

TUTDoR

Sepitori forms in the academic writing of grade 12 Setswana learners: A case study from Winterveldt.

Item Type	Thesis
Authors	Selepe, Mmapule Prhodesia
Publisher	Tshwane University of Technology
Rights	CC0 1.0 Universal
Download date	2025-05-21 09:07:32
Item License	http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/
Link to Item	https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.14519/1318

**SEPITORI FORMS IN THE ACADEMIC WRITING OF GRADE 12 SETSWANA
LEARNERS: A CASE STUDY FROM WINTERVELDT**

by

Selepe Mmapule Prhodesia

Student No: 212198510

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for degree of

MASTER OF LANGUAGE PRACTICE

Department of Applied Languages

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Supervisor: Dr M.M. Makgato

Co-Supervisor: Dr I.P. Mandende

Date: April 2022

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation submitted for the degree: Master of Language Practice, entitled: *Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners: A case study from Winterveldt* at the Tshwane University of Technology, is my own original work, and has not previously been submitted to any other institution of higher education. I also declare that all sources cited or quoted are indicated and acknowledged by means of a comprehensive list of references.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my parents, Wilson Makoti and Fikile Celamanzi Selepe who have always loved me unconditionally and whose good example has taught me to work hard for the things I aspire to achieve.

It is also dedicated to all my siblings, who were always there for me when I needed them; I say thank you so much for being supportive throughout my studies.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply indebted and appreciate the contributions and support I got from the following people who made it possible for me to complete this study:

- I want to first direct my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Dr M.M. Makgato, for the patience shown in assisting me until the completion of this study. I immensely appreciate her consistent support, encouragement, mentoring and scholarly advice throughout the course of this study.
- Dr I.P. Mandende, my co-supervisor for his dedication, knowledge, academic assistance and his wise words that kept me going throughout my study.
- I express my sincere thanks to Mrs Carol Jansen for having agreed to edit my dissertation.
- The principals, teachers as well as learners from Tswaing and IR Lesolang Secondary Schools to allow me to collect my data.
- My family and friends, Tshepo, Sello, Thabo, Maria Selepe and Koketso Botlholo, Lesego Senokwane, David Simbi, as well as Lebogang Sithole for being so supportive throughout.
- Above all, I would like to thank the Almighty for making everything possible.

ABSTRACT

This study focuses on Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners, who were born and raised in Winterveldt township, in the Tshwane metropolitan area, South Africa. Sepitori is one of the most dominant urban language varieties spoken in Winterveldt. It is a combination of Setswana, Northern Sotho, Afrikaans, English, and other Black South African indigenous languages. The aim of this study was to determine how much influence Sepitori forms have on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners, and to find out what Setswana teachers are doing to prevent the interference of Sepitori forms in the use of standard Setswana in an academic setting. The data were collected from two selected High Schools, where 20 Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners between the ages of 17-20 were selected (ten from each school), as well as eight (8) Setswana HL teachers (four from each school) for the interview. The participants were randomly selected from the group of Grade 12 learners who were doing Setswana HL as a subject as both high schools are the only ones offering Setswana HL. The study employed content analysis and a qualitative approach as methods of collecting data for the study. The Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners were given a topic on which to write an essay in Setswana for one hour. The Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners were chosen, because they have been exposed to Setswana HL from the lower level and, therefore, must be highly proficient in Setswana.

The findings of this study showed that, indeed Sepitori has an enormous influence on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners. Most Setswana HL learners used non-standard language varieties in their academic writing, and it was evident that the Sepitori was frequently used.

Keywords: Sepitori, Setswana, Standard language, Non-standard language variety, Academic writing.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION

DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES.....	ix
ABSTRACT.....	v
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	x
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Introduction.....	1
1.2. Background and rationale	1
1.3. Problem statement of the research	5
1.4. Research questions.....	5
1.5. Aims and objectives.....	5
1.5.1 Aim	5
1.5.2. Objective	6
1.6. Significance of the study.....	6
1.7. Scope and limitations of the study	6
1.8. Division of work into chapters.....	7
Chapter 2: Literature review and and theoretical framework.....	7
Chapter 3: Research methodology	7

Chapter 4: Data presentation and discussion	7
Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations	8
1.9 Conclusion	8
2.1 Introduction.....	9
2.2.1. Language.....	10
2.2.3 Standard language (SL).....	11
2.2.4 Non-standard language variety (NSLV)	14
2.2.5 Sepitori.....	15
2.2.6 Code-mixing (CM).....	16
2.2.7 Code-switching (CS).....	16
2.2.8 Translanguaging.....	22
2.2.9 Language acquisition (LA)	23
2.2.10 Language attitudes	25
2.2.11 Home language (HL)	25
2.2.12 Curriculum and assessment policy statement (CAPS)	27
2.3 Theoretical framework.....	28
2.3.1 Behaviourist theory of language acquisition.....	28
2.3.2 The social interactionist theory	30
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	33
3.1. Introduction.....	33
3.2. Research design	33

3.3. Research approach	36
3.4 Research instruments	38
3.5. Data collection methods.....	39
3.5.1 Text analysis	39
3.5.2 Interviews.....	40
3.6.1 Population	42
3.7 Demographic profile of teachers.....	43
3.8. Demographic profiles of learners.....	44
3.9. Sampling procedures.....	45
3.10 Convenience sampling	46
3.12. Field problems	48
3.13. Ethical considerations	49
3.16. Conclusion	51
CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS	
4 .1 Introduction.....	52
4.2 Presentation of the findings from the text analysis	52
4.3 Presentation of teachers’ interview data	55
4.4 Presentation of learners’ interview data.....	61
4.5 Discussion of findings.....	71
4.6. Conclusion	81
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
	82

5.1 Introduction.....	82
5.2. Summary of the study	82
Chapter 1	82
Chapter 2.....	82
Chapter 3.....	82
Chapter 4.....	83
5.3 Recommendations.....	85
5.3.1 Recommendations regarding the learners	85
5.3.2 Recommendations to the teachers.....	86
5.3.3 Recommendations for the Department of Basic Education	86
REFERENCES	88

LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1: Teachers’ native language	47
Figure 3.2: Learners’ native language	48
Figure 4.1: Ratings of Sepitori on learners' academic writing by teachers.....	57
Figure .4.2: Learners’ reading of Setswana books.....	67
Figure 4.3: Language spoken in the Setswana classroom.....	70

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Demographic profile of teachers	44
Table 3.2: Demographic profile of learners	44
Table 4.1: Sepitori forms in learners’ essays	54
Table 3.1: Demographic profile of teachers	43
Table 3. 2: Demographic profile of learners	44

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BT = Behaviourist theory

CAPS= Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

CM = Code-mixing

CS = Code switching

HL = Home language

L = Learner

L1 = First language

LA =Language acquisition

NSLV = Non-standard language variety

RQ = Research question

SIT = Social interactionist theory

SL = Standard language

T = Teacher

TBVC = Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei

TL=Translanguaging

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Personal experience as a former learner who was born and raised in Winterveldt and with both parents not being Setswana native speakers, made me realise that this can be disadvantageous for learners who are doing Setswana as a home language (HL) at school, especially when no efforts are made to improve their language proficiency. This study was conducted to explore the influence of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana HL learners at two selected public High Schools in Winterveldt. A further aim was to explore the possible ways that Setswana teachers could use to prevent the interference of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana Home Language learners.

1.2. Background and rationale

This study of Sepitori forms an integral part of the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners it raises an awareness of their inadequate language proficiency and errors when using Setswana; it assists in depicting the non-standard language use of Setswana.

Sepitori is said to mean *Setswana sa ko Pitori* or *Sesotho sa ko Pitori*, that is, Pretoria Tswana or Pretoria Sotho (Ditsele:2014). It is the *lingua franca* of Pretoria, and the Tshwane metropolitan area, in South Africa. It comprises Setswana, Northern Sotho, Afrikaans, English, and other South African indigenous languages and is also spoken by most Black residents of all ages in Winterveldt.

Horn, Hattingh and Vermaak (1992:113) state that Winterveld is a settlement situated 40 kilometres to the Northwest of the Pretoria city centre, close to the decentralised formal black townships of Mabopane and Soshanguve. Simone (2004:68) asserts that it is an example of the constitutional and functional complexity of the formation of urban areas in the apartheid era. and adds that this area is typical of a rural community in a largely agricultural setting in South Africa but is closely connected with an urban economy near Pretoria. Apart from the Pretoria city system being made up of several Group Areas, it was also intentionally divided into two sections, falling within the Republic of South Africa (RSA), and the Republic of Bophuthatswana, respectively. The links with Bophuthatswana included the Black townships of Ga-Rankuwa, Mabopane, and Winterveldt. Even though the development of Winterveldt was influenced by apartheid practices, it was also an

experiment with regard to testing the bilateral cooperation between Bophuthatswana and the RSA. Hlahla (2004) avers that the residents of Winterveldt believed that they were the lost and forgotten children of oppression, and the settlement was known as the 'dark city.' Therefore, the area represents the challenges of socio-political empowerment, reconstruction, and development since the democratisation of South Africa after 1994. Hlala (2004) continues by asserting that Winterveldt has a long history of neglect and discrimination.

According to Simone (2004: 90), many of the challenges and opportunities experienced by residents can be attributed to this singular history, "which combines great pride, the legacy of continuous Black land ownership, and the social diversity that ensued from this status." Most of the original inhabitants were Black South Africans excluded from South African citizenship because of their race. Ethnically, despite the residents being within the former homeland of Bophuthatswana, not all Winterveldt inhabitants were of Setswana origin. Reitzes and Bam (2000:81) notes:

They were, therefore, also not acknowledged as citizens of Bophuthatswana by the Batswana rulers; hence, the lack of infrastructural development in this area. Since 1994, South African residents have acquired full citizenship and democratic rights, advanced from 'outsiders' to that of 'insiders,' and have progressed to new forms of inclusion.

In addition to apartheid, South Africa also introduced the so-called homelands in the 1960s. In the mid-seventies, four of these homelands received their independence, namely, the Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda, and the Ciskei, known as the TBVC states (Reitzes and Bam 2000)

The boundaries of these homelands were delimited along ethnolinguistic lines, so that each homeland would be populated by one ethnic group, in theory at least, and it was deemed ideal that they should speak the same language. Accordingly, the Batswana ethnic group was recognised as having national unity in Bophuthatswana and was granted partial self-government in 1969, according to the Promotion of Bantu Self-government Act of 1959 (Bophuthatswana, 1972-1980: 7).

Bophuthatswana was granted independence, but the National Department of Education administered its education. The professional and administrative head of the department was white, assisted by white and Tswana professionals and administrative officials. The whites were to be replaced by Batswana officials as soon as suitably qualified, and experienced Batswana officials were available. The education planners and the thirteen circuit inspectors were Batswana officials (Bophuthatswana, 1972-1980: 7). This had a direct influence on the promotion of Setswana as a home language to the exclusion of other languages.

In 1971, school boards, school committees and parents' advisory committees were established in each homeland, in accordance with the policy of the Department of Education. However, the school committees were manned entirely by Batswana parents. This was to stimulate and activate the interest of parents and local communities in developing the education of their children, particularly in their mother-tongue (Popagano, 1984: 22).

In 1973, Bophuthatswana passed the Bophuthatswana Education Act 9 of 1973 (Bophuthatswana Department of Education, 1973). By virtue of this act, the people of Bophuthatswana would henceforth decide on educational development, including planning and developing their own national educational system. This meant that they were no longer administered by the National Department of Education.

In December 1977, Bophuthatswana gained political independence from the Government of the Republic of South Africa; therefore, Popagano emerged as the national ideal of education of the Batswana in Bophuthatswana (Popagano, 1972-1980: 16). Furthermore, the emergence of Popagano came about through the formation of the Bophuthatswana Education Commission, whose main task was to investigate the Education System of Bophuthatswana. The commission discovered that the products of Bantu Education were not moulded properly, hence, the concept of 'Popagano.' The English translation of the concept of 'Popagano' is 'moulding.' To mould means to produce an object in a certain shape. The individual, like clay, is placed on the education wheel, and the standard and quality artefact is produced (Raikane, 1987: 49). Smith (1984) states that the concept of 'Popagano' is the product-oriented philosophy of education. Accordingly, education for Popagano is an educational philosophy which aims to produce properly moulded educational products (Smith, 1984).

Through Popagano, Bophuthatswana wished to see children properly moulded and well-equipped to take their rightful places amongst other nations of the world. Education for Popagano, automatically restricted the State to a predetermined programme and anything that was not Popagano-related was considered non-educational (Smith, 1984: 13, cited by Raikane 1987: 49). According to Popagano (1984: 8), the HL in Bophuthatswana was Setswana. English and Afrikaans were the two official languages, which are presently termed first and second additional languages.

Based on Statistics South Africa (2011), Xitsonga is the language spoken most in Winterveldt, with 21.9%, followed by Setswana (19.9%), isiZulu (11.5%), and Northern Sotho/Sepedi (11.5%). This shows that Winterveldt is a multilingual environment. Although Xitsonga is the language spoken most, there are no schools that offer teaching and learning in Xitsonga. Therefore, all children in Winterveldt are compelled to be taught Setswana as their HL.

This is the reason for exploring the effect this phenomenon has on the academic writing of Setswana L1 of the learners in Winterveldt at the two selected schools. In addition, because of the linguistic composition of this area, there is a high likelihood that their home varieties may have an impact on their learning and writing of academic Setswana L1 in schools in this area.

This researcher comes from a family where her mother speaks isiZulu, and her father speaks Sesotho sa Leboa/Sepedi, and the researcher studied Setswana as a HL at school as well as at tertiary level, respectively. Due to the multilingual background at home, it was challenging to learn to speak and write in standard Setswana. This was common amongst most learners born and raised in Winterveldt, who were studying Setswana L1 in high school.

Gardner (1985) conducted a study on the language variants spoken in townships around Pretoria, as well as the non-standard varieties, and the phenomenon of code-switching. He found that many of the problems which learners may experience in the mother tongue subjects could be associated with the influence of non-standard languages. Mixed, colloquial, township language varieties are often learned by children before they acquire the `standard` language (Calteaux, 1992).

Scholars, such as Wagner (2020), also conducted research on the transfer effects of Sepitori on the language performance of Setswana Home Language at three high schools in

GaRankuwa, Mabopane and the Soshanguve Tshwane township and the results of the study showed that Sepitori influenced the academic written outputs of learners significantly. Some teachers were adamant that it was unreasonable to wish Sepitori away in Setswana classrooms because learners and many teachers (regardless of the subjects they taught) ordinarily spoke Sepitori in the three townships both at school and at home. Accordingly, this study focuses on the Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners from two public High Schools in Winterveldt, which is a formal setting.

1.3. Problem statement of the research

Setswana is one of the eleven official languages stipulated in the Republic of South Africa Constitution and is given the status of being used in schools. Therefore, it is vital for Setswana L1 learners to be conversant with Setswana and to be encouraged to write continuously in Setswana in the classroom setting. In this way, the interference of non-standard varieties could be prevented in the Setswana academic writing of the Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners. It was of vital importance to explore and highlight the influence of Sepitori forms on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners and how these affect their Setswana HL performance at school.

1.4. Research questions

RQ1: To what extent do Sepitori forms influence the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana HL learners in the two selected public high schools in Winterveldt?

RQ2: What can Setswana teachers do to prevent the interference of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana HL learners at the two selected public high schools in Winterveldt?

1.5. Aims and objectives

An aim is a purpose or intention and the desired outcome, whereas an objective is a thing aimed at or sought after, a goal.

1.5.1 Aim

The aim of this study was to explore the influence of Sepitori forms on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners, and how this affects their Setswana HL performance at school.

1.5.2. Objective

To achieve the aim indicated above, the following objectives are formulated to:

- Explore the influence of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana Home Language learners at two selected public High Schools in Winterveldt.
- Examine the possible ways that Setswana teachers could use to prevent the interference of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana Home Language learners at the two selected public High Schools in Winterveldt.

1.6. Significance of the study

- This study aimed to determine how much influence Sepitori has in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners and to find out what Setswana teachers could use to prevent the interference of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana Home Language learners at the two selected public High Schools in Winterveldt.

According to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA, 1996), there are 11 official languages which are seen as equal. Still, in practice, in the classroom situation, most learners struggle to master the Setswana HL content because of these forms of Sepitori in their academic writing, where they end up using Sepitori, instead of standard Setswana. Therefore, this study was conducted with the hope that it may help learners differentiate between standard Setswana and Sepitori and make learners realise their inadequate language proficiency with regard to errors in the use of Setswana and assist with depicting the Sepitori forms in the use of Setswana.

Setswana L1 learners should be taught to communicate and use Setswana daily so that it can be enhanced and protected for it to maintain and uphold its official status. Teachers, too, should have more resources to help Setswana L1 learners to read and be able to use the correct orthography when writing so that they can prevent the interference of Sepitori in their academic writing.

1.7. Scope and limitations of the study

The research study was limited to Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners born and raised in Winterveldt and learning Setswana as an L1 subject at the two public high schools in the Winterveldt township. The study only focused on the two high schools because if all the

high schools had been included, the study would have been extensive, and more time would have been necessary to complete it. However, using a qualitative research method presented many difficulties. It is a perspective-based research method only, which means the responses given were not measured; it was advantageous for the study; the researcher did not rely on specific deadlines, formats, or questions to achieve a successful outcome and this process allowed the researchers to ask open-ended questions.

1.8. Division of work into chapters

The study consists of the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the study and encompasses important aspects, especially those that are involved in this project. It explains the background and the rationale of the study, the problem statement and the main research questions, aims and objectives upon which the study is grounded. On the other hand, this chapter provides a summary of the location, and the population, sample and research methodology are discussed. The significance of the study, and the scope and limitations of the study are also dealt with, and, in conclusion, the division of the study into chapters is explained.

Chapter 2: Literature review

The second chapter looks at the literature of scholars who have already done research on the Sepitori-related and relevant concepts on language acquisition, and the writing of Setswana L1 in the classroom situations is also discussed. Various theoretical frameworks related to the study are explained fully, and the reasons why they were employed in this study are elaborated.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

This chapter explicates the research designs and methods, such as the data collection methods, the instrumentation, the sample, the sampling procedures, ethical considerations and field problems in detail. It further presents information on how the data were analysed.

Chapter 4: Data presentation and discussion

In this chapter, the data gathered is presented and discussed. This chapter further outlines the findings thematically on Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana HL learners.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study and shows how the research questions, aims and objectives of the study were achieved. Finally, it proposes recommendations and suggestions for further research.

1.9 Conclusion

Chapter one discussed the imperative aspects that are involved in this study. It clarified the background and the rationale of the study, the problem statement and the main research questions, the aims and objectives upon which the study is grounded and the significance of the study. The focus of the following chapter is on a review of the research of scholars who have done research on linguistic varieties and their influence on the standard language in academic writing and have covered the various theoretical frameworks related to the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter dealt with the important aspects that are involved in this project. It explained the background and the rationale of the study, the problem statement and the main research questions, and the aim and the objectives upon which the study is grounded. It also discussed the significance of the study, and the scope and limitations of the study were discussed, and the division of the study into chapters was given.

This chapter firstly gives a definition of the concepts essential to the study and then further reviews and discusses the literature related to the topic, which helped to explore the influence of Sepitori in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners. This is done through a contextual presentation of the inputs and findings of scholars in their exploration of similar topics related to this study. The literature review was done to deepen the understanding of the different aspects of language, a standard language, a non-standard language, language attitudes, Sepitori, code-switching, code-mixing, language acquisition, translanguaging, the home language and the curriculum assessment policy statement, for example.

The theoretical framework embracing theories such as social interactionist theory and behaviourist theory of language acquisition, was adopted in this study. This chapter also presents the theoretical framework upon which the study is predicated.

Hart (2018) explains that a literature review is a scholarly paper, which includes the existing knowledge, including functional findings, as well as theoretical and methodological contributions to a particular topic. A literature review comprises secondary sources, which may not cover new or original experimental work. More often associated with academic-oriented literature, such reviews are found in academic journals and are not to be confused with book reviews that may also appear in similar publications. A literature review is a basis for research in nearly every academic field.

Aveyard (2010) notes that a literature review can be a complete examination and clarification of the literature addressing a particular topic. He adds that literature reviews are normally conducted in one of two ways:

- It provides a preliminary overview of the current literature in order to justify the need for further study and research before a more comprehensive study is conducted. It is necessary for the researcher to “systematically search, critique, and combine the literature to demonstrate a gap in the existing research base,” while demonstrating their grasp of both the research and the methods previously used. In this case, the researcher must “thoroughly search, analyses and combine the literature to reveal a gap in the existing research base” while representing “their understanding of both the research and the methods previously used to investigate the area” (Aveyard, 2010); and
- It is a project providing a comprehensive survey of the works published in a particular field or discipline.

2.2 Presentation of concepts

2.2.1. Language

According to Bonvillian (2013: 7), language is an essential component of human behaviour because “it is the primary means of interaction between people.” Language is used by speakers to convey their thoughts, feelings, intentions, and desires to others, and language is enriched by the various ways in which people use it. These uses, as well as the meaning conveyed, are situational, social, and cultural. Situational meanings are conveyed through forms of language that occur or are excluded in various contexts; for example, during formal encounters, speakers pronounce word sounds clearly, and avoid using slang. Social meanings are signalled by linguistic alterations chosen by different groups of people within a community; for example, women and men may pronounce words differently, and cultural meanings are expressed both in the symbolic sense of words and by the ways that interlocutors evaluate communication behaviour.

However, language becomes alive and pregnant with meaning when it develops into dialogue, either intrapersonally and interpersonally (for example, by engaging in conversation with one or more people through speech, pictures, and writing). Each language is unique to a particular culture. Furthermore, each language has specific sounds, words, phrases, and signs that have their own peculiar connotation. This uniqueness or difference among linguistic systems across the various languages can sometimes result in

miscommunication or a breakdown of communication amongst people across cultures and linguistic groups (Moodley, 2016).

Prah (2006) defines language as the central feature of culture, which makes it possible for a culture to be transmitted, interpreted, and configured while its (language) is also a register of culture. Language is one of the distinctive features that distinguish humans from animals. We are, in effect, “talkative animals” (Prah, 2006: 03). Mutasa (2004: 240) endorses this view when he points out that language is the most important “possession” of an individual, “for it is the principal factor that enables individuals to become fully functioning members of the group into which they were born.” Like Mutasa, Sauvignon (1983: 13) maintains that language performs certain functions “the way language is put, the purpose of an utterance rather than the particular grammatical form an utterance takes.” According to this view, it is almost certain that people use language to communicate for different reasons, whether making a request, command, or a statement; such reasons make a language functional for its speakers.

Basically, a language is always spoken. This statement implies that all people in the world, regardless of their race or ethnic group, always speak a language. This means that people always have a means of communicating their thoughts by using the sounds produced by their speech organs.

2.2.3 Standard language (SL)

Several approaches can be followed to define a standard language (SL). A quick glance at some English-language dictionaries reveals the following definitions of the adjective “standard.” Rundell and Fox’s (2002) MacMillan English Dictionary defines a “standard” as something that is “normally used or acknowledged as normal” and refers to “standard English” as the language that most people find acceptable. Accordingly, dictionaries often refer to the benchmark status of the standard language, including its accepted status, and its commonality.

Nfila (2002:14) defines a standard language as “a language which is accepted and used in high public functions like; schools, courts and in formal contexts across group boundaries.” This entails that the standard language is used in all formal functions irrespective of the region or institution, and it is generally awarded an official status. Holmes (1992:83), as cited by Nfila (2002:14), emphasises that the standard language is the “one that has been

written and codified,” while Crystal (1985:325) regards it as “the language that unifies communities by breaking the barriers that might linguistically exist within the society.” Before a language can be awarded the status of being a standard language, it must undergo the process of standardisation.

Accordingly, Van Wyk (1989: 25) refers to two aspects with regard to the definition of a standard language namely, that:

- Standard languages must serve speakers of different non-standard varieties; and
- Standard languages carry a measure of prestige and, with that, also power.

Some languages became standard languages because of the influences of the dominant class, decisions made by the institution and the fact that the dialect of the languages was the first to be rewritten. A standard language can even be applied differently depending on the circumstances (Van Wyk, 1989).

“Setswana is divided into four subgroups, each with its own dialect” (Ramagoshi, 1990: 4).

