interest in English														
Somehow interested:	06	20	01	03	00	0	07	23.3	03	10	01	03		
Not sure:	00	0	00	0	00	0	01	3.3	0	01	00	0		
Definitely interested:	24	80	29	97	30	100	22	73.3	27	90	29	97		
7. English medium of instruction														
Yes:	28	93	25	83	26	87	26	87	27	90	30	100		
No:	02	07	05	17	04	13	04	13	03	10	00	0		
8.N.Sotho as Medium of instruction														
Yes:	01	03	08	27	13	43	09	30	12	40	00	0		
No:	29	97	22	73	17	57	21	70	18	60	30	100		

NB: Number of learners per school =30

Total number of learners per question x 100

4.4 Analysis of all learners' responses from a questionnaire.

Figure 22 on the next page shows the total number of learners from all six schools put together having responded to each question, the number of learners per question is represented by its percentage.

Figure 22 Questions

S C H O O L S

	A, B, C, D, E, and F	%
3. Somehow important	06	3.3
Definitely important:	88	48.8
Extremely important:	86	47.7
4. native speaker of English		
Yes:	51	28
No:	129	72
5. Communication in mother tongue		
Yes:	132	73
No:	48	27
6. Interest in English		
Somehow interested:	18	10
Not sure:	1	16
Definitely interested	161	89.4
7. English as Medium instruction		
Yes:	162	90
No:	18	10
8. N.Sotho as Medium of instruction		
Yes:	43	24
No:	137	26

Total number of learners from all schools = 180

Total number of learners per question x 100

4.5 Observations made from figures 12-22

One hundred and eighty (180) learners who are native speakers of Northern Sotho in the Northern Province, aged between fifteen and twenty in grades 10 – 12 from six different schools in three different environmental areas participated as voluntary respondents in Tables 1 – 6. They are from schools A- F, and these schools have been paired according rural, peri-urban and urban areas.

The analysis and comparison of selected schools according to numbers and percentages on how learners responded to the questionnaire are shown. Fourteen learners from school A On Figure 12 see English as being definitely important and eleven as an extremely important subject to learn. Figure 13 shows that eighteen learners in school B ticked “definitely important while twelve of them, ticked “extremely important. Only 5 learners’ responses were either not sure or somehow important. School A has a percentage of 83,3 while school B has 100% in support of English as an important subject to learn. Despite the percentage difference, the two schools show common interest in English as part of their school curriculum. Both schools are operating without a native speaker of English, and as a result English Higher Grade Second language is offered. English teachers in these two institutions never sat for English Higher Grade first language in the examinations during their schooling at secondary level.

Sixty learners (all the learners) from both schools supported the notion that no native speaker of English has ever been employed in either school A or school B. From the two schools, fifty-four learners confirm that they enjoy freedom of mother-tongue communication (N. Sotho) within the school premises. Twenty-four learners from school A are definitely interested in English as a subject, while only a few remain either not sure or somehow important from school B. Twenty-nine learners from school B share the same idea with twenty-four learners from school A. The statistics show that twenty-eight

learners from school A and twenty-five learners from school B are of the same idea that English should be used as a medium of instruction at their institutions.

The indication is that 88,3% from the two village schools are in favour of English. Only 11,7% from these schools disagreed. Furthermore, 97% from school A say “No” to Northern Sotho to be used as a medium of instruction in other content subjects. They are supported by 73% from school B.

Observation from the questionnaire with regard to schools C and E in Mankweng Township in the vicinity of University of the North only 30 km from Pietersburg below:

School C, Figure 14 has a representative number of 19 as definitely important and 11 as extremely important for English to be learnt. School E, Figure 16 shows 14 learners as definitely important and 16 as extremely important. School C indicates that twenty-eight learners out of 30 are not taught by a native speaker of English while 30 learners from School E share the same idea. This brings us to the conclusion that 90.6% in the two schools are not or have never been offered English by an educator whose English is his or her mother-tongue, nor have registered for English during their studies as first language Higher grade. Twenty-seven and twenty-three learners from the two schools respectively communicate in Northern Sotho within school premises without been monitored. These numbers add up to 83,3%.

We also have 100% from school C that represents the learners who are definitely interested in the subject English, while 90% from school E are of the same opinion, 86,6% from school C say yes to English as a medium of instruction with 90% from school E. School C has 56,6% of learners who are against that Northern Sotho should being used as a medium of instruction in other school content subjects. It is supported by School E with 60%. A total percentage from both schools which is 41,6, are in support of Northern Sotho becoming a medium of instruction.

OBSERVATION MADE FROM SCHOOLS D AND F: (FIGURES 15 AND 17)

There are differences between the two schools, which are situated in Pietersburg. Firstly, School C consists of black learners only, with a high number of black educators. These learners are from different areas as some are from villages such as Ga-Makanye, Ga-Mothiba, Nobody, Nchishane, and Mamotintane. There are some learners from these areas attending school D who do not travel but stay with relatives or in private lodging. There are those whose residences are in town and those who travel from townships such as Seshego, Mankweng and Solomondale.

