

THE INVESTIGATION OF CONJUNCTIVE WRITING ADOPTION AND OTHER
CHANGES IN SESOTHO ORTHOGRAPHY IN THE THREE SELECTED HIGH
SCHOOLS AT THABA-TSEKA DISTRICT IN LESOTHO

BY

NAME: 'MALISEMA FRANCINA MAKOA (219098580)

SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

AT THE

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

SUPERVISOR: PROF RL MAKHUBU-BADENHORST

JUNE 2022

DECLARATION

I, 'Malisema Francina Makoa hereby declare **the investigation of conjunctive writing adoption and other changes in Sesotho orthography in the three selected high schools at Thaba-Tseka district in Lesotho** my own work and it has not been submitted in any other university. All references used have been acknowledged.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late father Khoto Johannes Mabele who left me after my primary teachers certificate. He could have be more proud of what I have achieved today. My grandmothers; 'Mamotlatsi Lucia Litšooane, who made huge impact towards my upbringing, and Libone Francina Mabele who left us even before I was born. I so wish to have known her. I also dedicate it to my grandfathers; Lazarus Litšooane, who loved education with all his heart, and Tsomoli and my uncle Kobefo Mabele.

ABSTRACT

This study investigates how conjunctive writing and other changes have been adopted by students. Students conjunct, omit, substitute and disconjunct substantives, qualificatives, verbs, adverbs and conjunctions. These changes violate the rules of Sesotho orthography in Lesotho. Viewed from the morphological theory, some parts of speech lose their meaning because of conjunctive and disjunctive writing, which in some cases become very difficult to locate in a sentence.

This study adopts or uses morphological theory, semantic theory and minimalist program to analyse or to build an argument on the data collected. It also uses a qualitative approach in order to attain holistic results. Data is collected from students' documents (examination scripts) which later is analysed. Document analysis is appropriate in this study because it allows the researcher to pick up how the students adopt the new style of writing Sesotho. The findings of the study could benefit teachers, students and NCDC. The study recommends that there should be regular workshops for teachers to equip them with techniques on how to teach Sesotho. It also recommends that ECOL revisits the assessment for grade 11, especially the marks awarded for *sebopeho-puo* 'grammar'.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First I thank God almighty for giving me life, protecting, guiding and giving me wisdom to pursue this work, without Him I would have not succeeded. Sincere appreciation to my supervisor Prof RL Makhubu-Badenhorst for her encouragement, support and guidance throughout this journey.

My gratitude also goes to Dr Hala-hala who regularly read my chapters and edit them before submission. My special thanks to my colleague Mr Moea and Dr Thetso who critically read my work, their inputs made a great contribution in this work. Mrs 'Matjotjo who also critically read my work who would ask me to work even during the weekends, with all the encouragements, she would say "phusha ngoanana, you are almost there, please! Push I know you can read, please read!" Thank you Motaung Lekokotoane la 'Makobasia! To my studymate Ms Hlaela who encouraged us to work even during awkward dates and times, she would never forget to pray before we start our study everyday every night because only did our school work after working hours. She would always remind us that whatever we have started must be finished, and that God sees our effort and therefore we must leave everything unto Him. She would say "Uena you are a doctor, you will be graduating before the end of 2022." To Mrs Lisene, my studymate, *banana ba sekolo* 'school girls', who motivated us during this difficult times, one of the serious studymate ever. Mr Panyane thank you very much for your motivation during this difficult time, Mr Panyane would always say "Dr Makoa, are you tired? Doctors don't get tired, how may I help you? Take a deep breath, relax, then continue with your work."

I would also like to extend my acknowledgement to my mother who with all her heart always pray for my success, who will always say "ho tla loka Lekholokoe." To my husband ntate Tanki Makoa, my daughters bo-ausi 'Mapoulo, 'Matanki and Liekentseng whom I have denied them their time. Had I not denied and steal your time I wouldn't be where I am today. You turned this to be a game, your jokes, laughter, made me continue with a lot of strength, even when I felt that I am exhausted, they would nicely remind me "study time, are you not studying today?" I remember when you tell me that this PhD is a must, thank you "*Bahlakoana ba teele ea Motašana koena li sesa li a*

nyolosa maliboho tse 'nyane lia seha feela" I also thank my brother Tšoanyane who encouraged and told me that I MUST finish my Phd because I am already the first Doctor in the family thank you Mokoena.

ABBREVIATION

NP	-	Noun Phrase
N	-	Noun
Qual P	-	Qualificative phrase
VP	-	Verb Phrase
COMP	-	Complement
SPEC	-	Specifier
SC	-	Subjective concord
V	-	Verb
AGR	-	Agreement
S	-	Sentence
ADV P	-	Adverbial Phrase
ADV	-	Adverb
SVO	-	Subject Verb Object
ASC	-	Attract Smallest Condition
RMC	-	Relativised Minimality Condition
UTAH	-	Uniform Theta Assignment Hypothesis
FG	-	Feature Geometry
TCA	-	Thematic-content analysis
QCA	-	Qualitative Content Analysis
TA	-	Thematic Analysis
MP	-	Minimalist Program

CV	-	Consonant Vowel
CVC	-	Consonant Vowel Consonant
LP	-	Language Planning
NCDC	-	National Curriculum Development Centre
UKZN	-	University of Kwa-Zulu Natal
ECOL	-	Examination Council of Lesotho
DEM	-	District Education Manager
PEMS	-	Paris Evangelical Mission Society
PZC	-	Pretoria Zulu Corpus
LSe	-	Sesotho in Lesotho
SASe	-	South African Sesotho

LIST OF TABLES

2.1 Features of prototypical inflection and derivation-----	10
2.2 Sesotho and Tswana-Pedi languages-----	21
2.3 Lesotho and South African sounds-----	23
2.4 The use of apostrophe-----	24
2.5 Morphophonemic processes-----	51
2.6 Inflexional affixes-----	53
3.1 Qualitative and Quantitative research-----	60
4.1 Disjunctively written nouns-----	81
4.2 Conjunctively written adjectives-----	83
4.3 Disjunctivelywritten enumerative and demonstrative-----	86
4.4 Disjunctively written adverbs-----	89
4.5 Conjunctively written adverbs-----	90
4.6 Conjunctively written verbs-----	91
4.7 Disjunctively written verbs-----	93
4.8 Sesotho conjunctions-----	94
4.9 Disjunctive and conjunctive writting of /hore/ and question word /na/-----	95
4.10 Suffixation of /-nyana/ and /-nang/-----	96
4.11 Addition-----	98
4.12 The use of abbreviation mark-----	99
4.13 Syllabic nasals-----	101
4.14 Abbreviation in adjectives and verbs-----	102

4.15	Sound omission in conjunctions, tense markers and subjectival concords-----	103
4.16	Substitution of sounds-----	105
4.17	Sound strengthening-----	108
5.1	Ver Phrase-----	113
5.2	Verb Phrase-----	115
5.3	conjunctively written adjective-----	119
5.4	Correctly written adjective-----	120
5.5	Disjunctively written demonstrative-----	122
5.6	Correctly written demonstrative-----	125
5.7	Unacceptable construction of verbs-----	127
5.8	Merging of elements-----	129
5.9	Conjunctively written verbs -----	131
5.10	Disjunctive Sesotho verbs-----	135
5.11	The omission of tense markers-----	136
5.12	Verbal stem substitution sounds-----	138
5.13	conjunctively written verbs-----	140
5.14	Disjunctively written adverb-----	141
5.15	Abbreviation in Sesotho adverb-----	144
5.16	Sustitution in adverbs-----	145
5.17	Omission of sounds in adverbs-----	146
5.18	Sesotho Conjunctions-----	147
5.19	Disjunctive and conjunctive writing of <i>hore</i> and question mark <i>na</i> -----	149

5.20 Omission of sounds in conjunctions-----	151
5.21 Sound strengthening-----	153

LIST OF TREE DIAGRAMS

2.1 Projection-----	13
5.1 Verb phrase-----	114
5.2 Noun merging-----	114
5.3 Conjunctively written adjective-----	124
5.4 Disjunctively written adjective-----	124
5.5 Disjunctively written demonstrative-----	126
5.6 Conjunctively written demonstrative-----	127
5.7 Unacceptable arrangement of words in Sesotho sentence-----	133
5.8 An acceptable arrangement of words in Sesotho sentence-----	134
5.9 The adjuncts in Sesotho sentence-----	143
5.10 Disjunctively written conjunctions-----	148
5.11 Addition of Suffixes-----	151

MAP

4.1 Map of Lesotho-----80

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
ABBREVIATION	vii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF TREE DIAGRAMS	xi
MAP	xii
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
1.0 Introduction.....	1
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.2 Statement of the problem.....	3
1.3 Purpose of the study	4
1.4 Research questions and research objectives	4
1.5 Significance of the study	4
1.6 Delimitation of the study.....	5
1.7 Research design and methodology	5
1.7.1 Ethical considerations	5
1.7.2 Document review	5
1.7.3 Data analysis.....	6
1.8 The Structure of the study.....	6
1.9 Conclusion	6

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THE THEORETICAL FRAMWEWORK	8
2.0 Introduction.....	8
2.1 Literature Review	8
2.1.1 Orthography	8
2.1.1.1 Origin of Bantu Languages Orthography	12
2.2.1.2 The missionary influence on Bantu orthography	15
2.1.1.3 Factors affecting the Orthography of standard languages.....	16
2.1.1.4 Negation in the orthography of different languages.....	17
2.1.1.6 Sesotho Syllables and Orthography.....	20
2.1.1.7 Addition and orthography	20
2.1.1.8 Deletion and orthography	21
2.1.2 The difference between Sesotho orthography in Lesotho and in the Republic of South Africa ...	23
2.1.3 Conjunctive and disjunctive writing	24
2.1.4 Standadization.....	26
2.1.4.1 Dialectal Influence on the Orthography of the Standard Bantu Languages.....	27
2.1.5 Phonological patterning of Sesotho Sounds in the Sesotho Orthography	32
2.1.6 Assimilation	34
2.1.7 Affixation and Orthography.....	35
2.1.7.1 Morphology.....	35
2.1.7.2 Affixation	36
2.1.7.3 Definition of affixes	36
2.1.7.4 The use of prefix in Bantu Languages.....	37
2.1.7.5 Infix and Orthography	39
2.1.7.6 Circumfix and Orthography	39
2.1.7.7 The use of Suffixes in the Orthography of Bantu Languages.....	41
2.1.7.8 Diminutive suffix.....	41
2.1.8 The nature of Orthographical affixes on the basis of their lexical functions.....	45
2.1.8.2 Derivational affixes.....	46
2.1.9 Loanwords	46

2.10 Language Policy	47
2.2 Theoretical Framework	49
2.2.1 Morphological Theory	49
2.2.2 Minimalist programme.....	52
2.2.2.1 Merge	53
2.2.3 Semantical Theory.....	54
2.3 Conclusion	56
CHAPTER THREE: THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	58
3.0 Introduction.....	58
3.1 Research design.....	59
3.2 Paradigm	64
3.2.1 Interpretivist paradigm.....	65
3.3 Data collection.....	66
3.4 Instrumentation	67
3.5 Document analysis	67
3.6 Qualitative data analysis	69
3.6.1 Qualitative content analysis.....	69
3.6.2 Thematic Analysis.....	71
3.6.2.1 Theme.....	71
3.6.2.2 Coding.....	73
3.7 Thematic-Content Analysis.....	73
3.8 Population	74
3.9 Sampling.....	75
3.10 Ethical considerations	75
3.11 Informed consent	76
3.12 Location of the Study	76
3.13 Confidentiality	77
3.14 Validity.....	77
3.15 Conclusions.....	78

CHAPTER FOUR :DATA PRESENTATION OF WORDS, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	79
4.0 Introduction.....	79
4.1 The geographical location of Thaba-Tseka district	80
4.3 Qualificatives	84
4.3.1 Conjunctively written Sesotho adjectives	84
4.3.2 Disjunctively written Sesotho demonstrative and enumerative	87
4.4 An Adverb	89
4.4.1 Disjunctively written Sesotho adverbs	89
4.4.2 Conjunctively written Sesotho Adverbs	90
4.5 Verbs	91
4.5.1 Conjunctively written Sesotho Verbs	91
4.5.2 Disjunctively written Sesotho Verbs.....	93
4.6 Sesotho conjunction and their morphology	94
4.7 The use of both conjunctive and disjunctive writing with conjunction /hore/ and question word /na/	95
4.8 Suffixation of /-nyana/ and /-nang/ in a verb and other parts of speech	96
4.9 Addition of sounds to form new words.....	98
4.10 The use of abbreviation marks in some nouns and absolute pronouns.....	100
4.10.1 The use abbreviations in a noun	100
4.11 The use of abbreviation marks in adjectives and verbs	102
4.12 Omitting some sounds in conjunctions, tense markers and the subjectival concords	103
4.13 Substitution of sounds in different word classes	105
4.14 Sound strengthening	109
4.15 Conclusion	111
CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF SENTENCES	112
5.0 Introduction.....	112
5:1 Substantive (Noun and Pronoun)	112
5.1.1 Disjunctively written nouns in Sesotho sentences	112
5.1.2 The use of abbreviation marks in Sesotho substantive	115

Table 5.2 Abbreviation in substantive	115
5.1.3 Omission of sounds in the absolute pronoun.....	119
5.1.4 Substitution of sounds in the substantive	120
5.2 Qualificatives	121
5.2.1 Conjunctively written qualificatives in Sesotho sentences	121
5.2.2 Disjunctively written qualificatives in Sesotho sentences.....	125
5.2.3 The use of abbreviation marks in Sesotho adjectives	128
5.2.4 Sound addition in possessive and demonstrative stem	128
5.3 Verbs	131
5.3.1 Sentences with conjunctively written Sesotho verbs.....	131
5.3.2 Disjunctively written Sesotho verbs	135
5.3.3 Omission of tense markers and subjectival concords in Sesotho sentences.....	137
5.3.4 Substitution of sounds in verbal stem	138
5.4 Adverbs.....	140
5.4.1 Conjunctively written Sesotho adverbs.....	140
5.4.2 Disjunctively written Sesotho adverbs	140
5.4.3 The use of abbreviation marks in Sesotho adverbs.....	144
5.4.4 Substitution of sounds in Adverbs.....	145
5.4.5 The omission of sounds in adverbs	145
5.5 Conjunctions.....	146
5.5.1 Sesotho conjunctions and their morphology	146
5.5.2 The use of both conjunctive and disjunctive writing in the conjunction hore and the question word na	149
5.5.3 Omission of sounds in Sesotho conjunctions	150
5.6 Sound strengthening	153
5.7 Conclusion	154
CHAPTER 6 :FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	155
6.0 Introduction.....	155
6.1 Summary of the Main Findings.....	155

6.2 Limitations of the study (Problems encountered).....	156
6.4 Suggactions for Further Research (Recommendations).....	157
6.5 Conclusion	157
References.....	158

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions and objectives of the study, significance of the study, research design and methodology, ethical consideration, the structure of the study and the conclusion.

1.1 Background of the study

Across languages, orthography has been determined as the most appropriate way of distinguishing one language from other languages. Sesotho has its own phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics which are used in both speech and writing, thus forming part of its orthography. For example, the sounds “d” and “y” are spoken but not written. Guthrie (1948); Louwrens and Poulos (2006); Prinsloo (2009) in Probert (2016) stated “the nature of words is language-specific”. Based on these explanations, Sesotho like other languages has its way of formulating words, as taught from home and instilled at schools, the skills acquired from home are developed from primary and high school. Brahma (2021: ii) explains that “word formation is generally considered to include both inflectional and derivational morphology.” Issues of language change and deterioration have been noted in many languages including Sesotho. Like other languages, Sesotho in Lesotho has changed and adopted different styles of writing. For example, *Ngoana emonyaneohlahile*. Instead of *Ngoana e monyenyane o hlahile* (a small child is born). The first sentence is conjunctively written which is not acceptable in Sesotho. In Sesotho the diminutive suffix is only attached to a noun but these days most Basotho in Lesotho attach it to a verb. For example, “*lulanyana*” Instead of “*lula hanyenyane*” (to stay a little bit).

Orthography has been studied by different authors, not only in the European and Nguni languages, but also in Sotho-Tswana languages. Oberheuser (2012) explains that English orthography displays momentous challenges to both native and non-native learners. The author discusses the short history of English vowels and vowel graphemes and pronunciation rules. Additionally, Sipra (2013) describes the ways in which English

orthography has influenced English first-language learners. He also analyses the English history orthography and highlights hitches posed by English vowels ensuing in wrong assumptions by L2 learners from English orthography. He demonstrates the significance of phonological awareness of spellings in English to circumvent L2 phonology. Daries and Probert (2020) declare that the orthography of isiXhosa is transparent and rather predictable in decoding, its agglutinative, conjunctive character coupled with the presence of a number of complex graphemes presents a countless challenge for spelling. They suggest that more attention should be paid to teaching learners the representation of compound graphemes in isiXhosa as a means to augment their spelling ability, orthographic cognizance and phonological awareness. Likewise, Land (2015) mentions that the orthography of isiZulu is reliable and transparent and pronunciation of words is predictable from their spelling. isiZulu and other Nguni languages of southern Africa do not feature the compound nouns. There are some authors such as Makoa (2007), Matlosa (2017) Motjope-Mokhali et al (2020) Setaka (2018) who have discussed the issue of orthography in Sesotho but looking at it at different perspectives as the current study. Setaka (2018) explains that the orthographies of Sesotho in Lesotho (LSe) and South African Sesotho (SASe) are different in the way sound are written in order to formulate or construct a word but the pronunciation is the same. She further points out that Sesotho orthography was developed by the missionaries. Matlosa (2017) argues that Sesotho orthography makes it problematic for Basotho and other nationalities when pronouncing some Sesotho names. She further points out that the sound /e/ in the orthography of Sesotho denotes both /e/ and /ɛ/ posing challenges for readers in pronouncing the word as intended by the writer.

In addition, Thoahlane (1970) elaborated on some writing conventions regarding the following words: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, prepositions and adverbs, conjunctions and verbal conjunctions as well as the rules governing the use of the hyphen and apostrophe.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Various authors approached orthographic challenges from diverse angles. Makoa (2007), for example, investigated *An Analysis of Phonological Processes in Some Sesotho Affixes and Verbal Extensions*, Matlosa (2017) investigated *Sesotho Orthography Called into Question: The Case of Some Sesotho Personal Names*, and Motjope-Mokhali et al (2020) examined dictionary usage in mother tongue teaching with reference to Sesotho. Regardless of their efforts, these authors are unconcerned about the evolving orthography of Sesotho. This suggests that there is a paucity of material on the subject of Sesotho orthography and its evolution. This causes future Basotho generations to fail to use Sesotho in accordance with its existing and original orthography, and as a result, they may ignore and disregard the phonetic and phonological rules governing Sesotho orthography, as expected by both descriptivists and prescriptivists in this language. Similar in other languages, the phonetic and phonological rules controlling Sesotho orthography are taught in schools, where students are exposed to various word production processes, either spoken or written. Yet, the researcher has discovered that, as a result of current and recent technological impacts, numerous words have been coined with spelling that differs from the existing one. For example, the orthography of the Sesotho word "sesa," which translates as "swim," has recently been written as *swima* as a result of modern technology, and appears distinct from the already existing word, *sesa* 'swim'. Most importantly, the researcher observes that the increasing presence of different orthographic variants in Sesotho writing, such as conjunctive writing, different affixes, newly formulated words, and new words substituting already existing words, may pose a significant challenge in terms of Sesotho linguistic parameters as a result of modern technology influence. Therefore, the goal of this study is to examine the adoption of conjunctive writing and other modifications in sesotho orthography in three selected high schools in Lesotho's Thaba-Tseka district.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The aim of this study is to investigate how Sesotho orthography is changing and how Basotho adopt the new styles of writing.

1.4 Research questions and research objectives

Research questions

In response to the research problem the following questions will be asked:

- a) What are the unacceptable ways of writing found in Sesotho orthography?
- b) How can adoption of conjunctive writing, affixation, deletion and omission in Sesotho be explained?
- c) Why there is conjunctive writing, wrong affixation, deletion and omission in Sesotho?

Research objectives

The study objectives are as follow:

- a) To identify the unacceptable ways of writing found in Sesotho orthography.
- b) Find out how the adoption of conjunctive writing, disjunctive writing, affixation, deletion and omission may be explained in Sesotho orthography;
- c) Establish the reasons for conjunctive writing, wrong affixation, deletion and omission in Sesotho.

1.5 Significance of the study

This study investigates on how Sesotho orthography is maintained, it finds out how conjunctive writing and other changes are adopted so that the involved departments might take an action. The study highlights the issue of conjunctive and disjunctive writing, orthography, standard language. This study uses qualitative research (document analysis) because that is where the issue of orthography is exposed. This study is worth taking because it might help the students to be aware of the mistakes they make in the orthography of Sesotho and try to rectify them. It will possible help

Sesotho teachers to be aware of the mistakes students make and try to attend to them. The NCDC might be aware of the mistakes students make, it will possibly choose appropriate grammar books which will be used by students. This study might also make ECOL aware that, it is important to award more marks for grammar because that will force teachers to teach grammar before literature. If students understand grammar it will be easy for them to understand literature. This study will likely help language experts to take an action to maintain Sesotho orthography. It will possibly help the Parliamentarians and senators to enforce the language policy, to make laws that will control language use in the social media because students use language depending on what they get from the social media.

1.6 Delimitation of the study

This study focuses only on the written language, the analysis, conclusion and recommendations only based on the written language. It focuses only on the orthography of Sesotho in Lesotho.

1.7 Research design and methodology

1.7.1 Ethical considerations

The researcher requested authorization from UKZN and education office in Thaba-Tseka to collect students' documents (examination scripts) to analyse them. The researcher collected the documents from class teachers with the permission got from education office and the principal.

1.7.2 Document review

Based on the qualitative method, the researcher has used document review, thus using students' essays (Primary source) for data collection for this study. The students' essays have reflected how students coin words and construct sentences, showing the extent to which such newly coined and constructed sentences follow the Sesotho orthography. The document reviews not only shed light on newly coined and constructed words and sentences, they also highlight useful information about

students views or opinions about constructing sentences or coining words. The researcher has triangulated the data, by using three theories and more than one data collection methods. Using two or more theories as well as methods would provide a more comprehensive picture of the phenomenon under study. Such an approach has thus been designed for having the study achieve its purpose of increasing confidence in the findings.

1.7.3 Data analysis

The data collected was analysed thematically, using the Minimalist theory. Here, the researcher focuses on the substantive and the qualificative aspects of the data. With the second round, the researcher concentrates on the predicate and the suffixes. After the analysis, the researcher kept the scripts in a locked cabinet in order to maintain confidentiality.

1.8 The Structure of the study

This study is divided into six chapters. The first chapter has presented the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and research objectives. The chapter has also presented significance of the study, literature review, research design and methodology. The second chapter reviews the literature which underlines this study. Chapter three presents the research design and methodology of the study. The fourth chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of words as picked from the data collected., Chapter five deals with the analysis and interpretation of sentences as picked from the data collected. Finally chapter six deals with the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter gives the overview of the study and the background information of the study. It also provides the statement of the problem, aim, objectives, research questions and the significance of the study. The chapter also presents the theories that will be applied in this study: morphological theory, Minimalist program

and the semantic theory. This chapter also introduces the methods of data collection that were used and the structure of the study. The next chapter deals with the related literature.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews both the theoretical and empirical literature underlying this study. The chapter is organised into the following sections: Literature review and Theoretical framework, dialectal features and the conclusion. The topics reviewed in this chapter will give light and support the research question in the previous chapter.

2.1 Literature Review

2.1.1 Orthography

One cannot say the orthography of any language is changing unless he/she knows the phonetics, phonology, morphology syntax, and semantics of that particular language. To say that the orthography is changing, one has to know how this particular language arranges sounds to form a word, how it forms its syllables and uses its affixes. In other words, the knowledge of the phonology, morphology and syntax of any particular language is needed. One can go to an extent of wanting to know exactly the origin of this particular language and the policy governing the language under study. It will, therefore, be easy to identify changing, adopted sounds, unacceptable or unusual arrangement of sounds based on the phonology of that particular language. It will also be easy to identify unusual words or unacceptable sentences.

Demuth (1988:1) shows four important reasons of developing a set of unified orthographic principles as:

- (a) ...the use of a unified set of orthographic principles helps to capture the natural and systematic linguistic relatedness between languages and dialects.
- (b) The development of a principle based orthography establish a 'standard' orthographic system where many different systems may have previously been used.
- (c) A unified orthographic system facilitates the teaching of languages.
- (d) A unified orthography facilitates the promotion of literacy, language

learning, multilingualism, and the preservation of cultural knowledge and tradition...

Demuth (1988) argues that there are three levels which need to be looked at when talking about unified orthography. The first one is individual language or dialect orthography, it should be done for closely related dialects of the same language group and it should be consistent across closely related languages, applying the same set of basic organizational principle, similar graphemes for the same sounds.

Aro and Wimmer (2003) compare reading performance in beginner readers in a range of native languages; English, German, French, Dutch, Swedish, Spanish, and Finish, that use the same alphabetic orthography but vary in degree of transparency between grapheme and phoneme mapping. They mention that the results showed that children who learnt to read English because of an irregular orthography took a longer time than the children learning more transparent orthographies such as German or Dutch. Goswami et al (2003) suggested that German beginner readers due to the transparency of orthography have ready access to grapheme-phoneme correspondence rules, whereas English beginner readers due to the inconsistency or irregularity of orthography used a lexical strategy for word recognition. Their study help in this study because, it shows the disadvantage of inconsistent orthography. As Matlosa (2017) has indicated before Sesotho use the sound /e/ to denote the sounds /e/ and /ɛ/, this shows inconsistency.

Bing (1982) defines orthography as a set of rules enabling language users to transpose spoken utterances into corresponding written ones. In other words, orthography is a kind of bridge leading from spoken norms to the written norms of the language. Mayor (2009:1234) explains orthography “technically as the way in which words are spelled” Every language has its way of pronouncing and writing words. Some sounds are used in one language, but not used in another language, the sounds used make languages unique and different.

Banda (2008) argues that properly designed cross-border orthographies can play a monumental role in promoting the use of African in all spheres of life, hence contributing

to the socio-economic development of Africans. Chanda (2002) identifies four kinds of orthography: orthography development, orthography reform, orthography standardization and orthography harmonization. For Chanda (2002), orthography development is the provision of a writing system for an unwritten language, also meaning substituting the old writing system.

Lekgoko and Winskel (2008) investigate how beginner readers learn to read Setswana and English and whether there is a cross-linguistic influence or transfer of skills between these two languages. As Lekgoko and Winskel (2008:3) argue, the orthographic depth, i.e the type and reliability of mapping between phonemes and graphemes, impacts early reading development and the type of difficulties children encounter when they learn to read an alphabetic orthography.

Land (2015) sees English language orthography as most opaque or deep because it does not have regular relationship between graphemes and phonemes. She says it is easy to learn to read in languages with consistent orthographies where readers can rely on direct letter –sound correspondence and that it is difficult for children to learn and read words from inconsistent and less transparent orthography such as English, Portuguese, French and Danish. She explains that Zulu orthography is transparent and consistent because its graphemes are pronounced with perfect consistency. Georgiou et al (2008) in Land (2015:132) say inconsistent orthographies force readers to interpret large grain size units of text. Tucker (1949:200) mentions that the issue of orthography in the South African Bantu languages has kept authorities buzzy. Tucker in his discussion explains that Zulu and Xhosa are much related languages with orthographical differences while North Sotho and Tswana differ from each other and from South Sotho.