These groups are:

Central Setswana

- Sehurutshe
- Sengwaketse

Southern Setswana

- Setlhaping
- Setlhwane
- Serolong

Northern Setswana

- Sekwena
- Sengwato
- Setawana

Eastern Setswana

- Transvaal Sekgatla
- West-Transvaal Sekwena

“It was extremely difficult to create a standard Setswana from the dialects because each dialect’s speakers regard their dialect as important” (Ramagoshi, 1990:5 “Internal changes were another factor that complicated the use of Standard Setswana” (Moloto, 1964: 22). This was due to the fact that people travelled to different areas in search of work, and as a result, they met people who spoke different dialects. This interaction with other people tainted Setswana’s purity. “Notwithstanding the influence on Setswana purity, Batswana people do not always agree which linguistic elements are correct or not” (Ramagoshi, 1990: 7). Teachers from different regions use dialects based on what they consider appropriate for their region. However, numerous learners around Pretoria are not mindful of the different dialects in Setswana. Their only opportunity to write Standard Setswana is in the classroom, and they depend on their teachers to teach them accurate Setswana. From the many Setswana dialects discussed above, a dialect had to be chosen to avoid confusion. The other reason was that Lehurutshe occupied the same geographical area where they are believed to have lived for a long time and from where the other Batswana tribes are believed to have originated. Its geographical situatedness, namely, its central position, resulted in the ‘Sehurutshe’ dialect being influenced minimally by other African languages. As such, it can be anticipated to have maintained more sound structures and characteristics of the original Setswana speech forms than other Setswana dialects. However, even though Sehurutshe has been regarded as a standard language, not all the words and phrases from Sehurutshe are regarded as standard.

For instance, in standard Setswana, Sehurutshe *utswitse* = *utswile* , with the English translation: (stolen) and *Ba go bone* = *ba go bonye* in the English translation: (They saw you); *Ke nna fela* = *ke nna hela* translated into English as : (I am the only one). The standardisation of Setswana is particularly challenging in a multilingual society like South Africa. Language is dynamic and changes, based on the area and the prevailing circumstances, and according to the time. The speaking and writing of proper Setswana are also compromised by a number of non-standard dialects, which are discussed below.

From the definitions referred to above, it can be inferred that a standard variety of a language is most often associated with specific subgroups that are usually educated people or those with a high status and authority in society.

2.2.4 Non-standard language variety (NSLV)

Crystal (1987: 34) posits that, “Languages that were not selected for standardisation and not recognised as official languages in the Constitution of South Africa are often referred to as non-standard varieties.” He continues by stating that the term “variety,” is used in sociolinguistics to refer to any system of linguistic expression whose use is influenced by situational factors.

Mojela (1999: 14) conducted research on the cause of urban slang (NSLV) and its effect on the development of the Sepedi lexicon. He points out that there are many instances where slang (or non-standard varieties) terms are used, deliberately or unintentionally, in the form of code-switching with the native languages in formal speech or informal conversations. This means learners’ experiences influence their learning and acquisition of the standard Setswana when writing. For example, using words like *thoma* instead of *simolola* (start), ‘kreya’ instead of *fitlhela* (find), and these possible errors could be due to non-standard language known as Sepitori since it is the common language spoken to most of Winterveldt residents.

Calteaux (1996: 38) defines non-standard language as “a variety which does not conform to the ‘institutionalised norms’ of the standard language”. He further says that non-standard dialects are not socially equal to the standard dialect; that is, speaking the standard dialect is associated with a high socio-economic prestige.

Crystal (1985: 329) also adds that ‘non-standard (or even substandard) is not intended to suggest that these varieties ‘lacks standard’ in any linguistic sense. A non-standard dialect is a dialect that does not have the institutional support or sanction that a standard language has.

2.2.5 Sepitori

Ditsele and Mann (2014) state that Sepitori is mainly a ‘mixed language’ a product of Setswana (L1 = 5.8 million) and Northern Sotho (L1 = 4.7 million); (RSA, Census:2011), of which the two are mutually intelligible. Ditsele (2014) also defines Sepitori as a prestigious non-standard variety spoken by urban dwellers of the Tshwane metropolitan, municipal region and its neighbouring areas (Tshwane and surrounds).

Sepitori is a pidgin language. Pidgins and Creoles are languages developed by groups of people, who do not share the same language, and who must communicate with one another (Siegel, 2005). According to Schuring (1985), the exact era when Sepitori emerged as a variety cannot be pinpointed, but it does appear that it has a connection with Pretoria’s history, a city that is more than 150 years old. Since Sepitori has existed for well over 100 years, it is reasonable to assume that it has had several generations of L1 speakers, including today.

Schuring (1985) states that: ‘Pretoria Sotho is basically the once-dominant Kgatla dialect of Hammanskraal with additions mainly from Pedi [Sepedi], Afrikaans and English’. Calteaux, (1996: 52) agrees that: “linguistically, Pretoria Sotho is based on the Kgatla dialect of Tswana [Setswana] to which has been added many words from Northern Sotho [Sepedi] and a few from Southern Sotho [Sesotho], as well as adoptive from Afrikaans and English.” There is no question thus, given the basic approaches of language contact dynamics (Hymes, 1971).

According to Mokgoko (2019), Sepitori is the result of the migration of people from one area to the other, because of reasons such as, job seeking, and inter-cultural marriages have influenced the speaking and writing of the standard Setswana language. The author continues by pointing out that Pretoria is a place where many languages are spoken. These mixed varieties led to the development of a non-standard dialect called Pretoria-Sotho. Pretoria-Sotho is spoken mostly around Atteridgeville, Mamelodi, Soshanguve, Ga-Rankuwa and Mabopane. Linguistically, it has features of several languages, and is not an official language and cannot be written anywhere. The author also states that “Pretoria-Tswana, is the urban *lingua franca* of Pretoria and Tshwane metropolitan area in South Africa. It is a combination of Setswana and Northern-Sotho (Pedi), with the influences from Tsotsitaal, Afrikaans and other black African languages and is spoken by blackest residents of all ages.”

According to Ramagoshi (1990: 8) Sepedi (Northern Sotho) has a powerful influence on Setswana as spoken around many townships in Pretoria and impacts the language the community speaks at large; moreover it specifically affects the language learners and how they speak in schools. As a result, learners in the township schools tend to use Sepitori in their academic writing because of the different languages existing in their townships.

2.2.6 Code-mixing (CM)

Thamaga (2012: 8) asserts that there is an assumption that code-mixing (CM) is used by people who are not highly qualified. Like code-switching, code-mixing is also a contributing factor to the adoption or borrowing of language structures and can be regarded as an acceptable bilingual strategy.

Below, is an example of code-mixing, which is commonly known as intra-sentential mixing:

Ke batla go bua le my principal, go na le something se se ntshwenyang.

Instead of saying: *Ke batla go bua le mogokgo wa me, go na le sengwe se se ntshwenyang.*
English version is: [I want to talk to my principal; there is something that bothers me].
Code-mixing occurs within a sentence, and it is also known as intra-sentential mixing.

According to Mokgwathi (2011: 14), intra-sentential mixing ‘‘involves a single morpheme, phrases or clause along with words, phrases and clauses from another language within the same sentence.’’

Wardhaugh (1992: 106) and Bokamba (1988: 24), in Moodley (2001: 9) define code-mixing as ‘‘the deliberate mixing of various linguistic units such as affixes, words, phrases and clauses from two (or more) languages within the same sentence, in the course of a single utterance, without an associated change in the topic.’’ Kieswetter (1995: 22) defines code-mixing as ‘‘linguistic units which contain morphemes from both languages within single words which have not been lexically, phonologically integrated into the host language.’’

2.2.7 Code-switching (CS)

Code-switching (CS) is generally thought of as the alternating use of two or more linguistic varieties (languages, dialects of the same language, registers of the same language) at the

expression, phrase, clause, or sentence level in the course of a discourse. Poplack (1980:583) believes that, in theory, “slang varieties such as *tsotsitaal* seem to be of a low standard,” particularly when considering facts such as the following:

- A deficiency of orthographies;
- A practice entailing the continuous and rapid variation of terminology;
- Their association with youths; and
- Their association with the criminal elements in society.

Mojela (1990:19) notes that ‘the purity of the language (Northern Sotho) is destroyed by the use of many words from foreign non-standardised registers, that is, urban slang such as *flytaal*, which, it is feared, might reduce the language to the status of a mere street or gangster language’. Hence, the use of code-switching in formal settings by learners in classroom situations may be likely found in Tshwane, Winterveldt.

Similarly, Khumalo also (1995:49) reasons that a standard language acquisition tends to be hampered by non-standard varieties learned by L1 learners in their environment. These learners can no longer distinguish between correct and incorrect usage, which has observable consequences for their learning and performance in the language.

The usual structural definition of code-switching is that it is the alternative use of at least two languages, or varieties of a single language, where one of the languages is an on-stage language or matrix language, that is the target language, and the other is a ‘back-stage’ or an ‘embedded’ language, which is the home language of the learners (Myers-Scotton, 1993). Milroy and Muysken (1995) define code-switching as “the alternative use by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation”. In the same vein, Numan and Carter (2001) define code-switching as the phenomenon comprising switching from one language to another in a similar discourse, while Gumperz (1982:59) refers to it as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems”. Myers-Scotton (1993) similarly continues to describe code-switching as a cover term to mean “alternations of linguistic varieties within the same conversations.” A frequently cited typology of code-switching is intra-sentential and inter-sentential, with the former occurring within the clause or sentence, while the latter taking place at the clause or sentence boundary.

According to Poplack (1980: 583), code-switching is the alteration of two languages within a single discourse and sentence. When bilingual speakers converse, they frequently integrate linguistic material from both of their languages within the same discourse segment; this process is called code-switching. Code-switching has a variety of linguistic and interactional functions. It can have simple uses in expanding vocabulary (Bonvillain, 2013: 344). Code-switching is also one of the challenges in the influences of Sepitori on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners. Below are some of the examples of code-switching made by Setswana learners when writing.

Example 1 *ke batla go bala thata endene ke pase.*

Instead of

Ke batla go buisa thata gore ke kgone go falola (I want to read so that I can pass).

Example 2 *Bolela gore ke kgone go ngwala byanong.*

Instead of

Bua gore ke kgone go kwala jaanong (Talk so that I can write now).

In every switched speech, there should be at least two languages that are used interchangeably.

In code-switching, according to Akindele and Letsoela (2001), Moyo (1996) and Myers-Scotton (1993a) inter-sentential mixing occurs, “when the speaker, after s (he) has completed a sentence in one language, switches to another language in the next sentence.”

Example: I will cook. *Ke tshwerwe ke tlala.* I will cook. I am hungry. [English] Oxford companion to the English Language (1992:228) defines code-switching as “a system of communication, spoken or written, such as a language, dialect or variety”. Tshinki (2002: 4) conducted a research study in Botswana where she investigated the nature and social functions of code-switching in Setswana. Her investigation was done around Gaborone City in various settings, such as, churches, national sports stadia, and Radio Botswana. In her study, she also wanted to determine whether code-switching is random or meaningless.

The research study, furthermore, examined the reason why bilingual speakers engage in code-switching when interrelating with other bilinguals, with whom they share a similar language. It was found that, in general, the fewer educated people’s conversations contain borrowed English words. In contrast, the conversations of the better-educated sector

comprise more examples of code-switching in sentences, but the grammatical structures of either of the languages were not violated. That is the reason why Malimabe (1990: 18) submits that code-switching means the alternating use of two or more languages during the interaction. This alternation may occur between utterances (inter-sentential) or within utterance boundaries (intra-sentential). Furthermore, Thamaga (2012: 7) code-switching as “the mixing of different units, such as prefixes, affixes, phrases, clauses and words from two different grammatical systems within the same sentence.”

On the other hand, He further points out that code-switching is more of the middle-class speakers who regard themselves as ‘educated’ and highly qualified. Code-switching in this context refers to teachers switching to different non-standard language varieties. In this case, the use of informal, spoken languages would be used in the classroom to aid the learners to understand better. An example of switching to other languages would be: *Ke ne ke go leleditse mogala phakela*. I wanted to check how you feel? Instead of saying: *Ke ne ke go leleditse mogala phakela*. *Ke ne ke go lekola gore o ikutlwa jang?* English version is: [I called you this morning. I wanted to check how you feel]. The above illustration is an example of code-switching or inter-sentential mixing. Malimabe (1990: 18) continues to explain that code-switching is a contributory factor to adoption, which is ultimately regarded as an acceptable bilingual strategy.

In the same vein, Thamaga (2012: 8) believes that when adoption is used interstitially, it helps to communicate a person’s thoughts due to lack of terminology or as a way of expressing a foreign 22 concepts in one’s mother tongue without hesitation. The use of code-switching occurs because of a lack of proficiency in the language of learning and teaching needed, to discuss and explain the subject matter. At the same time, code-switching does not seem to provide proficiency in using the language in language teaching where the goal is, amongst other things, proficient use of the standard variety of the language. A teacher serves as a role model whose language is often imitated and emulated by those he or she supervises.

Ramagoshi (2010:53) states that “code-switching and code-mixing are unavoidable where people living in urban areas, especially townships, come from different places, each speaking his/ her mother tongue. Both parties try to learn and speak each other’s language for the purpose of mutual understanding. Children growing up in such environments end up speaking a mixture of two languages. In her study, Mokgwathi (2011:15) asserts that

researchers did not believe that code-switching existed and simply regarded it as an interference act, where the speaker was an imperfect bilingual who could not conduct conversation perfectly in the language that was being used at that time. Mokgwathi further elucidates that bilinguals engage in code-switching because there are no boundaries regarding what they can or cannot mix in their speech.

To Mokgwathi (2011:16), researchers like Myers-Scotton (1988), in Myers-Scotton (1993) are in contrast with what other researchers stated about code-switching. According to Myers-Scotton (1993), code-switching signals contextual information equivalent to what is conveyed through certain grammatical, morphological, and syntactic processes in monolingual settings. Other scholars like Auer (1984:1) and Muysken (1995) agree that code-switching is “a common phenomenon in the speech of bilingual and multilingual speakers and therefore does not indicate lack of competence on the part of the speaker.” However, few studies have focused on the advantages and disadvantages of code-switching and code-mixing. Nevertheless, in her research study, Tshinki (2002: 5) discusses the advantages and disadvantages of code-switching.

Advantages of code-switching for Setswana:

- Toughens and improves the Setswana language with the new vocabulary.
- It is a conversational strategy used by bilingual communities.

Code-switching disadvantages for Setswana:

- Most people fear that Setswana might become non-existent.

Local people fear that code-switching might form cultural identity problems, especially in an urban area

.Mokgwathi (2011: 9) also gives the following disadvantages of code-switching:

- It is time-consuming because similar information is repeated in two different languages:
- It decelerates the pace of content delivery and learning through translating the same information:
- It does not endorse knowledge acquisition; and
- The practice of code-switching and (code-mixing) proposes the lack of proficiency of the language by both the teacher and the learners.

In her study, Mokgwathi (2011: 9) also notes that “the disadvantages of code-switching might “be time-consuming in the sense that it is used to repeat information rather than” to deliver new information.” She provides these two examples:

(i) “Do you understand?” Setswana translation (*A lo a tlhaloganya?*)

(ii) “The assignment is due tomorrow”. Setswana translation (*Tiro e tlisiwe ka moso*).

In the above examples, the teacher expresses exactly the same message, but in two different languages, which are English and Setswana, in order to make sure that the learners understand his/her message. These researchers have shown that in their studies, they identified the disadvantages out of code-switching, as well as the fact that the mother-tongue is crucial for global communication, since everyone internalises their mother-tongue. In a linguistically diverse community, teaching Setswana HL as a subject is challenging because learners are unlikely to be familiar with the language as the majority of learners are not Setswana speakers, which may result in them not mastering the subject Setswana HL. Tshinki (2002: 4) concludes the discussion by emphasising that “language is so closely tied to group identity and code-switching among the group is perceived as a threat to its very existence”.

It may be assumed, in short, that code-switching, as defined above, appears to promote multilingualism, bilingualism and translanguaging. This could be in line with South Africa’s efforts to promote a multilingual society. However, this may be disadvantageous to Setswana L1 learners born and raised in Winterveldt as forms of code-switching where words and phrases could creep into their language (Setswana) during the process of learning and acquisition in a school setting. For example, using a mixture of words from Sepedi or Sepitori when learning Setswana HL in a classroom situation, is condemned as the teaching is aimed at the pure acquisition of the Setswana standard language.

2.2.8 Translanguaging

‘Translanguaging’ (TL) is a relatively new linguistic concept that is widely used in addition to code-switching by many linguists, even though some see it as one and the same concept. In a multilingual society, a language activity, such as speaking, cannot be seen through a monolingual lens, based on the writing of Hlavisio and Makalela (2016). Translanguaging, they reason, shows no clear borders between languages as people move from one language to the other.

Hlavisio and Makalela (2016: 80) declare that many cognitive, social and cultural advantages (such as ubuntu) for language users, are evident in translanguaging. In addition, there are no clear distinctions between the first language, second language and mother tongue in many urban (youth) environments. Hlavisio and Makalela (2016: 81) further cite García (2009), who sees translanguaging as an activity engaged in by bilinguals who access and use different linguistic features from different recognised languages to enhance communication. They also refer to Swain (2006:89), who invented the verb ‘*linguaging*,’ derived from the noun ‘*language*’ to denote speakers’ integrated movement between languages.

Theories of translanguaging position language, not as a set of rules, structures, or discrete skills to be acquired, but as a tool for negotiating and constructing meaning between individuals and as a product of social relations (Pacheco, 2016: 8, citing Garcia, 2009; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Canagarajah: 2013; Gort, 2015). Furthermore, Pacheco (2016: 9) declares that notion of linguaging that regards language use as a social practice or activity where the speaker’s use of linguistic resources emerges through negotiating meaning with others in communicative situations. As is the case with other social practices, linguaging cannot be divorced from social contexts, and individuals’ goals when participating in communication (Pacheco 2016:8, citing Street,1984).

Pacheco (2016:9) further refers to García and Sylvan (2011), by stating that translanguaging, like linguaging, must be understood as historically and socially constructed practices, where tools for negotiating meaning develop between speakers within specific contexts. The use of code-switching by students, for example, depends on a multitude of factors, such as to whom the student is speaking, the activity in which the student is engaged, and the language norms and ideologies of the classroom. When examining the teacher and student use of translanguaging, “I take note that all linguaging is done at the level of particularity” (Pacheco, 2016: 9), where individuals adapt, construct, and employ discursive tools to negotiate meaning within social interactions.

Translanguaging must then be understood from the “bottom-up,” as it “emerges from the meaningful interaction of students with different linguistic backgrounds and their teachers” (Pacheco, 2016:9). This view of linguaging and translanguaging aligns with the notion that an individual leverages resources from a holistic linguistic repertoire in relation to contexts

for reception and goals for participation (Pacheco, 2016: 9) refers to (Bourdieu, 1977). Pacheco (2016: 10) mentions that translanguaging challenges the idea that linguistic systems are autonomous or separate within the individual, and the idea that language use is autonomous or separate from the context. Furthermore, Pacheco (2016: 10) understands translanguaging as the communicative practices associated with moving across languages during the interaction to negotiate the meaning.

Pacheco (2016:10) shares that these communicative practices also involve the deployment of semiotic resources across modalities, including the spoken language and textual artefacts, as well as gestures, facial expressions, proxemics and other ways of using the body.

In addition, Pacheco (2016:10) defines translanguaging pedagogies as the interactions among students, teachers, tools, and texts in which multiple languages and registers of speech are used in the classroom to promote student achievement.

However, exposure to translanguaging could possibly not do justice to Setswana L1 learners who are born and bred in Winterveldt and who learn the language at school, since the standard indigenous language of Setswana is not spoken and used predominantly in their communities for a full range of social functions.

2.2.9 Language acquisition (LA)

Language Acquisition (LA) includes structures, rules and portrayals. The ability to utilise language effectively expects one to secure the scope of the instruments, including phonology, morphology, linguistic structure, semantics, and a broad jargon. Moreover, language can be vocalised in discourse or in a manual as in a sign. Even though the human language is limited, one can say and comprehend an indeterminate number of sentences, which depends on a syntactic guideline called recursion. Everyone has access to three recursive components that enable sentences to be generated, namely, gelatinisation, complementation, and coordination (Lightfoot, 2010).

According to Clark (2017), between the ages of twelve and twenty months, children typically say their first words. Subsequently, they produce systematic modulations of these words during their first year of speaking. As their understanding of the world becomes more complex, they add more grammatical morphemes - prefixes, suffixes, prepositions, and postpositions. Adding morphemes to nouns, for instance, marks gender, number, and case; with regard to verbs, they mark aspect, tense, gender, number, and person. Accordingly, children may take several years to master such paradigms in a particular language.

There are three reasons for this:

- Some meaning distinctions appear to be more conceptually complex than others, and so take longer to learn;
- Some paradigms are less normal than others, and they too take longer to learn; and
- Language categorisation may affect the procedure of morphological acquisition: suffixes, for instance, are obtained more readily, and earlier, than prefixes.

Halliday (1985) explains that language acquisition entails a procedure whereby children become fluent in their native language. The term 'acquisition' is used instead of 'learning' since psychologists often use the term 'learning' in a more specific sense than is necessary. The ability to account for language acquisition within existing forms of psychological theories of 'learning' is a point of contention. The notion of a generative grammar has had a significant impact on the study of language learning. Chomsky (1968) "has argued that the speed with which children can infer the grammatical rules underlying the speech they hear about them, and then use these rules to construct utterances they have never heard before, suggests that children are born knowing" the (allegedly universal) formal principles that determine the grammatical structure of the language. This is the 'rationalist' theory (the notion of 'innate ideas,' as opposed to the 'empiricist' hypothesis, "which claims that all knowledge is derived from experience" in its most extreme form. . Chomsky's restatement of the doctrine of innate thoughts has provoked plenty of dialogue "amongst psychologists, philosophers, and linguists; and it is criticised in this chapter by Campbell and Wales." They argue, as others have, that Chomsky and many of the psychologists he influenced have not paid sufficient attention to the environmental factors involved in the development of what they call "communicative competence."

2.2.10 Language attitude

Edwards (1994:97) defines a 'language attitude' as a "disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to a language." There are three dimensions of a language attitude, based on Plato's distinction between the cognitive, affective and conative components (Baker, 1992:12), which he outlines as follows:

- The cognitive component – refers to the knowledge and/or thoughts that one has regarding a certain language (when one is communicating with speakers of that language in their own language);
- The affective component – involves emotions that are attached to a specific language (or its speakers); and
- The conative component – can be defined as the actions of someone prepared to accept or learn another language or to refuse to learn or speak it.

According to Ferguson (1966), the study of a 'language attitude', that is, how people feel about the language varieties in their speech community, may be important for the linguist from several perspectives. In language planning, particularly, one may provide indispensable data on which to base decisions about which variety to use in education or which variety to standardise for use as the official language of the government. Interestingly, a speaker's behaviour may be closely linked to his or her language attitude.

People have different attitudes when it comes to language; some have positive attitudes while others have negative attitudes. Negative attitudes towards specific attitudes sometimes have their origin in stereotyping, based on the classification of languages or varieties as official (standard) or non-standard.

2.2.11 Home language (HL)

A home language (HL) is a language that is commonly spoken by members of a family for everyday interactions at home. It is also called a first language, mother tongue, or native language.

A child's first language is part of his or her personal, social, and cultural identity, which "brings about the reflection and learning of successful social patterns of action and speech," and is responsible for the differentiation of the linguistic competence of action.

Children, who speak a language at home that is different from that used in school, often encounter discrimination and learning challenges (Lewis & Lockheed, 2006). According to Erickson (1987), differences in the ways of speaking and listening between pupils and teachers can lead to systematic and recurrent miscommunications in the classroom. Steinberg (1984) argues that the language spoken by non-English-speaking pupils in the United States may influence the way they are treated in educational institutions and their dropout rates. Language and ethnicity are deeply intertwined. In this regard, ethnicity is a social construction that indicates the identification with a particular group that is often a minority within a country. Members of ethnic groups share common cultural traits, such as their language. In turn, language contributes to the social and psychological processes involved in the formation of an ethnic identity.

A separate language helps to strengthen ethnic attachments and inter-ethnic group solidarity. The use of a local language may, thus, unify ethnic groups, but it may also isolate the members from the dominant language-speaking part of the population, and restrict them in their use of the society's legitimate resources, including education. Persons who cannot speak a country's dominant language often experience negative consequences (Fought, 2006). They have less access to written and spoken sources, cannot fulfil official jobs, are confined to their personal social group in their associations, and may depend on others for important information (Smits 2003). Language and ethnicity may also be intertwined with conflicts, inequity, and discrimination (Cornell & Hartmann, 1998; Lewis, 2006). In terms of educational attainment, people who do not speak the language of instruction have fewer opportunities to understand enrolment procedures, communicate with school officials, or understand instruction.

At school, the quality of education for these pupils is lower, because they do not understand what is being taught. This leads to inequalities of opportunity (Benson, 2005). For instance, Lewis and Lockheed (2006) have found indications that the cross-country correlation between ethnolinguistic fractionalisation in developing countries and learning achievements is negative. The result suggests that, in countries with a high linguistic diversity, the educational system is not able to take this diversity into account adequately.