Those who stay with relatives or in private lodging do so because of economic or financial constraints in order to avoid long distances. Learners also find temporary accommodation in town in order to secure admission from the school authorities during the beginning of the year. Experience has taught us that some of the schools in town restrict the prospective learners from outside Pietersburg to register in their schools except when such applicants wish to reside in the boarding. This has caused many families to fail to bring their children in such schools due to high payments for boarding and lodging.

Educators who have been interviewed do not show much difference from their learners in the pronunciation of both vowels and consonants except for the reason that educators are academically and professionally experienced adults who, together with learners, have once been taught by educators who never registered for English as first language during their schooling at secondary and high school levels.

4.6 Avoidance of central vowels and the absence of other vowels.

The absence of some vowels, particularly central vowels in the mother-tongue (Northern Sotho), creates difficulties in their production and pronunciation. This has led to superimposition or approximation of English vowels and even the transfer of mother-tongue

vowels to English, which have persisted to such an extent that they are uniquely BSAE vowels.

In order to identify each of the vowels from Standard English and BSAE, the following distinctive features have been applied:

[+BACK] or [-BACK]

[+HIGH] or [-HIGH]

[+ROUND] or [-ROUND]

[+TENSE] or [-TENSE]/[+LAX]

The above distinctive features have already been discussed in chapter two, under the figure 1 of Northern Sotho Vowel System by (Kotze' 1989: 53).

What follows is the analysis of data collected in chapter three. Black South African English demonstrates the following findings as evidence:

SAE (Standard English)	BSAE
Vowels	Pronunciation
[ʌ]	[ɑ] or [a]
as in	[ɑ] or [a]
cup	[ɑ] or [a]
buck	[ɑ] or [a]
luck	[ɑ] or [a]
struck	[ɑ] or [a]

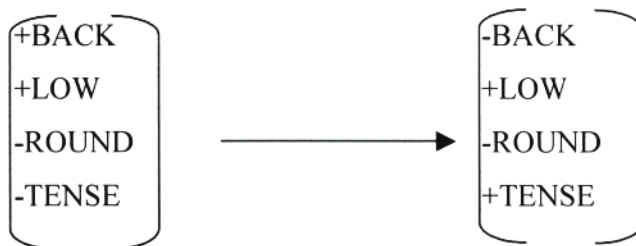
Figure 23: SAE vowels as pronounced by BSAE speakers

Phonological rule for the above evidence will be as follows:

1. [ʌ] → [ɑ] or [a]

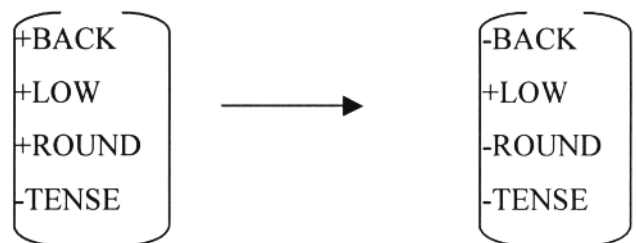
Distinctive features of the SAE and BSAE are represented below:

1. [ʌ] → [ɑ]



The two vowels share the features [+LOW], [-ROUND] except for two other features which are [+BACK] and [+TENSE]. BSAE has [-BACK] and [+TENSE] for the vowel [ɑ] while in SAE has [+BACK] and [-TENSE]. Another alternative for BSAE in pronouncing [ʌ] as in the words appearing above such as **cup**, **buck**, **luck**, and **struck** is [a], which is phonologically represented in the rule as:

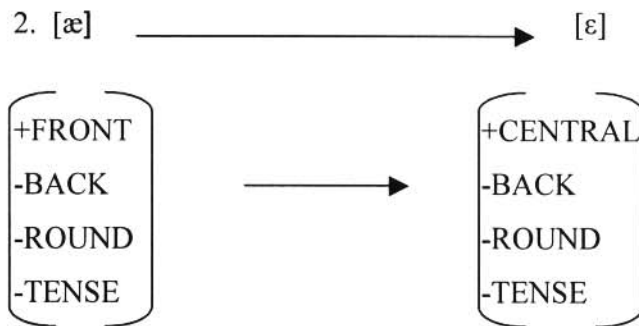
[ʌ] → [a]



The two vowels show differences in the distinctive features [BACK] and [ROUND] but are similar in the fact that they are both [+LOW] and [-TENSE]. The influence is caused by the Northern Sotho Low Central vowel [a].