Donaldson (2017) examines orthography, standardization and register in Mandings, he examines the West African trade language of Manding, written in at least three distinct scripts: Arabic, N'ko and Latin, arguing that these three writing systems are variably comprised and wielded by distinct West African actors today. He uses linguistics analysis in approaching orthography and standardization. Donaldson (2017:181) thinks of orthography "as the so called appropriate, correct or standard way of writing speech

down” and it is a set of conventions for using a script to write an actual language however an orthography or set of norms for writing can exist even without overt rules. Agha (2007) mentions that orthographies happen along thresholds of normativity. Donaldson (2017) is analyzing Manding Ajami where he says there are no formal decrees or written documents for articulating a normative model for writing. Donaldson (2017) explains the use of orthography offers a metacommentary about orthography itself and potentially establishes a sociopolitical stance for the user.

Probert (2019) makes a comparison of the early reading strategies of isiXhosa and Setswana first language learners. She examines these two languages because of their similar orthographic depth but which have different writing systems. She investigates the effect of morphological and syllabic grain sizes on reading in conjunctive and disjunctive orthographies. Probert (2019) says Setswana learners perform better on phonological awareness tasks than the isiXhosa learners, whereas isiXhosa learners perform better on morphological awareness tasks. She also finds out that Setswana learners scored higher for syllables and isiXhosa learners scored higher for morphemes. Probert (ibid) explains that morphological awareness plays a greater role for learners of a conjunctive orthography than for learners of a disjunctive orthography. Moreover, Probert clarifies that both learners did better on syllable awareness than they did on phoneme awareness tasks. The methods used were: an open-ended decomposition task, a phonological awareness task, a morphological awareness task and oral reading fluency task.

The above scholars have discussed different issues about orthography: Demuth (1988) gives the importance of unifying orthography, Aro and Wimmer (2003) in Lekgoko and Winskel (2008) give the difficulties of learning irregular orthographies as opposed to transparent orthographies and state that it is easy to learn transparent orthography than irregular one. Banda (2008:39) has also proposed the use of cross-border orthography, and lastly Probert (2019) on the other hand compares the reading strategies of isiXhosa and Setswana and lastly Donaldson (2017) examines orthography, standardization and register in Manding.

While the above-mentioned studies could shed light on this study, they have not exposed the orthography of Sesotho, more especillay whether or not the Sesotho orthography is changing in the context of Lesotho.

2.1.1.1 Origin of Bantu Languages Orthography

Sesotho like other languages has its orthography. This orthography has been discussed at different meetings, conferences and forums. It has been published at different years. Before the arrival of missionaries Sesotho was not written, it was only spoken. Because Sesotho was developed by non-Basotho, some words were misspelled or wrongly spelled for example Sesotho was written as Sesuto and Basotho as Basuto. After some time literate Basotho had to intervene and correct some Sesotho sounds and phonics. They had to sit down and agree on how Sesotho should be written. It seems like this was not only the case with Sesotho but other African countries went through the same process.

Demuth (1988) discusses how orthographies of the same languages can be unified. Demuth (ibid) shows that Northern Sotho, Southern Sotho, and Setswana dialects have been changed politically and emotionally since 1900s. She continues to discuss Sesotho orthographies used in Lesotho Botswana and South Africa. She elucidates the difference can be seen in lexical, phonological and tonological aspects. Demuth clarifies that Sesotho is more related to Setswana than Sepedi and that orthographic development of Sesotho can be traced from 1841 and it was standardized in 1906. In the 1906 conference it was said that unified orthography for Sesotho Setswana and Sepedi was not yet possible. She also pronounces that Sesotho orthographies used in R.S.A and Lesotho are different, she illustrates different sounds used in Sesotho orthography in Lesotho and R.S.A. She explains that none of them was accepted as standard. Demuth gives general guidelines for a unified orthographic system and to design the orthographic system. Demuth (1988) suggests that wherever possible, one orthographic system be used for the same languages where she makes an example of different Sesotho orthographies used in Lesotho and South Africa. The present study is different from Demuth's because Demuth advocates unification of orthographies of the

same language whereas the present study looks at how the orthography of Sesotho in Lesotho is changing.

Rosenberg and Weisfelder (2013) traced the origin of Sesotho language way back to 2th and 14th century in the Transvaal region of South Africa. In the 17th century a version of Sesotho language began. Sesotho was not written but the Paris evangelical Mission society (PEMS) are said to be the first ones to write the Sesotho spoken in Lesotho. Rosenberg and Weisfelder (2013) further explain that in 1906 members from Roman Catholic and Anglican and PEMS met to discuss the issue of Sesotho orthography for Basutoland. It was in that meeting where the members agreed on the official orthography to be used. Basutoland National Council, the paramount chiefs and the educated elite rejected the issue of adopting South African orthography everytime raised by the colonial government. Sesotho was regarded as a national language. Both Sesotho and English were regarded as the official languages in Lesotho.

Pâquet (1965) explains that historically Sesotho orthography has been revised three times, the first period was from 1841-1906, the second period was from 1906-1948 and the last period was from 1948 to date. The author listed the sounds used in Sesotho orthography as opposed to the sounds used in Setswana and Sepedi. The sounds agreed upon are shown in the table below:

Table 2.1: Sesotho and Tswana-Pedi languages

Sesotho	Tswana-Pedi
H	g
Kh	kg
Tj	tš
ch	tsh
tš	tsh
fsh	fš

pj	pš
Li	di
lu	du
oa	wa
ua	wa
ea	ya
'n	nn
'm	mm
'ny	Nny
'ng	Nng

Pâquet (1965) argues that Sesotho uses the sounds /o/ and /e/ as semi-vowels because they are suitable than the sounds /w/ and /y/ in the grammatical connections between the different parts of speech such as: the substantive, the connective and other pronouns and the possessive particles: and that, for the first, second and seventh classes singular. Pâquet (1965) further explains that the sounds /o/ and /e/ have been chosen as semi-vowels instead of the sounds /w/ and /y/ because they are extensively used as semi-vowels in many cultured languages and they better fit in Sesotho better than /w/ and /y/. Furthermore, these two sounds match flawlessly with Sesotho for they respect the logical sequence of the grammatical concord in the different classes in which they contain /o/ and /e/.

Mahlangu (2015) investigates the origin and history of isiNdebele and examines rules laid down by different isiNdebele orthography publications and mentions that the first publication was in 1982, the second publication was in 1995, the third publication was in 2000 and the last one in 2008. He examines the growth and the development of isiNdebele orthography and spelling from 1921 to 2010 and recommends that

isiNdebele orthographies should be revised for the appropriate quality and standardized writing for books, and there is a need for an authorized body that will focus on and deal with terminology development. Mahlangu has employed qualitative method when analysing isiNdebele language.

The above scholars give the account of the origin of Sesotho language and origin and history of isiNdebele. They don't mention in any way that Sesotho was changing. The above scholars help in this study because they write about the origin of Sesotho orthography. Their work shed some light as to where and when Sesotho language orthography started. Their study also helps the present study to realise that Sesotho orthography has been agreed upon by different bodies.

2.1.1.2 The missionary influence on Bantu Orthography

Fernandes (2019) mentions that African continent has more than 2000 languages. Fernandes (ibid) discusses the problem of orthography in African languages. The languages discussed are Kikongo, Kimbundu, Umbundu, Wolof, Yoruba, Hausa, Swahili, Ronga, Nyungwe, the Shona languages, Zulu and Xhosa. He explains that in 1848, church missionaries society published rules for reducing unwritten languages to alphabetical writing in Roman characters. He further explains that the first edition was replaced in 1855 with a standard Alphabet for Reducing Unwritten Languages and Foreign Graphic Systems to a Uniform Orthography in European letters. He concluded that African lexicography started during the first centuries of colonization. He says African lexicography was undertaken by European missionaries of Catholic and Protestant, this was meant to teach other colonizers to speak with indigenious. The colonizers languages were Portuguese, English, French and German. Fernandes (2019) mentions that the first Bantu dictionaries was published in 1804.

Fernandes (2019) mentions that lexicography started during centuries of colonization. His study shows the influence of missionaries in African languages. Even though he was looking at the influence of missionary in other languages as an example but it helps in this present study because Sesotho became because of the missionaries. The present study determines the changes emerging in Sesotho of Lesotho.

2..1.1.3 Factors affecting the Orthography of standard languages

The language is said to be standard if it is accepted, used and understood by most citizens in a country or a certain area. It must have a fixed orthography and codified grammar. The standard language sometimes is regarded as an official language. The reason why it needs to be discussed so that it gives light whether Sesotho is a standard language with its own orthography.

Nfila (2002) investigates problems concerning the state of standard Setswana in Botswana. Nfila explains there are different dialects in Botswana which affect the standard Setswana. She further elaborates that the standard Setswana is not used, and it is not well known as a result people use other Setswana dialects in high public functions. Batswana do not take standard Setswana because they think it does not benefit them economically. Learners do not find it necessary or obliged to use standard Setswana but Setswana teachers find it necessary to use the standard Setswana in government and in public. She mentions that the national Setswana language council is responsible for standardization of Setswana. She also says that not all Batswana accept the standard variety. She mentions that it is difficult to implement the standard Setswana in schools because of lack of materials and that Batswana cannot see the difference between standard Setswana and the dialects. Nfila's study investigated Setswana discussing the problems affecting Setswana, without anything to do with Sesotho in Lesotho. On this basis, questions could be raised whether such factors affect Sesotho in Lesotho. Nfila's study helps the present study to find if the factors affecting the orthography of standard Setswana affects the standard Sesotho in Lesotho

Smarmman (2012) defines standard language. His survey is in seven countries namely: England, Flanders, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland and the United States of America. He argues that the definition of standard language seems more subtle than that of the dialect. Smarmman (ibid) says standard language is the language that unites people within a country, amongst others linguistically. He further states that there are two types of standard language which are exclusive and inclusive standard languages. Smarmman (2012) explains that inclusive standard language involves a large

group of people whereas exclusive standard language is highly homogenous language in which variation is limited and deviances highly noticeable. He uses qualitative method in his study. Smarkman (2012:26) stipulates that “standard language and dialects are not the same, they are contraries”. Thomson and Kaufman (1988) in Smarkman (2012) give clarification that standard languages are simpler than non-standard languages linguistically. He explains that what makes standard languages to be vague is a wide array of descriptions.

Stewartt (1968) discusses characteristics of standard language as: vitality, historicity, autonomy and standardization., whereas Haugen (1966a) and Van der Wal and Van Bree (2008) in Smarkman (2012) define standard language based on its stages of development namely: selection, codification, elaboration and acceptance. Finegan (2007:14) in his perspective “standard language is used in public discourse consequently referring to sociolinguistics and communicative choices and to a set of speakers”. Standard language in each country reaches its own inimitable position and its origins in different countries differ and are not always regional or social. Smarkman’s study is different from the present study because it looks at the definition of the standard language, but it will help the present study in that the researcher will understand if the language under study is standard or a dialect and if its standard whether it is inclusive or exclusive.

Nfila (2002) investigates problems facing the state of standard Setswana in Botswana. Nfila (2002) and Smarkman (2012) define standard language and the factors that affect the standard language. Their studies are different from the present study because they do not use the theory used by the present study, again their study is not in Sesotho language. Their studies help the present study to identify the factors that are affecting Sesotho in Lesotho as a standard language.

2.1.1.4 Negation in the orthography of different languages

Malete (2008) aims at examining Sesotho sentences that comprehend negation by means of the negative morpheme /-sa/, its syntactic distribution within copulative verbs, non-copulative verbs, deficient verbs and aspect morphemes over full range of inflectional categories; tense, aspect and mood. He uses minimalist programme to

analyze his data. Maletse (2008) concludes that the negative /-sa/ is distributed in different types of sentences, moods and tenses in Sesotho. Maletse (2008:125) finalizes his study by saying

- (a) With regard to non-copulative verbs, the negative morpheme [sa] appears in tensed subordinated clauses within the relative and participial moods.
- (b) With regard to copulative verbs, it only appears with the copulative verb [ba] in both the relative and the participial moods with all tenses.
- (c) In the case of deficient verbs, its distribution is very limited. It is replaced by the deficient verb [ka] in the negative of the potential mood and does not appear with the morpheme [eso] at all. It has also been observed that the deficient verb [eso] can serve as the negative morpheme where the negative morpheme [sa] cannot be employed.
- (d) With regard to aspectual morphemes, the negative morpheme [sa] cannot appear with the progressive aspect morpheme [sa], but can only appear as the complement of the deficient verb [sa]. It is also not allowed to appear with the temporal aspect morpheme [tswa].

Masowa (2016) studied whether the three negative morphemes in Sesotho language /-ha/, /-sa/ and /-se/ and the negative word /tjhe/ can perform different functions of negation as postulated by Schaefer and Masgbor (1984) in the Ibibio language. From the psycholinguistic and generative perspective, Klima (1964) argues that negation has seven stages: not-negation, contracted negation, negative pronouns and determiners, opportunity to study difficult subjects in Sesotho and that students at the university of the Free State should have Sesotho at level one as a compulsory subject and should be encouraged to read Sesotho literature. They should also debate on Sesotho language and its culture. Interpreters, translators, the government and administrative should be available for Sesotho documents in the Free State province.

The above scholars argue that dialects influence the standard languages. They are

important because they discuss how dialects influence the standard languages. Sesotho is a standard language, the above studies are different from the present study because the present study looks at why and how Sesotho orthography in Lesotho changes. Whether it is because of the influence from dialects in Lesotho or if there are other factors which might also influence this standard language.

2.1.1.5 Tense and Orthography

On the other hand *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981) and Guma (1971) show that Southern Sesotho has some different morphemes which signify tense. For example, /a/ present tense and /-ile/ are used to signify perfect tense /-tla/ and /tlo/ future tense. Guma (ibid) further explains that the past continuous tense is multi-verbal because it is built up of subject concord and the deficient verb stem /-ne/.

Nurse and Philipson (2006) discuss common tense-aspect markers in Bantu (as called by Nurse and Philipson) languages. They aim at providing an inventory and typological overview of the commonest pre-stem and suffixal tense-aspect markers across those languages. They examine geographical distribution, phonological and tonal shape and general semantic range. They say they have used 100 languages and 85 of them are from Guthrie's groups and 15 are from his 15 zones. They explain that the extensive pre-stem markers are /a/ and they mention that /a/ appears in several tonal and vowel-length variations, and signifies past in most languages and non-past in fewer languages. They strengthen that the most popular suffixes are /a/ 'neutral', /e/ 'subjective', /ile/ 'perfect past', /ag/ 'imperfective', /i/ 'positive near past, a vowel copy suffix 'positive near past'. They further elaborate that the first five go back to proto-Bantu and the sixth is innovation. They say /ile and /i/ are connected.

Lekhotla la Sesotho (1981) and Guma (1971) show different morphemes used for tense, whereas Nurse and Philipson (2006) discuss common tense-aspect markers in Bantu languages. Their studies are of great help in this study because they will also help the researcher to identify other morphemes that are used in tense. All the above scholars do not show how orthography can affect Sesotho orthography. The present study will show how wrongly used tense affects Sesotho orthography.

2.1.1.6 Sesotho Syllables and Orthography

Guma (1971) elucidates that Southern Sotho has three types of syllables namely: Vowel only (v), Consonant and Vowel (CV) and Consonant (C). Guma (ibid) posits that V syllable is distributed in different ways namely: initial vowel syllable, medial vowel syllable and final vowel syllable.

On the other hand Madigoe (2003) explains how the syllable structure in Northern Sotho is. He uses transformational (TG) and Feature Geometry (FG). Madigoe (2003) defines syllable structure as the manner in which syllable structures are conserved in a specific language. He says Northern Sotho has the following structures /CV/, /CwV/, CCV/, /CCwV/. He argues that Northern Sotho stems show a consonant the initial phoneme and a vowel as the final or a terminating phoneme. Madigoe (2003) concluded that the models used yield better results in the description of syllable structure processes in Northern Sotho. He shows that TG has 5 or 6 rules which are V, deletion, interconsonantal v-deletion, semivocalization, semivowel insertion, gliding and diphthongization whereas FG has deletions and assimilations.

Guma (1971) gives the type of syllables used in Southern Sesotho, whereas Madigoe (2003) describes and explains syllable structure in Northern Sotho. Both studies are of great help in this study because the researcher needs to be aware of the syllables used in Sesotho. The researcher is not only analyzing the syllables of Sesotho like they are doing but finds out whether their usage is correct or they are changing and affects the orthography of Sesotho. Their studies inform the present study because some of the mistakes made by students derived from the construction of the words in Sesotho language. The word formation of word starts from syllable making.

2.1.1.7 Addition and orthography

Gayo and Widodo (2018) discuss morphological and syntactic errors made by Indonesian students when learning English and the factors that cause these errors. They qualitative descriptive research to describe errors and their factors. They argue

that learners make morphological and syntactic errors. Morphological errors include omission, addition, and others. They argue that Indonesians study English at early stage but still make mistakes when speaking and writing English language. They describe addition in English as the presence of an extra linguistic element in English utterance. They explain that the addition of such elements cause errors in the language, these errors occur at morphological level. They argue that the errors of addition include inflection, addition of inflection –s addition of derivation and proposition, copula be, personal pronoun, addition of article and addition of auxiliary. They also indicate that the major sources of errors are interlingual and intralingual factors. They conclude that the errors made by students when writing are morphological and syntactic level and lastly the errors are made at intralingual and interlingual are factors. This study informs the present study because the study analyses the word and sentence structure in Sesotho language.

2.1.1.8 Deletion and orthography

The process of deletion does not only happen to some languages but most languages undergo this process, it is triggered by different reasons and it happens in a different position in a word depending on why it happens. Paradis and Charité (2001) concentrate on guttural deletion in loanwords. They explain that the only segment in nine corpora of loan words that can be systematically deleted in French is /h/, as placelessness is hallmark of laryngeals not pharyngeals and it cannot be explained by the Threshold Principle. They explain that English /h / is deleted in French, Italian and Portuguese because they do not have pharyngeal node consonant, it is not deleted in Spanish Bulgarian, Catalan, Mandarin Chinese, Greek and Russian, they have one or more native pharyngeal consonants ... or χ. They also indicated that pharyngeals ʕ and ʕ are deleted in loan words borrowed into French.

Antindogbé (2013) shows the basic and relevant structures of Mòkpè. The emphasis is in four aspects, and are the following: phonology, orthography, morphology and syntax. In his discussion he stipulates that Mòkpè have seven vowels and twenty-three consonants. Antindogbé also discusses phonological rules namely: deletion,

epenthesis, affricate and glide formation and vowel assimilation. For the purpose of this work deletion will be looked at. In his discussion Antindogbé exposed deletion rules in this language. He says deletion in this language is initiated by the environment and is also motivated rapid flux of the speech. Conversely Khan (2016) analyses isiZulu adoptives from English and Afrikaans, on the other hand Khan explains that deletion is a repair strategy utilized in isiZulu loan-words phonology to eliminate complex onsets and syllable codas. Khumalo (1987) in Khan (2016) also claims that deletion as the optimal repair strategy is very rare. Adomako (2008) argues that Akan language deletion is also one of the repair strategies Akan employs in its loanword adaptation process. Adomako explains that deletion is not common as vowel epenthesis. He mentions that deletion happens in two ways: mostly in the word-final and rarely in the word-medial. Adomako (2008:34) further explains “consonants, mostly liquids, are deleted when they precede other consonants as a member of word-final cluster.”

On the other hand Allison (2017) describes the manifestation of vowel deletion and insertion in languages originally related to Úwù. Allison (2017) also attempts to document vowel deletion and insertion. (re-attempts). Allison uses linear and non-linear models to analyse the data collected. Allison (ibid) concludes that elision in Úwù occurs in three grammatical constructions: the vowel of the associate morpheme is regularly deleted whenever the morpheme precedes a vowel-initial noun, in a verb phrase the vowel of a verb is deleted when the verb is monosyllabic. He identifies that in a verb phrase where the verb is disyllabic or tri-syllabic there is no phonological change unless the vowels are identical. He also clarifies that vowel insertion is done in three positions in Úwù: in morpheme initial, medial and final. Allison (2017) observes that [i] is the underlying form of inserted vowel and that the vowel becomes[u] in a labial environment. Allison (ibid) realises that minor languages are endangered and are not documented and one of the ways to rescue these endangered languages is to document them.

Antindogbé (2013) exposed deletion rules in Mòkpè language, Allison (2017) describes the manifestation of vowel deletion and insertion in languages originally related to Úwù and Paradis and Charité (2001) concentrate on guttural deletion in loanwords. The

above scholars make their studies in other languages other than Sesotho the researcher is using for her study. The researcher is different from these scholars because she is concerned with the adoption of conjunctive writing and other changes in Sesotho language. Their studies informs the present study because some errors made in Sesotho is through deletion.

2.1.2 The difference between Sesotho orthography in Lesotho and in the Republic of South Africa

Sesotho is used both in Lesotho and in South Africa but the orthography used in these two countries is different. This language is spoken the same way in both countries but it is written differently in both countries. These two countries have the same sound used in this language the difference is that they use different phonology.

According to Mohasi and Mashao (2014), Sesotho is one of the languages related to Setswana and Northern Sotho. Sesotho is the official language in Lesotho and South Africa. They further explain that Sesotho varieties are Sekgolokwe, Sekwena, Serotse (Selozi) and Setlokwa. Orthographically there are two forms used: Sesotho spoken in Lesotho and Sesotho spoken in South Africa. The recent study find out whether the Sesotho in Lesotho still maintain its orthography as stated by Mohasi and Mashao (2014). And whether there is the influence from Sesotho varieties like it happens in other languages.

Different sounds which are used differently in both countries are beyond the scope of the current research to judge correct orthography. However, research shows differences between these two orthographies [<https://en.wikipedia.org>].

Below is the table of sounds used complementarily in both languages:

Table 2.2: Lesotho and South African sounds

Lesotho	South Africa
li, lu	di, du
Kh	Kg
k'h	Kh

Tš	Tsh
Ch	Tjh
E	Y
O	W
fsh	Fj
psh	Pjh

Furthermore, there is another issue of the use of apostrophe in the initial of the word in the written Sesotho in Lesotho if the sound repeats itself. But in written Sesotho in South Africa, instead of using an apostrophe, the same sound is repeated, as demonstrated in the table below:

Table 2.3: The use of apostrophe

Lesotho	South Africa
'n as in 'na	Nna
'm' as in 'm'e	Mme
'ny as in 'nyonya	Nnyonya
'ng as in 'ngoea	Nngoea

The above scholars provide the different Sesotho orthographies used in Lesotho and South Africa. In the development of Sesotho orthography, written Sesotho in South Africa and written Sesotho in Lesotho were different, as it is, different bodies have agreed that these orthographies are different. The above scholars do not show if Sesotho of Lesotho is adopting the new style of conjunctive and the present study will show how Sesotho in Lesotho is adopting a new way of writing Sesotho.

2.1.3 Conjunctive and disjunctive writing

Studies show that the orthography of conjunctive and disjunctive are different, as a result this two methods have implications on class tagging and tokenisation. But all these studies are different from my study because it looks at how Sesotho adopts conjunctive writing in its orthography, and the implication of this adoption. Taljard and Bosch (2006)

are comparing approaches to word class tagging between disjunctive and conjunctive written Bantu languages. The comparison is made between two languages Northern Sotho (disjunctive) and IsiZulu (conjunctive). They mention that these two methods of writing have direct implications for word class tagging. They first discussed Bantu morphology and orthography, noun classes and concordial agreement system morphology of nouns, then conjunctive and disjunctive writing systems and others. Their study which state Sesotho like Northern Sotho is disjunctively written will inform the basis of this research because, this research addresses how Sesotho adopts conjunctive writing which is the limitation on Taljaard and Bosch, and focus will be on different word structures.

Anderson and Kotzé (2006) look at finite state tokenisation of an orthographical disjunctive agglutinative language. They use Northern Sotho as the example of disjunctive language. They first classify methods of writing in Bantu languages as disjunctive and conjunctive, and on each method they provided examples. They also explain that tokeniser is needed to isolate categories .

On the other hand Pretorius et al (2009) discuss Setswana tokenisation and computational verb morphology. Both articles are of great help in this study because even though they look at tokenisation they both look at the disjunctive orthography of Northern Sotho and Setswana and these languages are disjunctive like Sesotho the language under study, the morphology discussed in both languages inform the present study because even though they are disjunctive but their orthographies are different, the orthography Sesotho is adopting.

Unlike Pretorius et al (2009). McCormack (2006) identifies conjunctive and disjunctive forms in Setswana. This study informs the present study because, since Sesotho and Setswana are disjunctive there are such cases in Sesotho whereby there are some words which are written conjunctively even though Sesotho falls under disjunctive languages for example *e moholo*, in this sentence *moholo* is conjunctively written and that is the gap identified and highlighted by this study.

Harya (2016) discusses language development and change. Harya says language changes by itself, and the change is caused by education, social factors, culture and technology mastery. According to her, language change can occur internally which she says it has to do with morphological regularity. The theory used to analyse external language change is sociolinguistics. Harya looks at Old and Modern English language, she says they differ in spelling, pronunciation, vocal and structure. Harya (2016) was also analyzing Germanic language. Harya's work is different from this study because the researcher is focusing on the research in Sesotho Language whereas Harya is looking at English. Harya's study is helpful in this study because it gives the causes of language change which might be the same causes in Sesotho language. It helps the researcher to find out whether the causes mentioned in Harya's study might be the same causes in Sesotho language. Therefore, this study concentrates on the the change in the orthography in Sesotho as identified by the researcher.

2.1.4 Standardization

Comparing Germanic languages, Deumert and Vandebussche (2003) provide a comprehensive and comparative view of standardisation processes. They see standardisation of language as always beginning with the possibility of selecting between a numbers of linguistic alternatives. They explicate that monocentric and polycentric selection are two types of selection.

Molepo (2014:17) indicates that standardisation has these three points:

- (a) Natural development of standard language in speech community.
- (b) Direct and deliberate intervention by society to create a standard language. Standard languages are associated with prestige, providing a unified means of communication.
- (c) Standardization makes possible the establishment of an agreed orthography. It provides a uniform form for educational materials. (p.161)

2.1.4.1 Dialectal Influence on the Orthography of the Standard Bantu Languages

Sometimes for the language to develop it needs some influence from other sources, but if that influence is not controlled or handled with care it can destroy the language. Language influence can be positive or negative. The influence can change the orthography of the standard language.