2.2.12 Curriculum and assessment policy statement (CAPS)

According to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (2012: 8), the HL level (L1) provides for language skills that reflect “the basic interpersonal communication skills required in social situations and the cognitive academic skills essential for learning across the curriculum.” Emphasis is placed on teaching listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing at this level of the language. This level should also provide learners with the literary, aesthetic, and imaginative skills that enable them to recreate, imagine, and strengthen their understanding of the world in which they live.

Khumalo (1995: 49) acknowledges the influence of non-standard varieties, particularly among the younger generations. The language acquisition of children is severely hampered if they use non-standard varieties in their environment. These children have lost the ability to distinguish between the proper and improper use of standard languages. This also has serious consequences for the teaching of standard languages and their future.

In his article, Swanepoel (1978: 8) advances the "purist" idea of protecting our standard languages by criticising the role of urban slang (non-standard varieties) as it is mainly used in urban communities. He reasons: “Many readers of this article will immediately remark o yes that is the so-called tsotsi language of some youngsters in our towns. Who of us will not recognise these common terms?” *Cherry, groove, mca, smack, dribble, bra*, for example. My response to these academics is that this form of language is so widely used now that it has crept into compositions and other written work."

Swanepoel (1978:8) goes on to say that using this type of language (non-standard) does not result in any kind of language proficiency; rather, it demonstrates poor taste and the exact reverse of what the user intended. However, the use of slang terminology (non-standard varieties) within our languages grows at an alarming pace. Non-standard languages are used not only by learners in high schools and postsecondary institutions, but also by some teachers, academics, doctors, language specialists, and a wide range of other persons who we consider to be experts in standard languages. Standard language may only be used by them in informal situations.

Ditsele (2014: 224) suggests that non-standard varieties should be used to enrich the vocabularies of standard languages in order to prevent their decline. He further states that instead of admonishing L1-speaking learners of Setswana and Sepedi for using these vocabularies in their written work, it would be more beneficial to allow such vocabularies to be synonymous in the two standard languages.

The Sepitori language is not used and recognised officially as a standard language in formal situations, such as in a classroom environment. The core focus of this study was on the current influence of Sepitori forms in academic writing on Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners in the two selected high schools in Winterveldt.

2.3 Theoretical framework

Kerlinger (1986: 9) defines a theory as:

...a set of interconnected constructs, definitions, and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables with the goal of explaining and predicting phenomena. A framework is a set of ideas that you use when making decisions and making judgments (MacMillan English Dictionary, 2002: 561).

According to Kerlinger (1986), a theory can be utilised to make accurate predictions, and the theory's predictive ability can help researchers ask the right research questions. On the other hand, a framework provides a framework for explaining the relationships between variables in a phenomenon.

The following theoretical frameworks were employed to strengthen the researcher's argument in relation to Sepitori forms to determine if they truly affect the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners in the two selected high schools.

2.3.1 Behaviourist theory of language acquisition

Watson's behavioural theory, which is a psychological theory, is a theory of native language learning that was developed in part as a reaction to traditional grammar. Behaviourism, which was promoted in America as a new approach to psychology in the early decades of the twentieth century by emphasising the importance of verbal behaviour, gained a lot of traction in the 1950s educational environment. The behaviourist theory's main principle is based on the analysis of human behaviour in observable stimulus-response interactions and

the relationship between them.. Thorndike was the first behaviourist to explore the area that learning is the establishment of associations in the process of behaviour and the consequences of that behaviour. Basically, all learning is considered to involve the creation of habits as a result of reinforcement and reward in terms of the behaviourist theory of stimulus-response learning, notably as developed in Skinner's operant conditioning model (Wilga, 1968). This is similar to Pavlov's experiment, which shows that stimulus and reaction are linked. According to this group, babies learn local language habits through a variety of babblings that approximate acceptable words repeated by a person or item nearby. Because he gets rewarded for his babblings and mutterings, this reward supports additional articulations of the same sort into syllable and word groupings in a similar circumstance. As a result, he continues to emit sounds and groups of sounds, and as he grows older, he combines sentences using generalisations and analogy (as in *goed for went, *doed for did, and so on), which, in some complicated cases, condition him to commit errors by articulating permissible speech structures. By the age of five or six, their babbling and mutterings have progressed to socialised speech, but they are gradually internalised as implicit speech, and many of their utterances are indistinguishable from those of adults. This, then, means that the behaviourist theory is a theory that subscribes to the stimulus-response psychology. Children gradually learn to make finer and finer discriminations through a process of trial-and-error in which acceptable utterances are reinforced by comprehension and approval, and unacceptable utterances are inhibited by the lack of reward, until their utterances approximate the speech of the community in which he is growing up more and more closely (Wilga, 1968).

In other words, children have a natural affinity for learning the language of their social surroundings, which should never be underestimated in terms of language learning and teaching. In this regard, behaviourist theory emphasises that "human and animal learning is a habit formation process." According to this theory, an overly complex learning task may be learned by being broken' down into small habits.

All verbal or non-verbal learning takes place through the same underlying process. Learners receive linguistic input from speakers in their environment, and positive reinforcement for their correct repetitions and imitations. As a result, language habits are formed (Lightbown & Spada, 1993). The behaviourist theory (BT) accepts that "newborn children take in oral language from other human examples through a procedure including

impersonation, rewards, and practice. Human examples in a new-born child's condition give the boosts and rewards" (Cooter & Reutzler, 2004). At the point when a child attempts to utter the oral language or copies the sounds or discourse designs, they are normally applauded and given recognition for their endeavours. In this way, recognition becomes a reward. Be that as it may, the behaviourist theory is examined for a variety of reasons. If rewards play such a fundamental role in language improvement, should something not be said about the parent who is negligent or not present when the teenagers try to communicate? If an infant's language learning is motivated by rewards, the communication would stop simply because of the absence of rewards (Cooter & Reutzler, 2004).

According to Cooter and Reutzler (2004), behaviourist theory is the belief that infant babies learn oral language from other human role models through a process involving imitation, rewards, and practice. Moreover, behaviourist theory was employed, because it is relevant to the study since learners learn Sepitori in communities where they become accustomed to the language and use it daily to communicate. Human role models provide stimuli, incentives, and rewards in an infant's environment. Other arguments against this theory include learning to use and understand abstract words, evidence of novel forms of language that have not been modelled by others, and the uniformity of language acquisition in humans (Cooter & Reutzler, 2004:614).

Because of its socially conditioned nature, learning can be the same for each individual. To put it another way, each person can learn equally if the conditions under which they learn are the same.

2.3.2 The social interactionist theory

The social interactionist theory (SIT) states that a child's acquisition of language is influenced by a combination of several factors that are linguistic, physical, and social in nature (Moodley, 2013). The principle of verbal interaction is vital for language learning; it shares the notion that the environment plays a dynamic role in the growth of language. Cognitive theories propound that language learning is a complex accomplishment involving the child's cognitive participation. Social communication, "expects that language securing is impacted by the collaboration of various elements – physical, semantic, psychological, and social" (Cooter & Reutzler, 2004).

From birth, a child is surrounded by other people who converse with him or her. This interaction has an impact on how the infant works out how to talk his or her home language. Social interactionists contend that the way an infant learns a language is both organic and social (Cooter & Reutzler, 2004).

Everybody wants to converse with children, and this "infant talk" is exposing the child to language, irrespective of whether we comprehend it or not. The Interactionist Theory postulates that children just learn language from somebody who needs to speak to them.

For instance, if a child is exposed to literature at a young age, the child will learn to perceive books as a natural feature and begin to imitate words that are read to him or her (Moodley, 2013:33). Thus, if a Motswana child is exposed to a Sepitori variety, he/she will imitate the speakers by using these contact varieties of languages and this will influence their competency in the Setswana HL.

In short, the social interactionist theory supports and suggests that in this instance, Setswana L1 learners' language acquisition is influenced by several factors, such as, linguistic, physical, and social factors. This could explain the learners' acquisition, and articulateness in Sepitori rather than in the standard Setswana learned at school. Because the Setswana L1 learners' instant language of contact in Winterveldt and Tshwane as a metropolitan region is mainly non-standard varieties such as Sepitori. As a result, the language behaviour of the Setswana L1 learners could be prompted by their linguistic environment and the language behaviour that they are exposed to in their environment.

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter provided a critical analysis of the theoretical literature on the effects and possible ways that may influence the learning and acquisition of Setswana by L1 learners who were born and raised in Winterveldt. It also included definitions of concepts pertaining to this study and also discussed theories of language learning such as the behaviourist theory of language acquisition, and the social interactionist theory. Various scholars have discussed and acknowledged the influence of non-standard language varieties in the learners' writings while trying to master the standard language. These varieties include Sepitori. While other scholars may also have argued that the influence of non-standard language varieties could be used to enrich the vocabularies of the standard languages, and it became clear that non-standard language varieties could be influencing the efforts to gain mastery of the pure standard language.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a description of the research process. It also provides information on the methods used in this research as well as a justification for the use of these methods. This study aimed to explore the influence of Sepitori forms on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners and explore how Setswana teachers could strive to prevent the Sepitori from interfering with their academic writing in Setswana. The chapter also described the various stages of the research, which included, the research design, the research approach, the data collection process, the selection of participants and the data analysis process.

According to Chilisa (2012: 3), “the methodology summarizes the research process, that is, how the research will proceed. The methodology is where assumptions about the nature of reality and knowledge, values, and theory and practice on a given topic come together.”

3.2. Research design

A framework of procedures and techniques adopted by a researcher to combine the diverse components of the study in a relatively logical manner so that the research topic is handled efficiently is known as the research design. “Every researcher has a list of research questions” that must be evaluated; this can be accomplished through the use of a research design (Bryman, 2003).

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), a study design is "a flexible set of rules that connect theoretical paradigms first to inquiry tactics and then to empirical data collection methodologies.". According to the researcher, a research design is a sequential method through which the research will be carried out in order to contribute to the achievement of the intended goal.

Leedy (1997) defines a research design as a study plan that provides the overall framework for the data collection process. It is defined as "a plan for selecting subjects, research sites, and data collection procedures to answer the research question(s)" by MacMillan and Schumacher (2001:166). They add that the goal of a good research design is to produce results that are deemed credible. In turn, Durrheim (2004: 29) defines a research design as

"a strategic framework for action that serves as a link between research questions and the execution, or implementation, of the research strategy."

This study gathered data from Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners who were attending the two local public high schools in the Winterveldt township. Accordingly, interviews were conducted with five male and five female learners from each school. The ten learners from each school were given a topic on which to write a two-page Setswana essay for one hour. The researcher provided a rubric to mark the essays. In addition, eight Setswana teachers, four from each selected high school teaching Setswana as a subject, also took part in the study and were interviewed during the research investigation.

The purpose of this study was to determine how much influence Sepitori had on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners, and to determine what Setswana teachers were doing to prevent the interference of Sepitori forms in the use of standard Setswana.

3.2.1 "A case study is a general term for the exploration of an individual, group, or phenomenon," writes Sturman (1997: 62). Furthermore, a case study is a comprehensive description of an individual case and its analysis, that is, the characterisation of the case and the events, as well as a description of the process of discovery of these features, which is the research process itself (Mesec, 1998:45). In this instance, the exploration, description and analysis focused on the Sepitori forms produced by Grade 12 Setswana learners in their academic writing

In turn, Mesec (1998:45) defines a case study within the context of social work, but it can also be applied to other fields. It is defined as "a description and analysis of an individual matter or case with the goal of identifying variables, structures, forms, and orders of interaction between the participants in the situation (theoretical purpose), or to assess the performance of work or progress in development (practical purpose)."

Sagadin (1991) provides another definition of a case study as follows:

It is used when we analyse and describe in detail, for example, each person individually (his or her activity, special needs, life situation, life history, etc.), a group of people (a school department, a group of students with special needs, teaching staff, etc.), individual institutions or a problem (or several problems), process, phenomenon, or event in a particular institution, etc.

For example, in this research study, the presence of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners was measured individually through data collection methods such as text analysis of texts (essays) and qualitative interviews.

Furthermore, case studies emphasise a developmental factor, implying that the cases are generated and evolve over time, frequently as a series of specific and interconnected events that occur in "that particular time and that particular place" (Mesec, 1998:46). In addition, a case study, according to Simons (2009:47), "is an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a specific project, policy, institution, program, or system in real-life." Simons (2009:47) also emphasises that a case study should not be viewed as a method in and of itself, but should rather be seen as a design framework that may include a variety of methods. According to Stake (2005:443), a case study is not a methodological choice, but rather a choice of what to study – using whatever methods we choose to study the case. In turn, Flyvberg (2011), notes that deciding to use a case study in our research does not imply a choice of method, but is rather the choice of what will be explored.

In other words, a case study is a systematic and thorough method used to analyse or examine a specific problem pertaining to a designated being, group of people, a unit, or a community. This method allows the researcher to be familiar with and understand the matter under investigation and is used to answer the research questions. A case study method is primarily used in social and life sciences research.

According to Flyvbjerg (2011:302), case studies were one of the first types of research used in the field of qualitative methodology. Today, they account for a significant portion of the research presented in books and articles in psychology, history, education, and medicine, to name a few fundamental sciences (Flyvbjerg, 2011:302). Case study research has produced much of what we know today about the empirical world, "and many of the most treasured classics in each discipline are case studies" (Flyvbjerg, 2011:302).

Thus, a case study examined and produced in-depth data related to several variables. This method made it possible to tackle complex and broad topics and then formulate manageable research questions based on topics under research.

3.3. Research approach

According to Creswell (2017), research approaches are research plans and procedures “that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed data collection, analysis, and interpretation methods.” In his review of research methodology, Singh (2006: 1) delineates research as the process of arriving at a dependable solution to a problem through the planned and systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of data. This then essentially elucidates that it is essential to understand the application of the available research techniques and further identify which of these techniques are relevant to be adopted and which are not useful for the established research problem (Kothari, 2004: 8). The very nature of the research problem governs the choice of the research methodology used in a project (Noor, 2008). As a result, the research problem itself is, in turn, solved systematically using the meticulously chosen research methodology (Kothari, 2000: 7). In essence, all research commences with choosing an approach and in preparation of the design in terms of selecting the techniques, and instruments for gathering data, processing, and interpreting the gathered information, and finally presenting the findings and conclusions to the research problem (Kumar, 2015). Furthermore, Kumar (2015) is of the view that research methods vary with the discipline and nature of the research problem under investigation; as such, it is important to note that every research approach will adopt a corresponding research design.

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) describe qualitative research as a multifaceted research method involving an interpretative, naturalistic approach to the subject matter. The descriptive nature of qualitative research allows readers to comprehend the significance of “the experience, the distinct nature of the problem, and the impact of the problem” assumptions upon which the study is based (Myers-Scotton, 2001).

According to Moore (1996), qualitative research involves the study of phenomena using general descriptions to describe or explain them. In addition, qualitative researchers frequently use narrative descriptions of people, events, and relationships. Their findings may be presented as categories or general statements about the complexities of individuals,

groups, or events. Denzin, and Lincoln (2000: 3) explain that qualitative research is a situated activity that situates the observer in the world. It comprises a set of interpretive and material practices that make the world visible. These practices have a positive impact on the world. Qualitative research at this level entails an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world.

Furthermore, Fouché and Delport (2002: 79) comment that qualitative research is defined as research that elicits participant accounts of meaning, experience, or perceptions. It also generates descriptive data in the participant's own words, whether written or spoken. As a result, it entails determining the participant's beliefs and values that underpin a phenomenon. As a result, qualitative research is concerned with comprehension rather than explanation, naturalistic observations rather than controlled measurements, and the subjective exploration of reality from the perspective of an insider rather than the outsider perspective prevalent in the quantitative paradigm.

As a result, a qualitative study is concerned with non-statistical methods and small samples that are often purposefully chosen. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000: 156), on the other hand, define qualitative research as "research conducted using a variety of methods that uses qualifying words and descriptions to record and investigate aspects of social reality." In general, qualitative research is used to "answer questions about the complex nature of phenomena, often to describe and understand the phenomena from the participants' point of view," according to Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 94).

The qualitative approach, also known as the interpretative or constructivist approach, is concerned with "how meanings are created and negotiated" (Schwandt, 1998). Thus, interpretive approaches are defined as those that approach research in an idiographic manner (focusing on the individual). The constructivist approach entails an epistemological position in which knowledge is viewed as constructed. These approaches are focused on analysing single processes or functions. Constructivist approaches to psychology manifest themselves across a remarkable spectrum. (Gerstenmaier & Mandl, 2001) According to Terr Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter (2006), qualitative research aims to "make sense of feelings, experiences, social situations, or phenomena as they occur in the real world." Makgai (2015: 11) proposes that a qualitative method aims to "provide an in-depth understanding of human behaviour and the reasons that govern such behaviour."

This study employed a qualitative approach and text analysis as the data collection methods. The researcher's decision to employ these two research approaches was motivated by the aim of obtaining in-depth information to determine whether Sepitori influenced the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners. The data collected in this regard were relevant to the research to help answer the research questions indicated in this study since all the answers were answered in detail. The Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners were given a topic on which to write an essay in Setswana for one hour. Non-standard varieties were also picked up in the Grade 12 Setswana HL essays, which helped the study to reach conclusions based on the Sepitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners.

The researcher chose the Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners because they had spent 12 years learning Setswana from Grade 1 onwards, and therefore, they should have been proficient in Setswana, and their performance in this language should also have been good.

3.4 Research instruments

Research instruments are suitable tools that the researcher utilises to collect data for his or her research study and are the devices that researchers use to gather the data for their research project practically. There are many research instruments from which the researcher can choose (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Furthermore, using more than one research instrument has certain advantages when conducting any social research project (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). Doody and Noonan (2013) advise that it is essential for the researcher to engage actively in the research process by listening and probing the answers given by the participants in the interview by using a note-taking method "that does not distract from or interfere with the interview."

Bucher, Fritz and Quarantelli (1956: 360) claim that, more recently, audio recording devices have become essential in terms of technically aiding researchers in the social sciences. Essentially, the use of audio recorders has played an important role in quality control, checking for data gaps, and correcting erroneous data.

Bucher (1956: 360) points out that the audio recorded interview ensures that the gathered information is not omitted, distorted, or condensed and further facilitates an evaluation regarding the adequacy of the information relative to how the researcher conducted the

interview. In the same vein, May (1989) avers that the use of audiotapes has several attractive features, including validating how accurate and complete the data that have been collected are, as well as reducing errors that the researcher may make with regard to the data, such as incorrectly assuming and recording an answer to a question that was not part of the interview. Moreover, audio recording is preferable to note-taking since it saves time and eliminates the tasks of correcting, rewriting, reconstructing, or editing the written interview notes (Bucher *et al.*, 1956:360. For this study, the researcher used an audio recorder, an appointment schedule, an interview questionnaire, a pen and a notebook as the data collection instruments during the interview process.

3.5. Data collection methods

Depending on the objectives of the study, the researcher may use either a qualitative or a quantitative approach, or both. Zohrabi (2013: 254) notes that it is crucial to pose close-ended questions to obtain quantitative results, and to gain qualitative results, one should use open-ended questions through interviews and observations. Thus, the chosen data collection instruments for the study fall under qualitative research approaches. The researcher made use of qualitative methods, namely semi-structured interviews and text analysis, to collect the data for this study.

3.5.1 Text analysis

A text can be used as a research instrument. Mona (2011: 17) cites Brown and Yule (1983), who define a text as “the verbal record of communication” and is an instance of language in use rather than language as an abstract system of meaning and relationships. Therefore, the role of text analysis may entail examining a text systematically and in detail, typically to explain and interpret it.

Frey, Botan and Kreps (1999) explain that:

.The purpose of textual analysis is to describe the content, structure, and functions of the messages contained in texts. Important considerations in the textual analysis include selecting the types of texts to be studied, acquiring appropriate texts, and determining which particular approach to analyse them.

The Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners were given a topic on which to write an essay in Setswana of about 400-450 words for one hour. The essays were analysed to identify the common errors and the frequent use of examples of Sepitori forms in their writing.

3.5.2 Interviews

Creswell (2010) defines an interview as a two-way conversation in which the interviewer asks the participant questions to collect data and learn about the participants' ideas, beliefs, views, and behaviours “to see the world through the eyes of the respondents|.” Accordingly, interviews were conducted with ten Grade 12 Setswana learners comprising five females and five males from each selected high school. Similarly, eight Setswana teachers, four from each high school, were interviewed using semi-structured interview questions.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 166) argue that during interviews, the researcher allows the interviews to develop in various situations and uses relevant questions as the interview progresses. As the situation is new, it is difficult to predict specific questions that may be needed in order to elicit the necessary information. It may, in certain circumstances, pose the risk of wasting time on irrelevant information. However, there is a good chance of obtaining positive feedback as it provides the best way of evaluating attitudes, motivation and behaviour since it allows face-to-face interactions and has the potential to generate discussions (Schwartz & Wilde, 1979).

Bailey (1994) cites Gubuza (2004: 63) who provides the advantages of the interview as a research instrument:

- Flexibility – applies where the researcher will have to use probing questions to get more specific answers.
- Response rates – exist where people who cannot read and write will be able to answer questions.
- Non-verbal behaviour – the interviewer will be able to observe respondents' behaviour and make an assessment.
- Control over the environment – the interviewer needs to look for an appropriate interview environment.

- Question order – the interviewer will be able to ask all the questions to ensure that the process is complete.
- Spontaneity – the answers given may be informative and less normative as they would be recorded immediately; and
- Only the respondents can answer – answers come directly from the interviewee, and there is no cheating.

Creswell (1994: 150) expresses similar ideas to those held by Bailey (1994) by stating that interviews give the respondents a chance and the time to share their reality. The following are some disadvantages of interviews as a research instrument as noted by Bailey (1994, in Gubuz, 2004):

- The costs of an interview are high, and that can include training and travelling expenses.
- Interviews can take long, especially if an interviewer needs to travel; therefore, sufficient time must be provided for the convenience of the interviewees.
- During the interview sessions, stress, fatigue, or illness can affect the respondents' responses.
- Less anonymity – the interviewer will have to talk face-to-face with the respondents, and their names and addresses are given; and
- Less standardised questions may be required when the interviewer has to probe or rephrase the question, and in the end, it would be difficult to get a clear answer, and the lack of accessibility of the respondents may also be a challenge as they may be too far to be reached, thereby rendering the process impossible or expensive.

Babbie (2007) points out that there are three major categories of interviews, namely, structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews. He continues by saying that the difference between each type of interview largely pertains to how an interview is structured. According to Corbetta (2003: 270), semi-structured interviews are defined by the order in which the various topics are addressed, and the wording of the questions is left to the interviewer's discretion. Within each topic, the interviewer is free to conduct the conversation in any way he or she sees fit, ask the questions he or she sees fit in the words he or she sees fit, and explain and ask for clarification if the answer is not clear. That is the reason why Kajornboon (2004: 75) recommends semi-structured interviews because it gives the interviewer more freedom than is the case with structured interviews in which the

interviewer does not have to adhere to a detailed interview guide. Patton (2002: 343) explains that exploring, probing, and asking questions will elucidate and illuminate that specific subject to initiate a conversation within a specific subject area, receive spontaneous responses, and establish a conversational style but with a predetermined focus on a specific topic

This study used semi-structured interviews that entailed using open-ended questions, and learners had an opportunity to ask questions where they did not understand, and the researcher explained what they did not understand. Secondly, this study employed semi-structured interviews for an in-depth exploration to determine whether Sepitori forms had any influence on Setswana L1 learners' academic writing.

3.6 Population and sample

3.6.1 Population

A population, according to Mark (1996:105), is "the collection of all individuals, families, groups, or organizations, communities, and events that will participate in the study." Similarly, Bless, and Higson-Smith (2000: 85) define a population as the set of elements on which the research is focused and from which the results should be generalised. Polit and Hungler (1999:37) note that a population refers to the aggregate of the objects, subjects, or members according to a set of materials or specifications. The population of this study was all the Grade 12 Setswana learners and Setswana teachers from selected high schools in Winterveldt. Given the timeframe for the study and the number of Grade 12 Setswana learners, it was impossible to investigate all the Setswana learners and teachers, which is why sampling had to be carried out.

3.6.2 Sample

A sample is a selection or a number of individuals who are selected from the population to participate in the research study. This sample is chosen to provide a researcher with the required information from which to draw conclusions.

According to Willem and Irmstraud (2014: 9), one must choose a specified number of units from a population during sampling. Therefore, a sample is a portion or fraction of a whole or a subset of a larger set chosen by the researcher to take part in a research project (Brink, 1996).

Therefore, the sample comprised 20 Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners between the ages of 17 and 20, ten from each school and eight Setswana teachers, four from each school. Interviews were conducted with five males and five females from each school. Similarly, five male and five female learners from each school were also given a topic on which to write a two-page Setswana essay for one hour. The researcher provided a rubric to mark the essays. Eight Setswana teachers, four from each selected high school who were teaching Setswana as a subject, were also requested to take part in the study as they were interviewed during the research investigation.