SAE (Standard English)	BSAE
Vowels	Pronunciation
[æ] as in	[ɛ]
back	[ɛ]
cab	[ɛ]
tab	[ɛ]
lam	[ɛ]

SAE and BSAE vowels above are represented as follows:



The two vowels share almost the same distinctive features except that [ɛ] is a mid-low front vowel while [æ] is a low front vowel. Their difference is the degree of lowness.

It is difficult for a native speaker of Northern Sotho to distinguish between the vowels [æ] and [ɛ]. When the two are articulated, there seems to be no distinction. Most of the words in English which are pronounced with the vowel [æ] are habitually produced by native speakers of Northern Sotho as [ɛ] which usually appears in words like rapêla (to pray), rêka (to buy) and kêfa (hat). The movement of [æ] to [ɛ] is noticeable on the English

vowel chart in Figure 7 that the two vowels are in juxtaposition, and therefore the influence on [æ] by [ɛ] is very easy. Speech sounds tend to change to closely related sounds.

SAE	BSAE
Vowels	Pronunciation
[ɪ] as in	[i]
pit	[i]
list	[i]
thin	[i]
this	[i]
live	[i]

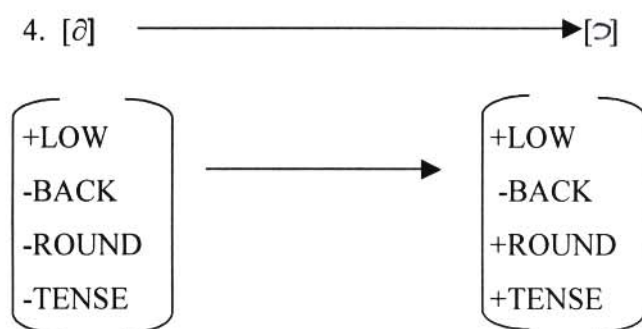
The vowel [ɪ] is pronounced by a native speaker of Northern Sotho as a high front vowel [i] in SAE words above. The native speakers of Northern Sotho do not show any difference between the two vowels.

3. [ɪ] → [i]

SAE vowel [ɪ] is pronounced as short in words like *pit*, *list*, *thin*, *this* and *live*, while a native Northern Sotho speaker does not show any distinction from the long vowel [i] in words like *keep*, *heat*, *cheese*, *keen*. The pronunciation to them is similar. Long vowel [i] is produced higher than its counterpart [ɪ]

SAE	BSAE
Vowels	Pronunciation
[ə] as in bacon consider confess contractor	[ɔ]

SAE [ə] and BSAE [ɔ] are therefore represented as follows:

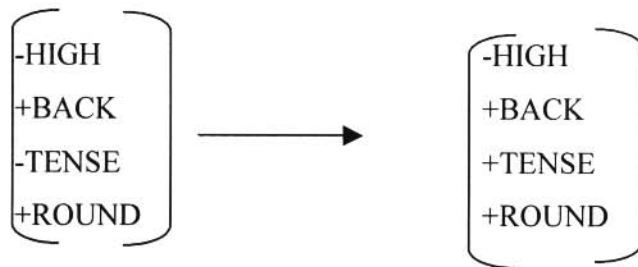


An observation of the movement of [ə], which is a schwa of SAE is pronounced as [ɔ] by native speakers of Northern Sotho. The two vowels differ by means of distinctive features [TENSE] and [ROUND]. They share common features like [+LOW] and [-BACK]. The two vowels also differ in the fact that, a schwa [ə] is a mid-central vowel, while [ɔ] is a mid-low back vowel.

SAE	BSAE
Vowels	Pronunciation
[ɒ] as in pot hot stop port	[ɔ]

SAE vowel [ɒ] and BSAE [ɔ] are phonologically represented by their distinctive features as:

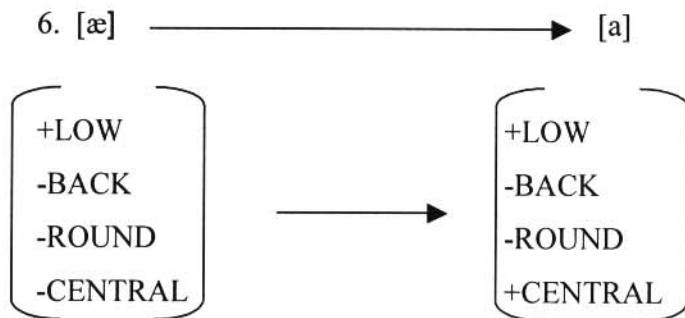
5. [ɒ] → [ɔ]



The two vowels do not show any distinction in as far as their distinctive features are concerned. Northern Sotho speakers do not use [ɒ] as a vowel, instead [ɔ] is frequently used.