Sekere (2004) investigated how varieties of Sesotho spoken in Qwa-Qwa differ from standard form and how they influence the written form of Sesotho. In her observation the Sesotho spoken in Qwa-Qwa is not a standard one because of the migrated ethnic groups, socio-economic and technological changes that have brought in new terms and styles of living. Sekere mentions that Sesotho spoken in Qwa-Qwa is facing problems and constraints which need to be attended to as soon as possible. She explains that Sesotho spoken in Qwa-Qwa is changing. She says Sekgolokwe and Setlokwa dialects of Sesotho are growing rapidly because of the interaction of young Makgolokwe and Batlokwa with Sesotho speakers and that another problem is that native speakers of Sesotho dislike Sesotho as their language and their culture. She stipulates that Sesotho is weaker in the capital town than in far rural areas or villages where Sekgolokwe and Setlokwa are flourishing. Sekere also observes that interference, codeswitching and borrowing happens amongst Sesotho learners in different schools in Qwa-Qwa, they codeswitch to English or Afrikaans as well as African languages. Sekere notices that Sesotho learners are given instructions through English not with their mother tongue and that although spoken and written Sesotho are forms of the same language they differ in phonetics, phonology, morphology and syntax. She uses qualitative method to gather her information. She uses both qualitative and quantitative method. Sekere's study is different from the present study because it looks at the influence made by Sekgolokwe and Setlokoa whereas the present study looks at the changing orthography of Sesotho in Lesotho.

Nkosi (2008) investigates the effects on interference from other languages that precipitate language change and variation in Sesotho sa Lebowa at Kgadime Matsepe High school. She also investigates language change and varieties and the efforts educators take to purify Sesotho sa Lebowa. She finds that there are changes in

Sesotho sa Lebowa in Kgadime Matsepe high school and this change is caused by other languages spoken by students outside classroom setting even in their Sesotho sa Lebowa classes. Moreover teachers use English to explain some concepts of Sesotho sa Lebowa: they normally revert to English language. She says some students are multilingualists, they do not specialize in one language and some have negative attitude towards this language. Learners are not encouraged to maintain and improve the standard form of Sesotho sa Lebowa by encouraging them to read it. Nkosi thinks that there is a need to accept varieties of this language in the educational system and that this will minimize failure rate. Nkosi encourages teachers to stop codeswitching and codemixing during Sesotho sa Lebowa lessons and that other varieties be accepted and students should not be given low marks when they use them. In her study Nkosi uses qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Thamaga (2012) investigates the influence made by IsiNdebele to standard Sepedi students which might be the cause of their poor performance in Dennilton region at Sekhukhune district. She mentions that these two languages are both spoken in this area. She explains that the influence by Isindebele to Sepedi is morphological, syntactic and semantical. She further illustrates that another influence is from other languages such as Afrikaans, and IsiZulu and argues that it is very difficult or impossible to control this influence because of the complex mixes in this area. Thamaga gives reasons why IsiNdebele has the influence to the Sepedi language. Amongst other things Sepedi and IsiNdebele learners meet inside and outside classroom situation. IsiNdebele learners used to attend Sepedi classes before Isindebele was officiated. She thinks that orthography for African languages should be updated. Thamaga analyses her data using sociolinguistics concepts. She uses both qualitative and quantitative research methods.

Khweyane (2014) investigates the influence and impact of Sepulana on Sepedi the standard language. Khweyane (2014) argues that Sepulana dialect has a negative influence and impact in the learning of the standard Sepedi in Sabie circuit in Bohlabela district of Mpumalanga province. She argues that this influence is caused by the usage of Sepulana in the formal classroom situation by teachers who teach Sepedi. As a

result, students get confused and do not know which language to use between the two. She encourages educators to upgrade their Sepedi qualifications and stop using Sepulana in class. Khweyane uses qualitative method to analyse her data. She uses both primary and secondary research to collect data.

Moeketsi (2014) investigates factors that led to the possible extinction of Sesotho language and assesses the national agenda on languages in South Africa. He argues that there is a death of Sesotho language in the post-apartheid South Africa. He complains that the death of Sesotho has negative consequences on the lives of Basotho because this makes them not to perceive and organize the world around them. He further mentions that what the forefathers have done to build this language has just vanished. Moeketsi (2014) stated that the declining of Sesotho oral literature has contributed largely toward the normlessness in the Basotho societies, as this literature used to provide direction concerning how people should live. In addition to that he says South Africans should be given opportunities to build their country using indigenous languages. He advocates for the frequency of usage of Sesotho Language especially at schools, private and public places as this will make speakers of this language to develop and preserve their culture. He recommends that Sesotho should be made compulsory in model C schools, and learners should be given opportunity to study difficult subjects in Sesotho and that students at the university of the Free State should have Sesotho at level one as a compulsory subject and should be encouraged to read Sesotho literature. They should also debate on Sesotho language and its culture. Interpreters, translators, the government and administrative should be available for Sesotho documents in the Free State province.

The above scholars argue that dialects influence the standard languages. They are important because they discuss how dialects influence the standard languages. Sesotho is a standard language, the above studies are different from the present study because the present study looks at why and how Sesotho orthography in Lesotho changes. Whether it is because of the influence from dialects in Lesotho or if there are other factors which might also influence this standard language.

2.1.4.2 The influence of social media on standard languages.

The aim of Munyadziwa and Mncwango (2021) is to establish if the use of indigenous languages is promoted on social media. They use qualitative approach, the target is the following indigenous languages: isiZulu, siSwati, Sepedi, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. The theory employed is gratification theory. Munyadziwa and Mncwango (2021) find out that WhatsApp, Facebook and Twitter are mostly used and are used mostly for academic and business purposes. And mostly for maintaining friendships. They say social network users do not exclusively use their indigenous languages, but code-mix and/or code-switch between English and their first languages. Moreover Munyadziwa and Mncwango (2021:313) elaborate “social media applications have developed new collaborative dimensions where information is shared, created, remixed, constantly updated and improved by the users”. They also find out that the social media users say code-mixing assist to make a chat clearer when communicating with someone who is not familiar with the indigenous language.

Malatji (2019) investigates the influence of social media towards preserving African languages: the languages under study here are: Sepedi, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. He employs both qualitative and quantitative research methods: and exploratory and descriptive designs. Malatji uses Linguistic Dynamism theory, Gratification theory and Practice theory. Chan- Olmsted, Cho & Lee, 2013:152 in Malatji (2019:20) defines social media as

“Social media are the social network sites, microblogging applications, content sharing platforms and instant messaging sites that people use to connect with one another across boundaries. People use these cyberspace platforms to share information, ideas, personal messages and other related content about one another.”

Malatji (2019) finds out that the speakers of African languages, when using the social media, most of their texts have errors such as grammar and spelling if they are written in any African languages. But English texts do not have such mistakes. He also find out that the majority of the speakers of African languages accepted the difficulty in typing in African languages because they need to write long sentences because it is difficult to

use short phrases in their own languages. He also mentions that social media have a negative impact towards conserving the African languages should be developed in order to fit the requests of social media applications. This is because the African youth have a negative attitude to their own African languages because they find it difficult to use on social media.

Songxaba and Sincuba (2019) are examine the effect of social media on English second language essay writing with special reference to WhatsApp. The main purpose is to give a report on the mistakes students at grade 10 make in the orthography of English as their second language. When they write an essay, which has been caused by the social media especially WhatsApp. They uses quantitative research method with survey research design. Some of the mistakes students committed is writing numbers instead of writing where applicable: for example 'it wz mi 1 tm' instead of it was my first time. They also substitute some sounds with the wrong sounds, for example, hi instead of he, dat instead of that. They also omit some sounds in some words for example I wz not full instead of I was not full.

Thobejane (2017) explores the influence of social media on the development and promotion of the indigenous African languages at the rural University. Thobejane employs qualitative approach in order to achieve complete results. The theories use in this study are critical discourse analysis theory, Gratification theory and Linguistic theory. The languages understudy are Sepedi, Tshivenda and Xitsonga. He argues that, in some downloaded sentences, the message portrayed are semantically correct but there are some words which are not correctly spelt. In some cases different word categories are written conjunctively but according to the Tshivenda orthography are supposed to be written disjunctively. Another problem is that students mix both English and Tshivenda when writing. Even in Xitsonga, students' code-mix English and Xitsonga. He further points out that using unacceptable spelling or orthography and code-switching lessens changes for the development and preferment of any language in use, Xitsonga is negatively impacted upon. The mistake of substituting some sounds occurs in all these three languages.

Sekere (2004) aims at investigating varieties of Sesotho spoken in QwaQwa, and examines how these spoken varieties differ from standard form and how they influence the written form of Sesotho. She employed qualitative research method. Sekere (ibid) mentions that children pick up words and expressions from the media because they cannot differentiate between standard and non-standard varieties of language. Moreover she declares that the additional uncommon suffixes on certain standard and non-standard roots typify students' speech. The suffixes they get from Sesotho radio station (Leseli) from the programs such as '*Re a kubeletsa*' from 15:00 to 16:00. She further points out that the media, especially radio and Television instinctively promote non-standard varieties that interfere with the standard language especially because the public believe that Sesotho spoken on TV and radio is the standard form

2.1.5 Phonological patterning of Sesotho Sounds in the Sesotho Orthography

Language Manual 11 (1996) aims at training of Peace Corps volunteers in Africa. They discuss Sesotho phonology its phonetics, articulation and speech sounds and patterns which are not present in English and tone and length, grammatical structure, and sentence structure. Peace Corps (ibid) mention that Sesotho has two main types of speech sounds: Vowels and Consonants. They say that Sesotho has seven basic vowels. They elaborated that the four mid-vowels can be raised to higher tone key positions on the vowel chart during vowel assimilation. They say Sesotho vowels are always voiced and when articulated there is no obstruction of the air current. Language Manual 11 (1996) say some Sesotho consonants are voiced and some are voiceless. They say that places of articulation for Sesotho for Sesotho bilabial, labiodental, alveolar, post-alveolar, palatal, labio-prepalatal, velar and glottal. Manner of articulation are as follows: stops, affricates, fricatives, plosives, ejectives, trills, clicks, laterals and approximants.

Hyman (2003) discusses the Bantu segmental phonology, where he looks at phonological properties of syllables, consonants and vowels in Bantu languages. Languages under study are: Koyo, Ruwund, Bukusu, Nande, Cewa Swahili Budu and Bafia. He claims that most scholars approve that Proto-Bantu had seven discrete

vowels. He clarifies that the syllables allowed are CV where a single consonant is followed by short vowel, CVV where a single consonant is followed by a long vowel. He articulates that in V, N are mostly likely limited to prefixes: subject prefix. He disputes that the open syllable structure is strengthened by Bantu agglutinative morphology.

Demuth (2007) explains acquisition of Sesotho by children. Demuth (ibid) explains that Sesotho has 40 consonants and array of affricates, laterals and syllabic nasals. It has one click and phonemic use of aspiration. She further explains that Sesotho has nine vowels with three different heights of mid vowels. Demuth (ibid) further elaborates that Sesotho has several phonological processes. She explains “Labial palatalization is used in the derivation of some passives, and rarely used correctly by children.” Demuth mentions that strengthening processes take place in the environment of a nasal, where voiced plosives becomes voiceless ejectives and fricatives become aspirated obstruent. Demuth (2007) explains that Sesotho has a system of vowel harmony where mid vowels are raised in certain phonological environments. She further explains that the mid open vowel is raised to a mid vowel when followed by a high vowel. Her data was collected from publications based on 98 hours of longitudinal spontaneous speech samples from four children aged 2:1 to 4:7 in the rural places of Lesotho.

Mohasi and Mashao (2014) investigate phonetisation of Sesotho language for text-to-speech synthesis. They use phonetisation method. The prime purpose is to understand the system for the letter to sound conversion and to assess the quality of these transcription system. Their concentration is on the conversion of input text into phonemes, changing the phonemes into phones. Mohasi and Moshao (2014:2) list four properties of Sesotho phonology as

- (a) It has nine distinct vowels, four of which form 2 groups of 2 vowels which sometimes behave as part of the same phoneme, and other times do not.
- (b) The spoken language comprises of 35 consonants, including 2 semi-vowels,, 3 click consonants, and 4 non-homogenous doubled articulants.
- (c) All nouns, save one, begin with a consonant, the exception

being “isao” which means “next year”.

Mohasi and Moshao (ibid) mention that Sesotho is a tonal language notable by its prefix concordial system. They further explain that all Sesotho words end in a vowel or a nasal consonant /n, ng, ny or m/ and that Sesotho has click sounds which are similar to the plosives. They concluded that it is suited to rule-based transcription for there is a possibility to develop a generalized set of letter-to-sound rules that cover the majority of Sesotho spelling.

Language Manual 11 (1996) aims at training Peace Corps in Africa. The Peace Corps were trained on the Sesotho phonology. Hyman (2003) discusses the Bantu segmental phonology, Mohasi and Mashao (2014) investigate phonetisation of Sesotho language for text-to-speech synthesis. Demuth (2007) mentions several phonological processes in Sesotho. These scholars do not use the theory the researcher is using, the present study uses morphological and minimalist theory. Even though they have used Sesotho as an example they do not discuss the change in the Sesotho orthography which is what the researcher is researching about. But their studies are relevant to the present study because it is through phonological processes they have discussed one would realize the change in orthography.

2.1.6 Assimilation

Wulandari (2019) discusses sound assimilation in Amanatun dialect of Uab Meto. Her study was made to detect and define the different types of assimilation in Amanatun dialect of this language. She uses descriptive qualitative to conduct this study. Wulandari (2019) explains that assimilation is one of the phonological rules and defines it as the variation of a sound to be more similar to another sound under certain circumstances. Wulandari (2019:44) tabulates types of assimilation as:

Assimilation by process (vowel assimilates consonant feature, consonant assimilates vowel feature, consonant assimilates consonant features, and vowel assimilates vowel feature), assimilation by time (historical (diachronic) and contextual (synchronic) assimilation, assimilation by distance (contact and

distance assimilation), assimilation by direction (progressive assimilation)

and assimilation by form (phonological and morphophonemic assimilation)

She concludes that Amanatun dialect of Uab Meto has ten kinds of assimilation and are grouped into five classifiers. This study is helpful in this study because there is assimilation in some of the data collected.

2.1.7 Affixation and Orthography

2.1.7.1 Morphology

Devlin et al (2004) define morphology as the internal structure of words. They mention that languages differ on morphological structure of words. They say that it is not clear if morphology is a basic element of linguistics or whether it emerges from systematic regularities between the form and meaning of words. In their work they use Functional MRI and Visual masked paradigm. They concluded that morphology emerges from the convergence of form and meaning.

Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) aim at explaining morphology. They also show that there are problems with its traditional formulation. They define morphology as the study of form or forms. Aronoff and Fudeman (ibid) further describe that in the field of linguistics it is defined as the internal structure of words and how they are formed. They clarify that in order to achieve or get right the structure of words, morphologists say one should first identify and study morphemes, which is the smallest linguistic pieces with a grammatical function. Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) further clarify the concept morphology by defining the terms morph, allomorphs or variants. They define morph as the phonological realization of a morpheme and can also be called or variants. They define a stem as a base morpheme where another morphological piece is attached. They further elaborate that a stem can be simple or complex, whereby a simple stem is made up of one part and a complex one is made up of more than one piece. A root is like a stem, but it refers to morphologically simple units. They also discuss two complementary approaches to morphology which are analytic and synthetic. The languages used are English, Indonesian and Japanese.

The above scholars made research in other languages rather than Sesotho, the language under study. Their studies inform the present study because it analyses the internal and syntactic structure of Sesotho words. This will help to find if Sesotho has adopted a different style of writing Sesotho orthography.

2.1.7.2 Affixation

Ramscar (2013) discusses suffixing, prefixing and the functional order of regularities in meaningful strings. He explains that learning theory predicts that prefixes and suffixes will tend to promote different kinds of learning and that when words are learned with reliable prefixes, participants learn the relationship between the prefix and the noun labels, and the relationship between the noun labels and the objects related with them better than when words were learned with consistent suffixes. He maintains that when prefixes make items more foreseeable and make veridical discriminations easier suffixes make items cohere more increasing the similarities between them.

Brooks and Kempe (2014:351) define affixation as a process whereby “a prefix or suffix is added to modify a base semantically or grammatically...” Crystal (2008:16) defines affixation as “the morphological process whereby grammatical or lexical information is added to a stem”. Additionally Umera-Okeke (2007) says affixation is part of word formation, whereby affixes are attached to the beginning or the end of a word. She uses English language for her discussion. Hasanah (2014) shows affixation used in discourses of the Jakarta Post newspaper. They show that there are many kinds of affixation such as nominal, adjectival, verbal and adverbial suffix. Hasanah (ibid) argues that affixation can be divided as derivational and inflectional affixation.

2..1.7.3 Definition of affixes

Sesotho as an agglutinative language has its different morphology which uses affixes. Agglutinative language is the language which has different morphemes with different meanings, for example stem and affix. These affixes are used differently depending on the position of each affix as a result it is important to understand and discuss how different scholars have dealt with them. Affixes are used by most languages. The affix carries some meaning to the word it is attached to, it can either be used as a prefix, infix

or suffix. The meaning carried by affixes will differ from language to language, and also the kind of affix attached to the word or stem. Crystal (2008) explains that the common term for the types of FORMATIVE that can be applied only when added to another MORPHEME (the ROOT or STEM) i.e. affixes are a kind of 'bound' morpheme. He further explains that in a language affixes are limited in number and are categorized in three types depending on their position with reference to the root or stem of the word. He says prefixes are added to the beginning of the root or stem, infixes occur within a root or stem and suffixes are those which follow. Crystal (2008:16) examined "languages which express grammatical relationships, using affixes, thereby naming them affixing languages".

2.1.7.4 The use of prefix in Bantu Languages

Prefix are the bound morphemes attached at the beginning of a word or stem. This morpheme is mostly used by Bantu languages. In most Bantu languages a prefix is prefixed or attached to the noun to denote singularity or plurality. The use of prefix issue has been discussed by some scholars and shows that prefix is done especially in some African languages, the use of prefix differs from one language to another and the way of using it also differs.

Petzell (2003) study deals with the noun class prefix of Kagulu specifically the pre-prefix. She mentions that Kagulu has three prefixes: pre-prefix, the nominal class prefix and the agreement class prefix. Petzell (ibid) explains that these class prefixes serve different purposes, the pre-prefix is positioned within parentheses, nominal class prefix is affixed on the nouns as well as the adjectives whereas the agreement class prefix are used on determiners and possessives, and also used in the verb phrase as both subject marker and object marker except in class one. Petzell (2003) concludes that the pre-prefixes are used in definiteness of the nominal phrase as well as specificity and are related to topicality. She further concludes that the pre-prefix is used clausal initially and may have an anaphoric or deictic function as a result it can be called a topic marker. Petzell (ibid) explains that in different Bantu languages including Kagulu the concepts of definiteness and specificity are mostly likely different. She points out that

the pre-prefixes have different functions in different languages and in Kagulu, the pre-prefix is not obligatory and it has to do with topicality.

Zerrouki and Balla (2009) look at the implementation of infixes and circumfixes in the spellcheckers. The language under study is Arabic. It uses internal word changes and has more affixes dependency and diacritics which are usually ignored. They give the definition of infix, circumfix and suffix. They explain that most of spell checkers and morphological analyzers of natural languages are created on the affixes extraction. They conclude that it is necessary to have new features to process infixes, circumfixes and Arabic diacritics ignore, and have tried to programme new features in the open source spell checkers *aspell* and *Hunspell*. They further conclude that the idea of open source gives a strong push for constant development of programs at low cost material and human resources.

Cook (2016), Umera-Okeke (2007) and Katamba (1993) explain prefix as a special letters added to the front of a word that changes the meaning of a word. In his/her discussion he/she teaches students the prefixes /un-/, /im-/, /pre-/, /re-/, and /mis-/ in class through games and songs. Hasanah (2014) also shows that prefixes //in-/, /un-/, /dis-/, /-post-/ and /non-/ are used in Jakarta post newspaper. de Schryver and Gauton (2002) examine the distribution of class 17 locative prefix ku- and its variants kwi- and ko- in the locativisation of nouns in Zulu. Their study was based on Pretoria Zulu Corpus (PZC) an organic 5-million-token Zulu corpus built at the University of Pretoria. They mention that the biggest changes in the use of prefixes ku- kwi- and ko- began in 1990s whereby the use of ku- grew speedily and the use of ko- fell into disuse. de Schryver and Gauton (2002:217) state “The use of ku- (and to a lesser extent kwi-) is many times more frequent in the sub-corpus containing the genres pamphlets and internet files than in any other sub-corpus at all.” They also find that “not only the locative prefix kwi- widely used in Zulu in the locativisation of loanwords and noun signifying brand names and scientific and technical concepts but well over a third of all the examples of nouns locativised by way of the prefix kwi- constitute ‘normal’ Zulu words words that are neither loanwords, brand names nor do they signify previously unknown (new) scientific and technical concepts” They indicate that the locative - is used more with nouns other

than those in classes ½ 1a/2a and that it is regularly used with nouns commencing on the preprefix ko- alternates with ku- in the formation of locatives i- class 2.

Taraldsen et al. (2018) examine the use of class prefixes as specifiers in Southern Bantu. Their argument is that in southern Bantu languages some plural prefixes spell out a phrasal constituent, a specifier bottening out in classifier-like noun. To support their argument they use the theory of Lexicalisation. They argue that some plural prefixes cannot be taken to inherit the gender of the (overt) noun they combine with. In addition they say that gender-features must always originate from a noun. They claim that all class prefixes lexicalise specifiers bottening out in a noun. They say prefixes are paired with nouns on the basis of semantic compatibility or by being as phrasal idioms in the lexicon. They conclude that all nominal prefixes in Southern Bantu lexicalize specifier of the sort. They say noun prefixes in the Southern Bantu languages are morphemes lexicalising a syntactic phrase fused on the projection line of the noun.

2.1.7.5 Infix and Orthography

Fábregas (2020) uses Spanish to explain how infixes are used. He uses configurational theory of word formation for his work. His argument is that in this language, infixes are used in two different ways, he says the first class of infixes corresponds to a syntactic head and the second class is part of certain contextually conditioned allomorphs of the base. Fábregas (ibid) contends that the first set of infixes in this language are proper morphemes in the traditional sense. Additionally he claims that morpho-syntactic infixes cannot appear in word final position. He indicates that that morpho-phonological infixes only appear when specific VI's are adjacent to them. Fábregas (2020) further clarifies that the infix does not emerge if there is no nearby constituent. He concluded by showing the difference between two classes of infixes in Spanish which are morpho-syntactic infixes and morpho-phonological infixes, he declares that their semantic and formal properties are different.

2.1.7.6 Circumfix and Orthography

Mbah (2012) describes circumfixation in the Igbo language, how circumfixation applies within and across lexical boundaries in this language the types of circumfixation in Igbo

and the tonal changes that take place in the process of circumfixation in this language. Mbah (ibid) uses morpho-syntactic approach to show how syntactic patterns are modified to form morphological forms. He finds out that circumfixation in Igbo is pervasive and applies in verbal roots and it is reliable with the morphology of Igbo in which only the verb accepts inflection. He also finds out that this language is no different from other languages because in the process of circumfixation applies in a discontinuous way, whereby two dissimilar parts are affixed to the beginning and to the end. Mbah (2012) elaborates that this language the first segment comprises a vowel or syllabic nasal and the second discontinuous segment is bilabial nasal [m] and it is said to be syllabic in Igbo. Moreover he said in this language circumfixation does not form closed.

Kari (2015) examines circumfixation in the traditional view of parasynthesis and in the light of generative grammar. Kari (ibid) demonstrates that parasynthesis is a shared and productive word formation in Degema. According to the author, it is the source of derivation of agentive and gerundive nominals and state nouns from verbs. Kari (2015:21) states

...whether the analysis adopted is traditional or theoretical, there is a high degree of morpho-semantic bonding between the two parts of the circumfix used in deriving agentive and gerundive nominals and state nouns, as neither part of the circumfix has any meaning until both parts of the morpheme are generated...

Kari (2015) concludes that the theoretical analysis of circumfixation in Degema deverbal nominals demonstrates that all three types of deverbal nouns are morphologically derivable in the same way. He finds that circumfixation is not common in world languages but it is a possible word process like prefixation, suffixation and an infixation. Furthermore, the two parts of circumfix constitute a single morphological unit and express single meanings, though not comprehended if the two parts of circumfix are viewed as cases of "normal" prefixes and suffixes.

Onwuta and Ojinuka (2018) highlight the spread of circumfixes in English and determine distinctive characteristics of circumfixes. Their study revisited the generalisation that circumfixes are far-less common and productive in English than in othare correctly used if they are used in a language following the morphology of that language or if they do not substitute the already existing words in a language. Like any other standard languages, Sesotho as an agglutinative language has its different morphology which uses affixes. Agglutinative language is the language which has different morphemes with different meanings, for example stem and affix. These affixes are used differently depending on the position of each affix as a result it is important to understand and discuss how different scholars have dealt with them. Affixes are used by most languages. The affix carries some meaning to the word it is attached to, it can either be used as a prefix, infix or suffix. The meaning carried by affixes will differ from one language to another. And also the kind of affix attached to the word or stem.

2.1.7.7 The use of Suffixes in the Orthography of Bantu Languages

The suffix is attached at the end of the word or morpheme. It is mostly used by different languages to give different meaning to the word depending on the language it is used in. For example in Sesotho of Lesotho it can be used as diminutive or augmentative. Katamba (1993:44) defines a suffix as “an affix attached after a root (or stem or base) like the ones used in English /-ly/, /-er/, /-s/, /-ing/ and /-ed/”. In addition, Cook (2016:41) defines suffixes as “letters added to the end of the word that changes the word”. Cook (ibid) is helping English language learners understand meaning and functions of affixes using games and songs. Hasanah (2014) says Jakarta post newspaper uses /-cy/ and /-ion/ in its discourse

2.1.7.8 Diminutive suffix

Diminutive suffix is the kind of suffix that is attached to the noun in most cases to denote or to show that something is very small or to show sympathy or to belittle a noun. This suffix is used in Sesotho language. For example *monnanyana* (a little man) /-nyana/ in this noun is a diminutive suffix which has been used to belittle the noun *monna*. In Sesotho there are three demunitive suffixes attached to the noun.

Nxumalo (1993) aims at establishing whether */-ana/* and */-nyana/* are variant or two different forms or whether */-nyana* is a reduplicated form of */-ana/*. She gathers her data through questionnaires. She concludes that diminutive */-ana/* is productive, it formulates diminutive nouns from corresponding noun stems. Nxumalo (1993) further points out that diminutive in isiZulu can be formulated as */-ana/ = /ane ~ / aŋ ~ -ana- ~ anA - ∞ - eyana ∞ -ŋana*. She further concludes that semantically the function of diminutive is to indicate child, youth and smallness and secondly diminutive function is related with emotions.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002) in Lockyer (2014) define diminutives as affixes which designate small size and also, by extension, ones which mark the off-spring of animals, affection or informality, likeness or imitation. Lockyer (ibid) argues that diminutives are not necessarily restricted to suffixes, as analytic markers including little also form diminutives without affixes. She mentions that *-ie/-y* suffix is common. Lockyer says Bauer (1983) claims that the *-ie/-y* diminutive suffix is productive and has produced diminutives perhaps hypocoristic and unusual in nature. She argues that the role of the suffix is to mark emotional attachment rather than small size, they carry attitude that is highly dependent on the context and also the noun, and express a range of emotions, ranging from fondness to disdain. Lockyer also indicates that diminutives meanings can be uttered in cognitive linguistic view and this is expressed by Jurafsky (1996). She explains that the diminutives are all derivative from the semantic field of small and connected to children and women.