3.7 Demographic profile of teachers

Table 3.1 below shows the demographic profile of the teachers who participated in this study. Eight Setswana teachers were interviewed, and this is their demographic profile which shows that six teachers who were interviewed, were females, comprising 75% of the combined total from School A and School B, together with two males who were Setswana teachers that comprised 25% of the total. Three teachers between the ages of 35 and 50, made up 37.5% of the total and five Setswana teachers were between the ages of 51 and 60, comprising a percentage of 62.5%. Their highest qualifications were also supplied, which shows that seven teachers had obtained a bachelor's degree in education with a percentage of 87.5% and one teacher had attained a postgraduate certificate in education comprising a percentage of 12.5%. The focus also fell on the teaching experience of the teachers. There were four teachers, namely 50%, who had spent between 10 and 20 years teaching Setswana. In addition, there were also four teachers (50%) had been teaching Setswana for between 21 and 30 years.

Table 3.1: Demographic profile of teachers

Variables	Categories	Numbers	Percentage
Sex	Female	6	75%
	Male	2	25%

Age range	35-50	3	37.5%
	51-60	5	62.5%
Highest academic qualification	BED	7	87.5%
	PGCE	1	12.5%
Experience in teaching Setswana	10-20	4	50%
	21-30	4	50%

3.8. Demographic profiles of learners

Table 3.2 below shows the demographic profile of Grade 12 Setswana learners who participated in this study. Ten were females, while ten were males. The researcher ensured that both gender roles were represented during the study in order to strengthen the validity of the research findings. The age range was between the ages of 17 and 20 years, and 100% of the learners participated.

Table 3. 2: Demographic profile of learners

Variables	Categories	Number	Percentage
Sex	Female	10	50%
	Male	10	50%
Age range	17	4	20%
	18	11	55%
	19	4	25%

Variables	Categories	Number	Percentage
	20	1	5%

3.9. Sampling procedures

Many types of sampling are possible when conducting research, although researchers using qualitative research usually focus on relatively small samples (Blundell and Scott, 1998). In general, research participants are chosen because they can “provide rich descriptions of their experiences and are willing to articulate their experiences, thereby providing” rich information that can challenge and enrich the researcher's understanding` (Hutchinson & Wilson, 1991).

The researcher used purposive sampling to select teachers, because schools have specific teachers who can teach Setswana HL; therefore, not every person could take part in this study. “Those who were available and willing to participate” were considered for this study (Leedy, 1997; Fink & Kosecoff, 1998; Neuman, 1997).

According to Struwig and Stead (2001: 11), non-probability sampling is divided into five types, namely, convenience sampling, quota sampling, snowball sampling, self-selection sampling and purposive sampling. Bailey (1982: 99) explains that with purposive sampling or judgmental sampling, the investigator does not “just pick the nearest warm bodies, as in convenience sampling.” The researcher makes his or her own decision about which respondents are best suited to the study's objectives.

Purposive sampling is relevant to this study as Burns (2000: 463) proposes that “it serves the real purpose and objectives of the researcher of discovering, gaining insight and understanding into a particular phenomenon.”

Purposive sampling entails selecting a sample “on the basis of your own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of your research aims” (Babbie, 1990: 97). The aim is to ensure that the population is “non-randomly selected based on a particular characteristic” Frey (2000: 132).

3.10 Convenience sampling

The researcher used convenience sampling to select learners since all the learners were studying Setswana HL in the selected high schools in Winterveldt; convenience sampling was appropriate for selecting participants who were readily available and easily accessible (Bradshaw, 2017). Etikan (2016) states that convenience sampling is applied where participants from the targeted population are sampled according to certain practical criteria, such as how easily accessible they are in terms of their geographical proximity and their availability at a specific time, or their willingness to partake in the study. Similarly, other scholars have expressed the same view and have pointed out that convenience sampling is mainly used based on the availability of subjects (Lopez & Whitehead, 2013; Struwing & Stead, 2001).

Therefore, convenience sampling was used to select learners since the study took place in two selected high schools in Winterveldt: this made it easier to carry this study out in the geographical neighbourhood of the learners, and it was easy for them to participate as they were readily available to take part that time. Since they did not live far from their schools. Figure 3.1 below depicts the home languages of teachers from School A and School B who participated in this study.

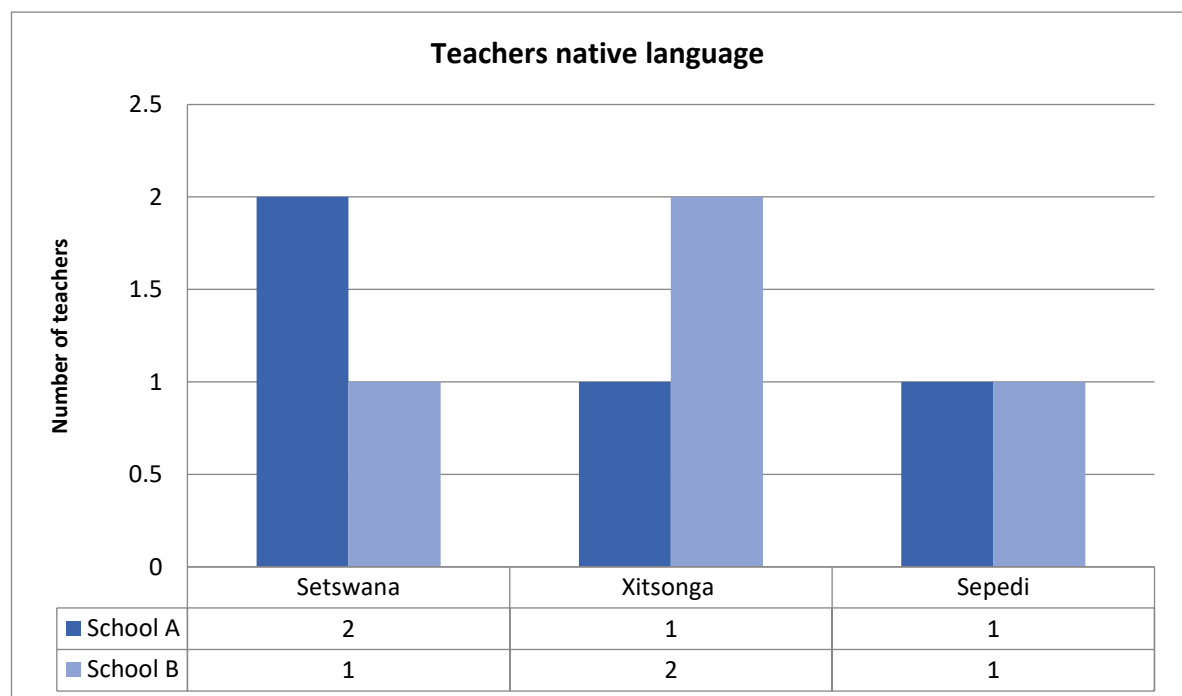


Figure 3.1: Teachers' native language

Teachers who were Setswana native speakers from School A comprised 50% of the sample, and in the case of School B, the teachers who were Setswana native speakers entailed 25% of the sample, Xitsonga native speakers at School A made up 25% and 50% at School B, and, 25% were Sepedi native speakers from both schools. This highlights the fact that not all the Setswana teachers were Setswana native speakers, instead, teachers at these selected schools taught Setswana HL even though it was not their home language, which may be why teachers frequently relied on code-switching when teaching.

Figure 3.2 below presents the demographics of the Setswana HL Grade 12 learners who participated in this study.

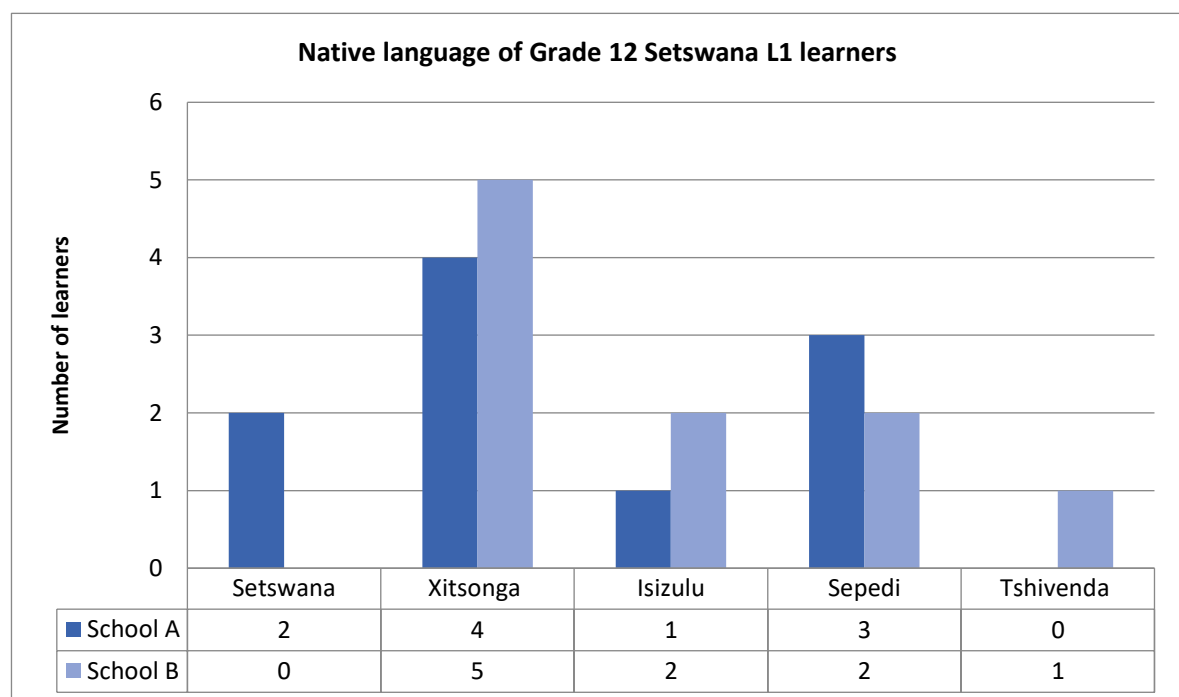


Figure 3.2: Learners’ native language

Figure 3.2 above, confirms that the majority of learners learning Setswana were not Setswana speakers at home; they learned Setswana because it was the only language available. Furthermore, some students were required to study Setswana by their parents as their home language in school. It is evident that the use of and mastering Setswana HL as a subject was a serious challenge for these learners as the other languages had an influence, as learners spoke a different language in their community from which they spoke at home. It also showed that when learners were given Setswana homework to do, they could experience some difficulties when doing their homework, because they might not get help from their parents, especially when both parents were not Setswana mother-tongue

speakers. According to the 2011 census, Xitsonga is the most dominant language and this table attests to that, because most learners who participated in this study were Xitsonga language speakers.

3.11 Data analysis method

According to Creswell (2014: 212), a data analysis method is a continual process during research, which involves analysing the information supplied by the participants. The researcher used text analysis and qualitative interviews to analyse the data. To analyse the qualitative data, the participant's responses were recorded, and transcriptions were made for the thorough interpretation of the data, following which the researcher coded the data collected according to the respondents. Qualitative data analysis helps the researcher answer the study's questions specifically through the descriptive data it provides (O'Connor & Gibson, 2003). This descriptive information often comes from a variety of sources in research, such as interview transcripts, surveys/questionnaires, and observations (O'Connor & Gibson, 2003).

Text analysis was also applied as an approach to analysing learners' essays, which helped the researcher get in-depth information on how the Sepitori form influences the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners. that were given to them. From the errors found in Setswana essays, it was evident that Sepitori had an influence on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners. The data were also read and sorted into themes, which helped the researcher to analyse the data collected from Setswana teachers and learners.

3.12. Field problems

The interview took 16 days at each school since the learners needed a clear understanding of some of the questions that were asked, and others needed clarification of some of the questions in Setswana so they could get a clear understanding. Other learners were complaining about transport, since the study took place after school, and the researcher had to let them go, but continued with them the following day. Other challenges encountered were the absence of learners from schools, and the researcher had to wait for them until they came to school and due to the pandemic, it was difficult to hear their views because of the covering of their mouths with masks, and they had to repeat some of the answers that were stated to avoid taking their mask off their mouths.

On the other hand, some Setswana teachers wanted the interviews to be conducted telephonically since they normally fetched their children from the crèche after school and they were complaining about going home late at times, and their interviews took four days to gather all the information needed. Sometimes, conducting the interviews by phone was distressing as the researcher had difficulties with the network and she had to start from scratch the following day with face-to-face interviews. Similarly, it was a challenge for learners to be part of the research during normal school hours, as it could have an impact on the contact time between learners and teachers.

3.13. Ethical considerations

Given the importance of ethics in research and the challenges associated with research, universities go to great lengths to protect research participants' dignity and safety (Silverman, 2009). To comply with ethical considerations in research, all the participants consented verbally to be interviewed and participate in the study. As a result, once approached by the researcher and the purpose and process of the study were explained to them, the participants participated willingly in the study (Leedy, 2000; Neuman, 2000). "While it is common practice to request written consent," Silverman (2009) believes that highly formalised methods of obtaining consent should be avoided in favour of fostering relationships in which participants are treated ethically on an ongoing basis.

In this study, since some learners in the senior phase are still underage and cannot make important decisions on their own, the researcher requested permission to get learners' parents to sign assent forms prior to their children's participation in the research study; others were over the age of 18 and no assent forms needed to be signed by parents because they were not minors. The teacher participants who were teaching Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners, were also requested to sign consent forms prior to their participation in the research study. The study took place at two public high schools; therefore, the researcher requested permission from the Department of Basic Education to go and visit these different schools, and the principal also needed permission from the district; therefore, the researcher requested permission from the district for the study to take place. Accordingly, all the participants were informed and requested to give consent to participate in the study. In this regard, anonymity was granted where no participants' names were revealed.

Accordingly, all the participants were fully informed with regard to what the study entailed. In this regard, the participants were advised that they would not be paid, and the information would only be used for this study. The participants of this study were provided with detailed information about the study. Before the study, the researcher met the participants to discuss the whole research project. In this case, they were free to ask any questions concerning the study and any misunderstandings were clarified. This enabled them to decide whether to participate in the study or not, because it was voluntary. Before data collection, the participants were informed that the interviews would be tape-recorded to ensure that the exact words of the interviewees were not lost.

3.14 Voluntary participation and informed consent

Research practice involves acquiring informed consent, which is done by informing the participants about the research and obtaining their consent to partake in the project (Bordens & Abbott, 2011: 198). Informed consent is regarded as one of the most crucial ethical considerations a researcher needs to adhere to when conducting research (Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011). Akaranga and Makau (2016: 6) draw on the work of Arminger (1997), who explains that the terms “voluntary” and “informed consent” may be defined as the individual’s choice with the full awareness that they were engaging by their own volition, and also have an insightful understanding of what giving their own consent to participate in research entails. In this regard, Creswell (2007) suggests that the qualitative researcher should examine and present a sample consent form that can be reviewed and signed by both the researcher and the participants. With the aforementioned in mind, the researcher ensured that the participation remained purely voluntary. A written informed consent form was issued prior to the commencement of the interaction to make the participants aware of the risks and any anticipated benefits of being involved in the study. Importantly, the research participants were conscientised that their participation would not result in any monetary benefits or any form of material compensation. The amount of time anticipated for the participants to complete the interviews was also restricted in the form in which they were offered. Moreover, the participants were given the assurance that they reserved the right and freedom to withdraw from engaging in the research at any stage without any penalties. In addition, the participants were also given information leaflets that outlined the central purpose of the study as well as the procedures and methods that were involved and which granted them insight into the usefulness of the data being collected. Lastly, the participants were asked to sign the consent forms as an indication that they understood

everything that was stipulated on the form and to show that their agreement that participating had been voluntary.

3.15 Anonymity and confidentiality

Babbie (2014: 68) submits that the participants' interests and well-being are concerned with the protection of their identity. In this respect, Creswell (2007) suggests that as part of ethical considerations, the researcher must ensure the anonymity of the research participants from whom he/she gathers information; this is usually done by assigning codes, pseudonyms, or numbers to the informants. Creswell (2007) indicates that it is important to assure the participants of the confidentiality of the data pertaining to the study participants as well as the research data. This is supported by Resnik (2011: 3), who states that it remains crucially important to safeguard the confidential information obtained from the participants for publication, whether in the form of personnel records or any other form of record. During data collection, the participants were guaranteed that their identity would remain anonymous throughout and also after the completion of the study. Therefore, instead of using the actual names of the participants, codes were assigned that consisted of numbers and letters for the purpose of identifying the participants in the data presentation section of the study. Moreover, the biographical information leaflets were collected. To ensure confidentiality upon completion of data collection, the audio recordings from the interviews were secured and concealed, and only the researcher and the authorised persons, such as the supervisors, would have access to the data.

3.15. Conclusion

In this chapter, an overview of the qualitative research methods and other strategies used to collect data for this research was given. The ethical considerations, explained to the participants, made it easy for them to be willing to participate in the research study. However, challenges were encountered by the researcher, during data collection, as explained above. The following chapter presents the data and, discusses the findings of the study thematically.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the data collected from the two selected high schools in Winterveldt, north of Pretoria. This study aims to determine how much influence Sepitori forms have on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners and find out what Setswana teachers could use to prevent the interference of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana Home Language learners at the two selected public High Schools in Winterveldt. Data were collected using semi-structured interviews and text analysis.

4.2 Presentation of the findings from the text analysis

Twenty Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners from the two high schools wrote essays, on the Setswana topic provided to them by the researcher with the help of the Setswana teachers from these schools. Thereafter, all the essays were marked in accordance with the rubric designed by the researcher and the Setswana teachers.

Below are also some of the paragraphs picked up from Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners' essays, that show the Sepitori forms in their academic writing, and this attests that these learners were influenced by Sepitori when learning Setswana. Therefore, below is one paragraph from a School A learner and a School B learner. from the essays showing the mistakes that the researcher came across when reading their essays

Learner 1 essay

*Ke ne ke **thabile** thata ga ke **tepona** ke **phasitse kaone** ke ne ke sa nagane gore **nenka phasa**, ka **tepolella** gore ke tlo etsa dilo ka tsela e siameng ka bala dibuka **tsaka** gore ke falole ka dinaledi **ko** mophatong o ke yang mo ona. Ke itse **geke** tsena ko sekolong sa kwa godimo ne ke tshogile **kaone** ntse ke etsa dirutwa tse ke sa di rateng. Ke tshabile lo botsa morutabana **waka** gore ke batla go fetola dirutwa tse ntse ke di etsa **kaone** saense a ke kgone, **mara** ka tshaba go **bolela** le yena, mme **katjeko** ka **teteboga** gore aka di fetola **kaone** ka di kgona ebile ka e falola **pila**.*

Learner 2

*Gaona motho a ka se **thabe** a **phasitse**. **Lethabo laka nkeeditse** le gore ke thule ke **koloi** tsatsi **lewo**. **Mara** a ka gobala thata, kitse ke **kereya** gore ke **phasitse**, ka **shiana** ka wa **kgante** ke koloi **yetla** mo **morao gaka**, ya nthula, ke nnete gore go **thaba** gotla le go lla. Ke **rile** geke tsena kwa sekolong sa godimo, letsatsi la ntlha a ka kgona go **kereya** ditsala ka bonako. Ke ne ke nna ke didimetsi nako entshi ke sa **bolele** le motho, baithuti ba rata go tshegisa ka nna kaone ne ke apara hempe ya go **kgiega**. Go ne go se monate **kaone** ne ke **phela** ke lla tsatsi le tsatsi.*

The written essays above clearly reveal that non-standard Sepitori forms influenced the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners. This is because the standard and non-standard languages spoken at home are different from the standard Setswana taught and used in the school setting. As a result, the interference of what was mostly spoken at home (Sepitori) affects the Setswana L1 learners' ability to master the standard Setswana successfully and eventually write and speak it eloquently.

Table 4.1 below gives a summary of the Sepitori forms used respectively by Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners from two selected high schools in their essay writing.

Table 4.1: Sepitori forms in learners' essays

Sepitori	Original terms	Languages adopted from	frequencies	Setswana	English
Kaosane	Kamoso	Setswana	50%	Kamoso	Tomorrow
Thabile	Thabile	Sepedi	85%	Itumetse	Happy
Bophelo	Bophelo	Sepedi	60%	Botshelo	My life
Kereya	Krey	Afrikaans	65%	Fitlhela	Find
Patela	Betaal	Afrikaans	85%	Duela	Pay
Dipokoto	Pockets	English	70%	Dikgetse	Pockets
Phasitse	Passed	English	80%	Falotse	Pass

Sepitori	Original terms	Languages adopted from	frequencies	Setswana	English
Bereka	Werk	Afrikaans	40%	Dira	Work
Katjeko	Kajeno	Sesotho	35%	Kajeno	Today
Tura	Duur	Afrikaans	20%	tlhwathwa godimo	Expensive
Safara	Suffer	English	15%	Sotlega	Suffer

Table 4.1 above depicts the common standard and non-standard language forms selected from the Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners' essay tasks during text analysis. The non-standard language forms of Sepitori proved to be creeping into the written work of the L1 learners in their efforts to write standard Setswana. This is attested to by the overall average of 55% of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners. However, the Sepitori forms selected from the L1 learners' academic writing were also used as borrowed words from standard languages, such as Afrikaans, Sepedi, English and Sesotho. Afrikaans forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners had an overall average score of 53%, while Sepedi forms recorded an overall average of 73%. English comprised an overall average of 55% of borrowed words found in the L1 Grade 12 Setswana learners' academic writing, with Sesotho scoring an average of just 35%.

4.3 Presentation of teachers' interview data

Eight teachers from two high schools were interviewed, four from each school and seven open-ended questions were presented by the researcher, which allowed the teachers to elaborate more where it was necessary.

The overall interview responses from the teachers are presented below.

Q1: Do learners use only Setswana in the classroom during Setswana lessons? Elaborate.

T1: “No, they do not. Most of the time, they code-switch, especially when they experience limitations in their vocabulary of Setswana and eventually resort to using English words.”

T2: “No, because at times, they often mix Setswana with Sepitori as they think it is one and the same thing.”

T3: “Yes, because they were made aware initially that it is imperative to speak Setswana during all Setswana lessons.”

Two teachers stated that they code-switched most of the time and sometimes it might be difficult to find a word in Setswana to express themselves, while they know it in English or another language. One teacher also stated that they usually used Sepitori when they tried to clarify what they had tried to explain in Setswana. Two teachers continued by saying that they had been doing this over the preceding years, therefore, learners who are not native Setswana speakers should not be allowed to learn Setswana as a home language, because they struggle to speak fluent Setswana, and they always code-switch in Setswana lessons.

Q2: What difficulties do you come across when marking essays for Setswana L1 learners?

T1: *Learners struggle to use standard Setswana in their essays; I find informal words all the time.*

T2: *I struggle with learners who are using Sepedi and Sepitori instead of Setswana in their essays..*

T3: *I find difficulties with essays where learners are not able to differentiate between formal and informal writing. They use words like “mara,” and “kaosane” in their essays and it is so problematic at times.*

Two of the eight teachers shared that learners do not know how to construct a sentence using Setswana correctly and, often, they modify the English words to sound like a Setswana word. One teacher gave an example of the word *prinsipala*, as the word derived from the word ‘principal,’ instead of *mogokgo*, and two teachers had difficulties with learners not being able to differentiate between the letters *e* and *i*, where some learners wrote *etsi* instead of *itse*. One teacher found it difficult to mark learners’ essays in which they could not distinguish between certain words. He gave the example of the word *efela* instead of *e fela*, *ebile* instead of *e bile* and also mentioned the incorrect use of punctuation marks.

Below is figure 2 showing percentages of learners' use of Sepitori in their written work from School A and School B.