SAE	BSAE
[æ] as in	[a]
absent	[a]
absolute	[a]
accent	[a]
abstract	[a]

SAE vowel [æ] is substituted by the BSAE vowel [a] as pronounced initially in words above. They are therefore phonologically represented by their distinctive features as follows:



The difference between the vowels is that [æ] is a mid-low front vowel, while [a] is a low-central vowel. The distinctive features of the two vowels above do not show any difference of tongue height. It is the reason that in articulation, Northern Sotho Speakers do not show the difference between the two vowels. [a] is a very common and basic vowel in Northern Sotho and it is more natural and unmarked since it is the most frequently used in that language.

4.7 The influence of certain phonological rules from the mother-tongue.

4.7.1 Vowel Raising

Vowel raising in Northern Sotho is indicated by means of a diacritic [,], placed under the affected vowel within square brackets in a word written in a phonetic script. Only four basic vowels [ε, , e, o] undergo this process and are appear as follows:

[ε, , e, o]. The raising of these vowels is caused by the following phonological processes:

- (a) When the past tense suffixal morpheme **-ile** is attached to a verb stem;
- (b) When a causative suffixal morpheme **-iš-** is attached to a verb;
- (c) When a locative suffixal morpheme **-eng** is attached to a noun;
- (d) When vowels in the preceding syllable are raised due to a [+ HIGH] vowel in the next or penultimate syllable.

What the above means is that a mid or low vowel becomes raised in anticipation of the higher vowels occurring in the next syllable. The following phonological rule will apply to all vowels raised appearing under items (a) – (d) as follows:

V V VC

[-HIHG] → [+HIGH] / - [+HIGH]

Examples of words (verbs and nouns) with their phonetic script which illustrate vowel raising of N. Sotho.

(a) When the past tense suffixal morpheme **-ile** is attached to a verb stem.

Present Tense	Past Tense	
- reka (buy)	rekile (bought)	
[rɛk'a]	[rɛk'ile]	[ɛ] → [+HIGH] = [ɛ] → [ɛ̥]
- bona	bone	
[β na]	[βɔ̃ne]	[ɔ] → [+HIGH] = [ɔ] → [ɔ̃]
- sepela	sepetše	
[sepela]	[sep'etʃ'e]	[e] → [+HIGH] = [e] → [e̥]
- roka	rokile	
[rok'a]	[rɔk'ile]	[o] → [+HIGH] = [o] → [õ]

(b) When a causative suffixal morpheme **-iš-** is attached to the verb stem.

- ema (stop)	emiša	
[ɛma]	[ɛ̃miʃa]	[ɛ] → [+HIGH] = [ɛ] → [ɛ̃]
- tseba (know)	tsebiša	
[ts'eβa]	[ts'ẽβiʃa]	[e] → [+HIGH] = [e] → [ẽ]
- šoma (work)	šomiša	
[ʃoma]	[ʃ̃omiʃa]	[o] → [+HIGH] = [o] → [õ]

- roba (break)	robiša	[ɔ] → [+ HIGH] = [ɔ] → [ɔ̣]
[rɔβa]	[rɔβiʔa]	[ɔ] → [+ HIGH] = [ɔ] → [ɔ̣]

The positions of vowels raised in N.Sotho are indicated on fig. 2. Vowels move from their normal position to the higher level either front or back vowels.

(c) When a locative suffixal morpheme is attached to a noun i.e. **-eng**

Examples:

- tsela (road)	tseleng (on the road)	
[ts'ela]	[ts'elɛŋ]	[ɛ] → [+HIGH] = [ɛ] → [ɛ̣]

- noka (river)	nokeng	
[nok'a]	[nokɛŋ]	[ɛ] → [+HIGH] = [ɛ] → [ɛ̣]

- thaba (mountain)	thabeng (on the mountain)	
[t ^h aβa]	[t ^h aβɛŋ]	[ɛ] → [+HIGH] = [ɛ] → [ɛ̣]

NB. [ɛ] + HIGH is the result of coalescence between [a] in the last syllable of a verb thaba and the vowel [e] of the locative suffixal morpheme **-eng**

(d) When vowels in the preceding syllables are raised due to the [+ HIGH] vowel in the penultimate syllable:

- todì (honey)	[tɔ̣li]	[ɔ] +HIGH = [ɔ] → [ɔ̣]
----------------	---------	------------------------

- seledu (chin)	[selɛ̣lu]	[ɛ] +HIGH = [ɛ] → [ɛ̣]
-----------------	-----------	------------------------

- sefepì (whip)	[sefɛ̣p'i]	[ɛ] +HIGH = [ɛ] → [ɛ̣]
-----------------	------------	------------------------

From the data above, 4.7.1 (a, b, c, d), the results affecting SAE vowels because the influence of vowel raising in Northern Sotho are as follows:

Word	SAE	BSAE	
Promise	[prɒmɒs]	[prɔ̣mɪs]	[ɔ̣] +H
Produce	[prɒdju:s]	[prɔ̣dju:s]	[ɔ̣] +H
Police	[pɒlis]	[pɔ̣lis]	[ɔ̣] +H
Biology	[baɪɒlɒdʒi]	[baɪɔ̣dʒi]	[ɔ̣] +H
Magic	[mædʒɪk]	[mɛdʒɪk]	[ɛ] +H
Logic	[lɒdʒɪk]	[lɔ̣dʒɪk]	[ɔ̣] +H

Figure. 23

4.7.2 Vowel Nasalisation

Katamba (1989:93) defines nasalisation as a process whereby an oral segment acquires nasality from a neighbouring nasal segment. In the production of speech sounds being nasalised, one lets the air from the lungs escape through the nose and the mouth by lowering the velum at the back of the mouth.