Kathekiso *et al.* (2005), Kathekiso *et al.* (2009) and Guma (1971) explicate that in Sesotho the diminutive suffix is attached to a noun using the following diminutive suffixes: */-ana/*, */-ane/*, */-nyana/* and */-nyane/*. They further explain that */-ana/* and */-ane/* are accompanied by morphophonemic processes. They also clarify that sometimes the diminutive suffix is used to belittle a person or an object sometimes to the young ones of animals. Kathekiso *et al.* (2009) provided the following examples in Sesotho to show morphophonemic processes:

Table 2.5: Morphophonemic processes

b > j	<i>Bohobe</i> > <i>bohojana</i>	(bread)
th > ch	<i>Methe</i> > <i>mechana</i>	(sack)
t > tj	<i>Koto</i> > <i>kotjane</i>	(knobkerrie)
f > tš	<i>Morifi</i> > <i>moritšoana</i>	(clay pot)
l > j	<i>Lerole</i> > <i>lerojana</i>	(dust)
m > ng	<i>Lerumo</i> > <i>lerungoana</i>	(spear)
T > tš	<i>Moriri</i> > <i>moritšana</i>	(hair)

Schneider and Strubel-Burgdorf (2011) show the status of the diminutive /-let/ in present-day language, as compared to its occurrence over the past two hundred years. They say /-let/ diminutives exist in present-day English. They stipulate that the English diminutive suffix /-let/ is among the first diminutive suffixes studied linguistics, in the mid-19th century. Schneider and Strubel-Burgdorf (2011:29) argue that the diminutive /-let/ is used only as “lexicalized formation with an opaque structure and specific non-composite meaning; it is also morphologically and semantically transparent (quasi) ad-hoc formations...” they say the diminutive is more common in American English than in British English. On this basis, diminutives referring to persons are used for evaluative purposes whereas diminutives referring to objects or animals are used for quantification in description. In their study they use qualitative and quantitative methods.

Steriopolo (2013) investigates the use of diminutive affixes in four unrelated languages: Maale, Walman, Kolyman Yukahir and Itelmen, German, Breton and Yiddish. She concludes that the use of diminutive suffix differ cross-linguistically based on the manner and place of attachment in a syntactic tree. Steriopolo (idib) stipulates that some diminutive suffixes behave as syntactic heads and others as modifiers. In terms of place of attachment some are attached in the number position while others attach above. She says Kolyman Yukahir and Itelmen are not related but they have a similar distribution of diminutive morphemes and both do not change the syntactic category or grammatical features of the base as a result they are regarded as syntactic modifiers. Steriopolo (2013) mentions that Maale, Walman, Kolyman Yukahir and Itelmen are not

related and these languages' diminutive affixes differ in their manner and place of attachment. She further elaborates that some affixes are syntactic heads in Maale and Walmen while others are syntactic modifiers as in Kolman Yukahir and Itelmen, and that some affixes merge in the same syntactic position as a plural morpheme in Maale and Walmen. She says cross-linguistically diminutive have a similar meaning.

Lockyer (2014:71) mentions that interjections and diminutives are similar in the following aspects:

- (a) They expree emotive meaning(s) ranging from positive (appreciative) to negative (depreciative).
- (b) They are linguistic features that can express the mental state of a speaker, a speaker's attitude towards an action or referent, or a speaker's reaction to a situation.
- (c) They are generally used in informal and casual speech and are commonly avoided in formal speech (perhaps with the exception of lexicalized diminutives including droplet and some primary interjections including *oh*).

Lockyer argues that their difference lies in word-formation, and phototypical function. She mentions that the primary function of diminutives is 'smallness', in addition to that diminutives are basically suffixes that adjust a noun, adjective or other parts of speech. She explains that the meaning of a diminutive is highly dependent on the base word and the context. In her paper, Lockyer argues that DI can be considered forms of diminutives based on the notion that diminutives do not necessarily have to carry smallness. Her paper discussed tweets in regard to the contextual use, meanings and functions of diminutive forms of interjections, termed 'DI' in present day English.

The present studies discuss how different affixes are used in different languages including Sesotho language spoken in Lesotho. The studies are different from the present study because they do not discuss the cause of the changes found in Sesotho orthography spoken in Lesotho. This studies are important in this study because the researcher is trying to find out how some affixes are used differently as opposed to how they were used.

Since some of the changes found in Sesotho orthography in Lesotho is through the use of affixes it is of necessity to find out how affixes are used in different languages even in Sesotho. It is also important to define different affixes and how they are used.

2.1.8 The nature of Orthographical affixes on the basis of their lexical functions

Affixes can function as either inflectional or derivational.

2.1.8.1 Inflexional affixes

Inflexional affixes do not change the lexical meaning. Nordquist (2019) defines inflectional affixes as morphemes that define certain aspects pertaining to the grammatical function of a word. He says English language has only inflectional morphemes and are all suffixes. The table below shows morphemes which he says are examples of inflectional morphemes in English:

Table 2.6 inflexional affixes

-’s	To indicate the possessive noun
-s	
Es	To indicate plural case (noun)
-ed	To indicate past tense (verb)
-ing	To indicate present participle (verb)
-en	To indicate pasr participle
-s	To indicate third person singular
-er	For the comparative
-est	For superlative

He explains that morphemes are both inflectional and derivational, for example /-ed/, /-en/, /-er/, /-ing/ and /-ly/.

2.1.8.2 Derivational affixes

Creemers et al (2018) argue that there are two types of derivational affixes. Their discussion is on Dutch derivational affixes. They mention that some derivational affixes are roots (lexical morphemes) and categorial heads (functional morpheme).

Norguist (2019) defines derivational affix as an affix or a group of letters affixed before the beginning or prefixed or after the end or suffixed of a root or base word to create a new word or a new form of an existing word. He continues saying derivational morpheme often changes the grammatical category or part of speech of the root word to which it is added.

The above scholars define different affixes, discuss how to use them and when to use them in different languages including Sesotho the language under study. Their works are of great use in this study because the researcher is going to analyse the use of different affixes in Sesotho, and find out how they affect the changing orthography of Sesotho language. This study also uses theories different from the theories used by the above authors.

All the above scholars have discussed different issues such as: orthography, language influence deletion, diminutive suffix, loan words which changes the language but none of them has these issues in Sesotho spoken in Lesotho. Little has been done on these issues in Sesotho. The issues will be discussed later in this work where the researcher will show how and where these have affected and changed Sesotho orthography of Sesotho spoken in Lesotho, how Sesotho is adopting the conjunctive writing, how these issues discussed can be explained in Sesotho spoken in Lesotho and the cause of adoption of conjunctive writing since none of the above authors has discussed that.

2.1.9 Loanwords

Economical social and political developments cause most languages to borrow words from other languages. These loan words can be wrongly or appropriately used, but in some cases loan words are inappropriately used because they substitute the already existing words in different languages. Loan words one can say they are correctly used if they are used in a language following the morphology of that language or if they do not

substitute the already existing words in a language. Like any other standard languages, Sesotho as an agglutinative language has its different morphology which uses affixes. Agglutinative language is the language which has different morphemes with different meanings, for example stem and affix. These affixes are used differently depending on the position of each affix as a result it is important to understand and discuss how different scholars have dealt with them. Affixes are used by most languages. The affix carries some meaning to the word it is attached to, it can either be used as a prefix, infix or suffix. The meaning carried by affixes will differ from language to language, and also the kind of affix attached to the word or stem.

2.10 Language Policy

In order to have a proper use of a language every language has to have a language policy. There has to be a body which will be the watchdog to see how the language is used to control the use of the language especially the standard language.

Since there is a lot of language influence from different sources there is a need of a language policy in all languages. Language policy has been viewed from different perspectives. Language policy is the policy that will regulate the rules and regulations in every language. Lo Bianco (2010) makes the overview of language planning (LP) where he describes the origins of LP and the brief discussion of the relevance of LP to a teacher. McGroarty (1997:1) in Lo Bianco (2010:3) defines language policy as “the combination of official decisions and prevailing public practices related to language education and use.” In addition to this Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:xi) see language policy as a body of ideas, laws, regulations, rules and practices intended to achieve the planned language change in the societies, and group of system. On the other hand Fishman (2001) claims that when authorities change due to political changes, language policy involves the undoing and redoing of previous policies. Moreover language policy is said to consist of the authoritative allocation of resources to language and pertains either to the status of the language for which policy is designed.

Zolberg (2001) claims that language policy involves the governance of multiplicity arising from historical alignments, current immigration or both. Goundar (2017) is giving the overview of the language policing and manning with the aim to explore the genesis of language planning and policy from 1950s up to date. The discussion shows that language planning and policy has been started in 1950s and 1960s and has been problem-oriented that responded to the needs of the newly established states and shows that academics are much interested in it. Johnson (2013:3) clarifies that “language policy and language planning are related but are different activities”. Schiffman (1996:276) sees language policy as “a social construct which has obvious numerous elements of nature-judicial, judicial, administrative, constitutional and or legal language be extant in some jurisdictions,...” Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) claim that language policy is approved by an authoritative body like the government. On the contrary, Jonson (2013) believes that language policy can be endorsed as a bottom-up movement, which is deriving from a grassroots organization; in this view, language policy is not always intentional or carefully planned.

Sposky (2005:2160) sees language policy as about the choice of a specific sound or an expression or of a specific variety of language which is made by an individual, or a socially defined group of individuals or a body with authority over a defined group of individuals. Spolsky (2005) discusses language policy conditions as follows:

- (a) The sociolinguistic situation,
- (b) The working of national or ethnic or other identity within the community
- (c) Changes caused by globalization,
- (d) The gradually increasing recognition that language choice is an important component of human and civil rights and lastly
- (e) The growing recognition that human and civil rights require attention to the problems of those who do not have control of the dominant language of a society.

If a language does not have a language policy it means there will be no control in whatever is happening in that language as a result it will be very easy for a language to

be destroyed, to deteriorate, decline or be influenced by different factors. It is the duty of the parliament or the body which controls the language in every language to control and lay rules that will guide the linguists to accept or guide on how newly formulated words should be formulated. Manyau (2007:30) says policy makers consider the place and role of French in the local education system and should think of how French can benefit individuals and the nation if it can be officiated.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Kelinger and Lee (2000:11) "A theory is a set of interrelated constructs concepts definitions and propositions consisting that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena. Kivunja (2017) mentions that theory usually appears from a long procedure of research that uses empirical data to create assertions based on deductive and inductive analysis of the data. I take theory to be any concept which is used to verify the concepts, argument or phenomena. Kivunja (2017) gives characteristics of theory. He argues that theory must be "logical, coherent and its concepts and principle explain what is going on and why."

Like other studies, this study is underpinned by the theory an important aspect which helps to explain a problem under study. The theories engaged in this study are morphological theory, Minimalist Programme (MP) and semantic theory. This theories are discussed in this order because morphological theory analyses the construction of words, MP analyses sentences and semantic theory examines the meaning of words and sentences.

2.2.1 Morphological Theory

Aronoff and Fudeman (2011:1) explain that the etymology of the word morphology is Greek. Morph means "shape, form" and further define morphology as the study of forms or forms." Aronoff and Fudeman (ibid) explain morphology in linguistics as "the mental system intricate in word creation or to the branch of linguistics that deals with words,

their internal structure, and how they are created. Additionally, Arkadiev and Klamer (2016) enlighten that morphology as the study of word structure is familiarly connected to both language description and linguistic theory. As such, the present study will employ morphological theory. The morphological theory is one of the theories used to analyse language. Drawing on Chomsky (1975), Halle (1973), Siegel (1979) and Aronoff (1976), Spencer (1994:71) views morphology as central to generative linguistics. For Spencer (1993), generative grammar explicitly highlights a formal theory of language structure. Spencer (1994:72) highlights the following three aspects of word structure:

- a) the phonological structure of words and morphemes;
- b) the internal structuring of words, i.e the way that component morphemes combine, and also the relationships that hold between sets of morphologically related words.
- c) The relationship between word structure and syntactic processes and representations

Aronoff and Fudeman (2011) stipulate that morphologists investigate words, their internal construction, and the way they are formed through the study of morphemes. They further explain that in morphology a morph refer to the phonological realization of a morpheme. Sometimes morphs are called allomorphs or variants. Aronoff and fudeman (ibid) in their discussion they elaborate that a stem is a base morpheme because other morphological pieces are attached to it. The stem can be simple or complex. A simple stem is made up of one part whereas the complex stem is made up of more than one piece. They explicate that a root morpheme is the morpheme where other pieces are attached to it, it refers to morphologically simple units. Aronoff and fudeman (2011) argue that the reason why morphology is distinct from syntax, phonology, and other twigs of linguistics is that words in some languages are clustered into largely random classes that determine their forms in different environments. It is not only Aronoff and Fudeman who discussed the notion of morphology concentrating on word formation.

Arkadiev and Klamer (2016) also mention that word is fundamental to morphology, and that word definition and identification are decisive both for morphological analysis and morphological typology. They debate that word can be understood through the syntagmatic axis and paradigmatic axis. They further define syntagmatic axis as where we differentiate wordforms from phrases and parts of words (morphemes) and the paradigmatic axis as where we recognize lexemes. They define a lexeme as a set of wordforms eminent exclusively by inflectional features and their exponents. They give the distinction between inflectional and derivational morphology where they explain that in derivational morphology new lexemes are created.

The table below shows the distinction between inflectional and derivation as extracted from Arkadiev and Klamer (2016:8):

Table 2.2 Features of prototypical inflection and derivation

Parameter	Inflection	Derivation
Function	Does not change syntactic category of a word	May change syntactic category of a word
Meaning	Often has purely grammatical meaning	Tends to have lexical semantic content, i.e. meanings similar to the meanings of independent words
Regularity	Is often semantically regular	May have unpredictable semantic content
Syntactic determinism	Is often syntactically determined	Does not require a specific syntactic environment
Obligatoriness	Function is obligatory	Function is not obligatory
Productivity	Is highly productive	Often applies only to certain words, or classes of words
Paradigmaticity	Is often organized in paradigms	Is often not organized in paradigms
Fusion	Can be marked by	Is rarely marked by

	portmanteau morphemes	portmanteau morphemes
Recursivity	Is marked only once in the same word	May apply twice in the same word
Position	Occurs in a peripheral position near the edges of a word	Occurs in a central position close to the root

The above discussed processes help in the formation of word. In the morphological theory words can be formed inflectionally or derivationally. Spencer (1994) mentions that the internal structure of words depends on individual morpheme: their meaning and grammatical function. Spencer further explains that every morpheme has a meaning.

2.2.2 Minimalist programme

The other related theory for this study is the Minimalist theory. This theory will particularly be used for analysing data as shown below. With reference to the early 1990s, especially Noam Chomsky (1993), Azizi and Sadighi (2015) view the Minimalist program (MP) as having developed inside generative grammar. Besides Chomsky (1993, 1995), other scholars, for instance, Radford (2004, 2009), Cook and Newson (1998) and Rizzi (1999,1994) in Azizi and Sadighi (2015) argue that MP represents language on the basis of three principles, namely economy, uniformity and simplicity. Amongst the three principles, economy principle is regarded as central. As Azizi and Sadighi (2015:2) elaborate "... economy principles require comparison of the number of steps in a derivation (economy of derivation) or number of symbols in a representation (economy of representation)". Economy principle can be discussed based on the following principles: binary, preposing condition, Attract Smallest Condition (ASC), Locality principle, Relativised Minimality Condition (RMC), Agreement and A-movement and Defective clauses with expletive subjects. Azizi and Sadighi (2015:7) further explain that uniformity principle is also important because

... the child's linguistic experience is often degenerate (i.e. imperfect), since it is based on the linguistic performance of adult speakers, and

this may be poor reflection of their competence... the uniformity requirement stipulates that a model of acquisition must only involve properties of the situation known to affect all children.

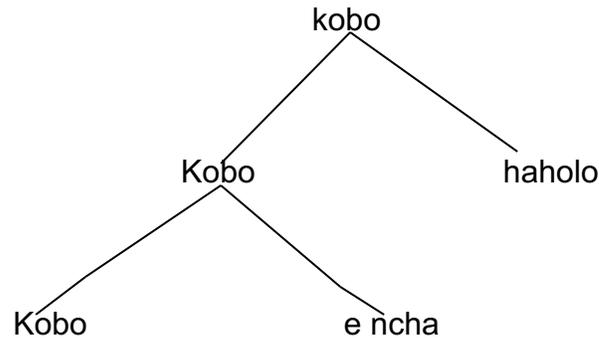
Categorical Uniformity Principle, Chain Uniformity Condition and Uniform Theta Assignment Hypothesis (UTAH) are the principles which make uniformity principle to be more remarkable.

Simplicity principle is the last principle in MP. In this principle, shortness of grammar is viewed as a measure of simplicity. Simplicity principle is measured by two things namely: reduction of symbols in a statement and reduction of the length of derivations. It is said that simplicity and economy have a mutual relationship. On the other hand Zwart (1998) argues that MP deals with a perennial question of how to link sound meaning. Zwart further mentions that language faculty involves a computational system which has two components: the articulatory perceptual system and the conceptual-intentional system.

2.2.2.1 Merge

Al-Horais (2013) says that the essential concepts of MP are select and merge. de Vries (2005) defines merge as structure building, which creates a hierarchy and which is also binary and asymmetrical and its basics are: structure building, hierarchy, binary branching, asymmetry, strict cycle/extension and free selection. In structure building, it is where merge joins syntactic objects into one bigger object. In one basic concept hierarchy, the head, not the sister node, projects to the new syntactic element, which is the hierarchy from the bottom-up. In binary branching merge receipts two input objects, that is to say it deals only with two constituents at the time. In the example below merge has combine two objects, and the hierarchy is from bottom-up. The adjective is the projector of the head (noun).

Tree diagram 2.2



Langendoen (2003:1) mentions that “when the objects α and β are merged, one of them is the head... one might infer that α is the head and β its complement” In the above sentence *kobo e ncha haholo* (a new blanket) there is binary branching where the *e ncha* (an adjective) is the projector of the head (noun) *kobo*. The noun *kobo* (blanket) merges with the adjective *e ncha* (a new one).

de Vries (2005) further points out that the one object is chosen by or dependent on the other in terms of semantic or syntactic features. Langendoen (2003:307/1) stipulates “merge is not a single operation, but a family of operations.” He further points out that to be part of merge family, an operation must be capable of producing an infinite set of objects from a finite basis. Hornstein et al (2005) argue that human language can yield an infinite number of sentences, merge as a grammatical operation combines words into larger units. Two items are put together to create a new object with the understanding that the two items that are put together are syntactic objects.

2.2.3 Semantical Theory

Semantical theory sees both sentences constructed and words formulated as having meaning. Semantics is the branch of study within linguistics that deals with language and how meaning is understood, that is the study of words and sentence meaning. Shafiee (2014) describes three types of semantic analysis on words as semantic features and semantic roles. In this view, words are described according to their roles in the situation described in a sentence and lexical relations that is, the meaning in terms of the relationship with other words. This theory informs this study in terms of analysing the meaning of newly formulated words from using different affixes, new sounds,

deletion and omission. For example, the word “*monanang*” with the suffix “*nang*” could have meaning in Sesotho, or show whether Sesotho even has that suffix.

According to Ramadan and Ababneh (2013:309), also taken up by Bagha (2011:1411), “semantics refers to the study of meaning in language”. The authors further view meaning as a part of language, thereby seeing semantics as a part of linguistics. They have mentioned that Greek philosophers, e.g Socrates, Plato and Aristotle and other philosophers in ancient China and India have made declaration related to meaning. Moreover, Bagha (2011) explains that meanings happen in our mind, and we express what is in our mind by means of the spoken and written forms of language. Bagha says the organisation of a word and a sentence should bear meaningful messages as seen in both morphology and syntax.

They have given discussed three theories of semantics. Namely: The referential theory of meaning, the non-referential theory of meaning and the generative Grammarian Theory. The referential theory of meaning is discussed under three sub-topics: meaning as the relationship words and objects. They mention that in this theory there is connection between words and objects. Meaning that if one explain the word the best method of indicating the meaning is to refer to the object represented by the word. Ramadan and Ababneh (2013) mention that the limitation to this definition is that it only applies to concrete words not abstract words. They further give the second sub-topic which is the meaning as a triangular relationship where Ramadan and Ababneh (2013:309) point out that “the symbol is the spoken or written word, the reference is the information that the spoken or written shape of the word conveys to the reader or hearer and the referent is the thing or the object we talk about.” The broken line means there is no direct connection between word and the object that it refers to. The last sub topic is Bloomfield’s view of meaning where they say meaning of a linguistics form is the situation in which the speaker says it and the response which it calls forth in the hearer. Firth’s (1951) view of meaning is more inclusive than many views because for him, meaning comprises those facets which are describable in terms of intra-linguistic relation and also the other aspects described in terms of rapport between language and the world outside language.

The other theory of meaning discussed is the non-referential theory of meaning. Wittgenstein (1953) views the meaning of a word as explained by its use in the language. For Ramadan and Ababneh (2013), the non-referential method doesn't take into consideration the context of situations or the reference in determining what meaning is. There a connection between language and the outside world because language doesn't exist in the vacuum. This could be seen as the weakness of this theory.

The last theory of semantics is the Generative Grammarian theory. Chomsky (1965) states that the meaning of a sentence is based on the network of relations in a deep structure of a sentence. Added to the Generative grammarian Theory, Jackendoff (1972) introduced the theory called interpretive Semantic theory which Ramadan and Ababneh (2013) regard as the whole exclusion of the context of situation from its theoretical framework. They say Katz (1972) and Fodor (1982) state that meaning should restrain itself to the knowledge of language and not the knowledge of the world. In this view, one feature of meaning which is explicable only in terms of one's knowledge of the world should be better debated by pragmatics rather than semantics. Non-linguistic knowledge enhances understanding of the meaning. But the information required for processing meaning is physically endless. The two components of early interpretive semantics are the lexicon and the projection rules. Key to the lexicon is required information for each word of the language concerning its role in meaning-making. The authors further the word as having a grammatical and semantic portion. The grammatical portion states whether the word is a noun, a verb, an adjective or an adverb. The semantic portion of a lexicon provides the semantic components of each word. Finally the interpretive semanticists believe that the meaning of a sentence depends on its deep structure

2.3 Conclusion

The chapter has reviewed the literature that is relevant to this study. The orthography of Sesotho and the morphological affixes used in Sesotho, have been discussed in this chapter. The characteristics of a standard language have been uncovered, as well as

the orthographical discrepancies which are both deletion and omission. Further, the chapter has presented the literature on the language policy. The next chapter will discuss the research design and methodology

CHAPTER THREE: THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The previous chapter has reviewed related literature employed in this study. In this chapter the researcher discusses how research will be carried out, the methods and the design, paradigm, sample, instrument used to collect data, ethical considerations and data analysis.

Kothari defines research as a scientific and organized search for appropriate information on a specific topic, it is an art of scientific enquiry. In addition Mishra and Alok (2017) say research searches for the information and knowledge on a particular issue and is orderly enquiry. They stipulate that the main purpose of research is to discover the authenticity and truths which are unidentified and which have not been uncovered. Igwenagu (2016) and Mishra and Alok (2017) group research as exploratory, descriptive, diagnostic and hypothesis-testing research. Research therefore is a search for information in an organized, orderly and planned way. This research helped a researcher to describe, explain the phenomenon. Jansen and Igwenagu (2016:5) mentions that Research methodology is:

a guide to research and how it is conducted, it describes and analysis methods, throws more light on their limitations and resources, clarify their pre-suppositions and consequences, relating their potentialities to the twilight zone of the frontiers of knowledge.

Igwenagu (ibid) tops up by saying methodology as the research plan that frameworks the way in which research project is to be undertaken and among other things, recognizes the methods to be used in the research moreover is the design process for undertaking research, it is not an instrument or method, or procedure for doing things. Methodology does not define specific methods, it should not be used as the substitute for the methods.

Warren (2020) defines research methodology as the practical “how” of any specified piece of investigation. Research methodology is the how-part of pursuing a research.

3.1 Research design

Harwell (2011) mentions that research design refers only to the methodology of a study, e.g data collection and analysis. He explains that it is needed because it communicates information about the main characteristics of the study and those key characteristics of the study, and key features will depend on whether one uses qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods. Echoing similar sentiments are Pandey and Pandey (2015) who define research design as the outline or plot of undertaking study; a guide on how to collect and analyze data. Pandey and Pandey (ibid) and Kothari (2004) agree that research design is the blue print for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. Pandey and Pandey (2015) further indicate that the known qualities of Research design are quality objectivity, reliability, validity, generalizability and adequate information.

On one hand, Majid (2018) argues that the study design is the use of evidence-based procedures, protocols and rules that give the tools and framework for directing a research study. On the other hand, Kothari (2004) finds research design as the plan of collecting and analyzing data in a way that intends to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in the process. He finds research design as a helping strategy for the researcher as it helps the researcher to organize his ideas in such a way that it will be easy for him to look for flaws and inadequacies. Kothari (2004) elaborates that it is the conceptual structure within which research is taken. Akhtar (2016) defines research design as a plan of the proposed research work. He says research design is the plan of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that intends to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy and procedure. He mentions types of research design as exploratory, descriptive, explanatory and experimental research.

Apuke (2017) explains that quantitative research method deals with quantifying and analysis variables in order to get results. It includes the utilization and analysis of numerical data using precise statistical procedures to answer questions who, how

much, what, where, how many and how. The difference qualitative and quantitative as extracted from (Apuke 2017:4)

Table 3.1: Qualitative and quantitative research

Criteria	Qualitative research	Quantitative research
Purpose	To understand & interpret social interactions	To test hypotheses, look at cause & effect, & make predictions.
Group studied	Smaller & not randomly selected.	Larger & randomly selected.
Variables	Study of the whole, not variables.	Specific variables studied
Type of data collected	Words, images, or objects.	Numbers and statistics.
Form of data collected	Qualitative data such as open-ended responses, interviews, participant observations, field notes, & reflections.	Quantitative data based on precise measurements using structured & Validated data-collection instruments.
Type of data analysis	Identify patterns, features, themes.	Identify statistical relationships.
Objectivity and	Subjectivity is expected.	Objectivity is critical.

subjectivity		
Role of researcher	Researcher & their biases may be known to participants in the study, & participant characteristics may be known to the researcher.	Researcher & their biases are not known to participants in the study, & participant characteristics are deliberately hidden from the researcher (double blind studies).
Results	Particular or specialized findings that is less generalizable.	Generalizable findings that can be applied to other populations.
Scientific method	Exploratory or bottom-up: the researcher generates a new hypothesis and theory from the data collected.	Confirmatory or top-down: the researcher tests the hypothesis and theory with the data.
View of human behavior	Dynamic, situational, social, & personal.	Regular & predictable.
Most common research objectives	Explore, discover, & construct.	Describe, explain, & predict.
Focus	Wide-angle lens; examines the breadth &	Narrow-angle lens; tests a specific

	depth of phenomena.	hypotheses.
Nature of observation	Study behavior in a natural environment.	Study behavior under controlled conditions; isolate causal effects.
Nature of reality	Multiple realities; subjective.	Single reality; objective.
Final report	Narrative report with contextual description & direct quotations from research participants.	Statistical report with correlations, comparisons of means, & statistical significance of findings.