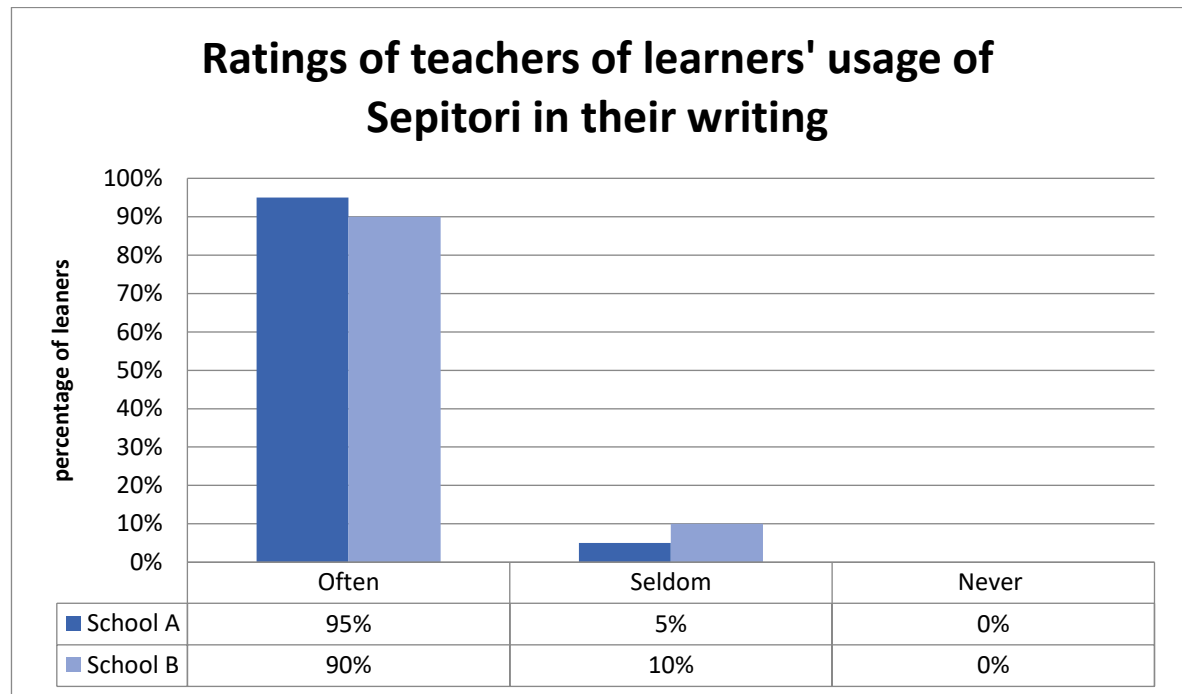


Figure 4.1: Ratings of influence of Sepitori on learners academic writing by teachers

Figure 4.2 above shows that Sepitori has a considerable influence on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners, and it is surprising to find that 0% of the learners did not use Sepitori in their writing, and this was proven to be right because, in the essay that was given by the researcher to the learners, 100% of the learners used Sepitori in their writing. This is an extensive problem for learners who are doing Setswana home language, who also make spelling errors.

Q3: In your opinion, do learners show an interest in and a willingness to learn Setswana? Elaborate.

Two teachers replied in the affirmative. Below are their elaborations on their responses.

T1: *“They are mostly more open in class, especially in the Setswana home language period, because they are quick to express their opinions and participate well when questions are being asked.”*

T2: *“They find a class very interesting since they understand clearly what the teacher says, and this shows that they are willing to learn and are very interested.”*

Five teachers felt that learners are not willing to learn and do not show an interest in learning Setswana, and explained that learners regard Setswana as an easy subject, and two teachers commented that they normally declared that “they do not need Setswana to fulfil their dreams” and had little appreciation for it as a subject even though it was their home language. Furthermore, they did not even attend Setswana lessons. One of the eight teachers said he had never seen any learner reading any of the Setswana literary works; even after they were encouraged to read literary works written in Setswana, such as novels, for fun, they still did not do so as they claimed that Setswana was boring.

It was evident that it is not about knowing the language, but the attitude learners have towards it and not showing interest and willingness to learn it that is the problem.

Q4: Do learners show that they feel confident about writing in Setswana? Elaborate.

T1: “In most cases, they do not feel confident, and this may be because of not being able to pronounce or write some words correctly, which makes them doubt themselves.”

T2: “They do not show that they feel confident about writing Setswana because most of the time, they will take more than an hour to write a one-page speech.”

T3: “Yes, they are confident when they write Setswana because they get excited when writing Setswana tests, even though they make errors here and there, but they do exhibit confidence [about writing in Setswana] .”

T4: They do not, they always make spelling errors and they show a lack of interest every time when they write essays.

T5: “It differs from learner to learner, some learners, especially those who know Setswana, do show confidence in writing, but others, they do not, instead they always make excuses when they have to write.

T6: It depends on the enjoyment of the class, they show confidence when they are enjoying the lesson, but if they do not enjoy it, they do not show confidence, therefore, I will say 70% of my learners show confidence in writing Setswana and this is because of how enjoyable I make the class.”

Q5: What can be done to encourage HL Setswana learners to write standard Setswana more when using Setswana?

T1 “Extra curriculum activities should be implemented at school such drama, debates and poetry.”

T2: “We should encourage learners to read Setswana books to improve their vocabulary so that they can speak fluent Setswana even with their friends.”

T3: Notice boards should be written in Setswana language at schools, and this will motivate learners to take Setswana seriously.”

T4: “Learners should be encouraged to buy Setswana dictionaries, and this will make it easy for them to refer to any words they do not understand, and it will also improve their academic writing.”

T5: The media should promote Setswana usage by broadcasting Setswana dramas and movies, some advertisements, pamphlets and billboards should be written in Setswana.”

One teacher said it would be the best if teachers did not allow learners to speak any other language except Setswana in the Setswana classes, and should always be corrected when they answer in any other languages. One teacher expressed the idea that parents’ letters should be written in Setswana and when they addressed parents, they should do so in Setswana, this would show that they are proud of their language. One teacher also suggested that innovative resources should be used, such as audio-visual devices, such as television screen projectors and speakers to enhance the quality of Setswana lessons with pertinent audio-visual content relevant to the lessons and the curriculum.

Q6: How do Setswana home language learners perform?

T1: “Their performance is not as good as it should be, because Setswana is their HL and they are expected to pass with distinctions, but I find myself being lenient with the learners when marking, since we know it is a home language and they cannot afford to fail it.”

T2: “Learners pass Setswana, and this is because the Setswana exam comprises three papers, but with all that, the chances of learners getting an average of 90%, are limited.”

T3: “Some learners are below average because they undermine the subject to such an extent that they do not attend classes or study as they should.”

T4: “The majority of learners struggle to read fluently in Setswana and orals expose them because that’s where we pick up that learners cannot read fluently and their writing is extremely bad, we always find incorrect spelling, the wrong usage of the language, poor sentence construction.”

T5: I can’t say they do that well because we hardly get distinctions with our Grade 12 Setswana learners.

T6: “I am not happy with their performance, because I believe they can do better if they stop undermining the subject and you find learners even repeating a grade because they undermine the subject.”

Two teachers also stated that they were not happy with their performance because they gave learners a number of opportunities to write Setswana tests, as it helped the learners to pass the subject well, since it was a kind of intervention programme.

Q7: Do you think learners can differentiate between standard Setswana forms and Sepitori forms when writing in Setswana? Elaborate.

Thirteen per cent (13%) of the teachers indicated that learners could differentiate between Sepitori and Setswana because if they did not know the answer in Setswana, they would say, they only know it in Sepitori and not in Setswana. According to this teacher, learners can differentiate between the two language varieties. Two other teachers also concurred by saying that these learners could differentiate between Sepitori and Setswana, but the problem was that they had a limited vocabulary in Setswana. Thirty-eight (38%) teachers believed that learners could not differentiate between Setswana and Sepitori, because if they did, they would not write Sepitori in their academic writing in the first place. Two teachers continued by saying that Sepitori was one of the greatest challenges they had come across when marking learners’ scripts, especially creative writing, because there were many

Sepitori forms in their writing, and they believed that they were not able to differentiate between Setswana and Sepitori forms when writing in Setswana

4.4 Presentation of learners' interview data

Twenty learners were interviewed; ten from each school, and their data are presented below.

The overall responses of the learners are presented below.

Q1: Can you differentiate between Setswana and Sepitori forms? Elaborate with examples.

This is what learners shared during the interviews:

L1: *“I am not sure if I can differentiate between Setswana and Sepitori forms, because I am not fluent in Setswana, but I do write some of the words thinking that they are Setswana forms, but I will then be corrected and told that they are not Setswana forms, but Sepedi or Sepitori forms, and I started doing Setswana from Grade 7, but according to my understanding, Setswana and Sepitori are one and the same thing, for example, “bana ba rasa” is the same thing in Setswana and Sepitori.”* Changing schools had an impact on this learner with regard to learning Setswana because now the learner had to change from Sepedi to Setswana and learn a new language. However, the examples given are not correct. In Setswana, it is *bana ba etsa modumo* (children are making a noise) and not *rasa*, *rasa* is a Sepitori form.

L2: *“Yes, I can, Setswana is the language used in formal settings and Sepitori is used in informal settings, and it is a mixture of all the languages, for example, when you are chilling with your friends you can use Sepitori, but not when you are writing in class. If I write ‘ke batla goya go phepafatsa empa ga ke tsebe ke simolole kae’ (I want to go clean, but I don’t know where to start) that is standard Setswana, which you use in academic writing, with Sepitori, it would be like ‘ke nyaka go yo kolomaka mara gake itse gore ke thome kae’ and you are not allowed to use such words in your academic writing.”*

The example given by a learner in standard Setswana is a combination of Setswana, Sesotho and Sepedi. In Setswana, we do not have the word *empa*, but it is a Sesotho form, while *tsebe* is a Sepedi word. In Setswana, we say *ke batla go phepafatsa mme ga ke itse*

“Yes, I can; Setswana is the language used in formal settings, and Sepitori is used in informal settings, and it is a mixture of all the languages, for example, when you are chilling with your friends you can use Sepitori, but not when you are writing in class. If I write ‘ke batla go phepafatsa empa ga ke tsebe ke simolole kae’ (I want to go clean, but I don’t know where to start) that is standard Setswana which you use in academic writing, with Sepitori, it would be like ‘ke nyaka go yo kolomaka mara gakeitse gore ke thome kae’ and you are not allowed to use such words in your academic writing.”

The example given by a learner on standard Setswana is the combination of Setswana, Sesotho and Sepedi. In Setswana we do not have the word *empa* but is the Sesotho forms, and *tsebe* is a Sepedi word. In Setswana we say *ke batla go phepafatsa mme ga keitse gore ke simolole kae*. And this indicates that being multilingual presented challenges for learners who were learning Setswana because this shows that the presence of Sepitori forms in their academic writing was caused by learners who were multilingual as they were not able to differentiate between the languages.

L3: “Yes, I can; in pure Setswana when you greet someone you will say ‘dumela/dumelang’ whereas in Sepitori it is ‘heita.’

Here the learner gave an example of Sepitori in Tsotsitaal in which you say ‘*heita*’ when greeting someone, but in Sepitori, it is ‘*ashee*.’

L4: “Yes I can, Sepitori is a non-official language and is used by mixing other languages and Setswana is one of the official languages that is used in formal places,’ for example, in Sepitori, o skono (you are clean) and Setswana ‘o phepa.”

L5: “Yes, I can, Sepitori is the language that has a mixture of Afrikaans, Setswana, Sesotho, and Sepedi, and Setswana is our official language. Here in South Africa, for example, when I say ‘ke wete’ (I am okay), that is, Sepitori and in Setswana is ‘ke shapo.’

Here the learner gave an incorrect example. In Setswana, we say ‘*ke siame*’ in standard Setswana and not ‘*ke shapo*.’

L6: “Yes, Setswana is a language that is used by people who are originally from Botswana because it is a foreign language and Sepitori is a street language, which is a combination of Setswana, Sepedi, Sesotho and Afrikaans. For example, ‘tlhagella hier’ (meaning come

here) *'tlhagella'* is Setswana and *'hier'* is Afrikaans, therefore, we call this Sepitori, while in Setswana, it is *'tlhagella mo.'*

The spelling and the meaning of the content were used wrongly in Setswana: *peo ya tlhagelela* not *tlhagella* and if you want to say, "Come here," in Setswana is *etla fa*.

L7: "Yes, Setswana is one of the official languages in South Africa and mainly spoken by people from Botswana while Sepitori is an informal language spoken by Pretoria residents and is a mixture of the other 11 official languages. For example, *'o wete'* is a Sepitori term meaning *'are you oka,y'* another example is *'o chipi'* meaning *'you are beautiful,'* whereas in Setswana, it will be *'a o siame'* and *'o pila'*, respectively."

Setswana is *'o montle'* not *'o pila,'* here, the learner gave the wrong example of Setswana *'pila'* is a Sepitori form.

L8: "Yes, Sepitori consists of multi-languages. Most of the words come from Setswana and Sepedi, for example, in Sepitori, you will say *'etlo bala'*, and *'bala'* is a Sepedi form, and in Setswana *'etla o tlo bala.'*"

Here the learner gave the wrong example of Setswana, in Setswana, it is *'buisa'* not *'bala.'*

L9: No, I can't differentiate between Setswana and Sepitor forms because they sound similar to me.

Twenty per cent (20%) of the learners could not differentiate between Sepitori and Setswana. They thought Setswana and Sepitori were the same. Seventeen out of twenty (85%) of the learners were not able to give correct examples of standard Setswana and could not differentiate between Setswana and Sepitori, and their Sepitori examples were the same as the Setswana examples. The learners gave examples, such as, *medi yaka* meaning my girlfriend, *a re zaiye* meaning let's go, *zaka yaka* meaning my money, which is *tsotsitaal*. Learners should be taught standard Setswana so that they know that Setswana and Sepitori are two different forms, where Setswana is used in a formal setting and is taught in the classroom situation.

Q2: Are you able to write in Setswana? Elaborate.

L1: "No, my Setswana writing is influenced by Sepitori every time, because most of the

time, I write in Sepitori. Even when I am chatting with my friends on social media, I use Sepitori and English to text and I do not have Setswana speaking friends. I am only exposed to Setswana at school, and this makes it hard for me to be fluent in writing standard Setswana.”

L2: “Yes, I can write Setswana, because it is the language mainly spoken at home, and besides, I started doing Setswana in primary school, which makes it easier for me to write Setswana.”

L3: “I am not able to write Setswana, because I grew up in a township where many people communicate in a mixture of Sotho languages, such as Sepedi and Sotho, including the tsotsitaal, but when I am in class, I try my best to write standard Setswana in my academic writing, albeit I am not proficient.”

L4: “I can write Setswana, but I am not fluent in the language, since I make many errors when writing.”

L5: “Yes, I can, but my vocabulary is limited, because I do not read much, and Setswana books are boring.”

L6: “I am not fluent in Setswana, but I can try because my exposure to the language is too little for me.”

Fifteen per cent (15%) of the learners complained about writing Setswana, which they all regarded as a Botswana language, and they continued saying it was difficult for them to be fluent in writing since it was not their home language.

Ten per cent (10%) of the learners shared that they were not fluent in writing standard Setswana since they came from a multilingual family background, where Setswana was not their native language, and during their childhood, Setswana was not the language which they were exposed to at home. Therefore, they found it difficult to write in Setswana in their academic writing. A further 15% of the learners also stated that the livelihood of people who spoke Setswana in areas such as Rustenburg was different from what they experienced here in Winterveldt. Their behaviour and lifestyles required them to speak and write pure Setswana, but that did not apply to them as they resided in Winterveldt. This is due to their lifestyle and behaviour, as it is not the same as people from Rustenburg because they were surrounded by a multicultural and multilingual community. Therefore, their

linguistic speech is also affected by the various languages to which they were exposed, and they learnt various languages as this also led to them speaking and writing Sepitori.

Table 4.2 below depicts the learners who could speak and write in Setswana, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, learners who could not speak and write Setswana from School A and School B, respectively.

Table 4.2: Learners who can and cannot write Sepitori

	SCHOOL A	SCHOOL B
Learners who can write Sepitori	2	0
Learners who cannot write Sepitori	8	10

Q3: Do you normally read Setswana books for pleasure, or do you only read in class?

L1: “Yes, I do read Setswana books for pleasure, especially novels, because Setswana novels are interesting.”

L2: “I do read because I want to acquire more knowledge and improve my vocabulary. My favourite books are ‘Dintshontsho tsa lorato’ and ‘Nko ga e dupe’ I read the books whenever I am bored all over again.”

L3: “Yes, I do. It helps me to gain more knowledge and to be able to write Setswana because I do understand that Setswana is not my native language, and I struggle. That is why I enjoy reading Setswana.”

L4: I only read Setswana books in class, even during the Setswana period. I will not volunteer to read out loud because Setswana is tricky, confusing, and tiring. I would rather read English, and not Setswana books.

L5: “No, I don’t read them. I only read Setswana books when it is mandatory because I am not fluent when reading Setswana, and Setswana is not interesting to read.”

L7: “No, I hate reading Setswana, even the novels I don’t read in class. I listen to the teacher explaining, and I will know the novel through the discussions in class; Setswana is so boring.”

Only 15%, namely three out of 20 learners, responded that they did read Setswana books for pleasure. This is because it helped them acquire knowledge and improve their vocabulary, and they found Setswana books extremely interesting. However, 85% of the learners indicated that they did not read Setswana books, since they regarded them as boring, while 5% of the learners continued by saying it was not a language that was in demand globally, like English and they also mentioned that they did not see the need to read Setswana books. Moreover, 10% of the learners stated that they did not read Setswana books because there were no libraries nearby where they could go and read. The books used at school were not interesting for them since they indicated that they could not relate to them.

The above responses revealed the learner’s attitudes towards learning Setswana and their unwillingness to read Setswana books. It is also evidence regarding why learners cannot write Setswana because they are not reading Setswana books. Reading helps improve your vocabulary, increase your general knowledge, become a better conversationalist, and it also helps to improve your reading fluency. The learners did not take Setswana as seriously as they were supposed to, since they were studying it as their home language at school. They should understand that Setswana is their home language and they are supposed to pass it and if they do not, they fail Grade 12.

Below is Figure 4.2. which shows the responses of learners who responded with “yes” or “no” when they were asked if they read Setswana books for pleasure at School A and School B. Five per cent from school A and ten per cent from School B, totalling 15% overall of the learners, responded with “yes.” In turn, 45% of the learners from School A responded with “no,” and 40% from School B, also responded with “no,” making up an overall percentage of 85%.

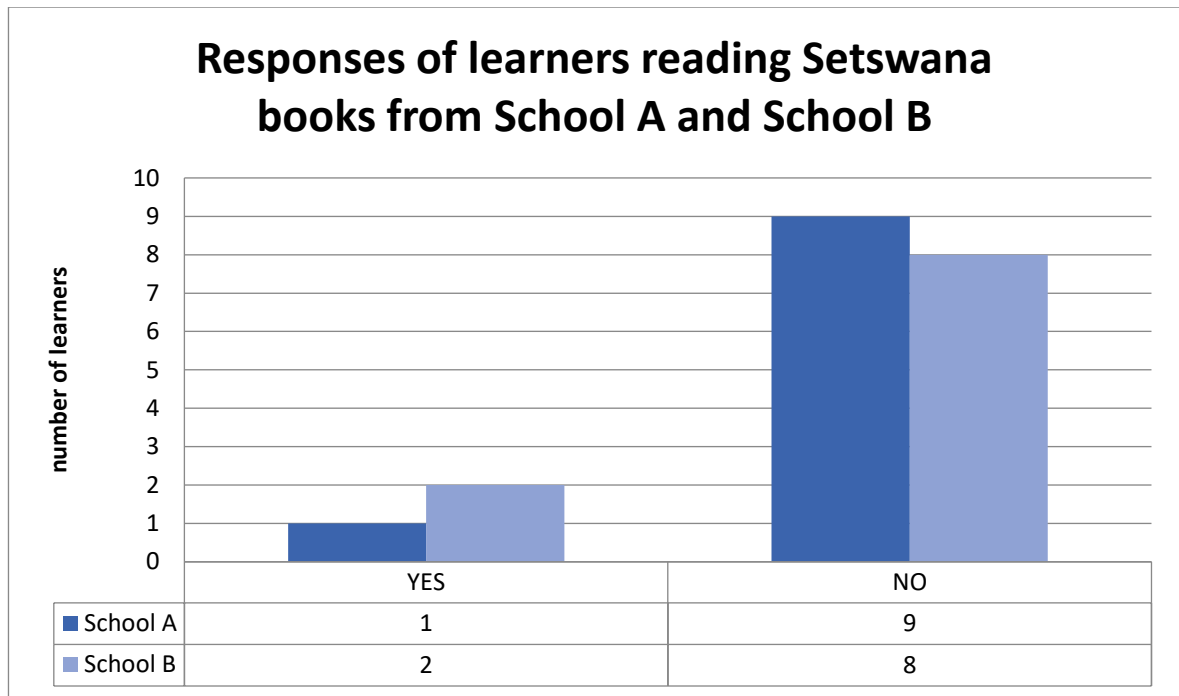


Figure 4.2: Learners reading Setswana books

Q4: Do you think Sepitori forms have an influence on learning and acquiring Setswana? Elaborate.

All 20 learners replied in the affirmative. The quotes below show how they supported their answers:

L1: “Yes, Sepitori forms have an influence on learning Setswana because I am used to Sepitori, and sometimes, I will forget myself in class and write Sepitori because I can write better in it than I can in standard Setswana.”

L2: “Yes, it has an influence. I grew up speaking Sepitori at home, and I would say, and I am still saying ka dlala (meaning I am playing) instead of ka tshameka and no one at home will correct me until I get to school because even my do not know Setswana. It is not their home language, and this has an influence on me when writing and acquiring Setswana.”

L3: “Yes, because people who are born and raised here, including me, are not used to Setswana but Sepitori. When we speak or chat with our friends, I use Sepitori, I only try to use Setswana in my academic writing and it makes it difficult to acquire standard Setswana since is not a language I am exposed to.”

L4: "I believe Sepitori forms have a greater influence in learning and acquiring Setswana; I speak Sepitori all the time, and it is impossible for me not to speak or write Sepitori in Setswana class and this is also caused by teachers who speak Sepitori during Setswana class at times and they do not motivate us to speak Setswana and, as a result, we end up using Sepitori in our academic writing, and the fact is, Sepitori forms will always have an influence on standard Setswana."

L5: "Yes, it has an influence. In fact, Sepitori should be the language of learning because it is the only language you can find people from Pretoria using to communicate in, especially Sotho people. Even in my academic writing, I am using Sepitori throughout. I will only see a remark written in red by a teacher saying 'avoid using Sepitori', which is caused by the exposure to other languages at home, because I am not a native Setswana speaker."

L6: "Yes, Sepitori has an influence because Setswana and Sepitori are almost one and the same language. Therefore, we end up making mistakes, thinking we are writing Setswana whereas it is Sepitori."

L7: "Yes, it does, because Sepitori is always used in our writing. The reason is we are exposed to Sepitori more than to Setswana."

One learner complained about teachers who did not motivate them to speak Setswana in Setswana classes, because they interacted in Sepitori most of the time, rather than in Setswana because they were forms that they did not know in Setswana, and they ended up using Sepitori forms, and, at times, teachers allowed them to use these forms. Sixty per cent of the learners mentioned that it was difficult for them to avoid communicating in Sepitori as they came from a different community that communicated in different standard and non-standard languages. Accordingly, they tended to speak Sepitori most of the time to accommodate one another. Ten per cent of the learners also stated that Sepitori did have an influence because they had to repeat Grade 11 just because they failed Setswana HL due to coming from a background where their parents were not Setswana speakers, and they were still struggling to write standard Setswana. Three learners also agreed and gave a similar version, namely, that if they were born in Botswana, this would not be a problem, but because they lived among people from different backgrounds speaking different languages, they were bound to use Sepitori in their academic writing.

The findings revealed that 100% of the learners from School A and School B agreed that Setswana had an influence on the acquisition and learning of Setswana.

Therefore, that is why these learners found it challenging to learn and acquire Setswana because it was not a language to which they had been exposed since birth.

Q5: Which language is mainly spoken in your Setswana home language class and why?

L1: The language mainly spoken in class is Setswana because our Setswana teachers give us a hard time if we speak Sepitori or any other languages in class, therefore, we are obliged to use Setswana even if we stammer, but the teacher will help us with the correct words to use.

L2: We mostly speak Sepitori because, e most of us were born and raised in Pretoria, and it is the language we can speak better and in which we can express ourselves better.

L3: "They are English and Sepitori, because this makes it easier to understand, unlike as is the case when a teacher uses 'deep Setswana,' we end up not understanding, and we become afraid to participate."

L4: "We code-switch between Setswana and English, because it makes it easier to participate."

L5: "The language spoken in class is Sepitori because in our class, we are all from Pretoria and the language of people from Pretoria is Sepitori, and we use it to communicate, since there are no Setswana speakers in our class, including our teacher."

The learners explained that teachers try to speak to them in Setswana, but they cannot respond using Setswana, instead, they stammer when they try to speak in standard Setswana, but they become very fluent if they speak Sepitori. Sixty per cent communicated in Sepitori in the Setswana class, and their reasoning was because Tshwane is a diverse city where you do not find people speaking their standard languages, they have to accommodate one another. This leads to them knowing different languages, even though they are not 100% proficient in them, for the sake of understanding one another, they end up mixing all the languages. This leads to them speaking Sepitori everywhere, including in the classroom.