English vowels become nasalised when precede a nasal consonant. Because of the absence of nasal twang in BSAE, all BSAE vowels showed an absence of Vowel Nasalisation.

Words	SAE	BSAE
Bank	[bæ̃nk]	[bænk]
Bomb	[bɔ̃mb]	[bɔmb]
Driving	[draɪvɪ̃ŋ]	[draɪvɪŋ]
Pen	[pɛ̃n]	[pɛn]
Man	[mæ̃n]	[mɛn]
Kin	[kɪ̃n]	[kɪn]
Hand	[hæ̃nd]	[hend]
Fan	[fæ̃n]	[fɛn]

Fig. 24: Absence of Nasalisation of vowels in BSAE

NB: Vowel followed by a nasal speech sound such as [n, m, ŋ] are always said to be nasalised in SAE; sometimes shown by diacritic [̃] over the affected vowel.

Words	SAE	BSAE
First	[ɜ:]	[ɛ]
Birth	[ɜ:]	[ɛ]
Persecute	[ɜ:]	[ɛ]
Peal	[i:]	[i]
Past	[ɑ:]	[a]
Piece	[i:]	[i]

Fig 25: Absence of long vowels in Black South African English (BSAE).

4.7.3 English vowel lengthening

BSAE Speakers do not make any distinction between long and short vowels as will be demonstrated below:

NB: Long vowels are indicated with the symbol [ː] in square brackets immediately after that vowel.

4.7.4 Over-reliance on English Spelling

Native speakers of the Northern Sotho language (BSAE speakers) have a tendency of pronouncing some English words the way they orthographically appear. This dependence on the written word resulted from a lack of input from native speakers and has led to oversimplification of pronunciation of certain English words (see examples below):

Words	SAE	BSAE
Demonstrative	[ɪ]	[e]
This	[ɪ]	[i]
Pull	[ʊ]	[u]
Practice	[æ]	[a]
Principal	[ɒ]	[a]

Figure 26: Over reliance on English Spelling

NB: Lax vowels [ɪ] and [ʊ] of SAE are pronounced by native speakers of Northern Sotho as tense vowels [i] and [u] which sounds similar to those of the Northern Sotho Language.

4.7.5 The problem of Tense versus Lax Vowels

There is still confusion in BSAE speakers with regard to Lax versus Tense vowels, despite the fact that lax vowels do exist in the phonetic inventory of Northern Sotho. They (lax vowels) also appear to be problematic in certain words of English whereby lax vowels are used interchangeably with their tense counterparts as demonstrated below:

Words	SAE	BSAE
Full	[ʊ]	[u]
Pull	[ʊ]	[u]
Bull	[ʊ]	[u]
Book	[ʊ]	[u]
Big	[ɪ]	[i]
Pill	[ɪ]	[i]
Pool	[u]	[u]
Peel	[i]	[i]

Figure 27: Illustration of Lax and Tense Vowels

The difference between vowels in columns for SAE and BSAE indicate that SAE has both lax and tense vowels to differentiate between words. While BSAE has only tense vowels. As we can see from the illustration between lax and tense vowels above, no distinction is shown between the following words:

Pull vs pool = [ʊ] vs [u]

Pill vs peel = [ɪ] vs [i]

The only possible explanation that can be given here could be the fact that the lax vowels in Northern Sotho are derived via Vowel Raising. [ʊ] And [u] are allophones of the phoneme /u/.

4.8 Analysis of the consonant inventory of the Northern Sotho variety of BSAE

Not much research has been done on BSAE consonants. Some little findings were made by linguist such as Hudleby's (1964) study of Xhosa-English. Jacobs (1994) presents some data on Zulu-English consonants, with Adendorff and Savini-Back (1993) suggesting some hypotheses based on a contrastive analysis of Zulu and English. Van Rooy (1995) and Van Rooy and Wissing (1996) present a detailed analysis of data on final devoicing in Tswana-English and Van Rooy and Wissing extended this to voicing assimilation restricted to a single distinctive feature. Gough (1996) also makes a few claims about the consonants but the empirical base of his claims is not entirely clear.