Based on the explanations above, the researcher intended to outline her study through the use of qualitative research design not quantitative research design because it is not going to analyse data through numericals. Jansen and Warren (2020) assert that qualitative research concentrates on gathering and analyzing words (written or spoken) and textual data. In the same vein, Strauss and Corbin (1990) explain further that qualitative research is any type of research that produces findings without statistical procedures. They further explain that it can refer to research about persons' lives, lived experiences, behaviours, emotions and feelings as well as about organizational functioning, social movements, cultural phenomena and interactions between nations. Tashakkri and Teddlie (2010) give properties of qualitative approach as narrative, subjective, inductive, descriptive, detailed, teleological, open, finalistic, understanding, and exploratory, empiricism, anthropology, micro and art. Niglas in Tashakkri and Teddlie (ibid) debates that argumentation in qualitative is not centered on numbers and calculations but on the considerable ideas. Additionally, Patton and Cochran (2002:2) mention that qualitative research is characterized by its "aims, which relate to understanding some aspects to social life, and its methods which... generate words,

rather than numbers, as data for analysis.” Mack et al (2005) argue that qualitative research is the type of scientific research that obtains culturally exact information about the values, opinions, behaviors and social context of specific populations.

On the basis of the definitions provided by Jansen and Warren (2020), Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Patton and Cochran (2002), the current researcher intended to premise this research work on the qualitative research approach for the reason that, in the analysis of her data, words and sentences were analysed explanatorily and explorationally, not numerically.

The researcher found out through students’ documents why Sesotho adopts conjunctive writing and why they use diminutive suffix */nyana/* in a predicate as opposed to the noun phrase. Kielmann et al (2012) mention that for researchers in qualitative studies, the quest to make sense through visual and qualitative observation are an impetus for a research in qualitative researchers, characterized by the context in question. Kielmann et al (2012) and Denzin and Lincoln (2013) say qualitative researchers try to study things, people and events in a natural setting. Denzin and Lincoln (2013) elucidate that qualitative research crosscuts disciplines, fields and subject matter. Moreover, it has set of interpretive and material practices that make the world perceptible. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) argue that qualitative research does not have its theory, paradigm, obvious set of methods or practices that are just of its own. Flick (2014) on the other hand emphasizes that the concentration of qualitative research is to analyse subjective meaning or social production of issues, events or practices by collecting standardized data and analyses texts and images instead of number and statistics. In addition, Van Maanen (1979) utters qualitative research is umbrella term covering a range of interpretive techniques which seek to define, code, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning not frequency. The researcher analysed students’ documents (scripts) in order to get information from them which in turn helped her to find out why Sesotho in Lesotho adopts conjunctive writing, and why it also uses diminutive suffix in the predicate. The researcher collected data, coded it, checked the patterns in the data collected, looked at the premises and drew the conclusion. This process was done in order to get detailed information. The data was collected through documents. The researcher collected data from the primary sources through documents.

The researcher investigated about the causes of Sesotho adopting a different style of writing which make Sesotho in Lesotho loses its originality. The adoption of conjunctive writing, deletion, addition, wrongly usage of affixes has led Sesotho in Lesotho into making Sesotho orthography shift and loses its novelty. In order to find the cause of such anomalies the researcher collected documents (reports and essays) from grade 11 at three high schools: Paray, Thaba-Tseka and Ntaote high schools in Thaba-Tseka. Since the schools are within reach, the researcher will collect data for three months: collects ten documents from each school. Data analysis was done qualitatively, analysis was done through words not numerical, and the findings was reported through words.

The researcher used explanatory research, it deals with causes or why factor about some phenomenon. The researcher looked at why Sesotho in Lesotho is adopting conjunctive writing, why there is deletion in some Sesotho words. This is done through collecting documents from grade 11 students analyzing how they have written Sesotho and how they have constructed their sentences. The researcher needed three to four months to collect data from schools because the researcher had to notify teachers that she will collect data from their schools, teachers will have to prepare the topics students will write about. The researcher randomly picked ten scripts from grade 11 class from each school. Then read each script, underlined unacceptable sentences and words, grouped them based on their themes, unacceptable sentences and words were grouped together and thereafter identify mistakes made by students.

3.2 Paradigm

Levers (2013:3) describes a paradigm as “a system of ideas, or world view, used by a community of researchers to generate knowledge. It is a set of assumptions, research strategies and criteria for rigour that are shared, even taken for granted by that community.” For Johnson and Christensen (2014), research paradigm refers to the researcher’s standpoint about research that depends on the conventionally agreed upon list of assumptions, concepts, values and practices. Levers (2013) lists paradigms as postpositivist, interpretivist and constructionist. The present study takes paradigm as a group of philosophies and beliefs which are used by scholars in order to engender knowledge. The researcher used the qualitative paradigm, which is basically

interpretivist in approaching the data on the phenomenon under study. The qualitative paradigm allows the researcher to tap on the subjective aspects of the research, thus interpreting the data subjectively depending on the situation in focus. Reading the participants' essays, the researcher might understand the situation rather than only basing herself on the universal laws. The interpretivist paradigm enables researchers to 'get into the head of the subjects being studied', understand and interpret the subjects' thoughts or meanings in particular contexts. The approach thus relies on human interpretations of reality as the basis of understanding the world.

With the qualitative method, the researcher collects the qualitative data, using document sources for analysing verbal or textual data as in words. The researcher intended to analyse students' essays to find out how they use affixes, omit and delete some sounds in newly formulated words and whether the changes made follow orthographical rules of Sesotho.

3.2.1 Interpretivist paradigm

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) mention that interpretivist research is directed by the researchers set of principles and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied. Burton and Bartlett (2005) elucidate that the interpretivist attempts to express how choices are made by participants or 'actors' in social situations with the process of interaction. They claim that for the interpretivist there is no one objective realness that exists outside the actor's clarifications, just different versions of events. Furthermore, they say interpretivist studies be likely to be small scale targeting for detail and understanding rather than statistical representation. Pham (2018) argues that interpretivist research tends to be subjective rather than objective, in addition Marcon and Gopal (2005) and Kroeze (2012) say that one of the disadvantages of interpretive research is the reality is socially, created by the humans which can be transformed and understood subjectively. It has deficiencies of addressing the political which may be the power that influence societal be it linguistic or otherwise and ideological influence on knowledge and social reality. Since the main focus of this study

is to analyse Sesotho changing orthography, subjectivity is needed. The researcher needed opinion of different people on this matter. Orthography itself has no political influences, therefore even if paradigm lacks it in this case it is not needed.

3.3 Data collection

Kabir (2016:202) defines data collection as “the process of gathering and measuring information and variables of interest, in an established systematic fashion that enables one to answer stated research questions, test hypothesis and evaluate outcomes” Kabir (ibid) further elaborates that the main purpose for data collection is to get quality evidence that then can be analysed and allows the building of a conclusive and reliable answer to questions that have been posed. The importance of data collection is to show integrity of the research, reduce the likelihood of errors, lessen the risk of errors in decision making, it saves cost and time. Data can be collected using primary or secondary sources. Documents which are taken as primary sources are: manuscript, charters, laws, archives of official minutes or records, files letters, memoranda, memoirs, biography, official publications, wills, newspapers and magazines, maps, diagrams, catalogues, films, paintings, inscriptions, recordings, transcriptions, log books and research reports, they are intentionally or unintentionally capable of transmitting a first-hand account of an event and are therefore considered sources of primary data. In addition, Pandey and Pandey (2015) also find laboratory measurement, field observation, questionnaires, interviews, opinionnaires, and schedules also as primary data. Kothari (2004) utters that the already collected data by someone else is secondary data and such that have already been approved through the statistical process. Cohen et al (2007) indicate that historical research deal with data that already exist. Sources of data in historical research may be classified into two main groups primary sources, which are the life-blood of historical research and secondary sources which be used in the absence of or to supplement primary data. Secondary sources are made up of data that cannot be described as original. This includes textbooks, encyclopedia, and prints of paintings or replicas of art objects.

The data will be collected qualitatively. The researcher collected data using primary sources: documents. She collected the documents: essay from three high schools in grade 11 namely, Thaba-Tseka, Paray and Ntaote high school. In each school, the researcher will collect ten essays and reports randomly.

3.4 Instrumentation

Research instrument is a tool used to gather, measure and analyse data linked to one's research curiosity. The researchers are the ones who choose their research instrument. The researcher selected the documents randomly from each class. She went through the documents recorded how the students have written the substantive, qualificative and descriptive. She also recorded how they have used affixes, coined words and constructed sentences.

3.5 Document analysis

Document analysis is one of the instruments used in qualitative data analysis, which Bowen (2009) defines it as the organized process for reviewing or assessing documents both printed and electronic. Additionally, Busetto et al (2021) assert that document analysis refers to the analysis by the researcher of written materials. Prior (2003) as quoted by Cohen (2007) stipulates that, documents are suitable in rendering more noticeable the phenomenon understudy. Cohen et al (ibid) and Busetto et al (2021) comment that document include field notes, diaries and journals, records, biographies, autobiographies, formal records, timesheets, technical documents, minutes of meetings, samples of students' work, memos, and emails, reports and statistics correspondence, plans, primary and secondary sources. They indicate that documentary study is also beneficial in longitudinal analysis because it may display how conditions have evolved over time. Cohen et al (2007) argue that arguments may be highly prejudiced and selective, as they were intended to be regarded as research data but were written for a disparate purpose, audience and context. Bowen (2009) claims that document analysis can be used with other methods such as interviews, participant or non-participant, observation and physical artifacts as a means of triangulation but it can be used without other instruments.

Owen (2014), and Adosi (2020) remark that to get information from document analysis is not an easy endeavor. They explain that this is because it may not be able to deliver a thorough list of all most related document needed and the possible bias in a document may be difficult if not impossible to capture. However, Pandey and Pandey (2015) postulate, that a document or record are written by real participants of an incident and are created with the aim of conveying information to be used in the future. DGLISH et al (2020) argue that document analysis can be subject to concerns concerning legitimacy, reliability, authenticity, motivated authorship, lack of representativity and so on. They mention that document analysis can be used without other approaches. They say document analysis is called READ in health policy research which stands for ready your material, extract data, analyses data and distil your findings. Bowen (2009) indicates that document analysis has the following limitations: insufficient detail, low retrievability and biased selectivity.

Even though document analysis has this disadvantage, as indicated by Bowen (2009) documents analysis deals with reviewing and evaluating documents both printed and electronic as a result the researcher used it because the sole purpose was to use students' scripts and checked whether orthographic rules have been observed. Although the documents that have been used in this study were used for assessment, they were written in Sesotho, as a result, they helped the researcher to find out whether the orthography was used appropriately. It was not difficult to access the documents because the schools are within reach, the researcher made arrangements with the teachers on how and when to collect the documents. The document were selected randomly to avoid biasness.

The research got these documents from Sesotho teachers in three selected high schools in Thaba-Tseka. The researcher used students' essays meant for their continuous assessment because they were able to write more. The researcher found out from their scripts how they write Sesotho. The main purpose was to find out whether they use Sesotho orthography correctly without mistakes or changes such as deletion, omission, conjunctive writing and the wrongly usage of use of Sesotho affixes. The

students' work are not meant to be read by the outside world but are meant for their assessment.

3.6 Qualitative data analysis

On one hand, Onwuegbuze and Cobs in Tashakkri and Teddlie (2010:404) define data analysis in qualitative as "Preparing and organizing the data ... for analysis, then reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and condensing the code, and finally representing the data in figures, tables, or a discussion." On the other hand, Kaul in Pandey and Pandey (2015) define data analysis as reviewing the prepared material in order to find inherent facts. It is evident from the two explanations that the data collect should be from numerous approaches so as to explore the new facts. Similarly, Tashakkri and Teddlie (ibid) declare that qualitative data analysis encompasses the analysis of many types of interpretive data that stem from array of sources, this includes interviews, surveys, observations, personal journals, diaries, and permanent records, transcription of meetings, photographs, and videos.

The researcher collected data, coded it, organized it into groups and discussed it. The data collected from the documents was categorized, the researcher made two tables, each table had two columns, whereby the first column wrote correctly spelled words and the second column the wrongly spelled words. In the second table in its first column the researcher wrote correctly constructed sentences and the second column the wrongly constructed sentences. This process were done in all these three schools. The researcher used different data analysis procedures because they complement each other. The student's documents were analysed, the content from the documents was scrutinized, and were grouped into different themes.

3.6.1 Qualitative content analysis

Content analysis is another technique which can be used to analyse data, and the researcher employed it to analyse her data. Kothari (2004) states that content analysis

is the process of scrutinizing document contents such as books, newspapers and the contents of all other verbal materials which can be either spoken or printed. Tashakkri and Teddlie (2010) added that interpretation of meaning is based not only on the content of text but also on the context with which text was formed and within which researcher studies text

Flick (1998:192), Mayring (2004:266) and Krippendorp (2004:18) define content analysis as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts to the contexts of their use.” The text as defined by Krippendorp (2004) is any materials one can use to communicate and are meant to be read, interpreted and tacit by other people other than the analysts. Cohen et al (2007) explain that content analysis describes the procedure of summarizing and reporting written data, the key contents of data and their messages. They say that content analysis explains a strict and organized set of procedures for rigorous analysis, examination and verification of the contents of written data. Cohen et al (ibid) say that “the use of content analysis has spread to examination of any form of communicative material both structured and unstructured.” They mention that it can be undertaken with any written material, from documents to interview transcriptions, from media products to person interviews. Ezzy (2002:83) Posits that content analysis starts with:

- (a) A sample of texts (the units)
- (b) Defines the units of analysis (e.g words, sentences)
- (c) And he categories to be used for analysis.
- (d) Reviews the the texts in order to code them and place them into categories.
- (e) And then counts and logs the occurrences of words,
- (f) Codes and categories.

Ezzy (2002:ibid) further elaborates that:

- (a) Coding
- (b) Categorizing (creating meaningful categories into which the units of analysis -words, phrases, sentences- can be placed.

- (c) Comparing (categories & making links between them)
- (d) Concluding-drawing theoretical conclusions from the text,

Mayring (2004:267-269) in Cohen et al (2007) stipulates that “content analysis focuses on language and linguistic features, meaning in context, systematic and verifiable (e.g in its use of codes and categories), as the rules for analysis are explicit, transparent and public.” The researcher intended to use content analysis because she proposed to analyze linguistic aspects in the documents, the morphological, syntactical and the semantical aspects of each document.

3.6.2 Thematic Analysis

3.6.2.1 Theme

Braun and Clarke (2006) in Vaismoradi and Snelgrove (2019) explain that “themes or patterns are described as the final products of data analysis in the thematic approach.” Vaismoradi and Snelgrove (2010:2) describe theme as “the subjective meaning and cultural-contextual message of data... as a red thread of underlying meanings, within which similar pieces of data can be tied together and within which the researcher may answer the question ‘why’.

Nowell et al (2017) mention that thematic analysis (TA) is a pertinent qualitative research method. It can be used when analyzing bulky qualitative data sets. Braun and Clarke (2006) in Nowell et al (2017) stipulate “it is a method for identifying, analyzing, organizing, describing, and reporting themes found within a data set.” whereas Boyatzis (1998) describe it as a translator for those speaking the languages qualitative and quantitative analysis permitting those who make research and use different research methods to communicate with each other.

The following are the trustworthiness six phases of thematic analysis as discussed by Nowell et al (2017) familiarizing yourself with your data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes and producing the report. The researcher of course followed these phases, because she collected students scripts, go through them, familiarized herself with the collected data, coded the

data collected, found different themes from the coded data and finally she named the themes and made a report.

Using thematic analysis is advantageous, Braun and Clarke (2006) mention that Thematic analysis offers a highly supple approach that can be adapted for the needs of many studies providing a rich and thorough, yet complex account of data. Additionally, they indicate that thematic analysis offers a more available form of analysis, particularly for those early in their research career. Moreover, it is easily grabbed and can be relatively quick to learn, as there are few prescriptions and procedures. Another advantage mentioned by Clarke (2006) and King (2004) in Nowell et al (2017) is that it is used for examining the standpoints of dissimilar research participants, highlighting similarities and differences and generating unanticipated insights. King (2004) stipulates that thematic analysis is used to sum up main features of large data set, as it forces the researcher to take a well-structured approach to handling data, helping to yield a clear and prepared final report.

Even though thematic analysis has these advantages it also has some drawbacks. Nowell et al (2017) postulates that thematic analysis become more seeming when considered in relation to other qualitative research methods. Moreover, they say thematic analysis lacks considerable literature equated to that of grounded theory, ethnography and phenomenology... may cause apprentice researchers to feel unsure of how to conduct a rigorous thematic analysis. Additionally, it does not permit a researcher to make claims about language use. They claim that because of its flexibility can lead to discrepancy and lack of coherence when developing themes derived from research data.

Despite the fact that thematic analysis has the above-mentioned disadvantages, the researcher found it necessary in this research because it allowed her to take a well-structured approach to handle data which helped her to make a clear and organized final report. Thematic analysis is also easily to grasp.

3.6.2.2 Coding

This study is a qualitative one, as a result, will use inductive approach. Linneberg and Korsgaard (2019) elaborate that when one uses inductive coding, she or he needs to make several codes, which are exact and narrow and which are good for apprehending the intricacy and variety of the data. Linneberg and Korsgaard (ibid) explain that coding embodies the gritty craftsmanship that allows artful and artistic interpretation and scrutiny of the data. They further elucidate that coding is a tactic which makes one to return to all aspects of the data one have gathered, including those one may not have noticed during the real data collection. It is necessary to code data as it makes it easy to analyse it. Linneberg and Korsgaard (2019) illuminate that coding sorts the data into labelled segments much like folders on your computer. They say this enables faster admittance to data and allows the researcher to salvage it for another look. The researcher collected data, coded it and grouped it into different themes. Coding made it easy for her to identify different themes from her data.

3.7 Thematic-Content Analysis

The researcher found it necessary to use both thematic and content analysis. In other words, the study used Thematic-Content analysis (TCA) because content analysis designates the process of summarizing and reporting written data, the key contents of data and their messages, while thematic analysis thematic analysis is used to sum up main features of large data set. The researcher therefore needed both approaches to analyse her data because she summarized the written data and shows the important features of the data. Anderson (2007) claims that an acceptable TCA depicts the thematic content of interview transcripts (or other texts) by identifying common themes in the texts provided for analysis. Anderson (2007:1) explains “The researcher groups and distills from the texts a list of common themes in order to give expression to the communality of voices across participants.” Vaismoradi and Snelgrove (2019) classify QCA and TA under qualitative descriptive design, and are appropriate for researchers who “prefer level of description rather than abstract interpretations.”

The researcher intended to use both TCA and TA because of the following reasons discussed by Thorne, Stephens and Truant (2016) in Vaismoradi and Snelgrove (2019:4)

Researchers using TCA and TA can better ensure a reliable and rigorous line of reasoning that is consistent with the identity and construct of developed knowledge. Moreover researchers bring themselves close to the data by highlighting main ideas as codes related to the phenomenon, which may lead to the theme through a constant comparison process.

Additionally, Vaismoradi and Snelgrove (ibid) say that that the shared philosophical standpoints in QCA and TA are comparable flexibility or variability of theme development for attaining an understanding of the phenomenon. They say the same sets of analytical interventions with same meanings, but under different titles, are seen within QCA and TA. Both QCA and TA encourage the use of storyline, map or model for presenting the results.

3.8 Population

The population in a research is the participants or people who will be interviewed, or given questionnaires to answer in a research. In the present research, the researcher used documents as her population because she used document analysis to analyse her data. Cohen et al (2007:477) explain that in content analysis “the population refers to the text- the domain of the analysis.” The text that can be used as population are “newspapers, programs, interview transcripts, textbooks, conversation, public domain documents, examination scripts, e-mails and online conversation.” The researcher used examination scripts.

Majid (2018) says the population of interest is the study’s target population that it intends to study or treat. The targeted population in this research is grade 11 students, It was not easy in this study for a researcher to collect all Sesotho documents from the entire Lesotho high schools, rather the researcher collected documents (examination scripts) from three selected high schools: Ntaote, Paray and Thaba-Tseka.

3.9 Sampling

Johnson and Christensen (2014) and Leedy and Ormrod (2005) define sampling as the process of choosing a smaller group, called a sample, from a larger group, which is the target population of the study. Cohen and Holliday 1979; 1982; 1996: Schofield 1996 as quoted by Cohen (2007) two main method of sampling are probability or random sample and a non-probability sample known as purposive sample. In this research, the researcher used probability sampling because all students in grade eleven have same experience. Taherdoost (2016) says in probability sampling every item in the population has an equal chance of being included in sample. The examples of probability sampling are simple random, stratified random, cluster sampling, systematic sampling and multi stage sampling. The researcher used simple random sampling, she randomly picked ten students' Sesotho scripts from grade eleven as her sample for analysis in the three selected high schools: Ntaote, Paray and Thaba-Tseka. As indicated before, every document had a chance to be included in a sample. The researcher checked whether students are able to write Sesotho in an acceptable way following the orthography of Sesotho. The choice of this group was based on the analysis that they have been taught how to read and write from Grade 8. The researcher did not look into lower grades because more exercises are done with them.

Cohen et al (2007) clarify that the researcher can choose to use probability or non-probability sampling for the documents, and other types of sampling such as random, convenience, domain, cluster, purposive, systematic and snowball. Cohen (2007:100) stipulates that "four key features in sampling are sample size, representativeness and parameters of the sample, access to the sample and the sampling strategy to be used."

3.10 Ethical considerations

Beauchamp and Childress (1994) indicate that there are four principles of ethical concerns, namely: autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence and justice. Patton and Cochran (2002) mention that in research project consent and confidentiality are main ethical issues.

3.11 Informed consent

Patton and Cochran (2002) argue that everyone who contributes in one's study should have freely consented to participation, without being coerced or impartially pressurized. They should be well-informed about what input requires, and reassured that declining will not affect any services they receive. Mack et al (2005) declare that informed consent is a tool or document for making sure that participants understand what it means to contribute in a particular research study so they make a decision in a cognizant, deliberate way whether they want to participate or take part. They say the informed consent is one of the principal tools which guarantees respect for participants during research. It has to be signed by participants, the researcher and a witness. Kielmann et al (2012) conversely say informed consent is, when possible, participants voluntarily agree to be part of one's project, with a full understanding of research activities and any dangers or benefits attached to being part of it. They continue to explain that participants need to know the purpose and procedures, risks, benefits, confidentiality, voluntary participation, refusal and withdrawal when they engage in this research.

3.12 Location of the Study

Thaba-Tseka is the tenth district in Lesotho. It is surrounded by four districts of Lesotho, namely Maseru, Qacha's Nek, Mokhotlong and Leribe. It is the mountainous area in Lesotho where its mode of transport is buses and taxis, but in the far rural areas the mode of transport is donkeys and horses. Most people who live in Thaba-Tseka are farmers who produce, at a high scale, wool and mohair. Most schools in Thaba-Tseka are in the far rural areas where the mode of transport is horses or travelling on foot except for the few which are in the urban area of Thaba-Tseka.

Since the researcher intended to use document analysis, she informed the consent principals and the teachers on how the research will take place. The researcher gave them the information on how the research will be conducted. She elaborated that she

will use the examination scripts from grade 11 students, and that she will not meet the students in person rather she will collect the scripts from the teachers from those grades. The scripts were collected before marking, the researcher photocopied them and returned the scripts to the concerned teachers for marking' in that way the assessment of students was not disrupted. The researcher collected the scripts before the teachers marked them in order to avoid the influence from the teachers.

Consent was obtained from education office in Thaba-Tseka from District Education Manager (DEM) Lesotho, head teachers from Ntaote, Paray and Thaba-Tseka high schools, Sesotho teachers at the above-mentioned schools in Grade 11 and research and ethics committee from the University of KwaZulu Natal. The teachers and head teachers were informed on the purpose of collecting the documents, and how they will be used. The consent forms were written in both official languages used in Lesotho (Sesotho and English) because this allowed teachers opportunity to use language they are comfortable with.

3.13 Confidentiality

Patton and Cochran (2002) claim that confidentiality is needed to preserve the identity of the person from whom you gather information. The identity of participants must be secured at all times and not be left lying around in notebooks or un-protected computer files. Kielmann et al (2017) claim that participants' privacy should be the most important component of any ethical research project. They say a research must avoid seeking contact with subjects without advance intimation, enquiring questions that cause distress or offence, and observing people without their knowledge. In order to keep the participants' confidentiality, the researcher kept the documents in a safe place, the names on the students' scripts were erased, the scripts were kept in a locked drawer, and were not be displayed or left where they can be accessed by other people. The schools where scripts have been collected, were labeled school 1, School 2 and school 3, the names of the schools will not be disclosed.

3.14 Validity

Burns and Grove (2001) validity is defined as a degree of truth or falsity of the data got through using research instrument whereas Kielmann et al (2012) define validity as the

relationship between an account and something external to it. Hammersley (1987) in Strauss et al (2015) argues that research account may be taken to be valid if it signifies precisely those features of the phenomena that it is planned to describe, to give its explanation, or theorize. Strauss et al (ibid) state that specialists associate validity with a kind of truth. Silverman (2005) in Strauss et al (2015) say validity is the synonym of truth.

3.15 Conclusions

This study emphasized the research design and methodology and how they are deployed in this study. It discussed the paradigm, data collection, instruments, sampling and population. It also discussed how the researcher went through ethical considerations and the steps followed before it can be accepted. The next chapter deals with data analysis and the interpretation.

CHAPTER FOUR :DATA PRESENTATION OF WORDS, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents, analyses and interprets the data collected for this study. The data are, therefore, analysed under the different syntactic categories. The chapter headings are organised based on the themes found in the data collected.