The above responses of the learners confirmed that Sepitori was the common language mainly used in Setswana classes. Fifteen per cent of the learners also mentioned that it was

easier when a teacher mixed Setswana and English because they understood clearly what was being said, which was not the case when only Setswana was used. One learner continued by asserting that when a teacher spoke standard Setswana to them, they would not answer him/her because they could not understand what they were saying. Therefore, the teacher would code-switch so that they could participate in class. One learner also cited an example of a teacher saying “*Modise o tana bese nako mang*” and she could not understand what the word *tana* meant, and the teacher had to explain it in English.

Figure 4.5 below shows which language was spoken in Setswana classes at School A and School B, and this shows that Sepitori forms were commonly used in the classroom, including in the Setswana classroom.

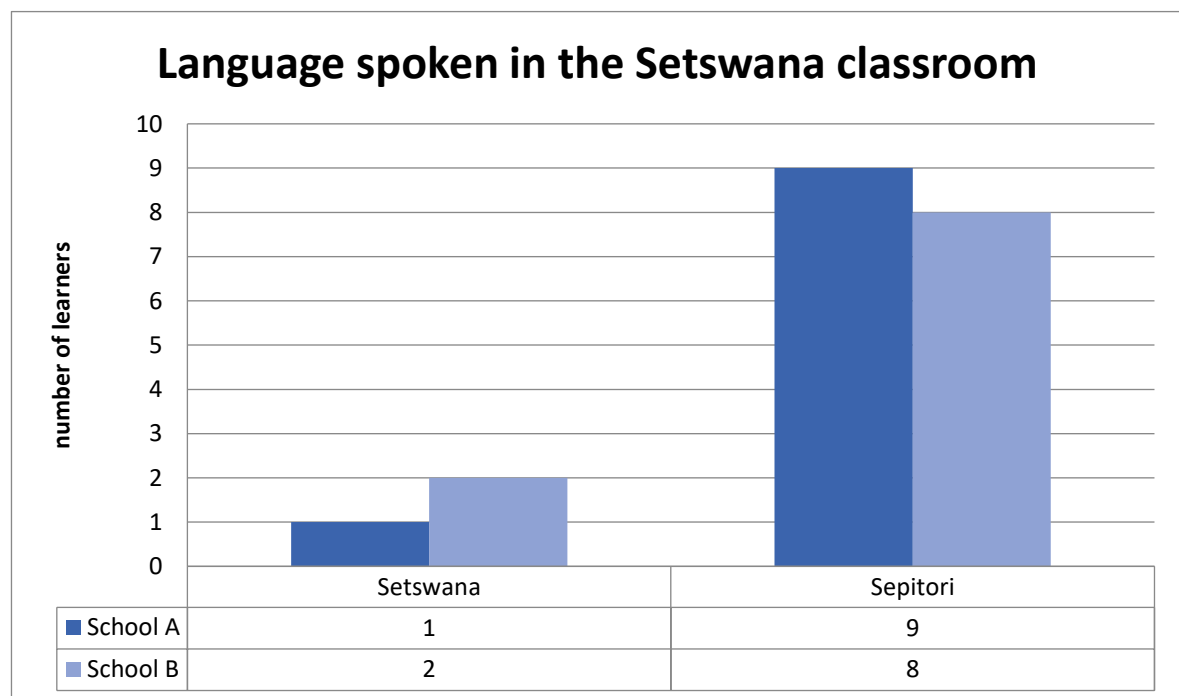


Figure 4.3: Language spoken in Setswana classrooms

Q6: Do you enjoy writing Setswana essays? Elaborate.

L1: “No, I do not enjoy writing Setswana essays because it is time-consuming, I must do a lot of thinking, since it is not my native language, and it is draining, especially, when I have to differentiate between ebile or e bile, gona or go na.”

L2: “I do not enjoy Setswana essay writing because I am not good with the grammatical rules of Setswana.”

L3: “No, I do not like creative writing since I am reluctant to engage in storytelling, and my Setswana writing is poor.”

L4: “No, I do not because my Setswana vocabulary is limited.”

L5: “No, Setswana requires a lot of thinking compared to English and is not a language that is used daily except at school. I always find it hard to write essays.”

L6: “No, I do not enjoy writing Setswana essays due to my limited language background, and there are not enough resources, such as, books, magazines, etc.”

L7: “No, I hate creative writing.”

L8: “No, I always make errors when writing Setswana, and it is demotivating to be corrected all the time and told to stop using an informal language, because it is not my native language.”

All the learners responded that they did not enjoy writing Setswana essays. Some of them even complained and questioned why it had to be done in Setswana, because it was not a language in demand. They also stated that they were not good with the grammatical rules of Setswana even though Setswana was the language they had been learning since primary school.

4.5 Discussion of findings

According to Ramagoshi (1990: 8), Sepedi (Northern Sotho) has the biggest influence on Setswana spoken in many townships in Pretoria and influences the language the community at large speaks and, specifically, the learners in schools. As a result, learners who attend school in the townships tend to speak Setswana mixed with Sepedi. Most learners from School A and School B could not write in Setswana; only two learners from School A stated that they could write in Setswana because Setswana was their native language. Consequently, it transpired that 90% of the learners could not write in Setswana, with only ten per cent being able to speak and write in Setswana. This is not what one would expect because they should be able to write in Setswana as Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners. This could result in their poor academic performance and to not knowing how to write Setswana because it was not their native language. Moreover, some of the learners showed little interest in learning Setswana.

Six major themes were identified during the data analysis process and are listed below and are then discussed in detail below.

- **Theme: 1** Learners' attitudes towards learning Setswana as a home language.
- **Theme: 2** Lack of motivation to learn Setswana.
- **Theme: 3** The role of media in developing Setswana.
- **Theme: 4** The language performance of Setswana L1 learners.
- **Theme: 5** Little exposure to Setswana HL.
- **Theme 6:** Differentiating Setswana and Sepitori.
- **Theme 7:** Learners' academic writing.

Theme 1: Learners' attitudes towards learning Setswana as a home language

Attitudes are generally defined "as positive or negative emotions and thoughts related to a specific social object such as humans, objects, facts, or events (Bilgin, 2007). An attitude is a state of mental or neural readiness" that serves as both the premise and the outcome of behaviour as a result of emotions, thoughts, and behaviours that emerged as a result of previous experiences that are not directly visible, but can be observed through behaviour (Allport, 1967).

The findings indicate that learners have a negative attitude towards learning Setswana as a HL since they do not see a need for learning Setswana as they think Setswana does not open doors to endless opportunities. Learners should be taught the importance of learning the HL at school because studying further needs learners to obtain an average of 50% in their home languages, and if that is not acquired, no university will accept them with less than 50%. In order to be a doctor, a lawyer or anything for which they want to study, the average needed for HL is 50% and above. Setswana presents many opportunities; one can be a radio presenter, a Setswana newsreader, an editor or a lexicographer, just to name a few. HL bolsters your academic record and curriculum vitae and, therefore, it can expand employment opportunities. Therefore, learners should be encouraged to take Setswana seriously and change their negative attitudes towards it.

Learners complained about Setswana not being their native language, but this should not have been the reason why they were not able to master writing in Setswana because they had been taught Setswana for 12 years, therefore they were expected to be proficient in the

language. The learners also contended that Setswana was boring and even asserted that “I hate Setswana” how will you be able to learn a subject that you hate? This shows the attitude they had towards learning Setswana HL. If one hates a language, the chances of learning that language are limited because one lacks the intrinsic motivation as well as an interest in speaking and learning the language more extensively and, consequently, you deprive yourself of opportunities to write the language. The poor Setswana HL results of the learners revealed that they were not using the opportunities to learn and master the language effectively.

According to Baker 1992, "language attitudes" refer to a consciously held belief system about a specific language or an orientation (positive or negative) towards a specific language. In this study, the learners highlighted that Setswana is a foreign language, and they did not understand why they had to study it as their HL since it is a Botswana language and this is one of the reasons why learners had a negative attitude towards learning Setswana as they thought it was a foreign language. Setswana is one of the official languages in South Africa regardless of other countries also speaking the language. Learners are not well-informed about South African history, including its culture and languages, they should be advised to do more research, and that can help them understand the South African history better, and it will help them refrain from regarding Setswana as a foreign language. One of the difficulties in measuring attitudes is that a person's thoughts and feelings are covert and, thus, they cannot be observed directly, but the findings revealed that learners were outspoken about how boring Setswana was. As a result, it was possible that 'attitudes' are not one of those variables that can be measured directly or accurately. As a result, Baker (1992: 17) observes that the use of attitudes as a research variable depends on adequate measurement devices.

It was evident that the efforts of the learners to learn and acquire the language were hampered by their attitude towards the language itself. The Setswana L1 learners admitted to speaking more Sepitori than Setswana during Setswana lessons, which reveals their overall preferences and negative attitudes towards standard Setswana.

Theme 2: Lack of motivation to learn Setswana

The findings showed that learners lacked the motivation to learn Setswana because Setswana was not their HL; therefore, according to them, it was not important to learn a

language that was not spoken at home. They highlighted that they were studying Setswana because other languages were not available as subjects in Winterveldt schools. Some learners also emphasised that they were forced by their parents to study Setswana, this can be one of the reason why learners showed little interest and a lack of motivation to learn Setswana. It must be taken into consideration that If you are forced to do something that you do not really care about much, you will gradually develop a strong dislike for it, and that dislike will most likely turn into hatred later and this can be devastating to learners who are forced to learn Setswana as a HL at school.

The findings revealed that there were no available resources to improve their Setswana vocabulary, such as libraries; this could be another reason why learners lacked the motivation to learn Setswana because there were no libraries nearby. Motivation is the primary driving force behind a person's actions. It is, therefore, the prime force that promotes good performance; if learners are motivated, they do well in their schoolwork. For intrinsic motivation, learners should be rewarded with Setswana academic excellence certificates at school, this will encourage them to be more willing to learn and acquire Setswana and it will also ensure that learners master speaking and writing in the Setswana language. Eccles and Wigfield (2002) note “that children attach more value to activities at which they excel over time, suggesting they will increasingly be more motivated to learn in subjects in which they experience success.”

They further stated that Sepitori is the nonstandard variety spoken the most in Winterveldt, therefore, there are only a few Batswana people in the community, consequently, they were not exposed to Setswana. You learn the language to which you are exposed, and based on the findings, it transpired that 90% of the learners were not Setswana speakers. This shows why the learners were not motivated to learn Setswana since it was not their native language. One of the most important factors influencing language learners' success or failure in learning a language is motivation. Motivation is defined as "the decisions people make about what experiences or goals they will pursue or avoid, as well as the amount of effort they will put forth in this regard" (Keller, 1983:383).

Teachers can use multimedia to introduce Setswana films, music, and historical events to arouse the learners' attention. Once their interest is aroused, they will be motivated to participate in the classroom activities and achieve language learning goals.

Theme 3: The role of the media in developing Setswana

According to the findings based on the interview data elicited from Setswana L1 teachers, it is clear that to promote Setswana usage, the media should make advertisements in Setswana, for newspapers and the billboards should advertise in Setswana. Undoubtedly, the promotion, availability and use of Setswana are insufficient on the media platforms in comparison with English.

Thus, it would benefit Setswana L1 learners to have ready access to the media and social media platforms that use standard Setswana as one of the language choices they would be able to choose. This means that social media applications, such as Facebook, Twitter and Instagram, could promote and provide access to and opportunities for Setswana L1 learners to use the language in social contexts and with the help of technological devices, such as these kinds of applications. This can help learners to master their academic writing.

Such learners could see social media applications as an option for the translation of the information so that the default language use can be that of standard Setswana in this instance. Media platforms, such as television programmes for various television shows, such as situation comedies, dramas and talk shows, would also contribute to educating the L1 learners by having content that is also delivered in standard Setswana as it would give a large number of the audience, including the Setswana L1 learners, an opportunity to learn and grasp the language more informally and enjoyably and this can help them with writing standard Setswana, since they would be exposed to the Setswana language.

Newspapers, magazines, and books could be translated from English and made available in the language of Setswana. The latest books on issues and the latest topics on issues in and around our world, including children's news, show business reports, sports entertainment, celebrity news, and political and current affairs news, could also be offered in the resources, that could be made readily available for the Setswana L1 learners. Having resources and platforms that use standard Setswana on the latest events, news and topics that are of interest and relevant to their age and level of development of the L1 learners, can encourage and promote easy access for the L1 learners to acquire, learn, master and write standard Setswana language.

Theme 4: Language performance of the Setswana L1 learners

According to Chomsky (1965: 31), performance involves actual and real-time use and may diverge radically from the underlying competence due to environmental disturbances and memory limitations. The term “language performance” was used by Chomsky (1965: 31), who described it as "the actual use of language in concrete situations and viewed it as fairly ‘degenerate in quality’ because performance is full of errors." For instance, such use of language in concrete situations, could be in a school context, where learners demonstrate their language skills during a language assessment, such as reading and viewing or when they are writing and presenting their speeches.

The learners' performance was assessed based on the written essays given to the Grade 12 Setswana learners. Accordingly, the essays were assessed to determine the Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners. Consequently, the findings revealed that 100% of the Setswana L1 learners used non-standard varieties in their essays. This shows how Setswana HL learners had trouble with mastering Setswana. The learners also stated that Sepitori had an influence on their academic writing, which resulted in learners failing their grades because of failing Setswana HL. They also stated that coming from a different background where Setswana was not spoken in their homes, had a negative effect on their academic writing, because they were not able to write standard Setswana. This affected Setswana HL learners’ vocabulary since they had limited opportunities to speak the language.

It is a serious problem, because when learners fail their HL, since it is expected to pass. The teachers stated that they had learners who repeated a certain grade because of failing Setswana home language. The teachers also stated that some learners might not do well in their creative writing due to Sepitori usage, but when it came to other papers, they did try

It is a serious problem when learners fail their HL, since they are expected to pass it. The teachers stated that they had learners who had, indeed repeated a certain grade because of failing Setswana HL. The teachers also asserted that although some learners did not do well in their creative writing due to their Sepitori usage, they did try to do better in the other Setswana papers and this helped them pass Setswana, since the Setswana exam consists of three papers, paper 1 is language in context, paper 2 is literature and paper 3 includes creative writing. Therefore, these different papers help some of the learners to pass the subject. They also continued by stating that few learners ever received distinctions for Setswana HL, and this was not satisfactory as they were expected to pass well, since this is their home language. The findings revealed that learners could not construct a paragraph without using nonstandard varieties and it proved that their language performance was below average, and this shortcoming should be addressed to improve their language performance.

Based on the data collected from the teachers, it became evident that the teachers were lenient when marking their learners' assessments, and this might have been why the reason why learners were over-confident about their Setswana performance and did not deem it necessary to put more effort into their studying of the language. Accordingly, the leniency of teachers can have both advantages and disadvantages. When a teacher is lenient, it creates a calm and relaxed environment that can sometimes help learners to focus and have a positive attitude, because some learners struggle, in spite of putting a great deal of effort into their work. However, it can also lead to learners taking advantage of this fact and they may decide to make less of an effort to improve their performance. This study has proved that this conclusion is correct because of the unwillingness of learners to learn Setswana, since they knew that they would still pass in any case.

Winterveldt is a settlement that is situated in the Gauteng Province, and it is a multilingual environment. Interviews were conducted at Winterveldt with learners who were born and raised in Winterveldt. Ninety per cent of the learners were not Setswana speakers, and this shows that learners learning Setswana HL had little exposure to Setswana because it was not spoken in their homes and social environment. And this made it difficult for these learners to acquire standard Setswana before starting school. For them, Setswana was their L2, if not their L3, for communicative purposes. In addition, based on the statistics, Xitsonga is one of the most dominant languages, and this has been proved to be correct

since 45% of Grade 12 Setswana learners were Xitsonga speakers at home, and this led to limited exposure to Setswana.

The learners also stated that they did not communicate with their peers in standard Setswana and even in Setswana lessons, they code-switched or spoke Sepitori to their teachers. When the teacher allowed them to do so, it resulted in learners not being exposed to standard Setswana, and this was another reason why learners were incompetent in Setswana. Exposure is a critical factor in language comprehension and acquisition because it is the most important factor that leads to fluency in a language.

It is important to note that Olcay (2005: 6) advocates classroom code-switching, and states that in a language classroom, code-switching is not always a barrier to or a deficiency in learning a language, but can be regarded as a useful strategy in classroom interaction if the goal is to make the meaning clear and transfer knowledge to students in an efficient

manner. According to Ncoko, Osman, and Corkcroft (2000: 239), code-switching as a teaching strategy, can be effective for language and content acquisition because it performs several communicative functions in the classroom, including the translation, clarification, checking comprehension, giving instructions and procedures, and acting as a 'we-code.'

Calteaux (1996: 148), on the other hand, believes that while using a mixed language to explain issues regarding the content, it may still be acceptable during subject lessons, using mixed languages during the standard language lessons is a cause for serious concern because it has the potential to impede standard language learning. Learners communicating in Setswana are able to grasp some of the words they regard as difficult and that will help them with the words and phrases they do not understand and are “guided on how to use those words” or phrases properly, because when you speak a certain language every day, you end up learning the vocabulary. Setswana HL classes should emphasise immersion through the active discussion of books, films, and music. In addition, grammar exercises should be used to create a fundamental understanding of the language through conversational immersion, which will aid learners with their academic writing because there is no exposure to Setswana where they live.

Furthermore, learners should also note that if they are doing Setswana HL at school, this simply means they are Setswana speakers and have to read more Setswana books to improve their vocabulary and knowledge. Even when they are with their friends, they

should make it the norm to socialise in standard Setswana because it is their HL at school and this will help improve their proficiency, since they are not exposed to it at home.

Theme 6 differentiating between Setswana and Sepitori

Learners should be taught standard Setswana so that they know that Setswana and Sepitori comprise two different forms. Whereas Setswana is used in a formal setting and is taught in the classroom, Sepitori is an informal language spoken in society and cannot be used in writing. The reason is it is not standardised and has not yet been accorded formal status like the indigenous South African languages stipulated in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa.

The learners were confident that they could differentiate between Setswana and Sepitori, but when giving examples, it became clear that they were not able to differentiate between the Setswana and Sepitori forms. They still made errors when giving examples in standard Setswana; mixed the Setswana forms, the Sesotho forms or the Sepedi forms to give examples of standard Setswana. Other learners could not differentiate between Tsotsitaal and Sepitori as they thought they were the same.

It is important for learners to be able to differentiate between standard Setswana and Sepitori so that when they are requested to write, they write it correctly with its correct grammatical rules, and using the correct language, without contaminating the language.

Theme 7: Learners' academic writing

However, 100% of the learners from both School A and School B used non-standard varieties in their essay writing. A large number of Sepitori terms, which are not acceptable in the formal writing of Setswana, were “drawn from Northern Sotho and Southern Sotho. This came as no surprise because, Northern and Southern Sotho are mutually comprehensible with Setswana. In some cases, students used Sepitori terms like *phasitse* in one paragraph and standard Setswana *falola* in another. “This linguistic repertoire demonstrates that they have access to Sepitori and Setswana terms” that are synonymous, but they assume that both are acceptable in their academic writing. Grammatical and punctuation errors, were also identified, but the study focussed on the Sepitori forms in academic writing.

This proved beyond doubt that Setswana L1 learners born and raised in Winterveldt found it problematic to write Setswana HL and use Sepitori forms because they were exposed to different languages at home. This also indicated that Sepedi/Northern Sotho was mostly

used in their essays. According to Ditsele (2014:224), Setswana and Northern Sotho, which is Sesotho sa leboa, are synonymous and considered unacceptable in formal writing in the respective languages, but they should be accepted by society as standard regional variations of the languages. It is exceedingly difficult, particularly when you learn a language that is not even spoken at home. Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners had a challenge with differentiating between Sepitori and Setswana as they thought it was appropriate to use both languages in their academic writing.

This finding is supported by the social interactionist theory, which accepts that a child's acquisition of language is influenced by several factors that are linguistic, physical, and social in nature. This theory, developed by Ellis (1994, in Moodley (2013: 32) claims that the principle of "verbal interaction is of crucial importance for language learning," as this theory shares beliefs with the nativist, behaviourist, and cognitive theories. It shares the view with nativism that propounds that language behaviour, and, thus, learning, is distinct from other behaviour and learning. In turn, it shares the notion with behaviourism that the environment plays a crucial role in the growth of language. Furthermore, it agrees with the cognitive theories, namely that language learning is a complex accomplishment involving the child's cognitive participation.

The same applies to what was happening with the Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners who were exposed to different languages at home and when they were at school; it tended to be difficult for them to master Setswana, since it was not a language to which they were exposed. This led to learners using Sepitori in their academic writing because they had failed to differentiate between the formal and informal settings. The type of language you use when you socialise with your friends should not be the same as the language (register) you use in academic writing.

It was clear from the data collected from the essays that learners did not write any terms drawn from Xitsonga and Tshivenda. Neither did the learners write any terms drawn from the Nguni languages despite some of them coming from those linguistic backgrounds. This was not expected, particularly with regard to the Nguni languages. Webb (2010:281) has suggested that the terminology of the Nguni languages was making inroads into Sepitori. Perhaps it should be added that their data were gathered in locations whose linguistic compositions were different from those in other places, since these data were gathered in the Winterveldt township, north of Pretoria only.

4.6. Conclusion

In this chapter, the data gathered were presented and discussed thematically. Furthermore, this chapter outlined the findings on Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana HL learners. The next chapter will present the conclusions and recommendations of the study and state whether the research questions, aims and objectives of the study have been achieved.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The study focused on the Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners a case study from Winterveldt to investigate the influence of Sepitori and how it affected their academic writing at school and also to determine what Setswana teachers were doing to prevent the interference of Sepitori in the use of standard Setswana. It was, therefore, revealed that Sepitori had a considerable influence on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners. The learners did not show any interest in learning Setswana, and the teachers were not doing much to prevent the interference. This chapter contains conclusions regarding the aim and objectives of the study. The recommendations are also dealt with in this chapter. Before the presentation of the conclusions and recommendations, brief summaries of Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4 are presented to recapitulate what these chapters comprise.

5.2. Summary of the study

Chapter 1

Chapter 1 gave a brief introduction to the study. The aims and objectives of the study were discussed as well as the main questions that the researcher intended to answer. The significance of the study was also highlighted, and reasons for conducting the study were also provided. This chapter aimed to put the study into perspective

Chapter 2

The aim of Chapter 2 was to conduct a literature review related to the Sepitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners. Code-switching and code-mixing, among other factors, influence the speaking and writing of standard Setswana. Different researchers' viewpoints on what influences standard language as well as their findings and recommendations were discussed.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3 discussed the research study design, and described the different methodologies used to collect the data using qualitative methods. Furthermore, Chapter 3 focussed on how the data were collected and analysed with regard to the learners' and teachers' responses to the semi-structured interviews and the text analysis of the learners' writing. The challenges

encountered by the researcher as well as the issues related to Ethical Considerations were looked at in this chapter.

Chapter 4

In Chapter 4, the aim was to present the findings from the learners' using text analysis and the face-to-face semi-structured interviews of learners and teachers. Teachers were also interviewed using semi-structured interviews to ascertain whether they prevented the interference of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners, Furthermore, this chapter also documented the findings, analysis and interpretation of those findings derived from the responses of the Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners, and to determine whether the Sepitori forms had an influence on the Setswana proficiency of Grade 12 learners and which language was mainly used in Setswana.

The following were the research questions and how they were addressed in this study.

- **To what extent do Sepitori forms influence the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana HL in the two selected public high schools in Winterveldt?**

The first research question of the study focused mainly on determining the extent to which Sepitori influenced the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners in the two selected public schools in Winterveldt.. This research question was answered successfully as the study revealed the extent to which Sepitori influenced the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners.

This study's findings showed that Sepitori had a considerable influence on the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana L1 learners from two selected high schools in Winterveldt. This is so because most learners were not able to differentiate between Sepitori and Setswana forms in their academic writing.

It was revealed that the majority of Grade 12 Setswana learners used non-standard varieties in their essays. This showed that the most common language used in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners was Sepitori, to the extent that learners even failed their essays and had to repeat a particular grade because of failing Setswana HL. The reason for this situation was that the learners were exposed to different languages at home, which made it difficult for them to master a language they were using at school.

The problem was intensified because most of the learners who were learning Setswana at the two selected high schools in Winterveldt were not native speakers of Setswana. They were forced by circumstances beyond their control to learn Setswana at schools, and it made it more difficult for the learners to cope with standard Setswana as a subject. It was also discovered that learners had a negative attitude towards learning Setswana. They were not interested in learning Setswana and were not aware of how important Setswana was as their HL, especially when furthering their studies. It was also discovered that the learners were not reading Setswana books to improve their vocabulary and neither could they speak or write Setswana.