The Northern Sotho English consonant are not much different from the South African English consonant inventory. The Northern Sotho language lacks consonants of English such as [ð, θ, z, b], for an example, but this does not create many difficulties to the native speakers of N. Sotho to pronounce such speech sounds. The BSAE consonant inventory is more similar to varieties of South African English than the vowels. This is the reason why Hundleby (1964:101) indicates that vowels are much more involved in creating the distinctive characteristics of Xhosa-English than consonants. Adendorff and Savini-Beck (1993) make similar claims about Zulu-English, although Jacobs (1994) is of the opinion that some of the consonantal phenomena she detects in a Zulu-English mesolect may have more dramatic consequences for mutual intelligibility. Ufomata (1990) also observes a similar state of affairs for Nigerian-English.

The following figures display BSAE consonants in comparison with those of SAE:

Figure 28: A representation of the consonants of Northern Sotho variety of BSAE adopted from Van Rooy (1995).

SAE Phoneme	B. SAE allophones	C. BSAE allophones reported in literature	D. N. Sotho allophones
/p-b/	[p, p ^h -b,]	[p, p ^h , p'-b]	[p, p ^h]
/t-d/	[t, t ^h -d,]	[t, t ^h , t'-d,]	[t, t ^h]
/k-g/	[k, k ^h -g,]	[k, k ^h , k', g,]	[k, k ^h]
/f-v/	[f-v]	[f-v]	[f]
/s-z/	[s-z]	[s-z]	[s]
/ʃ-ʒ/	[ʃ-ʒ]	[ʃ-ʒ, ʃ]	[ʃ-s]
/θ-ð/	[θ-ð]	[t, θ-d, ð]	None
/h/	[h]	[h, h̃]	[h̃]
/tʃ-dʒ/	[tʃ-dʒ]	[tʃ ^h , tʃ', tʃ, ʃ]	[ʃ]
/m-n-ŋ/	[m-n-ŋ]	[m-n-ŋ]	[m-n-ŋ]
/l/	[l]	[l]	[l]
/r/	[λ]	[r, r]	[r]
/w-j/	[w-j]	[w-j]	[w-j]

Even if [v, z, ð, θ] are absent in Northern Sotho, speakers of the latter are able to pronounce those sounds with ease.

The next chapter provides us with summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1. Summary.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the existence of a variety of BSAE which emanates from the influence of Black South African English that the native speakers of Northern Sotho language have on South African English (SAE). The area chosen for the study is the Limpopo Province which has a large number of native speakers of Northern Sotho. The researcher received permission from the Department of Education (Central Region) to conduct research in the former Mankweng and Polokwane District, (renamed Capricorn District). High schools targeted were from the township of Mankweng, the villages of Ga-Molepo and Ga-Mamabolo, and the urban area of Polokwane City.

Six schools were selected and learners from each school formed part of the sample to ensure that they represent a population of 180 subjects. Forty (40) educators were selected from the township and village areas. Educators from Polokwane schools were excluded for the following reason: The researcher's fear was that these educators might be influenced by their white colleagues which may influence their pronunciation of the speech sounds targeted.

Through the analysis and findings made in the study, the researcher found that there is a lack of deployment of native English speakers as English teachers in the schools for Africans which are mainly in villages and townships. The reasons for the reluctance on the part of white educators not willing to work in black schools might be:

- (a) poor infrastructure in those schools
- (b) and the fact that the areas where are located are secluded.

5.2. Conclusion

The discussion of the impact of vowels and consonants of Northern Sotho on Black South African English was indeed a challenging study. South African English vowels are more in number than those of BSAE. The study revealed that the Northern Sotho language lacks central vowels which appear on the vowel chart in figure seven (7).

Vowels of Northern Sotho appear in figure two (2). Back vowels such as [ɔ, ʊ] and a low unrounded vowel [æ] are also absent in Northern Sotho. This is the reason why the native speakers of Northern Sotho substitute South African English vowels with their own vowels. In other words, the superimpose Northern Sotho vowels on South African English vowels.

It is this substitution that has led to the influence of Northern Sotho on Black South African English. The lack of diphthongs is one of the findings made by the researcher. Northern Sotho is characterised by monophthongs and not diphthongs. Despite the absence of diphthongs, native speakers of Northern Sotho do not encounter any problem in their pronunciation. They pronounce them clearly and unconsciously without realizing their absence in their language.

The study has shown that Northern Sotho orthographic vowels a,e, i, o and u correspond to their phonetic script [a, e, i, o, u] unlike the vowels ô and ê appearing in phonetic symbols as [ɔ, ε] respectively.

During the selection of the population group, the researcher used equal numbers of males and females, both among the learners and the educators. The aim was to find out if gender in this regard will bring about the difference in the pronunciation of speech sounds; but gender does not play any role. The participation of educators when asked to read target words did not bring much difference in pronunciation as compared to their learners. The only observation shown was that they are more educationally experienced than their learners. The other reason might be the fact that these learners imitated their educators in

the way they pronounce speech sounds since these educators were taught English Second Language by their previous Northern Sotho speaking educators.