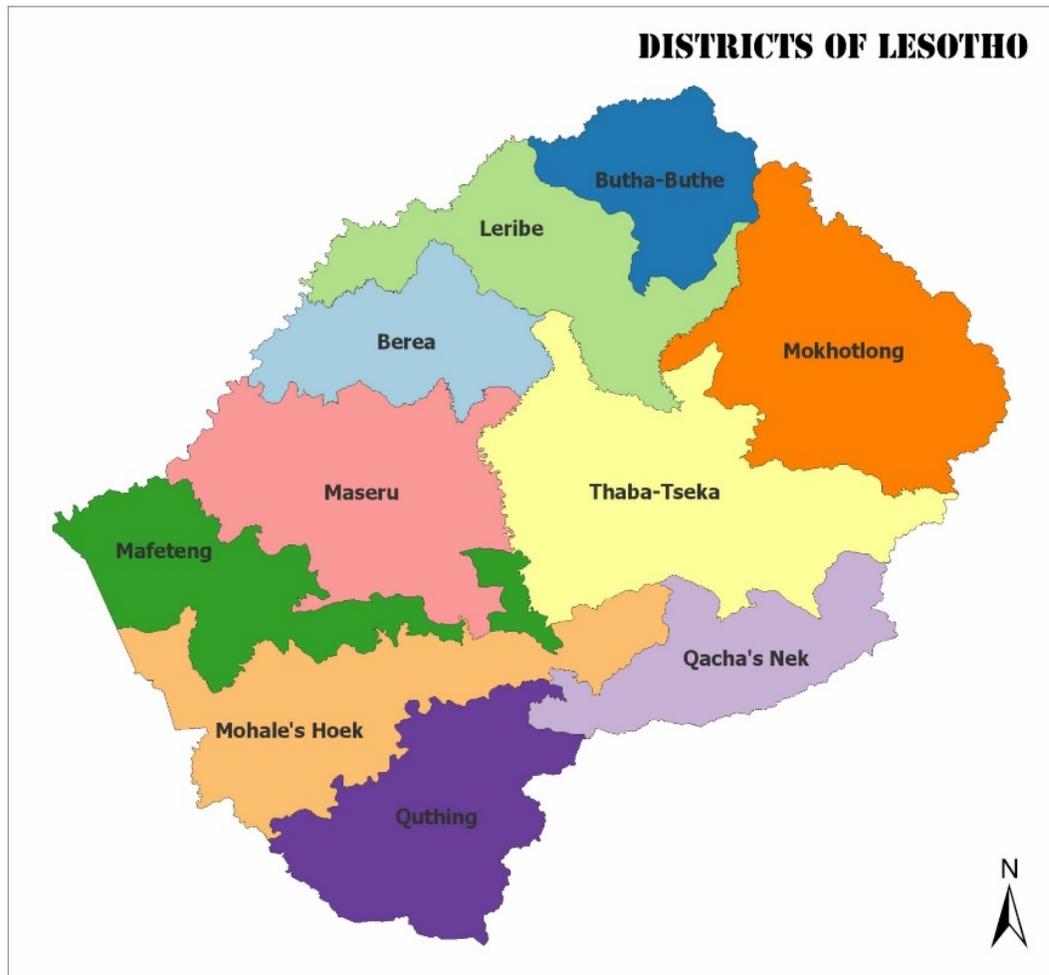
The main purpose of this study is to analyse Sesotho orthography aligned with the following objectives: to identify how conjunctive writing is adopted in Sesotho orthography, how the adoption affixation, deletion and omission may be explained in Sesotho orthography, and finally, to find the causes of such an adoption. The data were collected in Thaba-Tseka in three high schools and for the purpose of anonymity the names of the schools will not be disclosed. In each school ten scripts were collected randomly from Grade 11 students' examination. The arrangement was made to collect the scripts from Grade 11 Sesotho teachers before they are marked. Based on the qualitative approach, the study collected the data through the use document analysis. Following data collection of data, the data were analysed through thematic-content analysis, thus reading and grouping the data for the emerging themes based on the identified mistakes made by the students under study. The data (words and sentences) are thus presented through tables for analysis. The Sesotho words and sentences are written as the source text and then translated into English.

The interpretation and analysis is based mostly on Sesotho orthography, most particularly words. Mayor (2009:1234) explains orthography as "technically the way in which words are spelled" Sesotho has certain sound patterns in writing, some of which are not used in other languages. Sounds used in any language makes such a languages nique. Tucker (1949) viewed orthography in the South African languages as having attracted attention of scholars. For example, Northern Sotho and Tswana differ from each other, and also from Southern Sotho. For this study, the analysis of words is based on the orthography of Sesotho to find out whether the orthography of Sesotho is followed or has some changes emerging.

4.1 The geographical location of Thaba-Tseka district

Lesotho is surrounded by South Africa where there are eleven official languages. The people in Mokhotlong district are influenced by IsiZulu because they are nearer to KwaZulu Natal; in Qacha's Nek, they are influenced by IsiXhosa; Matsoso (2001) mentions that siXhosa and siPhuthi are the languages spoken in Mohale's Hoek, Quthing and Qacha's Nek districts. It could thus be noted that Basotho living in these districts are influenced by IsiXhosa, Sethepu and Sephuthi spoken in Quthing. Thaba-Tseka district is named after the mountain found in Thaba-Tseka named Thaba-Tseka. According to Rabale (personal communication, 2020), the word Thaba-Tseka derived from the word Kolberg, Kolberg is Afrikaans name which means the mountain with white spots at the top. Kol- means mountain and -berg means the white spots on the mountain top. The informant further observed that Thaba-Tseka had white spots on the mountain top resulting from the droppings of the vultures which had their nests on the precipice of this mountain. As one of the districts, Thaba-Tseka is the tenth district, which is found in the mountainous areas of Lesotho. Thaba-Tseka is landlocked by six districts: Mokhotlong in the North-east, Leribe in the North, Berea in the North-west, Maseru in the West, Mohale's Hoek in the Southwest and Qacha's Nek in the Southern direction from (<https://en.wikipedia.org>). Thaba-Tseka is the administrative town of Thaba-Tseka district because all districts have administrative towns except for Maseru with the capital town of Lesotho. Thaba-Tseka attracts tourists because of the largest dam in Lesotho: Katse dam. Thaba-Tseka is joined with other districts by gravelled roads except for Maseru, the capital city with a tarred road. Like other districts, different people from the above-mentioned districts can be found in Thaba-Tseka, more especially some students and teachers at schools used as research sites for this study. The districts surrounding Thaba-Tseka include Maseru, Berea, Leribe, Mokhotlong, Qacha's Nek and Mohale's Hoek. Even in the different government ministries in these districts employees are from different districts surrounding Thaba-Tseka. Below is the map of Lesotho showing the geographical situation of Thaba-Tseka.

Map 4.1: Map of Lesotho



4.2 Noun

As noted earlier, Guma (1971) classifies the substantive as the noun and the pronoun in Sesotho. The noun and the pronoun can also be classified as the absolute and the qualificative pronoun. The noun and the absolute pronoun are written conjunctively. On this basis, some students have written the noun disjunctively as shown in the following table.

Table 4.1 Disjunctively written noun

Source text	Correct version	Translation
6 li taba...	litaba...	news
7 le loko	leloko	relatives
8 ba hlanka	bahlanka	Civil servants

The morphology of Sesotho noun is the prefix and the root morpheme. Every Sesotho noun is written conjunctively except the noun in class 15. According to *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981), a noun is built with a noun prefix and a noun stem in Sesotho.

In what follow are the Seotho noun prefixes from Class 1-15

1. /mo-/

1a. /ø-/

2. /ba-/

2a. /bo-/

3. /mo-/

4. /me-/

5. /le-/

6. /ma-/

7. /se-/

8. /li-/

9. /n-/

10. /li-/

11. /...../

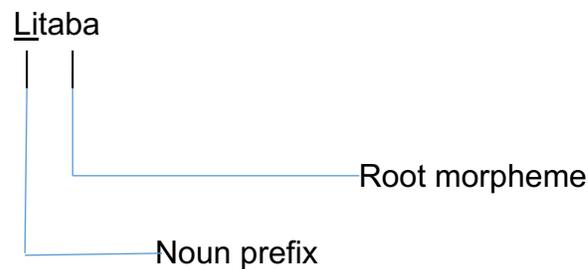
12. /...../

13. /..../

14. /bo-/

15. /ho-/

In the table above, the highlighted nouns *li taba le loko* and *ba hlanka* are written disjunctively. Morphologically, their construction is not acceptable in Sesotho because all Sesotho nouns are written conjunctively except for class 15 nouns which are formed from the root of the verb or the verb stem. In the word *li taba*, *li* is the subjectival concord and *taba* is the root morpheme. The word *taba* has two meanings in Sesotho, it means greying or mixing, so *li taba* means they mix or they become greyish. But the student was probably intending to write *litaba* which means news, thus distorting the meaning of the word. The derivational process has occurred. The word *taba* exists in Sesotho, but in this case, it has changed the intended meaning because of its morphology. The word has changed from the noun into a verb. Some students seem not to understand how to write the substantive. Morphologically, this word has the noun prefix *li* which must be attached to the root morpheme */taba/*.



Similarly, the words *le loko*, 'genealogy' and *bahlanka*, 'civil servants' morphologically have noun prefix *le/* and *ba/* attached to the root morphemes */loko/* and */hlanka/*, respectively. That is to say, the nouns should be written conjunctively.

4.3 Qualificatives

4.3.1 Conjunctively written Sesotho adjectives

All qualificatives in Sesotho qualify the substantive: the noun and the pronoun. These words have two entities such as a concordial prefix and a qualificative stem. The only qualificative which is inseparable, without any concordial prefix and qualificative stem is the demonstrative.

The table below shows words which are qualificatives. These words have been extracted from the data collected from three selected high schools in Thaba-Tseka. The students have been found to be writing the qualificatives as two entities which are a concordial prefix and a qualificative stem, though conjunctively. Table 8 below shows a adjectives as extracted from the data from the target high schools for this study.

Table 4.2: Conjunctively written adjectives

Source text	Correct version	Translation
1. Elengoe	e le 'ngoe	Only one
2. emong	e mong	one of them
3. entle	e ntle	Beautiful
4. ents'o	e ntšo.	It is black

In the table above, the highlighted words meant to be adjectives, but are conjunctively written. Morphologically, words which are adjectives have both the adjectival prefix and the adjectival stem. The adjectival prefix and adjectival stem are often written disjunctively.

Below is the adjectival prefix from noun Class 1 to Class 15 as extracted from Lekhotla la Sesotho (1981)

Adjectival prefix

1. E mo-
2. Ba ba-
3. O mo-
4. E me-
5. Le le-
6. A ma-
7. Se se-
8. Tse n-
9. E n-
10. Tse n-
- 11.-----
- 12.-----
- 13.-----
- 14.Bo bo-
- 15.Ho ho-

It could be noted that Sesotho does not have any noun classes from 11 to 13.

Below are some examples of the adjectival stem, which unlike adjectival prefixes, are used from Class 1 to Class 15.

Adjectival stem

Below are a few examples of adjectival stems.

1. – ntle
2. - be
3. - holo
4. - nyenyane
5. - khušoane
6. -lelele

7. - tenya
8. - sesane
9. -'ngoe / -ng
10. - beli
11. - raro
12. - 'ne
13. hlano
14. - tšo
15. -soeu
16. - khubelu
17. - putsoa
18. - tšehla

Morphological theory deals with the construction of words in different languages. Viewed morphologically, the adjective has the adjectival concord and adjectival stem which are written disjunctively in Sesotho. The adjectival prefix has two parts; the first part of this prefix is written disjunctively from the second part and the second part of the prefix is written conjunctively with the adjectival stem, for example, *e mong* (one of them). On this basis, */e/* is the first part of this adjectival concord, while */mo/* is the second part of this adjectival prefix. */-ng/* is the adjectival stem. In Table 8 above, all the adjectives are written conjunctively. *Elengoe*, (only one) *emong*, (one of them) *entle* (the beautiful one) and *ents'o* (the black one) the prefix and and the adjectival stem are written conjunctively. It makes the words non-existent. For Arkadiev and Klamer (2016:10), morphological theory suggests a “relation between meaning and form in the structure of words and the ways languages connect meaning and form.” If the form of a structure of a word is not correct, the meaning is lost. These words do not follow the morphological structure of the correct Sesotho adjectives. Therefore, there is no relationship between their structure and meaning.

4.3.2 Disjunctively written Sesotho demonstrative and enumerative

As indicated before, qualificatives are the words which have two entities, namely the concordial prefix and the qualificative stem except for the demonstrative which is one word which is inseparable, as it is not written disjunctively. The enumerative prefix and the enumerative stem are also written conjunctively.

Table 4.3 Disjunctively written qualificatives

Source text	Correct version	Translation
9 e noa	enoa	This one
10 e fe.	e fe.	Which one

The table above shows how students write the demonstrative and the enumerative. Syntactically, both words *enoa* and *e fe* appear immediately after the words which they qualify. All the participants have been found to be writing */e noa/* and */e fe/* immediately after the substantive which is qualified. Morphologically, while both words should be written conjunctively, the students have written them disjunctively, thereby changing both the word class and the meaning of the words.

Below is the table extracted from *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981) which shows the demonstrative in the first position from Noun Class 1-15 :

1. /enoa, eo/
2. /Bana, baa/
3. /ona, oo/
4. /ena, ee/
5. /lena, lee/
6. /ana, aa/
7. /sena, see/
8. /Tsena, tsee/
9. /ena, ee/
10. /tsena, tsee/
11. ----

12.---

13.---

14./bona, boo/

15./hona, hoo/

As noted earlier, Sesotho has no noun classes ranging from 11 to 13.

The word *e noa* is no longer a demonstrative because its morphological construction has changed, resulting in a verb. The form /e/ is the subjectival concord and *noa* a verbal stem. *E noa* "it drinks", it is no longer a qualificative, but a verb, the word with a new meaning.

In the same manner, the word *e fe* which means give to it has lost its meaning because it was meant to be a qualificative (enumerative) *efe*. The enumerative, like other qualificatives in Sesotho, has the prefix and the qualificative stem. The prefix and the qualificative stem are written conjunctively.

Below is the table extracted from *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981) which shows the enumerative prefixes and the stem from noun class 1-15.

1. /o-/

2. /ba-/

3. /o-/

4. /e-/

5. /le-/

6. /a-/

7. /se-/

8. /li-/

9. /e-/

10./li-/

11./..../

12./..../

13./..../

14./bo-/

15./ho-/

Enumerative stem

1.-ng

2. -ngoe

3. -fe

4.-sele

The word *e fe* has the subjectival concord /e/ and the verbal stem *fe*, thereby no longer suggesting a qualificative. Further, the enumerative is written as *efe* ‘which one’, with the prefix and the stem written conjunctively. Because the morphology of both words has changed, they are no longer qualificatives; instead, they have become verbs.

4.4 An Adverb

4.4.1 Disjunctively written Sesotho adverbs

Hengeveld (2020:2) defines an adverb as a “lexical word that may be used as a modifier of a non-nominal head”. He further points out that an adverb is an optional element, depending on the head that is obligatory. Moreover an adverb “is a lexical element, which means that it is neither syntactically compositional nor grammatical”. Additionally, *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981:58) denotes semantic features of locative adverbs, manner adverbs and temporal adverbs. Besides, an adverb describes the predicate, it adds something to the verb. Based on the above definitions, adverbs indicate how, where and when an action is taking place. Most of the adverbs in Sesotho are written conjunctively.

Table 4.4 Disjunctively written adverbs

Source text	Correct version	Translation
11 Ka ntle	Kantle	Outside,
12 ha mpe.	hampe.	badly
13 ka thata	kathata	so hard

In the table above, the highlighted words are adverbs. In Sesotho some adverbs are prefixed with /ka-/ and /ha-/. The above adverbs which have been prefixed with /ha/ and /ka/ are manner and locative adverbs and ought to have been written conjunctively. The locative adverbs are sometimes prefixed with /ha/ as in the adverb *Ha Thabo* which is written Disjunctively. *Kantle* “outside” is the locative adverb, *hampe* “badly” and *kathata* “so hard” are manner adverbs. These are adverbs which students have probably been tempted to write disjunctively. The morphology of such adverbs has been distorted, thus changing the meaning. The word *ka ntle* is prefixed with /ka/, with the adjectival stem /tle/ attached to the adjectival concord /n/ as in Class 9. It should be noted that the adverbs *hampe* “badly” and *kathata* “so hard” derive from the words /be/ and /thata/ which are adjectival stems and relative stems respectively. If they are disjunctively written as in the above examples, they lose their meanings. While such forms are syntactically well positioned, they are morphologically written like qualificatives. The adverbial prefix /ka/ and /ha/ are attached to the adverbial stem and should be written conjunctively. Sometimes, they are used disjunctively just like locative adverbs *Ha Tlali* ‘at Tlali’s place’, *ka nokeng* ‘in the river’. In other words, other adverbial stems are correctly written if they are written disjunctively with the above adverbial prefixes. The adverb has changed the word class; it is no longer an adverb, it is now a verb. *Ka thata* now means ‘I bind up’, here, the derivational process has taken place.

4.4.2 Conjunctively written Sesotho Adverbs

As mentioned in 4.4.1, adverbs are the words that add something to the verb. In Sesotho there are three types of adverbs, temporal, locative and adverb of manner. An adverb is written conjunctively except for the temporal adverbs which have date written in

numerals. The mistakes made by some of the students comprise writing of some adverbs conjunctively.

Table 4.5 Conjunctively written adverbs

Source text	Correct version	Translation
5. ka la 17	Ka la 17	On the 17 th

The above temporal adverb has the adverbial prefix //a/ and the /17/, which is the adverbial stem. When writing the temporal adverb with the numerals, the students have written it conjunctively as shown in the table above. However, in the orthography of Sesotho this temporal adverb is written disjunctively. The morphological structure of this word is not acceptable in Sesotho. As such, the morphology of this word *la 17* has made the meaning unacceptable.

4.5 Verbs

4.5.1 Conjunctively written Sesotho Verbs

As mentioned above, Popescu (2001:13) defines a verb as ‘a word used for saying something else’. Additionally, Alexander (1998) finds a verb to be a word (run) or a phrase (run out of) which expresses the presence of a state (love, seem) or the doing of an action (take, play). This study takes a verb to be a word that expresses an action. In Sesotho the predicate has three types, namely the verbal predicate, non-verbal predicate/copulative and the ideophone. The verbal predicate has two entities: the subjectival/objectival concord and the verbal stem. Besides, there are morphemes attached to the verb stem which indicate the mood and the tense. The table below illustrates how students write the verbal predicate.

Table 4.6 Conjunctively written verbs

Source text	Correct version	Translation
6 Hare	Ha re	When we
7 ho rena	hore na	if
8 Ene ele	E ne e le	It was

9 hake	ha ke	when I
10 mothabela	mo thabela	happy for him.
11 sentse	se ntse	had already
12 lahla 13 reka .	ke ile ka hla ka re ka	I had already we could

The word ***hake*** is conjunctively written, but it has a different meaning intended in its source text, that is from the way it is written. The word */hake/* means inside, but the student wanted to write */ha re/* which means ‘when we’. The present indicative and the subjectival concord are conjunctively written, resulting in the totally distorted meaning. K Arkadiev and Klamer (2016) show that in the process of derivation, the word may change its syntactic form. The word *hake* shows that derivation has taken place. The word in place has shifted from being the verb and has now become the locative adverb.

Further included are *Ene ele*, the words which are written conjunctively. It may be difficult to get their meanings because they do not exist in Sesotho. As Bagha (2011) stated, in semantics, defining the word is done through using other words. The correct morphological way of writing these words is */e ne e le/* meaning *it was* in English. In the word *Ene* the concord */e/* and the tense marker */ne/* are conjunctively written, which is what is not allowed in Sesotho. The word has lost its actual meaning. The second word has been written as *ele*, and has changed its actual meaning because it is also written conjunctively. Because it is written conjunctively it has changed the meaning and now means to be clear. It is the verb derived from the verb *ela* ‘to be clear’. In the word */hake/* the present indicative and the concord are also conjuncted. Because of this conjunctive writing, the meaning of this word is distorted. The word *hake*, derived from the word *haka* “to hang”, is just affected by the tense. The word should be written as *ha ke*, meaning “when I”

Moreover, the words *lahla* and *reka* have been noted. The word *lahla* means ‘to throw away’, because of the omission of the subjectival concord and the tense marker. As such, the new word *lahla* ‘lost’ has emerged. What the student meant was *ke ile ka hla*. In this word, the subjectival concord is omitted. The tense marker *ile* which marks the past tense as in the letters /i/ and /e/ is also omitted. The other concord /ka/ involves the /letter /k/ which is also omitted, left with /l/ and /a/ which make *la*. The *la* was added to the stem *hla* to form the new word *lahla*. In the word *reka* ‘to buy’, the student was supposed to write it as *re ka* ‘we can’, though conjuncting it. While the newly derived word *reka* ‘to buy’ exists in Sesotho. It does not fit into this context.

The other is *mothabela* in which the student has conjuncted the subjectival concord /*mo*/ and the verb stem *thabela*, that is “to be happy for”. The predicative concords and the verbal stem forms the verbal predicate in Sesotho, and are written disjunctively. Written conjunctively these violate the morphological rule. In addition, the word *sentse* “destroy” was supposed to be written as *ke se ntse* “was already”, thus tempering with the morphology of the word. It has not only changed the word class, but it has also changed its meaning, the feature which morphologically unacceptable in Sesotho. Guma (1971:175) mentions that the past continuous tense is “made up of an SC plus the deficient verb /-ne/, followed by present participial as complement”.

4.5.2 Disjunctively written Sesotho Verbs

Sesotho verb stems are written conjunctively, though some of them have written Disjunctively by the students. Normally, the verb occurs after the qualificative, while it sometimes occurs immediately after the substantive or sentence-initially.

Table 4.7 Disjunctively written verbs

Source text	Correct version	Translation
14 ba pala	bapala	playing
15 bona hala	bonahala	seemed to

The above highlighted words are verb stems, which are Disjunctively written. They have changed their intended meaning because of their morphology. The word *bapala* written

as *ba pala* here means ‘to be great’ or ‘fierce’ or ‘unique’ or burns caused by sitting too near to the fire’. However, none of the above-mentioned definitions fit into what the student was referring to. The meaning of the verb is completely distorted. Once the morphology of the word changes, either the meaning becomes distorted or is lost completely. The word *bonahala* is written disjunctively as *bona hala*. The word *bona* is the verb stem which means ‘see’. Mabile (2011:72) defines *hala* as “to be glutton, or to have the death rattle or to remain with’. All the above definitions do not portray the student’s aim. Because the words are morphologically unacceptable the meaning of the words are distorted.

4.6 Sesotho conjunction and their morphology

Unubi (2016) explains that the conjunction is one of the eight parts of speech in English. He elaborates that English traditionally has three types of conjunctions: coordinating, subordinating and correlative conjunctions. Sesotho does not classify the conjunctions, they are all called conjunctives and they are only categorized as primitive or derivative. *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981) explains that the main function of the conjunction is to join two substantive or two sentences. The conjunction can be placed at the beginning of a sentence with its semantic function of joining words, phrases or clauses. Leech and Svartvik (1994) explain clauses or phrases may be connected (coordinated) by conjunctions. This study, therefore, takes the conjunction to be a word that can be used to join two substantives, phrases or sentences. These words can be placed between two phrases or sentences or at the beginning of the phrases to be joined. Sesotho conjunctions are written conjunctively, but students write them disjunctively. This violates morphological rule which states how words are formulated because they do not follow the morphology of Sesotho conjunctions.

Table 4.8 Sesotho conjunction

Source text	Correct version	Translation
24 ka ha	Kaha	Because
25 joalo ka	joalokaha	because
26 E re ka ha	Erekahae	Due to the fact that

The highlighted words in the table above are conjunctions. The Sesotho conjunctions are written conjunctively, but as shown above, the students have written them disjunctively. Because the conjunction *kaha* is written disjunctively, as *ka ha*, it has changed the meaning and the word class. It has now become the locative adverb which suggests someone's place, for example, at Thabo's place. The conjunction *erekaha* is also written disjunctively as *e re ka ha*. */e/* becomes the subjectival concord and */re/* the personal pronoun for the first person plural, and *ka ha* locative adverb 'at so and so place'. */ka/* can also be used as the conjunction 'because'. If one says *ka ha* one would expect the speaker to mention the name of the person who is the owner of that place. This has violated the morphological structure of Sesotho conjunctions. In the same manner, the conjunction *joaloka* is written disjunctively as *joalo ka*. *Joalo* answers the question how; therefore, it serves as the adverb of manner, *ka* is the conjunction 'because', as it is the meaning of this conjunction *Joaloka* is distorted. The above conjunctions are morphologically and semantically unacceptable. Lekhotla la Sesotho (1984) clarifies that the above conjunctions morphologically, they derived from combining two morphemes to form one combined word.

4.7 The use of both conjunctive and disjunctive writing with conjunction /hore/ and question word /na/

In some cases, students have used both conjunctive and disjunctive writing. Also noticeable is that students are uncertain about when and how to write the conjunction *hore* with the question word *na*. In many cases, the use of the conjunction *hore* seems to be problematic to students.

Table 4.9 Conjunction *hore* and question word *na*

Source text	Corrected version	Translation
27 ho rena	Hore na	Whether they
28 ho reba	Hore ba	If they

As indicated previously, conjunctive words are written conjunctively, but in the examples above, the conjunction *hore* is written both disjunctively and conjunctively with the question word *na* and subjectival concord *ba*. The word *hore* is the conjunction and should occur as a single lexical item, that is unattached to as in the question word *na*. In the above words, the first syllable /*ho*/ of the conjunction *hore* (27) is detached from the second syllable /*re*/, and the second syllable of this conjunction /*re*/ is attached to the interrogative word *na* and the subjectival concord /*ba*/. Because of this wrong construction or morphology, the conjunction *hore* and question word *na* have changed their word class. In the same manner the attachment of the second syllable of the conjunction word *hore* to the subjectival concord has changed the word class. The newly formed words are the nouns of Class 15. The form /*ho*/ is the noun prefix of Class 15 and *rena* and *reba* are the verb stems. The newly derived words are *ho rena* ‘to govern’ and *ho reba* ‘to stupify from the word stupid’ respectively. Both words have changed the word class and meaning. The word *hore* has changed its word class, it has become a non-finite verb. The accepted form of this conjunction is *hore na* “whether they” and *hore ba* “if they”

4.8 Suffixation of /-nyana/ and /-nang/ in a verb and other parts of speech

Sesotho has different forms of affixes be they prefixes and suffixes, most of which are added to the nouns. As Makoa (2007) states that the diminutive suffix is one of the two main nominal suffixes in Sesotho as in other languages such as Xhosa, Zulu and Pedi. Makoa (2007) further pointed out that the diminutive suffixes in Sesotho are attached to the nominal stems, the adjective and the relative. Sesotho uses diminutive suffixes, /-nyana/, /-ana/ and /-ane/ to the nouns, the qualificatives and the pronouns. It also has an adverbial suffix -/ng/ used to mark the locative adverbs. The verbs do not use the diminutive affix /nyana/, /ana/ and /ane/ to show how the action has been done or how it is done.

Table 4.10 Suffixation of /-nyana/ and /-nang/

Source text	Correct version	Translation
29 nang	na	whether

30 tholanyana	thola-thola	to pause
31 Monanang	Mona	here

In the word *nang* above, the question word *na* ‘whether’ has been attached to the suffix */-ng/*. The suffix */-ng/* in this case does not add any value to the question word *na* ‘whether’; instead, it makes it to lose its meaning because it is a non-existent word in Sesotho. In the same manner, the diminutive suffix */-nyana/* has been attached to the verb *thola* “be quiet” to denote a pause. As indicated before the suffix */-nyana/* is not supposed to be attached to the verbs as it can be attached only to the nominal stems, the adjective and the relative. Instead of attaching the diminutive suffix to the verb, the student could have reduplicated the verb to show that the action was done on a small scale. Reduplication is used in Sesotho to suggest something is done in large quantities, to indicate the intensity of something, in case of an action or a repetitive process or on a small scale; it sometimes denotes the notion of carrying an action aimlessly. Guma (1971:151) explains that reduplication in Sesotho is done in three ways: “the radical plus its simplex extension is reduplicated... the radical is reduplicated together with its simplex extension.... the first two syllables of the radical are prefixed to the full radical.” In the above case the verb *thola* ‘silence’ was supposed to be reduplicated to show that silence happened on a small scale. Instead of reduplicating the word *thola*, ‘silence’ the demunitive suffix was attached to the verb which made the verb become meaningless. This has violated the morphological rule of Sesotho verbs.