The findings revealed that many teachers teaching the Setswana HL subject were not Setswana native speakers. Furthermore, the teachers reported that the learners had a poor command of Setswana HL and did not even understand the basic concepts. They acknowledged that whenever they found it difficult to explain a concept in Setswana, they code-switched to make the teaching and learning meaningful. Importantly, the teachers expressed the view that learners should be given an opportunity to choose the HL subject of their choice.

- **What can Setswana teachers do to prevent the interference of Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana HL learners at the two selected public high schools in Winterveldt?**

This last research question was about finding out what Setswana teachers could do to prevent the interference of Sepitori in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana HL learners at the two selected public high schools in Winterveldt. The study answered this question by firstly proposing what media can do to prevent the interference of Sepitori in academic writing and, secondly, by naming the strategies they can use to prevent the interference of Sepitori.

Teachers proposed using the media to promote Setswana by making advertisements in Setswana, together with the use of newspapers, pamphlets, and billboards to promote its status and encourage learners to buy Setswana dictionaries. In addition, the teachers also suggested using innovative resources, such as audio-visual devices, television screen projectors and speakers to enhance the quality of Setswana lessons, with pertinent audio-visual content relevant to the lessons and the curriculum to promote Setswana proficiency.

Bamgbose (1992: 7) regards language as the most important factor in the learning and teaching process and teachers are regarded as language experts. However, in this study, the teachers stated that they code-switched regularly by using other languages to overcome the language barriers in the classroom. However, they suggested that standard Setswana practice should be promoted in academic writing. They also added that because their learning outcomes and learning objectives with regard to Setswana stipulated that learners should be eloquent and proficient in Setswana and this eloquence and proficiency should be demonstrated and assessed in their creative writing, listening and speaking and reading and viewing.

According to the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (2012: 8), the HL level (L1) prescribes “language proficiency that reflects the basic interpersonal communication” skills needed in social situations as well as the cognitive academic skills required for learning across the curriculum. At this language level, the emphasis is on teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. This level should also provide learners with literary, aesthetic, and imaginative abilities that will allow them “to recreate, imagine, and empower their understanding of the world” in which they live.

5.3 Recommendations

5.3.1 Recommendations regarding the learners

- Learners should be encouraged to read as many Setswana books as possible to improve their vocabulary;
- They should also be encouraged to create vocabulary lists of Setswana words. Learners should switch the operation systems of their phones, PC or ATM to Setswana to improve their vocabulary. Extending their general knowledge is also important with regard to idioms, proverbs, and figures of speech, from learners’ reading. This may help them broaden their knowledge of Setswana culture since culture is embedded in language;
- Activities, such as drama and debate sessions should take place in Setswana. at schools;
- Learners should make sure that they ask their parents to buy them Setswana dictionaries;
- Learners should motivate themselves to speak Setswana in public spaces and not feel ashamed to do this and interact in Setswana all the time during the Setswana lessons

and also outside the classroom environment, because you learn grammar through speaking, and this can help with their academic writing since they are studying Setswana as a HL at school; and

- Learners should adopt an atmosphere of learning in which they want to learn and not be forced to do so, but because they want to, so that they become Setswana specialists in the future.

5.3.2 Recommendations to the teachers

- Teachers need to be firm with learners, and mark their answers as wrong if they use Sepitori forms in their academic writing and must avoid being too lenient;
- Teachers are advised to use standard Setswana forms in class and avoid using code-switching when they are teaching Setswana, and this will help learners to become fluent;
- The use of Setswana dictionaries during the Setswana lessons should be enforced so that whenever learners come across a word that they do not understand, they should look the word up instantly;
- Teachers should encourage learners to make word lists of all the words they find difficult to understand in separate notebooks, look for the meaning in the dictionary, or they can even ask their teachers for an explanation; and
- Teachers should guide learners about career opportunities that will need Setswana as a HL.

5.3.3 Recommendations for the Department of Basic Education

- Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that the Department of Basic Education should invest in Setswana HL as a subject so that it can compete with other languages, such as Afrikaans and English;
- The Department of Basic Education should enforce the requirement that teachers who are teaching Setswana HL should have majored in Setswana at tertiary level;
- Phonetics should be taught and tonal markers and accent strips should be emphasised and used in writing to help with the pronunciation of Setswana words;

- The department should also motivate Setswana Grade 12 teachers and learners who perform exceptionally well in the Setswana HL subject by giving them incentives, such as bursaries, so that other teachers and learners can also be encouraged to do well;
- Concerted efforts should be made for some years to come, both through the in-service training programmes of the Department of Education and the institutions of higher learning to support Setswana and other African languages to stay abreast of teaching strategies in a multilingual and a multicultural classroom; and
- The department should continue to support the establishment and development of Setswana HL teacher associations until they are fully functional, and are able to fulfil their role in promoting the professionalisation of the sector and creating platforms where teachers' voices can be heard.

REFERENCES

- AKARANGA, S.I., & MAKAU, B.K. 2016. Ethical considerations and their applications to research: A Case of the University of Nairobi. *Journal of Educational Policy And Entrepreneurial Research*, 3(12):1-9
- AKINDELE, D.F. & LETSOALO, M. 2001. Code-switching in Lesotho secondary and high schools: Lessons and its effects on teaching and learning. In: *BOLESWA Educational Research Journal*, 18: 83-100.
- ALLPORT, W. 1967. *Pattern and growth in personality*. Oxford, England: Holt.
- ARMINGER, B. 1997. Ethics in nursing research: Profile, principles, perspective. *Nursing Research*, 26(5):330-333.
- AUER J. C. P. 1984. *BILINGUAL CONVERSATION*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 1984. Pp. 116.
- AVEYARD, H. 2010. *Doing a literature review in health and social care: A practical guide*. (2nd ed.) . Berkshire, Great Britain: Open University Press.
- BABBIE, E. 1990. *Survey research methods*. (2nd ed.). Belmont, California: Wadsworth.
- BABBIE, E. 2007. *The basics of social research*. Toronto: Thomas/Wadsworth.
- BAILEY, K.D. 1982. *Methods of social research*. New York: The Free Press.
- BAKER, C. 1992. *Attitudes and Language: Multilingual Matters*
- BAMGBOSE, A. 1992. *Language and the Nation: The Language Question in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press for International African Institute.
- BAMGBOSE. 1996. *Language policy in the new South Africa. Chapter 11, ADEA, 1992-1992* pp7. Cape Town: Stellenbosch University.
- BENSON, C. 2005. *Girls, educational equity, and mother tongue*. Bangkok: UNESCO.

- BILGIN, N. (2007). *Social psychology dictionary concepts and approaches*. Istanbul: Context Publishing House.
- BLESS, C., & HIGSON-SMITH, C. 2000. *Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perspective*. Cape Town: Juta and Company.
- BLUNDELL, D.J. & SCOTT, A. (1998). Lyell: *The past is the key to the present*. 143.
- BOKAMBA, E. G. (1988). Code-mixing, language variation, and linguistic theory: Evidence from Bantu languages. *Lingua*, 76(1), 21-62. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0024-3841\(88\)90017-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0024-3841(88)90017-4)
- BONVILLAIN, N. 2013. *Language, culture, and communication the meaning of messages*. New York, United States of America: Pearson Education.
- BOPHUTHATSWANA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION Act 9 of 1973.
- BOPHUTHATSWANA. Department of Education: Report- Education System of Bophuthatswana 1972-1980:7, 16 & 22.
- BORDENS, K. S. & ABBOTT, B. B. 2011. *Research Design and Methods*, New York: Mc. Graw Hill, 2014, p. 450.
- BORDENS, K.S. & ABBOTT, B. B. 2011. *Research design and methods: A process approach*. (8th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- BOURDIEU, P. 1977. Cultural Reproduction and Social Reproduction. In J. Karabel, & A. H. Halsey (Eds.), *Power and Ideology in Education* (pp. 487-511). New York: Oxford University Press.
- BRADSHAW E. 2017. Regulation of Small Mitochondrial DNA Replicative Advantage by Ribonucleotide Reductase in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *G3 (Bethesda)* 7(9):3083-3090
- BRINK, H. 1996. *Fundamentals of research methodology for health care professionals*. Cape Town: Juta.
- BROWN, G., & YULE, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- BROWN, H.D. 1987. *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- BRYMAN, A. 2003. *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- BUCHER, R., FRITZ, C.E., & QUARANTELLI, E.L. 1956. Tape recorded interviews in social research. *American sociological review*, 21(3):359-364.

- BURNS, R. 2000. *Introduction to research methods*. London: SAGE Publications.
- CALTEAUX, K. 1992. *Language in South Africa*. Cambridge: University of Cambridge.
- CALTEAUX, K. 1996. *Standard and non-standard African language varieties in the urban areas of South Africa: Main report for the Stanton Research Programme*, Pretoria, Human Sciences Research Council.
- CALTEAUX, K. 1994. *Standard and non-standard African Languages varieties in the urban areas of South Africa*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- CANAGARAJAH, K. 2013. *Translingual practice: Global Englishers and cosmopolitan relations*. London/New York: Routledge. 2013. vii + 216 pp. Pb(9780415684002) US\$43.95.
- CARTER, R., & NUNAN, D. 2001. *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- CHILISA, B. & KAWULICH, B. 2012. *Selecting a research approach: Paradigm, methodology and methods*. Georgia: University of West Georgia.
- CHILISA, B. 2012. *Indigenous Research Methods*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publication.
- CHOMSKY, N. 1959. Review of verbal behaviour by B. F. Skinner. *Language*, 35:26-58.
- CHOMSKY, N. 1965. *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press.
- CHOMSKY, N. 1968. *Language and mind*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- CLARK, V. L. 2017. *Designing and conducting mixed methods research (3rd ed.)*. SAGE Publications.
- CORBETTA, P. 2003. *Social research theory, method and techniques*. London: SAGE.
- CORNELL, S. & HARTMANN, D. 1998. *Ethnicity and race: Making identities in a changing world*. California: Pine Forge Press.
- CRESWELL, J. W. 2007. *Qualitative inquiry and research design. Choosing among five approaches*. 2nd. Thousand Oakes: SAGE Publications.
- CRESWELL, J. W. 2010. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- CRESWELL, J.W. 2007. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- CRESWELL, J.W. 2014. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (4th ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

- CRESWELL, K, WORTH, A. & SHEIKH, A. 2010. Actor-network theory and its role in understanding the implementation of information technology developments in healthcare. *BMC Medical Informatics and Decision Making*. 10(3): 70.
- CRYSTAL, D.1987. *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language*: Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- CRYSTAL, J.W.1985. *Language death*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT (CAPS) (2012).
- DENZIN, N. & LINCOLN, Y. 2000. *The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research*. In: Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S., Eds., *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, SAGE Thousand Oaks, 1-32.
- DENZIN, N. K., & LINCOLN, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1–32). SAGE publications Ltd.
- DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION. 2012. *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement*. Pretoria: Government Printing Works.
- DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. 2011. *Revised National Curriculum Statement for Further Education and Training Phase Grades 10-12*. Pretoria: Government Printings.
- DITSELE, T. & MANN, C.C. 2014. Language contact in urban settings in Africa: The case of Sepitori in Tshwane. *South African Journal of African Languages*, 34(2): 159–169.
- DITSELE, T. 2012. Language contact in urban settings in Africa: The case of Sepitori in Tshwane. *South African Journal of African Languages*, 34:2, 159-165.
- DITSELE, T. 2014. Why not use Sepitori to enrich the vocabularies of Setswana and Sepedi? *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 32(2): 215–228.
- DOODY, O. & NOOMAN, M. 2013. Preparing and conducting interviews to collect data. *Nurse Researcher*, 20(5):28-32.
- DURRHEIM, K., & DIXON, J. (2004). Attitudes in the Fiber of Everyday Life: The Discourse of Racial Evaluation and the Lived Experience of Desegregation. *American Psychologist*, 59, 626-636.
- ECCLES, J. S., & WIGFIELD, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53, 109–132.
- EDWARDS, J. 1994. *Multilingualism*. London: Routledge.

- ENGLISH CONCISE DICTIONARY. 2010. *The 2nd edition South African Oxford Concise Dictionary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- ERICKSON, E., 1987. *Childhood and society*. 2d ed., rev. and enl. New York, Norton.
- ETIKAN, I., MUSA, S. A., & ALKASSIM, R. S. 2016. Comparison of Convenience Sampling and Purposive Sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5, 1-4.
- ETIKAN, I., MUSA, S.A., & ALKASSIM R.S. 2016. Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1):1-2.
- FERGUSON, C.A. 1966. On sociolinguistically oriented language surveys. *The Linguistic Reporter*, 8(4): 1-3. (Reprinted in *Language structure and language use*, ed. By A. DILL, Journal, Stanford University Press).
- FINK, A. & KOSECOFF, J. 1998. *How to conduct survey: A step-by-step guide* (2nd ed). London: SAGE publications.
- FLYVBJERG, B. 2011. Case study. In: N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (eds.). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*, pp. 301–316. (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- FOUCHE, C.B. AND DELPORT, C.S.L. 2002. In-Depth Review of Literature. In: De Vos, A.S., Ed., *Research at Grass Roots: For the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions*, 2nd Edition, Pretoria, Van Schaik 127-136.
- FOUGHT, C. 2006. *Language and Ethnicity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- FOUKA, G. & MANTZOROU, M. 2011. What are the major ethical issues in conducting research? Is there a conflict between the research ethics and the nature of nursing? *Health Science Journal*, 5(1): 3.
- FREY, L., BOTAN, C & KREPS, G. (1999). *Investigating communication: An introduction to research methods*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- FREY, L., BOTAN, C & KREPS, G 2000. *Investigating communication: An introduction to research methods*. (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- GARCÍA, O., & L. WEI. 2014. *Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

- GARCÍA, O., & SYLVAN, C. 2011. "Pedagogies and Practices in Multilingual Classrooms: Singularities in Pluralities."
- GARDNER, R.C. 1985. *The socio psychology and second language learning*. London: E. Arnold.
- GERSTENMAIER, J. & MANDL, H. (2001). *Constructivism in Cognitive Psychology*. 10.1016/B0-08-043076-7/01472-8.
- GUBUZA, S.F. 2004. 'Financial Management as the Function of the School Governing Body' MEd dissertation, Rand Afrikaans University.
- GUMPERZ, J. J. & HYMES. D. (eds.) 1970. On communicative competence. *Directions in sociolinguistics*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- GUMPERZ, J. J. 1982. *Discourse strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- HALLIDAY, M. A. K. 1985. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar (1st ed.)*. London: Edward Arnold
- HART, L 2018. Anthropology meets Human Rights Rationality: Limits of Family Life in the European Court of Human Rights. *European Societies*. 20(5): 816-834.
- HLAHLA, P. 2004. *Winterveldt set to be upgraded*. Pretoria News, 22 July, 54
- HLAVISO, A. M. & MAKALELA, L. 2016. Translanguaging in an academic writing class: Implications for a dialogic pedagogy. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 34:3: 251-260.
- HORN, A. HATTINGH, P. & VERMAAK, J. 1992. *The apartheid city and beyond: Urbanization and social change in South Africa*. London: Routledge.
- HYMES, D. H. 1971. *On communicative competence*. Philadelphia: University of Philadelphia Press.
- KAJORNBOON, A. B. 2004. *Creating useful knowledge: A case study of policy development in E-learning at Chulankorn University Language Institute*. Dissertation. Australia: University of Melbourne.
- KELLER, J. M. 1983. Motivational design of instruction. In C. M. Reigeluth (Ed.), *Instructional design theories and models: An overview of their current status* (pp. 383-434)
- KERLINGER, F.N. 1986. *Foundations of Behavioral Research*. 3rd Edition, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.

- KHUMALO, N.H.E. 1995. *The language contact situation in Daveyton*. Master's dissertation, Soweto: Vista University.
- KIESWETTER, A.1995. *Code-switching amongst African high school pupils*. Johannesburg: University of the Witwatersrand.
- KOTHARI, C.R. 2000. *Measurement and scaling techniques, research methodology*. New Delhi: Wishwa Prakashan Publications.
- KUMAR, R. 2015. *Research methodology*. 4th ed. London: SAGE Publications.
- LEEDY, B. D. 1997. *Practical research – Planning and design* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Von Hoffman Press.
- LEEDY, P.D. & ORMROD, J.E. 2005. *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, NJ.<http://www.worldcat.org/title/practical-research-planning-and-design/oclc/53831701>
- LEWIS, M. M. & LOCKHEED, L. 2006. *Inexcusable absence: Why 60 million girls still aren't in school and what to do about it*. Washington, D.C.: Centre for Global Development.
- LIGHTBOWN P. M. & SPADA N. 1993. *How languages are learned..* New York: Oxford University Press.
- LIGHTFOOT, D. 2010. Language acquisition and language change. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Cognitive Science*. 1. 677 - 684. 10.1002/wcs.39.
- LOPEZ, V. & WHITEHEAD, D. 2013. *Sampling data and data collection in qualitative research*. London: Elsevier Health Sciences.
- MAKGAI, S.M.C. 2015. *Essay Writing Skill: A concern in Sepedi Secondary Schools in the Bronkhorstspuit Circuit, Gauteng Province*. Med. Thesis: University of Pretoria.
- MALIMABE, R.M. 1990. *The influence of non-standard varieties on the standard Setswana of high school pupils*. Master's dissertation, Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University.
- MARK, J. 1996. *Human biodiversity: Genes, race, and history*. Hawthorne, NY: Aldine.
- MAY, K.A. 1989. Interview techniques in qualitative research: concerns and challenges. In J. Morse (ed.), *Qualitative nursing research: A contemporary dialogue*, pp.188-201. London: SAGE Publications: 188- 201.

- MCMILLAN, J. H., & SCHUMACHER, S. 2001. *Research in education: A conceptual introduction*. (5th ed.). New York: Longman.
- MESEC, B. 1998. *Introduction to qualitative research in social work*. Ljubljana: Visoka school for social work.
- MILROY, L. & MUYSKEN, P. 1995. *Introduction: Code-switching and bilingualism research*. *Modern Language Journal* 95 (3) : 385–400.
- MOJELA, M.V. 1990. *Semantic Changes Accompanying Loan Words in the Northern Sotho Lexicon*. Unpublished M.A. Thesis. Pretoria: Vista University.
- MOJELA, V.M. 1991. *Semantic changes accompanying loan-words in the Northern Sotho lexicon*. Unpublished M.A. Thesis. Pretoria: Vista University.
- MOJELA, V.M. 1999. *Prestige Terminology and its Consequences in the Development of Northern Sotho Vocabulary*. Unpublished D.Litt. et Phil. Thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- MOKGOKO, B.D. 2019. *Teaching Setswana as a home language subject in secondary schools in a linguistically diverse community*. Pretoria: South Africa. University of Pretoria.
- MOKGWATHI, T.S. 2011. *Role of code-switching in teaching and learning in selected senior secondary schools in Botswana*. DPhil (Applied Linguistics). Pretoria: South Africa. University of Pretoria.
- MOLOTO, E.S. 1964. *A critical investigation of the standardization of written Tswana: a study of the history and present state of Tswana orthography* (Doctoral dissertation). Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- MONA, B. 2011. *In other words*. New York: Routledge Publishers.
- MOODLEY, V. 2016. *Introduction to language methodology*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- MOYO, T. 2008. Problems in implementing instructional languages: Why the language-in-education policy will fail. *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*. 32(1): 97-114.

- MUTASA, D.E. 2004. *People speak: Language policy and language use in South Africa*. Pretoria: S. G Publications.
- MUYSKEN, P. 1995. *Cross disciplinary perspectives on code-switching*. Cambridge & New York: Cambridge University Press.
- MYERS-SCOTTON, C. 1993. *Social motivations for code-switching: Evidence from Africa*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- MYERS-SCOTTON, C.M. 1993. *Duelling languages: Grammatical structure in code-switching*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- MYERS-SCOTTON, C.M.1992. *Duelling languages: Grammatical structure in code-switching*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- NCOKO, S. O. S., OSMAN, R., COCKCROFT, K. 2000. Codeswitching Among Multilingual Learners in Primary Schools in South Africa: *An Exploratory Study*. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. v3 n4 p225-41 2000
- NEUMAN, W.L. 1997. *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. 3rd Edition, Allyn and Bacon, Boston
- NFILA, B.I. 2002. *Standard Setswana in Botswana*. MEd. thesis. Pretoria: South Africa. University of Pretoria.
- NOOR, K.B.M. 2008. Case study: A strategic research methodology. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 5(11): 1602-1604.
- NUMAN, D. & CARTER. D. 2001. *Teaching English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'CONNOR, H. & GIBSON, N. 2003. A step-by-step guide to qualitative data analysis. Pimatisiwin: *A Journal of Aboriginal and Indigenous Community Health*, 1(1):62-90.
- OLAY, S. 2005. The functions of code-switching in ELT classroom. *TESL Journal* 18(3), 320-324.
- PACHECO, M.B. 2016. *Translanguaging in the English-centred classroom: A community of practice perspective*. Doctoral dissertation, Tennessee: Graduate School of Vanderbilt University.
- PATTON, M.Q. 2000. *Qualitative research and evaluation method*. London: SAGE Publications.

- PATTON, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- POLIT, D.F. & HUNGLER, B.P. 1999. *Nursing research: Principles and methods*. (6th ed.) . Philadelphia: JB Lippincott.
- POPAGANO, 1984. Bophuthatswana Department of Education, 5 (2), 8, 18-19.
- POPAGANO, 1984. Bophuthatswana Department of Education, 5 (2):22.
- POPAGANO, 1989. Bophuthatswana Department of Education pp. 99-101.
- POPLACK, S, 1980. Dialect acquisition among Puerto Rican bilinguals. *Language in Society*, 7:23
- PRAH, K. K. 2006. Challenges to the promotion of the indigenous languages in South Africa. *The Center for Advanced of African Society*, November: 29-30.
- RAIKANE, E.N. 1987. *The national educational ideal as a determinant of the educational system of Bophuthatswana and Botswana*. MEd thesis, Potchefstroom: Northwest University.
- RAMAGOSHI, R.M. 2010. AFT Module: Teaching of African languages. Post-graduate *methodology of African Languages Study Guide*. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.
- REITZES, M. & BAM, S. 2000. Citizenship, immigration, and identity in Winterveldt. *South Africa, Canadian Journal of African Studie,s* 34(1): 80–100.
- REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA. DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION. 2011. *Curriculum Assessment and Policy Statement*. Pretoria: Government Printer Works.
- RESNIK, D.B. 2011. What is ethics in research & why is it important. *National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences*, 1(10): 49-70.
- RUNDELL, M. & FOX, G. (eds.). 2002. *MacMillan English dictionary for advanced learners*. Oxford: MacMillan.
- SAGADIN, J. (1991). *Discussions in pedagogical methodology*. Ljubljana: Scientific Institute Faculty of Philosophy.
- SCHURING, G.K. 1985. *Die omgangs-Sotho van die swart woongebiede van Pretoria*. Doctoral thesis, Pretoria: University of South Africa.

- SCHWANDT, C.S. & MCKAY, G.A. 1998. Rare earth element partition coefficients from enstatite/melt synthesis experiments. *Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta* 62(16): 2,845-2,848. doi: 10.1016/S0016-7037(98)00233-6.
- SCHWARTZ, A., & WILDE, L. L. 1979. Intervening in Markets on the Basis of Imperfect Information: A Legal and Economics Analysis. *University of Pennsylvania Law Review*, 127, 630-682.
- SELINGER, H. W., & SHOHAMY, E. (1989). *Second Language Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- SIEGEL, J. 2005. Immune Globulins: Therapeutic, Pharmaceutical, Cost, and Administration Considerations. *Pharmacy Practice News, Special Edition*, 15-19.
- SILVERMAN, D. 2009. Reference Electrodes in Metal Corrosion. *International Journal of Corrosion*, 1-20.
- SIMONE, A.M. 2004. *For the city yet to come: Changing African life in four cities*. London: Duke University Press.
- SIMONS, H. 2009. *Case study research in practice*. London: SAGE Publications.
- SINGH R, et al. (2006) Struct2net: integrating structure into protein-protein interaction prediction. *Pac Symp Biocomput.* 403-14.
- SMITH, L. H., & J. S. RENZULLI. 1984. Learning style preferences: A practical approach for classroom teachers. *Theory into Practice*, 23, 44-50.
- Smits, M.T. (2003) Performance Metrics in Supply Chain Management. *Journal of the Operational Research Society*, 26, 54, 507-514.
- STAKE, R. E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In: N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (eds.). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*, pp. 443-466. (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- STATISTICS SOUTH AFRICA. Census 2011. *Statistics South Africa*. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- STEINBERG, S. 1984. Mechanisms of Folate Homeostasis. *American Journal of Physiology*, 246, 319-324.