Some grade ten learners showed much difficulty in the pronunciation of certain words than the grades eleven and twelve. This might be because of the standard level and the period spent by these learners at high school level.

The researcher's idea of deployment of native speakers of English in African schools should be encouraged, though it will not stop the existence of Black South African English. What is needed is to encourage learners of English Second Language to improve their pronunciation.

The learners from the rural area (villages) showed poor communication in English as compared to those learners living in townships and towns. Learners attending schools in town have shown a better pronunciation during recordings. Statistics indicated that 100% of learners from Capricorn High School are taught English First Language, i.e. as their primary language. The study consisted of tables and sketches used to display consonants and vowels and analysis of statistics. Analysis of recordings showed figure 20 which gave clear evidence on how learners from different schools pronounced selected words. Figures 21 and 22 displayed responses of learners from the questionnaire.

The study also revealed that native speakers of Northern Sotho lack vowel nasalisation. They also do not distinguish between long and short vowels. Black South African English speakers have a tendency of pronouncing some English words in the way they orthographically appear. Figure 27 shows the confusion that exists in the Northern Sotho variety of Black South African English vowels between lax and tense vowels. These vowels are used interchangeably.

Examples of problematic consonants appearing in Appendix 3 shows that Northern Sotho speakers pronounce [k] and [l] as one speech sound [t^l] of Northern Sotho as in a word

'class' the same as [g] and [l] as in 'glass'. Words such as **chaise**, **champion**, **chalet** are realised as aspirated palatal affricates [tʃ^h] instead of [ʃ] as should in appendix 3. In a word like **space**, a bilabial plosive [p] is produced as aspirated [p^h] as if it appears word initially in a word like "pace". In words **this** and **that** [ð] is produced in Northern Sotho as [ɺ]. Speech sound [ð] is an English voiced inter-dental fricative while [ɺ] is a Northern Sotho voiced alveolar flap speech sound as in a word "dula" (to sit).

Black South African English does not show difference from South African English consonants inventory. Northern Sotho lacks consonants such as [θ, ð, z, b, dʒ, g], but this does not create much problem to native speakers of Northern Sotho.

Black South African English consonants inventory is more similar to South African English than vowels.

The problem of speaking English as a foreign language is experienced worldwide. It is therefore not only blacks in South Africa who are affected. The same problem is experienced by other cultural groups, viz, Afrikaners, Zulus, Xhosas, Coloureds and Indians to mention but few. The whole continent of Africa is dancing to the same music. Zambia, Zaire, Zimbabwe, Congo and the rest of African countries, except where their international language is not English, or where English is not a means of communication.

In Kenya for a example, according to (Ngũgi wa Thiongo 1986: 11) the implementation of high standard of English in Kenya during the declaration of a state of emergency in 1952, and that all the schools run by patriotic nationalists were placed under the District Education Board chaired by English men. English in Kenya became more than a language. No student was allowed to speak her/his mother-tongue "Gikũyũ" in the vicinity of the school. Measures of punishment were set for such offence and they were to be obeyed. For example, a culprit was given three to five strokes of the cane on bare buttocks or was

made to carry a metal plate around the neck with inscriptions such as I AM STUPID or I AM A DONKEY. Sometimes the culprits were fined money they could hardly afford.

English became a measure of intelligence and ability in the arts, the natural sciences and in all other branches of learning. English became the main determinant of a child's progress up the ladder of formal education, (Ngũgĩ wa Thiongo 1986:11).

An extract also taken from Ngũgĩ wa Thiongo's *Decolonising the mind*, (1986:19) has this to say:

“In Malawi, Banda has erected his own monument by way of an institution. The Kamuzu Academy, designed to aid the brightest pupils of Malawi in their mastery of English”.

“.....It is grammar school to produce boys and girls who will be sent to Universities like Howard, Chicago, Oxford, Cambridge and Edinburgh and be able to compete on equal terms with others elsewhere”.

He, the president of Malawi has instructed that Latin should occupy a central place in the curriculum. According to him all teachers must have had at least some Latin in their academic background. He often said that no one can fully master English without the knowledge of languages such as Latin and French.

The research will play a pivotal role in encouraging old and new generations in the education of English, particularly in Black schools, looking deeply in rural areas where the majority of children attend public schools dominated by black teachers.

5.3. Recommendations

It is therefore highly recommended that native speakers of English should be deployed in those secluded and disadvantaged areas to avoid the situation that exists hitherto.

Findings among female and male subjects irrespective of age except grade levels did not show any differences in the pronunciations of speech sounds.

The study revealed that 72% of learners are taught English by non-native speakers of English while only 28% enjoy the presence of such needed educators. The other factor that worsened the learning situation in black schools was the imposition of apartheid in 1948 and the Bantu Education Act of 1953.