Other examples include the newly formed word *monanang*, the demonstrative-locative-adverb, composed of the suffix *nang* which has been attached to the word *mona* ‘here’. Most Sesotho words are made of CV, VCV and CVCV. Students should know when to use the appropriate sounds and affixes to form Sesotho words. Sesotho does not have the affix ‘*nang*’ as one of its suffixes. ‘*Nang*’ is the meaningless suffix attached to the demonstrative-locative-adverb *mona* ‘here’ by the target students. The Sesotho demonstrative has three positional types as discussed by *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981) the first one shows that the object is in a nearer position, the second position shows that the object is in a near position and the third position shows that the object is in a far

position. The students have attached *nang* to the demonstrative-locative-adverbial words in the first position, the ones which are disyllabic. The words found in this position end with the syllable */-na/* except for the word found in Class 1 which ends with */-noa/* but even for it, they still attach *nang*. However, some linguists argue that *mona* is not a demonstrative because it does not qualify a substantive; rather, it is the locative adverb, showing the place of the focal object. As Guma (1971) states, Demonstrative forms linked with the locative classes are also used as locative adverbs.

As extracted from Guma (1971), the following could be noted:

Class 18 /mo-/

1st position /moo ~ mona/ (here)

2nd position /moo - mono/ (there)

3rd position /mola - mane/ (yonder)

As such, the word can be treated as the demonstrative-locative-adverb pointing to the place of the object. As mentioned above, the suffix *nang* is non-existing and cannot be attached to the demonstrative-locative-adverb in Sesotho. Guma (1971:219) elucidates “where the place name is based either on that of a leader of a certain group or a regiment or on material objects found in that locality the locative suffix: */-ng ~ -eng/*”.

4.9 Addition of sounds to form new words

In some documents there is addition of new sounds in some words.

Table 4.11 Addition

Source text	Correct version	Translation
32 habo	labo	Their home
33 habo	abo	his family's
34 eeo	eo	that

Most students seem to have a problem to differentiate between possessive qualificatives and the adverb *habo*. The table below, extracted from *Lekhotla la Sesotho*

(1981) shows the possessive prefixes and the stem which used to illustrate the construction of the possessive.

The possessive prefix from Class 1 to Class 15

1. /o-/
2. /b-/
3. /o-/
4. /-/
5. //-/
6. /-/
7. /s-/
8. Ts-/
9. /-/
10. /ts-/
11. ---
12. ---
13. ---
14. /b-/
15. /ho-/

Further noted is that Sesotho does not have noun Classes from 11 to 13.

The primary possessive stem

- (a) First person singular /-ka/
Second person singular /-hau/
- (b) First person singular /-eso/
Second person /-eno/
Third person /-abo

Based on the table above, the possessive prefix and possessive stem for Class 5 are ///. The form // plus *abo*, the third-person singular, forms a possessive *labo* not *habo*. However, the students wrote *habo*, instead of *labo* and *abo* respectively. The meaning

has been distorted because of the addition of the sound /h/. *Habo* is the word that shows the place where one belongs but *labo* and *abo* show that one possesses something. The words have changed the word class and the meaning. In the highlighted word *eeo* does not exist in Sesotho. In this word the students add the sound /e/. The existing word in Sesotho is *eo*, the demonstrative not *eeo*.

4.10 The use of abbreviation marks in some nouns and absolute pronouns

4.10.1 The use abbreviations in a noun

The punctuation marks are used in Sesotho to abbreviate some words, and sometimes to omit a sound in a word: to abbreviate a repeated consonant.

Table 4.12 The use of abbreviation mark

Source text	Correct version	Translation
35 'mae	'm'ae	his mother
36 me	'm'e	mother
37 mme	'm'e	mother
38 'mme	'm'e	mother
39 nna	'na	me
40 ntata'e	ntat'ae.	His father
41 ka mora	Kamor'a	After
42 monga	mong'a	The owner
43 ngoanaka tsoarele.	ngoan'aka ntšoarele.	Forgive me my child
44 Hompots'a	Ho mpontša	To show me

The students seemed to be confused of using the abbreviation mark in the word '*m'e* 'mother'. They have either misplaced the punctuation mark or omitted the punctuation altogether. The word '*m'e* mother seems to have posed challenges, especially when it is the possessive. In the words '*mae*, *me*, *mme*, and '*mme*, the abbreviation mark is not used or misplaced. The word '*mae* is abbreviated from the words '*m'e oa hae* 'his/her

mother'. The sound /o/ in the possessive prefix *oa* and the sound /h/ in the possessive stem are omitted. The students have overlooked the abbreviation mark in place of the omitted sounds. The student inserted the abbreviation mark only at the beginning of the word where the repeated sound /m/ has been omitted. The omission of the sound without an abbreviation mark has changed the meaning of the word.

The students have also been found to omit the abbreviation mark *me* at the beginning of the word *me* between the sound /m/ and the sound /e/. Because of such an omission the sound has lost its meaning, rather than *me* which does not exist in Sesotho. In standard Sesotho, the word should be written as 'm'e "mother". Instead of using the abbreviation mark, the student has doubled the sound /m/ as in *mme*, which is not allowed in the Sesotho orthography in Lesotho. As indicated earlier, this orthography is used in Northern Sotho of the Republic of South Africa. This is evidenced by the nouns found in class 1 and 3. Guma (1971:42) claims "/m-/ is found before noun stems derived from verbal radicals beginning in /b-/. In the present orthography it is represented by /'/, e.g. 'mali (a reader) i.e *mmali*."

In addition, many students have been found to be writing the conjunction 'me, sometimes with double /m/, the feature which is unacceptable in the orthography of Sesotho. As such, they sometimes use the double /m/, coupling it with the abbreviation mark as in 'mme or as 'm'e 'mother. Such variations could be seen as marking some confusion as to how to write the noun 'm'e and the conjunction word 'me 'and'. The above examples show that the morphology of Sesotho noun 'm'e and the conjunction word 'me has not been observed. As Ramadan and Ababneh (2013:309) state, in the referential theory of meaning, "there is a relationship between words and objects". Because the word 'm'e is morphologically written in unacceptable ways, there is no relationship between the morphologically unacceptable words with the object mother.

Closely related examples include the word *nna*. This form does not exist in the orthography of Sesotho in Lesotho. The absolute pronoun 'na is written with the abbreviation mark at the beginning then followed by *na*, as opposed to the pronoun written with the double /n/, which has been noted in Northern Sotho in the Republic of South Africa. The students have adopted the orthography of South Africa and write this

absolute pronoun as *nna*. Likewise, there is no relationship between the absolute pronoun *'na* and its object. According to iquisearch.com (undated) clarifies “word initial positions, a syllabic nasal followed by a syllable starting with the same nasal is written as an n or m in South Africa but as an apostrophe in Lesotho.”

The table below is extracted from iquisearch.com (undated)

Table 4.13 Syllabic nasals

South African example	Lesotho version
Nnete truth	'nete
Mme and	'm'e
Ho nngwaya to scratch my itch	Ho 'ngoea

4.11 The use of abbreviation marks in adjectives and verbs

Systematic usages of abbreviation marks can lead to certain constructed or derived words, some of which with abbreviation marks retained, though being misplaced.

Table 4.14 Abbreviation in adjectives and verbs

Source text	Correct version	Translation
45 <i>pela ka</i>	<i>pel'aka</i>	Next to me.
46 <i>ntata</i>	<i>ntat'a</i>	The father of
47 <i>engoe</i>	<i>E 'ngoe</i>	One of

A typical example is the word *pela ka*, which should be written as the locative adverb *pel'aka* ‘near me’. Because the abbreviation mark is missing, the word class has changed, *Pela* ‘a rock-rabbit’, is a noun, and *ka* forms the locative adverb prefix, which is inappropriately used. The word has changed its morphology, hence the violation of

the morphological theory. There is no relationship between the word *pela* “a rock-rabbit” and *ka*, the locative adverb.

Further noticeable is the word *ntata*, which traditionally reads as a noun *ntat’a* ‘the father of’. However, without any punctuation mark, the word has changed the word class, thus becoming a verb *ntata* ‘to bring me back’ from the verb *lata* ‘bring back’ with the object concord for the first person singular /n-/. Apparently, the insertion of /n/ in the verb *lata* has gone through the morphophonemic process of strengthening, with the sound // having changed to /t/.

The other highlighted word *engoe*, which does not exist in Sesotho, has resulted from conjoining the adjectival prefix /e/ with the adjectival stem *’ngoe* ‘the other one’. However, the resultant form lacks the abbreviation mark which should precede the adjectival stem *ngoe*. This adjectival stem has double consonants /n/, thus contrasting with the orthography of Sesotho which bears the abbreviation mark instead of double /n/. On this basis, the word *engoe* which does not exist in Sesotho, could be viewed as atypical of the morphology of Sesotho adjective.

Besides, the students have displayed some phonological variations involving such sound patterns as the aspirated /š/. The participants have thus been noted for either deleting the aspirated sound /š/ out or substitute the sound /s/ for it; or still they would be using the abbreviation sign /’/ before the sound /s/, as in the words *ntsoarele* and *Hompots’a*. In standard Sesotho, the words *ntsoarele* and *Hompots’a* are cast as *ntšoarele* ‘forgive me’ and *ho mpontša* ‘to show me’ respectively. It could be thus noted that writing the words with some misplaced sign and/or substituted sounds, as noted above, could pose some challenges for nuances of meaning of the words in focus.

4.12 Omitting some sounds in conjunctions, tense markers and the subjectival concords

Another notable aspect involves misspellings of some words, through omission in students’ documents. The cases in point are such common misspellings and

confusables which result from omitting the subject concords *ke* and the tense morpheme *ile*, both of which have been found at all the target schools for this study.

Table 4.15 Sounds omission in conjunctions, tense markers and subjectival concords

Source text	Correct version	Translation
48 fela	feela	Only/merely/but/however
49 la	Ke ile ka	I did
50 kela	ke ile ka	I did
51 hantse	ha ke ntse	while still
52 se ke	ke se ke	I was
53 ona	'ona	they
54 ena	eena	him
55 hakalo	hakaalo	a long.....

In the table above the word *feela*, “Only, merely, but or however” can be used as the adverb of manner or the conjunction. The students have written this word as *fela* “finish”. Their writing practices have omitted the medial sound ‘e’ in this word, resulting in the contrastive word. The form *feela* “Only, merely, but or however”, has changed its word class and become the verb *fela* “finish” as a result of which the intended meaning has changed by the students.

Lekhotla la Sesotho (1981) and Guma (1971) indicate that Southern Sesotho uses different morphemes which signify tense. The /a/ is used in the present tense and /-ile/ is used to signify past and perfect tense, while /-tla/ and /tlo/ are used to indicate the future tense. Guma (1971) further explains that the past continuous tense is multi-verbal as it is built up of the subject concord and the deficient verb stem /-ne/. For instance, the words *la*, *kela* and *hantse* have been found with the subject concord *ke*, and the tense marker *ile*, omitted and the sound /k/ replaced with /l/. Such usages contrast with *ke ile ka* instead of *la*. They have also omitted the subject concord *ke* in the word *hantse*,

which ought to have been *ha ke ntse* “while I was”. Because of the conjunctive writing and the omission of the subject concord in the word *hantse*, the meaning of the word has changed. The word ***hantse*** means ‘to deny an opportunity to speak’. While the word class has not been changed, the meaning of the word has been slanted because of the process of inflexion. Ramadan and Ababneh (2013:311) observed that “the meaning of a word is defined by its use in the language.” The words above cannot be used, nor make any sense, especially to native speakers of Southern Sesotho.

The forms *'ona*, “they” and *eena*, “him/her” are absolute pronouns. These are amongst the forms which have been confused for the demonstratives *ona* and *ena* respectively by the students. Instead of writing *'ona* “they” and *eena* “him/her”, the students have omitted the sounds /o/ and /e/ respectively in both words. Both absolute pronouns have changed their word class, and become demonstratives as in Classes 3 and 9. In some cases, as mentioned above, the absolute pronouns *oona* and *'ona* are used interchangeably with the demonstrative *ona* ‘this’. In this case, the word class has been changed from the absolute pronoun to the demonstrative or from the demonstrative to the absolute pronoun. Once the word changes its class, its meaning becomes distorted.

In sentence 51, the highlighted word *ena* ‘this’ has been confused with the pronoun *eena* ‘him/her’. Instead of writing the absolute pronoun *eena* ‘him/her’, the student has omitted the sound /e/ resulting in the newly derived word, automatically with the word changing and becoming demonstrative *ena* ‘this’. All the students at the target schools have been observed to be uncertain about when to use *eena* ‘him/her’ and demonstrative *ena* ‘this’ in their writing tasks.

Equally significant is the word *hakalo*, grammatically couched as *hakaalo* (**ditto, how big the thing is**). However, the student has omitted the medial sound /a/, thus rendering the word meaningless. Although this usage retains the word class, it renders the meaning lost altogether.

4.13 Substitution of sounds in different word classes

One of the challenges facing the students is that of substitution of certain sounds for other vowels and consonants. The sounds involved are /u/, /o/, /q/, /g/, /k/, /i/ and /e/

and the past tense morpheme /ile/. The substitution of /q/ by /g/ was mostly found at two target schools in this study.

Table 4.16 substitution of sounds

Source text	Corrected version	Translation
56 tlametse	tlamehile	It's a must
57 oena	uena	you
58 Getile	qetile.	done/finished.
59 Gabolane	qabolana	It was funny.
60 Kokotho	qoqotho	Oesophagus
61 leqoa	Lekoa	Vaal river
62 ukoa	utloa	hear
63 itukisetsa	itokisetsa	To prepare oneself
64 Theko	thoko	aside
65 litsibi	litsebi	Experts
66 Boile	buile	talked

The highlighted word *tlametse* 'tie for' derived from the verb *tlama*, 'tie' it has changed from the present tense to past participle tense. The actual meaning suggested by the student is that of the word *tlama* 'must', and the student was supposed to write as *tlamehile* 'must' have or ought to have. This kind of simplification has been noted amongst many students at the target schools schools. They students have a tendency of using the word *tlametse* 'tight for' instead of *tlamehile* 'must have'. The students have substituted /-etse/ for the sound /-ile /

The word *oena*, the second-person singular, should occur as *uena* 'you', denoted by the use of the sound /u/ not /o/. The sound /o/ is used when one is referring to the third-person singular. These words are pronounced the same way; however, when one is

referring to the second-person singular, it is realised with the vowel sound /u/ as in *uena*. Below is the table of the absolute pronoun as extracted from Guma (1971:92):

1 st p.s.	/na/
PI	/r-o-na/
2 nd p.s	/u-e-na/
PI	/l-o-na/
3 rd p.class 1.	/ě-e-na/
	2. /b-o-na/
	3. /ǒ-o-na/
	4. /ě-o-na/
	5. /l-o-na/
	6. /∅-o-na/
	7. /s-o-na/
	8. /ts-o-na/
	9. /ě-o-na/
	10. /ts-o-na/
	14. /b-o-na/
	15. /h-o-na/

The students misspelled the verbs *getile* and *gabolana*. For instance, they have used the form /g/ in the initial position, thus substituting it for the sounds /q/ in the above words. The correct Sesotho verbs are *qetile* 'finish' and *qabolana* 'it was funny'. This phenomenon has been found at two selected schools where students are substituting sound /g/ for the sound /q/. Such a substitution has yielded newly formulated words, both of which are non-existing in Sesotho, thereby distorting the meaning of the sentences in focus.

The verb *leqoa* is derived from the verb *leqa* 'lick'. *Leqoa* is the verb with the passive extension /-o-/. The intention here has been to write the noun *Lekoa* 'Vaal River', one of the longest rivers in South Africa. The student has substituted the sound /q/ for the sound /k/ in *Lekoa*. Because of this substitution the word has changed from being a noun and has become a verb, the process of derivation has taken place. This usage has been noted amongst few students from one school. Similarly, the word *ukoa* derives from the substitution of the sound /k/ for the sound /tl/ by the student. This could have been expected largely amongst the children who are still learning the language, as opposed to advanced language learners at this level. The grammatical verb form is *utloa* 'hear', rather than *ukoa* which is non-existing in Sesotho. Unlike in the word *Lekoa* where students have substituted the sound /q/ for the sound /k/, here the students have substituted the sound /k/ for the sound /q/ as in *kokotheo*, instead of *qoqotheo* "oesophagus" in Sesotho. Sesotho does not bear the form *kokotheo*. The students seemingly have challenges of using the sound /q/, which occurs in their lexis as either the sound /g/ or /k/ as noted in this study.

There has been a substitution of the vowels in the highlighted words *itukisetsa*, 'to burn for oneself' and *theko* which has two meanings, "the end part of a spear" and "cost" *litsibi*, and *boile* 'came back'. The verb *itukisetsa* derives from the verb *tuka* 'burn'. The student has substituted the sound /u/ for the sound /o/, thus changing the sense of this verb. The verb *itokisetsa* derives from the verb *loka* 'to prepare'; instead, it was written as *itukisa* "to burn oneself" from the verb *tuka* "burn"; as a result, the meaning of the word changes. In the noun *theko*, 'an end part of a spear' or a 'cost', the students have substituted the sound /e/ for the sound /o/ thereby writing the adverb *thoko* 'far'. Instead, she substituted the sound /e/ for the sound /o/. After the substitution the adverb *thoko* 'far' has changed the word class to become the noun *theko* 'end of the spear' or 'cost'. Mohasi and Mashao (2014) view Sesotho as one of the Bantu languages related to Setswana and Northern Sotho. The authors further sub-divide Sesotho into such varieties as Sekgolokwe, Sekwena, Serotse (Selози) and Setlokwa. Since Setlokoa is the variety of Sesotho as indicated by Mohasi and Mashao, the student has unconsciously written this word from Setlokoa language most probably because both *theko* and *thoko* have been occurring interchangeably. In the word *litsebi* has been

replaced by *litsibi*, with the student substituting /i/ for /e/. *Litsebi* ‘experts’ is the noun derived from the verb *tseba* ‘know’. In Sesotho if the word is derived from the other, it should maintain the morphology of the word from which it is derived. In this case the root morpheme should remain the same as in /tseb-/. Most words with the /e/ sound are replaced with /i/ by students when forming other words.



Because the sound has been changed, the morphology of the noun has changed and lost its original meaning.

4.14 Sound strengthening.

In Sesotho, when the objectival concord (OC) or the prefix of the first person singular /n/ and /m/ and the reflexive prefix /i/ are attached to some verbs, the first sound of that verb becomes strengthened. The students seem to have a problem in using the OC of the first person singular and the reflexive prefix. They attach the concord and the prefix, though the strengthening process does not occur.

Table 4.17 sound strengthening

Source text	Correct version	Translation
67 Nlokela	ntokela	To become fit for
68 njoetsa	ntjoetsa	To tell me
69 nrata	nthata	To be loved
70 nrapelle	nthapelle	Pray for me
71 nhloea	ntlhoea	To hate me
72 nsoabisa	ntšoabisa	To make me feel ashamed

The highlighted words are verbs. The process of strengthening should take place because the Objectival concord (OC) of the first-person singular /n/ has been attached to the verbs /lokela/ ‘supposed to’, /joetsa/ ‘tell’, /rata/ ‘love’, /rapella/ ‘pray for’, /hloea/ ‘hate’ and /soabisa/ ‘to dissapoint’. Guma (1971:31) states that the morphophonemic

changes that fall under strengthening are basically aligned with nasal prefix /N-/. Following such an attachment, hence strengthening, the following verbs should read as follows:

- (a) Prefixes of Classes 9 and 10;
- (b) Adjectival Prefixes of Classes 8, 9 and 10;
- (c) Objectival Prefix of the first person singular.

Lokela + /n/ should be *Ntokela*; the sound /l/ has strengthened to /t/ /l/ > /t/.

Joetsa + /n/ should be *ntjoetsa* ; the sound /j/ has strengthened to /tj/ /j/ > /tj/.

Rata + /n/ should be *nthata*; the sound /r/ has strengthened to /th/ /r/ > /th/.

Rapelle + /n/ should be *nthapelle*; the sound /r/ has strengthened to /th/ /r/ > /th/.

Hloea + /n/ should be *ntlhoea*; the sound has strengthened to /tlh/ /hl/ > /tlh/

Soabisa + /n/ should be *ntšoabisa*; the sound has strengthened to /tš/ /s/ > /tš/.

After the attachment of the OC of the first-person singular, the students did not change any sound; nor did the process of strengthening take place. Thus, the sounds were written as if there is no attachment of the OC.

In some cases, the students write words conjunctively or disjunctively, or both conjunctively and disjunctively. Using affixes, they sometimes omit, substitute, or ignore using abbreviation marks and the process of strengthening. Malatji (2019) reported that when the African language speakers use social media, they make grammatical and spelling errors in their texts. The phenomenon is probably true for the students in Thaba-Tseka, thereby displaying rresonating with thwe usages noted in other African societies, who reportedly used the social media such as facebook, Twitter and WhatsApp. Such social media platforms could have contributed to their misspellings and grammatical challenges in the orthography of Sesotho.

As Songxaba and Sincuba (2019) observed, WhatsApp affected the English of students learning English. Noticeable in their wrting practices include writing substituting

numbers for words in sentences; omitting certain sounds in words, as well as substituting some sounds for other sounds, all of which have been attributed to the social media, for instance, WhatsApp. The above-mentioned orthographical mistakes or practices in Sesotho have been found amongst the target students at three selected high schools in Thaba-Tseka, the phenomena which probably cohere with Songxaba and Sincuba's (2019) findings.

As the *Language Manual 11* (1996) reported, the phonological pattern of Sesotho has been followed by the students. However, in the process, they form new words, for example, by omitting, adding new affixes and substituting some sounds. Even though Fernandes (2019) says missionaries had the influence on the orthography of African languages, the view which is disputed by this study, noting the changing orthography of Sesotho. While the missionaries to a great extent developed Sesotho orthography, drastic changes have been observed recent years because of the use of the influence of the social media, intermingling between the Basotho and other nationalities as well as the changes noted in the Sesotho examinations at high school in the country.

4.15 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the analysis and interpretation of the data for this study. The data has been presented through the tables, the chapter has analysed, the data using thematic-content analysis. The morphological and semantic theories which have underpinned this study have also been discussed, with a focus on their role in analysing the construction and meanings of words. The next chapter presents the data presentation, analysis and interpretation of sentences.

CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF SENTENCES

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents, analyses and interprets sentences collected for this study. The data will be discussed under the following syntactic categories: substantive, qualificatives, verbs, adverbs and conjunctions and sound strengthening. In each syntactic category, the conjunctive and Disjunctive writing, omission, deletion addition of sound will be discussed as they occurred in sentences. The chapter headings are made based on the themes found in the data collected. The analysis in this chapter is based on three theories: minimalist programme, morphological and semantic theory. As indicated previously in the delimitation of the study, this study focuses only on the orthography (written language) not a spoken language. It focuses only on how Sesotho is written. From the data collected, the meaning of some sentences are: partially distorted, fully distorted, some partially distorted, some fully distorted, some sentences have a full new meaning and some the meaning is non-existent.

5:1 Substantive (Noun and Pronoun)

5.1.1 Disjunctively written nouns in Sesotho sentences

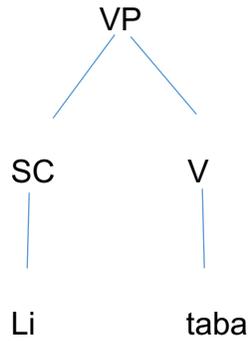
Sesotho bears the noun and absolute pronoun as the substantive. As indicated in Chapter 4, the noun and the absolute pronoun are written conjunctively. The noun can be used as the subject or the object, while the qualificative pronoun follows the structure of the qualificatives. If the substantive is morphologically unacceptable, like in the table below, it affects the meaning of the whole sentence. There is full distortion, and the sentence gives full new meaning. The table below shows some of the unacceptable substantives written by the students.

Table 5.1 Disjunctively written noun in Sesotho sentences

Source text	Correct version	Translation
1 Haba utloa tseo li taba...	Ha ba utloa tseo litaba...	When they heard the news....
2 Se etsa hore le loko la habo moshanyana le ate.	Se etsa hore leloko la habo moshanyana le ate.	It makes the family of a male child to grow.
3 Kopo ea ka e amohetsoe hoba emong oa ba hlanka	Kopo ea ka e amohetsoe ho ba emong oa bahlanka	My application was accepted to become one of the civil servants.

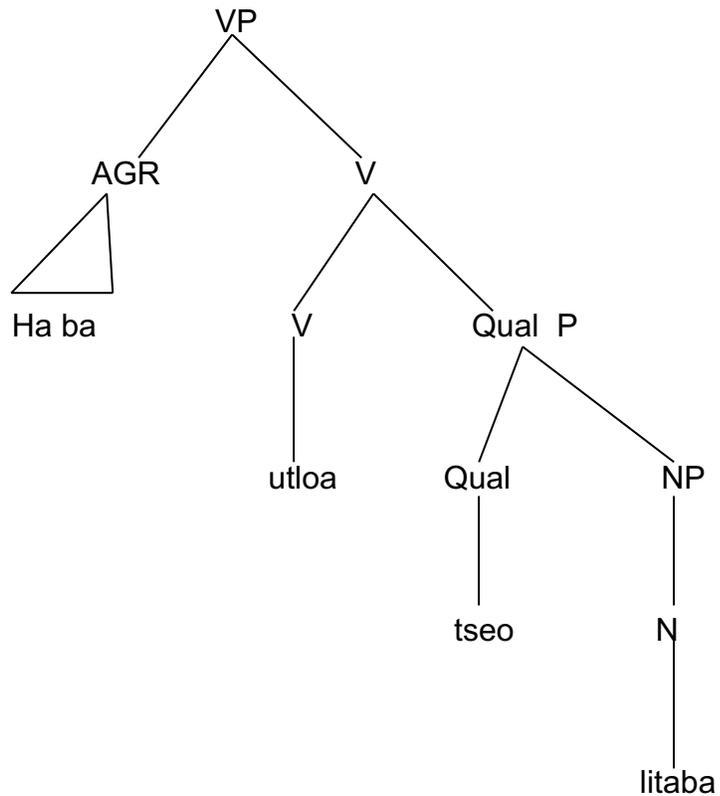
The above table shows highlighted nouns *litaba*, ‘news’ *leloko* ‘genealogy’ and *bahlanka* ‘civil servants’ as Disjunctively written. The words have lost their word category, being conflated, and each shifting from nouns into verbs. These words have changed the meaning of the sentences. In the sentence *ha ba utloa tseo li taba*, the student has misspelled the noun, thus completely changing the whole meaning of the sentence. Sentence 1 the noun has full new meaning as a result, the meaning of the sentence is fully distorted because of the word which has changed the word class. If the word is written disjunctively as in sentences 2 and 3, since meaning of the noun in each sentence is fully distorted the meaning of the whole sentence is non-existent. Further, sentence 1 is elaborated as shown in the tree diagram. *Li taba* “becoming greyish” is the verb phrase with the subjectival concord and the verb stem as shown in Tree Diagram 1.

Tree diagram 5.1 Verb Phrase



Since the word is morphologically unacceptable it has changed the meaning of the whole sentence fully, making it unacceptable. Other cases in point are sentences 2 and 3, contrasting with the corrected versions as shown in Tree Diagram 5.2.

Tree diagram 5.2 Noun Merging



In the tree diagram representation, the noun *litaba* ‘news’ has been merged with the demonstrative qualificative pronoun *tseo* ‘those’. If *litaba* ‘news’ is Disjunctively written as *li taba*, thus a new phrase, with a new meaning altogether, deviating from the originally intended message, there would be no merging.