- STREET, B. 1984. *Literacy: Theory and Practice*. Cambridge University Press: New York.
- STRUWING, F.W. & STEAD, G.B. 2001. *Planning, designing, and reporting research*. 4th ed. Cape Town: Pearson Education South Africa.
- STURMAN, A. 1997. Case study methods. In: J. P. Keeves (ed.). *Educational research, methodology and measurement: an international handbook*, pp.61-66. (2nd ed.). Oxford: Pergamon.
- SWAIN M. 2006. Linguaging, Agency and Collaboration in Advanced Second Language Proficiency. In Byrnes H. (Ed.), *Advanced Language Learning: The Contribution of Halliday and Vygotsky*, 95-108. London-New York: Continuum.
- SWANEPOEL, R. 1978. Determination of the Thickness and Optical Constants of Amorphous Silicon. *Journal of Physics E: Scientific Instruments*, 16, 1214-1218.
- TERR BLANCHE, M., DURRHEIM, K. AND PAINTER, D. 2006. *Research in Practice: Applied Methods for Social Sciences*. 2nd Edition, UCT Press, Cape Town.
- THAMAGA, L.J. 2012. *IsiNdebele Influence on Sepedi Learners Around the Dennilton Region in the Limpopo Province*. Pretoria, South Africa: University of Pretoria.
- TSHINKI, A.M. 2002. *Code-switching in Setswana in Botswana*. MEd. Thesis. Pretoria: South Africa. University of Pretoria.
- VAN WYK, H. de J. 1989. Interpretation and presentation of results, In: Martins, J.H., Loubser, M & Van Wyk, H. de J. (Eds.) *Marketing research: a South African approach*. Pretoria: University of South Africa Press:395-426.
- WAGNER, V.K. 2020. Influence of Sepitori on standard Setswana of the home language learners at three Tshwane townships. *Literator* 41(1).
- WARDHAUGH, R. 1992. *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Australia: Blackwell Publishing.
- WEBB, V. 2010. The politics of standardising Bantu languages in South Africa. *Language Matters*, 41:2, 157-174, DOI: 10.1080/10228195.2010.500674.

WILGA, M. 1968. *Teaching a foreign-language skills*. Chicago: University of Chicago press.

WILKINSON, D. & BIRMINGHAM, P. 2003. *Using research instruments: A guide for researchers*. London: Psychology Press.

WILLEM, E.S. & IMSTRAUD, N. 2014. *Design, evaluation, and analysis of questionnaire for survey research*: 2nd ed, Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

WILSON, H.S. AND HUTCHINSON, S.A. (1991) Triangulation of Qualitative Methods: Heideggerian Hermeneutics and Grounded Theory. *Qualitative Health Research*, 1, 263-276.

ZOHRABI, M. 2013. Mixed-methods research: Instruments, validity, reliability and reporting findings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(2): 254-262.

ETHICS REVIEW CHECKLIST

(M.P Selepe; Master of Language Practice)

<p>The following checklist provides a quick way to establish whether your research project involves potential ethical issues. This checklist must be completed before potential participants are approached to take part in any research. If you answer YES to any of the items, you MAY require ethical approval for the research project. Please contact any member of the TUT Research Ethics Committee for guidance.</p>		
	YES	NO
Does the project involve a clinical trial , i.e. the testing of any novel medical or pharmaceutical interventions?		✓
Is physiological/physical stress, pain, or more than mild discomfort likely to result from participation in the study?		✓
Are drugs, placebos or other substances (e.g. food substances, vitamins) to be administered to the research participants?		✓
Is emotional/psychological stress, anxiety, or more than mild discomfort likely to result from participation in the study?		✓
Could any research participant or his/her family/community be at risk or be adversely affected by their participation in the research project? It includes any form of cultural, social or financial risk/harm.		✓
Are the research participants asked potentially sensitive, incriminating, confidential or personal questions about themselves (e.g. sexual activity, drug use) or their organisation (e.g. work satisfaction)?		✓
Does the project require the collection of any body tissues (e.g. muscle biopsy) or fluids (e.g. blood, urine) from the research participants?		✓
Does the project involve the use of human/animal specimens and/or samples that were originally collected for purposes other than this research?		✓
Will the study involve recruitment of TUT staff and/or students as research participants?		✓
<i>Note 1</i>		

Are any of the research participants limited in their ability to give informed and voluntary consent, i.e. a member of a vulnerable population ? This includes clinic patients, TUT staff members, TUT students, children, elderly, terminally ill patients, mentally disabled, institutionalized and prison groupings. <i>Note 2</i>	✓	
Do you have a known/special relationship with any of the research participants (e.g. lecturer-student, practitioner-patient and friend/family relationships)?	✓	
Will it be necessary for participants to take part in the study without their knowledge and consent at the time (e.g. covert observation of people in non-public places)?	✓	
Will any kind of incentive (including compensation for time and transport) be offered to research participants?		✓
Are any intellectual and/or cultural property right issues (e.g. traditional healer practices) relevant to the data/results of the research?		✓
Does the project involve specialized procedures that are by law reserved for registered professionals, e.g. physicians, booking ethicists, nurses?		✓
Does the project involve the genetic manipulation/modification of any organism / plant?		✓
Does your project involve any experiments on vertebrate animals?		✓
Will the research project have a direct impact on the natural environment/ecosystem (e.g. collection of soil samples or plant material, the implementation of a rehabilitation programme and the disposal of chemical waste)?.		✓
Has any organization provided financial or in-kind support for this project? This refers to potential conflict-of-interest issues that may affect the unrestricted publication of the research results. It includes direct material benefit that the researcher may receive from the sponsoring organization for a contract research project. However, it excludes bona fide research funding agencies, such as the NRF and MRC.		✓

<i>Note 1</i>		✓
Where the study involves recruitment of TUT staff and/or students as research participants, the <u>following documents must be submitted for review</u> : <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research questionnaires (i.e. paper-based format, electronic format, structured interview) • Information Leaflet • Informed Consent documents for the respective participant groups 		
<i>Note 2</i>	✓	

<p>Where the study involves participants of a vulnerable population [this includes clinic patients, children, elderly, terminally ill patients, mentally disabled, institutionalized and prison groupings], the following documents must be submitted for review:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Research questionnaires (i.e. paper-based format, electronic format, structured interview) • Information Leaflet • Informed Consent documents for the respective participant groups • Letters seeking consent to enter domains • Assent in the case of minors 		
--	--	--

Source consulted:

Research Ethics Review Checklist (Version 3, May 2007), Canterbury Christ Church University, England.

TSHWANE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

ETHICS DECLARATION FOR RESEARCHERS

Sepitori forms in academic writing on Grade 12 Setswana learners: A case study from two public High Schools in Winterveldt.

I, Mmapule Prhodesia Selepe

(the principal researcher of the proposed research project)

and

Dr M.M. Makgato

(the study leader/supervisor of the proposed research project)

Have read the relevant Guidelines for Ethics as used by the Tshwane University of Technology Research Ethics Committee and have prepared this proposal with due cognisance of its content. Furthermore, I will adhere to the principles expressed in these guidelines when conducting my proposed research project.

List of Guidelines:-

Please **tick and sign** next to the relevant guideline.

- **MRC Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research:** Booklets include :

- * These booklets are available at the Directorate: Research & Development in Building 20-132, Pretoria Campus or on the MRC website: www.mrc.ac.za

1. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - General Principles.

2. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - Reproductive Biology

and Genetic Research.

3. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - Use of Animals in Research.

4. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - Use of Biohazards and Radiation.

5. Guidelines on Ethics for Medical Research - HIV Vaccine Trials.

- **Human Sciences Research Council:** Research Code.

- **National Zoological Gardens of SA:** National code for the handling and use of animals in research, education, diagnosis and testing of drugs

and related substances in SA.


- **Department of Health:** Guidelines for good practice in the conduct of clinical trials in human participants in SA.



NAME & SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL RESEARCHER

DATE

and



NAME & SIGNATURE OF STUDY LEADER/SUPERVISOR

DATE



INFORMATION LEAFLET AND RESEARCH SUBJECTS' CONSENT FORM
(LEARNERS)

PROJECT TITLE: Sepitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners: A case from two public High Schools in Winterveldt.

PRIMARY INVESTIGATOR: Ms Selepe, M.P.

STUDY LEADER: Dr M.M. Makgato
Department of Applied Languages
Tshwane University of Technology,
Soshanguve South

Dear Parent,

Your child is invited to participate in a research study that forms part of my formal MTech studies. The information in this leaflet explains what will be expected of your child, should he/she be willing to participate.

WHAT IS THE STUDY ALL ABOUT?

This study is all about the Sepitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana Learners: A case study from two public High Schools in Winterveldt.

The intention of this research is to gather data and do research by visiting two Winterveldt High Schools in Tshwane and gather evidence by means of interviewing Setswana educators and their learners and conducting text analysis based on essays written by Grade 12 Setswana learners.

In this study, I hope to determine whether Sepitori forms have an impact in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana Learners and to find out what can be done to prevent its interference in the usage of standard Setswana in High Schools so that it maintains its official status.

Furthermore, the research study intends to explore possible ways that Setswana educators can do to prevent Sepitori forms in the academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners.

WHAT ARE YOU REQUIRED TO DO SHOULD YOU AGREE THAT YOU'RE CHILD MAY PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY?

If the participant is willing to take part in the study, as a parent you would be required to do the following:

- Sign this consent form.
-

WHAT WILL YOUR CHILD BE REQUIRED TO DO SHOULD YOU AGREE THAT S/HE MAY PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY?

She/he will be asked to write an essay about: The first time in high school and how the experience was, 400-450 words for an hour, which they will be given in class and participate in a focus group interview. The main aim is to examine their opinions about their writing and exposure to Setswana as a language and a subject at school and subsequently to determine if they are no Sepitori forms that they use when writing in Setswana.

ARE THERE ANY CONDITIONS THAT MAY EXCLUDE YOUR CHILD FROM THE STUDY?

The participant will not be eligible to participate in this study, if s/he is not a Grader 12 Setswana L1 learner and not born and raised in Winterveldt.

WHAT ARE THE RISKS INVOLVED IN THIS STUDY?

Text Analysis: There is no predictable risk involved in this task, which is what they would normally be required to do in class.

Semi-Structured interview: The procedure involves no foreseeable physical discomfort to the participant, but s/he may be requested to respond to personal questions, in relation to their learning of Setswana both at home and at school. A tape recorder may be used as an information collection instrument.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS THAT MAY COME FROM THE STUDY?

The benefits of participating in the study are to make the child aware of the importance of learning and writing standard Setswana at Grade 12 and also to make him/her realise the influence and impact that Sepitori forms can have to his/her academic writing which may result in him/her performing poorly in the subject and/or fail Setswana.

INCENTIVE FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY?

Please, note that the child's participation is voluntary and s/he will not be compensated for taking part in the study.

WHAT ARE YOUR RIGHTS AS A PARTICIPANT IN THIS STUDY?

If a parent/legal guardian gives permission to the child to take part in this study, but the participation of the child is voluntary, and she/he is free to withdraw participation at any time. The information received during the project will only be used for research purposes, and will not be released for any teacher-learner performance evaluation purposes.

HOW WILL CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY BE ENSURED IN THE STUDY?

All the data during the study will be handled confidentially. This means that access to the information that the child provides will be strictly limited to the researcher, the supervisors of the study and designated examiners. Also your child's data and personal information will be kept and stored in a confidential format which will only be accessible to the researcher.

IS THE RESEARCHER QUALIFIED TO CARRY OUT THE STUDY?

The researcher will appoint a qualified teacher in the field of Language.

WHO CAN YOU CONTACT FOR ADDITIONAL INFORMATION REGARDING THE STUDY?

The primary investigator, Ms M.P Selepe can be contacted on her cellular phone at 072 404 0125. The study leader, Dr M.M. Makgato can be contacted during office hours at (012) 383 9153. Should you have any questions, regarding the ethical aspects of the study, you can contact the chairperson of the Faculty of Humanities Research Ethics Committee, Prof during office hours at Tel (012) 382 9932.

DECLARATION: CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The researcher's position constitutes no possible conflict of interest in this study.

A FINAL WORD

The participant's co-operation and participation in the study will be greatly appreciated. Please, sign the consent form below, if you agree that s/he can participate in the study. In such a case, you will receive a copy of the signed consent form from the researcher.

CONSENT

I hereby confirm that I have been adequately informed by the researcher about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of the study. I have also received, read and understood the above written information. I am aware that the results of the study will be anonymously processed into a research report. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study. I had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and of my own free will declare myself prepared to participate in the study.

Research participant's name: _____ (Please print)

Research participant's signature: _____

Date: _____

Researcher's name: _____ (Please print)

Researcher's signature: _____

Date: _____

A. DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF LEARNERS

Personal information and background of learners

Dear Participant

My name is Mmapule Prhodesia Selepe. I am registered at Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), studying toward a master's degree in Language Practice. I am interested in *Sepitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners*.

I will handle personal information and the data confidentially. This means access to data will be strictly limited to me, my supervisors and selected examiners. In addition, I will store personal information in such a way that I will be the only person to access it.

By participating in this study, you will be contributing to new knowledge that may help in further research in Setswana learning and teaching.

Should you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me at 072 4040 125 or email mmapuleselepe@gmail.com/212198510@tut4life.ac.za

Instructions please use a black pen and tick where necessary

1 Gender

Male Female

2 Age

17-20 21-25 26-30 31-35 36-40 41-50 51-60

3 Home Language

Setswana IsiZulu Xitsonga venda Sepedi

Others

4 School

B. WRITING TASK BY LEARNERS FOR TEXT ANALYSIS

Topic: Write an essay in Setswana about, 'Letsatsi lame la ntlha kwa Sekolong se se golwana'.

Essay should be 400-450 words.

- Duration of the activity: 1 hour.
- Write neatly and legibly

C. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR LEARNERS

1. Can you differentiate between Setswana and Sepitori forms? Elaborate with examples.
2. Are you able to write in Setswana? Elaborate.
3. Do you normally read Setswana books for pleasure, or do you only read in class?
4. Do you think Sepitori forms have an influence on learning and acquiring Setswana? Elaborate.
5. Which language is mainly spoken in your Setswana home language class and why?
6. Do you enjoy writing Setswana essays? Elaborate.

INFORMATION LEAFLET AND RESEARCH SUBJECTS' CONSENT FORM
(SETSWANA HOME LANGUAGE TEACHERS)

PRIMARY INVESTIGATOR: Ms M.P. Selepe

STUDY LEADER : Dr M.M. Makgato

Department of Applied Languages
Tshwane University of Technology,
Soshanguve South

Dear Research Participant,

You are invited to participate in a research study that forms part of my formal MTech. Studies. The information in this leaflet explains to you what will be expected of you, should you be selected to take participate.

WHAT IS THE STUDY ALL ABOUT?

The aim to this study is to determine what influence does Sepitori has in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners and to find out what Setswana educators can do to prevent the interference of Sepitori forms on standard Setswana in High Schools so that it maintains its official status.

WHAT YOU WILL BE REQUIRED TO DO IN THE STUDY

Interviews will be conducted at pre-arranged time-slots, and at venues convenient to participants.

If you are selected to take part in the study, you would be required to do the following:

- Sign this consent form;
- Participate in an interview about the challenges they come across when teaching Grade 12 Setswana Home learners.

ARE THERE ANY CONDITIONS THAT MAY EXCLUDE YOU FROM THE STUDY?

You will not be eligible to participate in this study, if you are not a teacher of Grade 12 Setswana learners.

WHAT ARE THE RISKS INVOLVED IN THIS STUDY?

Semi-structured Interviews: The procedure involves no foreseeable physical discomfort to you, and the questions are not personal, neither are they emotional. Interview questions will only be in relation to the influence of Sipitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners and also find out what is it that educators may do to prevent the interference of Sipitori forms on standard Setswana in High Schools so that it maintains its official status.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS THAT MAY COME FROM THE STUDY?

The benefits of participating in the study are: You may make a contribution as a teacher in determining whether Sepitori may be the influence of Grade 12 Setswana learners and prevent the interference of Sipitori forms on standard Setswana in High Schools so that it maintain its official status.

INCENTIVE FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY?

Please, note that you will **not** be paid to participate in the study.

WHAT ARE YOUR RIGHTS AS A PARTICIPANT IN THIS STUDY?

Your participation in the study is voluntary, and you are free to withdraw your participation from the study at any time, should you not want to continue with it. The information received during the project will only be used for research purposes and not be released for any teacher-learner performance evaluation purposes.

HOW WILL CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY BE ENSURED IN THE STUDY?

All the data during the study will be handled confidentially. This means that access to your data will be strictly limited to the researcher, the supervisors of the study and designated examiners. Also your data and personal information will be kept and stored in a confidential format which will only be accessible to the researcher.

IS THE RESEARCHER QUALIFIED TO CARRY OUT THE STUDY?

The researcher will appoint a qualified teacher in the field of Language.

WHO CAN YOU CONTACT FOR ADDITIONAL INFORMATION REGARDING THE STUDY?

The primary investigator, Ms M.P Selepe can be contacted on her cellular phone at 072 404 0125. The study leader, Dr M.M. Makgato can be contacted during office hours at (012) 383 9153. Should you have any questions, regarding the ethical aspects of the study, you can contact the chairperson of the Faculty of Humanities Research Ethics Committee, Prof, during office hours at Tel (012) 382 9932.

DECLARATION: CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The researcher's position constitutes no possible conflict of interest in this study.

A FINAL WORD

Your co-operation and participation in the study will be greatly appreciated. Please sign the consent form below, if you agree to participate in the study. In such a case, you will receive a copy of the signed consent form from the researcher.

CONSENT

I hereby confirm that I have been adequately informed by the researcher about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of the study. I have also received, read and understood the above written information. I am aware that the results of the study will be anonymously processed into a research report. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study. I had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and of my own free will declare myself prepared to participate in the study.

Research participant's name: _____ (please print)

Research participant's signature: _____

Date: _____

Researcher's name: _____ (please print)

Researcher's signature: _____

Date: _____

D. DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF TEACHERS

Personal information and background of teachers

Dear Participant

My name is Mmapule Prhodesia Selepe. I am registered at Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), studying toward a master's degree in Language Practice. I am interested in *Sepitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners*.

I will handle personal information and the data confidentially. This means access to data will be strictly limited to me, my supervisors and selected examiners. In addition, I will store personal information in such a way that I will be the only person to access it.

By participating in this study, you will be contributing to new knowledge that may help in further research in Setswana learning and teaching.

Should you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me at 072 4040 125 or email mmapuleselepe@gmail.com/212198510@tut4life.ac.za

Instructions please use a black pen and tick where necessary

1 Gender

Male Female

2 Age

17-20 21-25 26-30 31-35 36-40 41-60

3 Home Language

Setswana IsiZulu Xitsonga venda Sepedi

Others

4 School

5. Highest academic qualification.....

6. No. of years of experience in teaching Setswana Home Language.....

E. SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHERS

1. Do learners use only Setswana in the classroom during Setswana lessons? Elaborate.
2. What difficulties do you come across when marking essays for Setswana L1 learners?
3. In your opinion, do learners show an interest in and a willingness to learn Setswana? Elaborate.
4. Do learners show that they feel confident about writing in Setswana? Elaborate.
5. What can be done to encourage HL Setswana learners to write standard Setswana more when using Setswana?
6. How do Setswana home language learners perform?
7. Do you think learners can differentiate between standard Setswana forms and Sepitori forms when writing in Setswana? Elaborate

1146 Malebane Stand
Winterveldt
0198

Tswaing High School
1657 Bushveldt Road
Winterveldt
0198

Sir/Madam

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT TSWAING HIGH SCHOOL

My name is Mmapule Prhodesia Selepe I am currently registered as a master's student in Language Practice at Tshwane University of Technology; under the supervision of Dr M.M Makgato. The title of my study is, *Sepitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners: A case study from Winterveldt*. I chose Tswaing to conduct my study. The findings of this study will be used to develop recommendations for Grader 12 Setswana L1 learners in the school. Such recommendations may be useful in educating Grade 12 Setswana learners of the influence of Sepitori on academic writing and give teachers an insight on how to deal with this influence or rather control them.

Privacy and confidentiality are basic ethical issues when conducting the research. As a researcher, I pledge to respect the participants' rights, needs, interests, beliefs, attitudes and values, as well as the good name of the school. I kindly request permission for a short meeting with Grader 12 Setswana L1 educators to interview them on the challenges the Grader 12 learners might have in acquiring and learning of Setswana.

Should you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me at 072 4040 125 or email mmapuleselepe@gmail.com / 212198510@tut4life.ac.za

Yours Sincerely
M.P. Selepe

1146 Malebane Stand

Winterveldt

0198

IR Lesolang High School

1658 Bushveldt Road

Winterveldt,

0198

Sir/Madam

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT IR LESOLANG HIGH SCHOOL

My name is Mmapule Prhodesia Selepe I am currently registered as a master's student in Language Practice at Tshwane University of Technology; I am supervised by Dr M.M Makgato. The title of the study is, *Sepitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners: A case study from Winterveldt*. I have chosen IR Lesolang High School to conduct my research study. The findings of this study will be used to develop recommendations for Grader 12 Setswana L1 learners in the school. Such recommendations may be useful in educating Grade 12 Setswana learners of the influence of Sepitori on academic writing and give teachers an insight on how to deal with this influence or rather control them.

Privacy and confidentiality are basic ethical issues when conducting the research. As a researcher, I pledge to respect the participants' rights, needs, interests, beliefs, attitudes and values, as well as the good name of the school.

I kindly request permission for a short meeting with Grade 12 Setswana L1 educators and 10 Grade 12 learners to interview them.

Should you have any queries, please do not hesitate to contact me
at 072 4040 125 or email mmapuleselepe@gmail.com / 212198510@tut4life.ac.za

Yours Sincerely

M.P. Selepe

1146 Malebane Stand
Winterveldt
0198

Tshwane West District DI
5 Klipgat Rd,
Old Hebron College,
Mabopane, North West

SEEKING PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH AT TWO PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS
IN THE TSHWANE WEST REGION.

Dear Sir/Madam

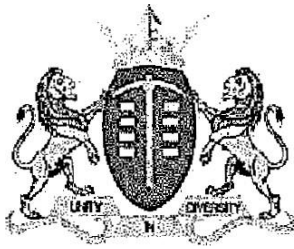
My name is Mmapule Prhodesia Selepe. I am registered at Tshwane University of Technology (TUT), studying toward a Masters' degree in Language Practice under the supervision of Dr M.M Makgato. Title of my study is *Sepitori forms in academic writing of Grade 12 Setswana learners: A case study from two public High Schools in Winterveldt*.

The aim of this letter is to seek your consent to undertake research at two designated High Schools situated in the Tshwane West region. The selected schools are:

1. Tswaing High School
2. IR Lesolang High School

Please note that I have attached TUT's Research Ethics Approval.

Yours sincerely
M.P. Selepe



GAUTENG PROVINCE
Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

814141112

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	11 February 2021
Validity of Research Approval:	08 February 2021 30 September 2021 2021/22
Name of Researcher:	Selepe MP
Address of Researcher:	1148 Malebane Stand Winterveldt 0198
Telephone Number:	072 4040 125
Email' address;	mmapuleselepe@gmail.com
Research Topic:	Sepitori forms in the academic writing of grade 12 Setswana learners : Case study from Winterveldt
Type of qualification	MASTER OF LANGUAGE PRACTICE
Number and type of schools:	2 Secondary Schools
District/s/.HO	Tshwane West

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of: the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school's and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of -this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE researchers. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

1. Letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.

1

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management

7th Floor, 17 Simmonds Streets
Johannesburg, 2001 Tel: (011) 3550488

Email: Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za

Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za

1. Letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.

2. The District/Head Office Senior Manager/S must be approached separately and in writing; for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.

3. Because of COVID-19 pandemic researchers can ONLY collect data online, telephonically or may make arrangements for Zoom with the school Principal. Requests for such arrangements should be submitted to the GDE Education Research and Knowledge Management directorate. The approval letter will then indicate the type of arrangements that have been made with the school.

The Researchers are advised to make arrangements with the schools via Fax, email or telephonically with the Principal.

5. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the Chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from The Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.

6. A letter/document that outline the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes (if such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively).

7. The Researcher will make every effort to obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalized in any way:

8. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.

9. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the fast quarter of the academic year. If incomplete, an amended Research Approval letter may be requested to conduct research in the following year.

10. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.

11. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.

- 12 The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices. visited for supplying such resources.
- 13 The names of the GOE officials, schools principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent. of each of these individuals and/or organizations.
- 14 On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research
- 15 The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned,
16. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings. and recommendations of the research study.:

The Gauteng Department of Education Wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards



Mr Gumani Mukatuni

Acting CEO, Education Research and Knowledge Management

DATE: 16/02/2021

2

Making education a societal priority

Acting CES] Education Research

Office of the Director: Education Research and Knowledge Management.

7th Floor, 17 Simmonds. Street,

Johannesburg, 2001 Tel: (011) 350488

Email Faith.Tshabalala@gauteng.gov.za

Website: www.educetiOngpg.gcv.za