It is further recommended that learners should be encouraged to watch educational programmes on television conducted in English. This can be the responsibility of the schools and family institutions.

Lastly, the researcher recommends that “Phonetics and Phonology” be taught in the subject English. General linguistics is best taught to learners who have reached a high level of proficiency in the target language.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

1. Your name (Optional)

Gender: Female

Male

First Language:

Learner's Age:

Grade:

Name of School:

2. How long have you been at school:

3. Is English an important subject to learn?

(Tick in the block)

1	2	3	4	5
Not important	Somehow important	Not sure	Definitely important	Extremely important

4. Is English at your school offered by a native speaker of English?

(Tick yes or no)

(If no give the reasons)

Yes	No
-----	----

Does the authority at school allow learners to communicate in mother-tongue within the school premises?

(Tick yes or no)

Yes	No
-----	----

5. What is your personal interest in the subject English (tick on of the block)

Not interested	Somehow interested	Not sure	Definitely interested
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6. Do you think it is fair for English to be used as medium of instruction (tick inside the block)

if your answer is no, give the reason blow

Yes	No
-----	----

Do you think N.Sotho should be used as a medium of instruction for the content subjects?

(Tick inside the block) if your answer is yes, motivate your answer below.

Yes	No
-----	----

Appendix 2: VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

Monophthongs

1. Bacon [ɒ]
2. Bird [ɜ]

Herd

Turn
3. Back [æ]

cap

tap

jam
4. Pit [ɪ]

list

thin, this, live
5. Heat [i]

cheat

these

keep
6. Pot [ʊ]

hot

stop
7. Port [ɔ]
8. bark [ɑ]

stark

cart

card

lark

carp

9. not [ɒ]

cot

cock

cost

rob

10. cup [ʌ]

cut

buck

luck

stuck

Diphthongs

11. note [oʊ]

coat

goat

coal

coke

coast

robe

12. let [ɛ]

bet

get

pet

met

13. late [eɪ]

bait

gate

mate

gale

Appendix 3: PROBLEMATIC CONSONANTS FOR NORTHERN SOTHO SPEAKERS

Consonants which bring problems to particular mother-tongue speakers:

Chaise [ʃ]

Champaign [tʃ]

Chalet [ʃ]

Chic [ʃ]

Little [tl]

Space [p]

Clock [k] & [l] → [tʃ]

Glass [g] and [l] → [tʃ]

That [ð] / [ʒ]

This [ð] / [ʒ]

Space [p^h]

APPENDIX 4: CITY PRESS ARTICLE

Oil price claws its way back

1. Oil prices recovered some of the ground lost earlier in the week of Friday as traders questioned whether Israel and the Palestinians would restart the peace process fractures by the recent violence.
2. Israel troops raided the West Bank City of Nablus overnight, rekindling fears the Middle East crisis could destabilise the oil-rich Gulf region, which supplies one third of the world's oil.
3. International benchmark Brent crude oil gained 11c by early afternoon in London, having dropped by almost a dollar in the first four days of the week when Israel withdrew most of its troops from Palestinian areas.
4. Us crude futures rose 18c to \$26, 42.
5. The raid on Nablus came just hours after Washington said it planned a Middle East peace conference.
6. Brent, which is used as a marker for much of the world's crude supply, has gained 30 percent so far this year due to fears of disruptions to oil flows, and dealer said several risk factors continued to buoy sentiment.

Iraq, which suspended crude oil exports on April 8 in protest at Israel incursion, will decide next Tuesday whether. (PAGE 1 CITY PRESS BUSINESS 5/5/2002)

APPENDIX 5: A LIST OF NORTHERN SOTHO ORTHOGRAPHY AND PHONETIC SCRIPT OF VOWEL AND CONSONANTS.

1. vowels

1.1. Basic vowels

i [i]

e [e]

ê [ɛ]

o [o]

ô [ɔ]

u [u]

a [a]

1.2. Raised Vowels

e [e̞]

ô [ɔ̞]

ê [ɛ̞]

o [o̞]

Note that Northern Sotho raised vowels do not have their orthographic symbols as found in basic.

2. Consonants

b [β]

ph [p^h]

p [pʼ]

f [f]

m [m]

n [n]

ng [ŋ]

ny [ɲ]

t [tʰ]

th [tʰ]

k [kʰ]

kh [kʰ]

g [ɣ]

kg [kxʰ]

h [ħ]

s [s]

hl [ɬ]

tlh [tʰ]

r [r]

š [ʃ]

j [ʒ]

t š [tʃʰ]

ts [tsʰ]

tsh [tsʰ]

l [l]

d [ɖ]

bj [βʒ]

h [ɦ]

ng [ŋʰ]

my [ɲ]

c [ɰ]

nx [ŋ | ɰ]

tl [tʰ]

nc [ŋ | ɰ]

3. Glides

w [w]

y [j]

Kotze' AE (1989:62)