5.1.2 The use of abbreviation marks in Sesotho substantive

The abbreviation marks are used in Sesotho to abbreviate some words, and sometimes, omitting a sound in a word to abbreviate a repeated consonant.

Table 5.2 Abbreviation in substantive

Source text	Correct version	Translation
4. Ka mora hore 'mae Botle a hlokahala.	Kamor'a hore 'm'ae Botle a hlokahala.	After the death of his mother Botle.
5. Ntate le me bese ba ithobaletse.	Ntate le 'm'e ba be se ba ithobaletse.	My father and mother had already passed away.
6. Ke mme ea hlokileng boikarabello.	Ke 'm'e ea hlakileng boikarabello	She is an irresponsible mother
7. Tšitso haa kotsfalla kamoo a iphetelitseng ka teng 'mme o rerile ho hong ka nna.	Tšitso ha a khotsofalla kamoo a iphetelitseng kateng 'me o rerile ho hong ka 'na.	Tšitso is not satisfied with the way he has avenged himself therefore he has planned something ill for me.
8. Kea otsepisa hore nna le uena	Kea o tšepisa hore 'na le uena...	I promise you that you and me...

9. Ke lefa la ntata'e	Ke lefa la nta'tae.	It is his father's heritage
10. Khele ntata Mpho a hana ho utloa.	Khele nta'ta Mpho a hana ho utloa.	Damn! Mpho's father went red.
11. 'me ka mora thapelo monga mokete o ile...	Kamor'a thapelo mong'a mokete o ile...	After the prayer, the lady of the moment then...
12. Tšitso ngoanaka ke kopa u ntsoarele.	Tšitso ngoan'aka ke kopa u ntšoarele.	Tšitso my child, please forgive me.
13. Hompots'a hobakeile kamosotla	Ho mpontša hoba ke ile ka mo sotla.	To show me that I brutalised him.

In sentences 4, 5 and 6 above, the the documents show confusion in the use of abbreviation marks in the word 'm'e 'mother'. In sentences 4 and 6 the meaning is partially distorted because the meaning is not distorted completely it is just that what is not acceptable is the orthography which is not used in Sesotho in Lesotho. This conflation may suggest some confusion which affects the construction of the given sentences. If the meaning of one-word changes, it affects the meaning of the whole sentence. *Bagha (2011) explicates that the arrangement of both words and sentences is done at the level of morphology and syntax. They are arranged in a way that they carry a meaningful message.* If semantics demands that the organisation of words should bring about meaningful messages, with one word misspelt out morphologically, the meaning of the whole sentence would be affected. This is evident in sentence 5 where the word 'm'e is written as *me* and the word *me* is non-existent in Sesotho. Sentence 6 is partially distorted because the word 'mme' exists but it is used in the South African orthography not in Sesotho used in Lesotho. In

sentence 7, the word *'mme'* is non-existing in the orthography of Sesotho. This conjunction is written with an abbreviation mark // and the sound /m/ as *'me* “therefore”. This unacceptable orthography has caused the sentence to be partially distorted.

In sentence 8, the word *nna* “me” is mostly used in the Sesotho orthography in South Africa, there is partial distortion because the sentence is understood but the orthography is not acceptable in Sesotho in Lesotho. This word has not changed the structure nor the meaning of the sentences. However, the rules of the orthography used in Sesotho in Lesotho have been breached. In sentence 10, *Khele ntata Mpho a hana ho utloe*. The highlighted word *ntata* was supposed to be a noun *ntat'a* ‘the father of’ but because there is no punctuation mark, it has also changed the word class into a verb *ntata* ‘to fetch me’ from the verb *lata* ‘fetch’ with the object concord for the first person singular /n-/. The use of /n/ attached to the verb *lata* has gone through the morphophonemic process of strengthening the sound, thus changing // to /t/. The word *ntata* appears before the noun and thus causes confusion because syntactically it should be SVO (subject, verb object). Once the word changes a word class in a sentence, the meaning of the sentence becomes distorted like as in sentence 10 above. In sentence 10 there is a full distortion of a sentence because the word *ntata* is existing in the orthography of Sesotho but it is a verb not a noun, it does not fit in this sentence it has caused the sentence to be distorted. Seidenberg (2017) argues that languages which have complicated morphological systems, they all have transparent orthographies and if orthography is erratic, that would cause reading to be unbearable in agglutinating languages. If the orthography of the language is not consistent then it cannot be understood by the users. It is, therefore, important for students to use the acceptable orthography of Lesotho.

In this sentence 11, *'me ka mora thapelo monga mokete o ile...*, translating this sentence could be challenging because of the structure and arrangement of bolded words. Semantically, the word *ka mora* means “by his son”, while syntactically this word does not fit in this sentence. *Ka mora* changes the meaning of the whole sentence. *Ka mora* is no longer the locative adverb *kamor'a* “after”, which is written in

full as *kamorao ho* “after”. The sound /o/ and the morpheme ‘*ho*’ have been deleted and the abbreviation mark has been used instead therefore the meaning of this sentence is fully distorted. Moreover, in the same sentence, the word *monga* does not make any sense because of the omission of the abbreviation mark between the sound /g/ and /a/. The unacceptable morphology of these two words has made the whole sentence semantically unacceptable. There is a full distortion of the whole sentence, as the result the the meaning of the whole sentence is non-existent. The sentence should be ‘*me kamor’a thapelo mong’a mokete o ile...*’ “After the prayer, the lady of the moment then...”

The sound /š/ is central to Sesotho orthography. If the word has this sound, it should not be replaced with /s/ or /s’/ as in all the documents where /š/ is used it is substituted by /s’/ or /s/. Substituting anything for the sound changes the meaning of the word, with the meaning lost altogether. In this sentence 12, *Tšitso ngoanaka ke kopa u ntsoarele*, the word *ntsoarele* has the sound /š/, instead in one document the sound has been replaced with the sound /s/, instead of having the orthographically acceptable word such as *ntšoarele* “forgive me”. Since the meaning of the word *ntsoarele* is nonexistent it has fully affected the meaning of the whole sentence. The acceptable sentence would, therefore, be *Tšitso ngoan’aka ke kopa u ntšoarele* “Tšitso my child, please forgive me”. The word *ngoanaka*, with full form being *ngoana oaka*, therefore, the missing abbreviation mark has affected the meaning of the whole sentence partially. also has the abbreviation mark. Here, the noun *ngoana* “child” is followed by the qualificative possessive *oaka*, “mine” meaning, it is the complement to the noun *ngoana* “child”. The noun *ngoana* “child” merges with the possessive *oaka* “mine”.

As observed in sentences 12 and 13 above, all students seemingly could not use the aspirated /š/. The sound has either been deleted and replaced with the sound /s/, or sometimes abbreviated to the sign /’/ before the sound /s/ as in the words *ntsoarele* and *Hompots’a*. Such patterns contrast with formal usages such as *ntšoarele* ‘forgive me’ and *ho mpontša* ‘to show me’, as noted above. Misspelling certain words tends to lost the meanings of such words; further, the misplacing a sign and substituting a sound make the words lose their meanings. The words *hompots’a* and *ntsoarela* are

non existent therefore they cause the meaning of the whole sentence to be none existent.

5.1.3 Omission of sounds in the absolute pronoun

Other noticeable feature is use of the demonstrative *ona* “this one” and absolute pronouns *oona* (it) (Class 3) and *'ona* “it” (Class 6), the demonstrative *ena* “this” and absolute pronoun *eena* “she/he”. Such a usage is illustrated in the table below.

Table 5.3 Omission in the absolute pronoun noun

Source text	Correct version	Translation
14. Ke ne ke thabisitse batsoali baka le ona matichere.	Ke ne ke thabisitse batsoali le oona matichere.	I had made my parents and teachers happy
15. O ile a ntjoetsa hore ena ka chebo ea hae o bona eka ke nna.	O ile a ntjoetsa hore eena ka chebo ea hae o bona eka ke nna.	She told me that by the look of things I am guilty as charged.

The noun and the absolute pronoun are the substantives which form a noun phrase. Thus, they appear at the beginning of the sentence, and are followed by the adjunct (qualificative). In sentences 14 and 15 the absolute pronouns *oona* and *eena* can be used as the head of the phrase in the absence of the noun. As Thetso (2018) indicates that the head of the phrase can develop several times to fulfil its selectional features. “the head can project as many times as possible to satisfy its selectional features.” The expectation would be *oona* “they” and *eena* “him” will project. In sentences 14 and 15 *Ke ne ke thabisitse batsoali baka le **ona** matichere*, and *O ile a ntjoetsa hore **ena** ka chebo ea hae o bona eka ke nna*, 16 out 30 scripts there is confusion in the use of the absolute pronoun and the demonstrative *oona* and *ona* respectively. The suitable syntactic position of the absolute pronouns is the beginning of the phrase, with both the conjunction ‘*le*’ joining the words with the same level and ‘*hore*’ joining two phrases in both sentences. However, they are both morphologically

unacceptable, and that makes both sentences semantically unacceptable. Their morphology makes them the adjuncts (demonstrative). Both adjuncts *ona* ‘this’ and *ena* ‘this’ cannot occur with the substantive or the phrase as indicated in the above sentences. The acceptable absolute pronouns are ‘they’ *ona* and ‘she’ *eena*. In both sentences therefore, there is a full new meaning of the words, which at the end has cause the sentences to have full new meaning.

5.1.4 Substitution of sounds in the substantive

In some nouns the sounds have been substituted. They have been substituted with some sound related to them.

Table 5.4 Substitution of sounds

Source text	Correct version	Translation
16. Hore nna le oena retloqala bophelo	Hore ,na le uena re tlo qala bophelo	That you and I should begin a new life
17. Hang hoba ke qete ka mophomose tsa seonamapholi ho nyaha kokotho .	Hang hoba ke qete ka mo phomose tsa senoa- mapholi ho nyaha qoqtho.	Immediately after I have served her the cold drinks, to quench her thirst.
18. Re phela nakong ea litsibi le khothaletsang hore lelapa ka leng lebe le bana ba babeli	Re phela nakong ea litsebi li khothaletsang hore lelapa ka leng le be le bana ba babeli.	We live in times where experts encourages each family to have two children

Sentence 16, *Hore nna le oena retloqala bophelo*, the word *oena*, is the substantive,(a pronoun) syntactically appearing sentence-initially, and is followed by the verb phrase; morphologically this word should be written as *uena* “you” not *oena* because it is a second person singular. The sound /u/ is the concord for the second person singular and the sound /o/ is used for the third person singular. *Oena* is used in the South African orthography not in Sesotho in Lesotho, as a result, the meaning

of the sentence is partially distorted because the word is written in the South African orthography.

In sentences 16 to 18 the process of assimilation has taken place. Dawood and Atawneh (2015) state that assimilation takes place because two sounds have common characteristics in place or manner. Additionally, Khattab (2018) mentions that assimilation is a phonological process which produces new and similar sounds and happens in all languages of the world. It seems like the process of assimilation has taken place in the highlighted words in sentences 16 to 18. In the documents in sentence 17, the sound /k/ has been used to substitute for the sound /q/, thus forming the word *koko* instead of the word *qoqo*, 'larynx'. Since this word does not exist in Sesotho, it has affected or distorted the meaning of the whole sentence.

The noun *litsebi* derived from the word *tseba* "to know" the word *litsibi* is non-existent in Sesotho orthography. The substitution of /i/ for /e/ has introduced a lexical item which is inapplicable to the syntactic and semantic pattern in Sesotho. There is a full distortion of the whole sentence.

5.2 Qualificatives

5.2.1 Conjunctively written qualificatives in Sesotho sentences

All qualificatives in Sesotho qualify the substantive: the noun and the pronoun. Syntactically, they appear after the substantive; morphologically, these words have two entities, namely a concordial prefix and a qualificative stem. Kathekiso *et al.* (2004) see the qualificative as appearing immediately after the noun which it qualifies. For the authors, the qualificative has the concord and the stem. The only qualificative which does not have this concordial prefix and qualificative stem is the demonstrative. The demonstrative is inseparable. The table below shows sentences selected from the data collected from three selected high schools in Thaba-Tseka. The target students have reportedly constructed sentences which have the adjectives. Recurrent in the students' scripts are the following.

Table 5.5 Conjunctively written qualificatives

Source text	Correct version	Translation
19. Kephela le eena ka tlung <u>elengoe</u> .	Ke phela le eena katlung e le 'ngoe	I live with her in the same house
20. Hare khutla emong a mpotsa ho rena ke utloa eka ke pasitse.	Ha re khutla e mong a mpotsa hore na ke utloa eka ke pasitse.	When we came back one of them asked me if I feel like I have passed.
21. Ngoana eo keea pelo <u>entle</u> hakaakang?	Ngoana eo kea pelo e ntle hakaakang?	What a kind-hearted child this is?
22. Ka hlooho <u>ents'o</u> .	Ka hloohoe ntšo.	Empty-headed

In the table above, the sentences 19-22, have their adjectives written conjunctively. Morphologically words which are adjectives have adjectival prefix and adjectival stem as indicated before. The morphological form of the highlighted qualificatives *elengoe*, *emong*, *entle* and *ents'o* is not acceptable in Sesotho, this is because they are written conjunctively, and the prefix and the stem are conjoined. Because of this conjunction, these qualificatives have lost their meaning. There is a full distortion of a meaning, the meaning of these words do not exist in Sesotho orthography, as a result, they have caused the sentences to have a full distortion of meaning. Syntactically these words come immediately after the substantive, if the substantive is left out or if the qualificative comes after the substantantive then, the qualificative becomes the qualificative pronoun. Guma (1971) stipulates that once the substantive is left out in a sentence and the qualificative replace the substantive or if the substantive follows the qualificative then the qualificative becomes a qualificative

pronoun. In sentence 19 and 20 the words which were meant to be adjectives do not follow the substantive in fact, the substantive is left out, and as a result, they have become the adjectival pronoun. In sentence 19 the adjectival qualificative pronoun follows the adverb *ka tlung (katlung)* “in the house”, and in sentence 20 the adjectival qualificative pronoun follows the verb *hare khutla (ha re khutla)* “when we come back”, the meaning of a sentence gives the same meaning as it was intended.

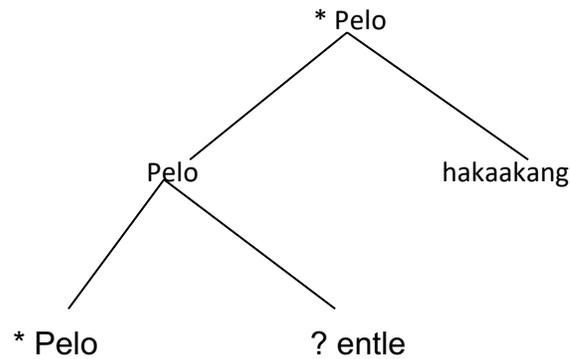
In sentence 21 and 22 the words *entle (e ntle)* and *ents’o (e ntšo)* come immediately after the substantive, however, because of their morphology, they do not qualify to be called qualificatives. Minimalist theory with its merge property says that the noun phrase can be merged with its complement, one cannot say *entle* and *ents’o* are complements which can be merged with the noun, they have lost their morphological properties as Sesotho qualificatives. Langendoen (2003:3) notes that “when the objects α and β are merged, one of them is the head.” In sentences 21 and 22 the nouns *pelo* “heart” and *hlooho* “head” are supposed to be α (head of the phrase) and *entle (e ntle)* *ents’o (e ntšo)* β (their complements) but because they are morphologically unacceptable, they cannot be complements and the head cannot be the projector.

The * denotes unacceptable sentence and its tree diagram.

The acceptable sentence and diagram will follow. Sentence 3 will be used as an example.

*...*pelo entle hakaakang?*

Tree Diagram 5.3 Conjunctively written adjective

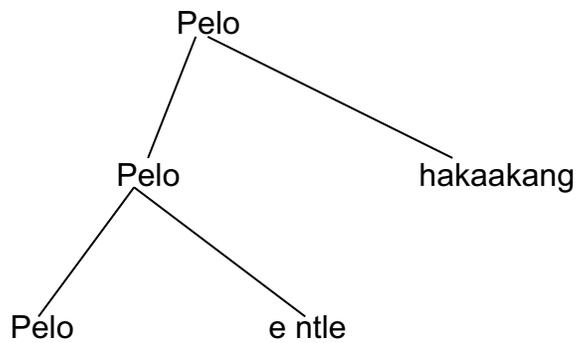


In the above example *pelo* cannot merge with *entle* because it is non-existing in Sesotho and similarly *entle* cannot merge with *hakaakang*. The non-existing word *entle* has caused the meaning of the whole sentence to be distorted fully.

...*pelo e ntle hakaakang?*

In the example below *pelo* merges with *e ntle* and *e ntle* merges with *hakaakang*. Thetso (2018) explains that in order to have a new syntactic element, two lexical elements need to be joined through syntactic operation called merge.

Tree diagram 5.4 Disjunctively written adjective



In generative semantic theory as pointed by Chomsky (1965) the syntactic element of grammar must stipulate, for every sentence, a deep structure that determines its semantic representation. Semantically, this sentence *Hare khutla emong a mpotsa ho rena ke utloa eka ke pasitse* is meaningless because the word *emong* does not exist in Sesotho; therefore, the unacceptable morphology of this word has affected

the meaning of the whole sentence, together with other unacceptable orthography of some words in this sentence the meaning of this sentence is fully distorted. The morphological theory helps in the formation of words in every language, since *emong* does not follow the morphology of Sesotho, how the adjectival pronoun is formed, this word is semantically deplorable, though it does not convey any meaning.

5.2.2 Disjunctively written qualificatives in Sesotho sentences

As indicated before, qualificatives are the words which have two entities, namely the concordial prefix and a qualificative stem. Thus, the only qualificative which does not have these two entities is the demonstrative. The sentences below show how the students write the demonstrative and the enumerative qualificatives.

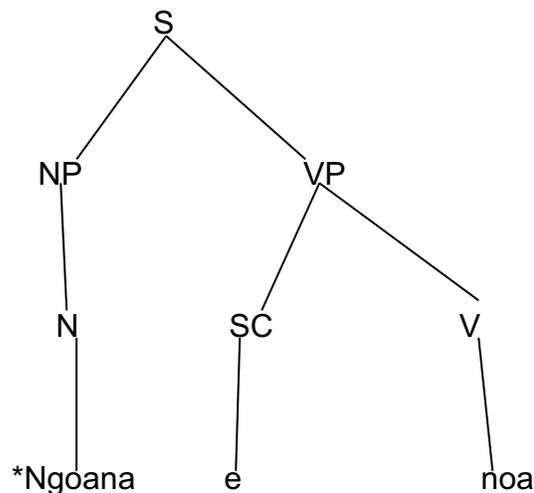
Table 5.6 Disjunctively qualificatives

Source text	Correct version	Translation
23. Hore na e kaba ngoana e noa o rerile eng.	Hore ekaba ngoana enoa o rerile eng	Really what does this child has wrapped up his sleeves.
24. Ka 'nete o ile a ipolela ka mabitso le hore o tsoa ofising e fe.	Kannete o ile a ipolela ka mabitso le hore o tsoa ofising efe.	Truly he introduced himself through his names, and the office he comes from.

In sentence 23 above, *e noa* 'it drinks' appears as a verb and the head of the phrase; it is the transitive verb followed by the object as its complement. But *e noa* cannot project, because it is followed by the transitive verb which is another verb phrase. It cannot project to it as a result it violates the projection rule of minimalist programme. Thetso (2018) states that when the head word projects, the resultant object takes

over the features of head as its identity. *E noa* “it drinks” cannot project to *o rerile* because *o rerile* “he plans” cannot inherit its features; it is also the head. The tree diagram represented below shows *ngoana* ‘child’ and *e noa* ‘it drinks’ as both heads of phrases. However, Langendoen (2003:3) indicates that “when the objects α and β are merged, one of them is the head;” implying that one should be the head and the other object as the complement. *E noa* ‘it drinks’ cannot be the complement because it is the head of another phrase. The morphology of this word *e noa* has caused the sentence to be equivocal. In most cases in Sesotho language, a verb is followed by an adjunct not by another verb as in the cases above. The words has new full meaning, the words existing in Sesotho. These words have caused the sentence to be fully distorted. Bagha (2011) explains that in order for one to get the meaning, three things need to be considered: the situation in which a sentence is used, meanings of the words in the sentence, its morphological and syntactic structure. The morphological structure of this word has rendered the sentence confusing. This is because the meaning of the word does not fit well in this sentence, the context in which does not fit in this sentence, the morphology of this word is unacceptable, and syntactically *e noa* “it drinks” does not fit in this sentence.

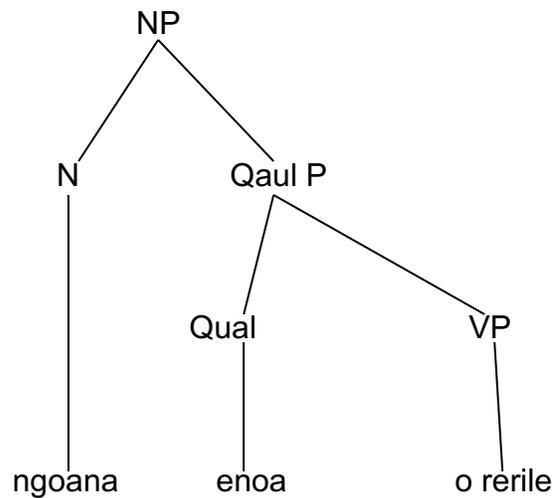
Tree diagram 5.5 disjunctively written demonstrative



In this tree diagram representation below, *ngoana* ‘child’ merges with the demonstrative *enoa* ‘this one’, and *enoa* merges with *o rerile* ‘he plans’. As Langendoen (2003:3)

enlightens that one might conclude that α is the head and β its complement (COMP). *Ngoana* ‘child’ is the head of the phrase and *enoa* is its complement, *enoa* ‘this one’ complements *ngoana* ‘child’. The noun *ngoana* “child” has projected to the complement (demonstrative) *enoa* “this one” .

Tree diagram 5.6 Conjunctively written demonstrative



Likewise, in sentence 24, if *e fe* “give to it” was written as *efe* “which one” it would be accepted; it would have inherited the features of *ofising* as the head because *efe* is the complement. Syntactically both words *enoa* and *efe* appear immediately after the words which they qualify, the documents have positioned them in an acceptable manner. In all the documents */e noal/* and */e fel/* have been written immediately after the substantive, this is also another proof that both words should be written conjunctively because they are qualificatives, they qualify the substantive they follow. They have syntactically written them after the substantive, which is acceptable. Morphologically, both words should be written conjunctively, though the participants have written them disjunctively, thus changing the word class and automatically the meaning of the whole sentence. It is fully distorted because the words have changed the word class.

5.2.3 The use of abbreviation marks in Sesotho adjectives

The table below represents the adjectival and adverbial phrases found in all sripts without abbreviation marks. The table further how the omission of abbreviation marks affects the sentences.

Table 5.7 Abbreviation marks in adjectives

Source text	Correct version	Translation
25. Pelo li peli engoe ere ke tsoele pele	Pelo li peli e 'ngoe e re ke tsoele-pele...	I have mixed thought some thoughts are I should continue...

The word *engoe* is supposed to be the adjective, but because it is written conjunctively and without the abbreviation mark, the morphology which is not acceptable in Sesotho distorts the whole sentence fully. In sentence 25 above, the word *engoe* does not exist in Sesotho. In the documents, the conjuncted adjective *e 'ngoe* 'the other one', though omitting the abbreviation mark which could have been inserted before the adjectival stem *ngoe*. This adjectival stem has a double consonant /n/, contrasting with the orthography of Sesotho which uses the abbreviation mark instead of double /n/. On the other hand, Kathekiso *et al.* (2009) dispute view that adjectival stem *'ngoe* is written with this abbreviation mark as in the given example, *Perekisi e 'ngoe e bolile kahoo e lahle* "one peach is rotten, so throw it away." *E 'ngoe* "the other one" complements *perekisi* "a peach", *perekisi* merge with *e 'ngoe*. Because of this unacceptable Sesotho orthography, there is a full distortion of a sentence.

5.2.4 Sound addition in possessive and demonstrative stem

Phonological rules may either add or delete entire segments in a word. Epenthesis is one phonological rule which which inserts a consonant or a vowel in a word.

Table 5.8 sound addition in qualificatives

Source text	Correct version	Translation
26. Lelapeng la habo bona	Lelapeng labo bona	Their family
27. A sia maruo ao a habo a eo atisa lelapa.	A sia maruo ao abo a eo atisa lelapa.	He left his family's riches and went to grow the family.
28. Ke ile ka bona ele nomoro eeo ke sa e tsebeng	Ke ile ka bona e le nomoro eo ke sa e tsebang.	I realized that it was an unknown number

In sentence 26, the use of the word *habo* “one’s native place”, unlike *labo* “theirs” has changed the meaning of the whole sentence. The sentence *lelapeng la habo bona* means at their native place as opposed to *lelapeng labo bona* meaning their family, *labo* is the possessive. Both words *habo* and *labo* exists in Sesotho. The only problem in this sentence is that *habo* is being misplaced. Morley (2018) defines epenthesis as addition of a segment that has no correspondent in the pertinent lexical, or underlying, form. The insertion /h/ has no correspondence in the possessive stem *-abo* rather it changes the meaning intended. // in *labo* has been replaced by /h/, the word has been changed from a qualificative into an adverb *habo*. // is the possessive prefix of Class 5, and *-abo* the possessive stem, *-labo* is the possessive. The word *habo* has changed the meaning of the whole sentence partially because the word exists in Sesotho but it does not fit in this sentence.

As mentioned earlier, Sesotho has no noun Classes 11-13. In what follows is the possessive prefix from Class 1 to Class 15 as extracted from *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981:36):

1. /o-/
2. /b-/
3. /o-/
4. /-/
5. /l-/
6. /-/
7. /s-/
8. Ts-/
9. /-/
10. /ts-/
11. ---
12. ---
13. --- 14. /b-/
15. /ho-/

The primary possessive stem

(a) First person singular /-ka/

Second person singular /-hau/

(b) First person singular /-eso/

Second person /-eno/

Third person /-abo/

In sentence 28, *Ke ile ka bona ele nomoro eeo ke sa e tsebang* cannot be translated because of the word *eeo* which is meaningless, it is non existing in Sesotho orthography. Instead, *Ke ile ka bona e le nomoro eo ke sa e tsebang* “I realised that it was an unknown number.” The addition of the sound /e/ to *eo* has distorted the meaning of the word fully, hence the meaning the whole sentence is fully distorted.

5.3 Verbs

5.3.1 Sentences with conjunctively written Sesotho verbs

As noted above, one of the functions of the verb is to express an action. Rampobole and Morolong (2005) view the verbal predicate as having two entities: the concord and the stem. Most of the unacceptable words found in a verbal predicate, the non-verbal predicate/copulative and the ideophone were written in unacceptable way. Other morphemes attached to the verb stem indicate the mood and the tense. Such morphemes have been used in 25 out of 30. The following table shows the sentences from the documents where verbal predicate is written.

5.9 conjunctively written verbs

Source text	Correct version	Intended meaning
29. Hare khutla emong a mpotsa ho rena ke utloa eka ke pasitse	Ha re khutla e mong a mpotsa hore na ke utloa eka ke pasitse.	Upon our return one of them asked if I felt like I had passed.
30. Ene ele hoseng hake tsoha...	E ne e le hoseng ha ke tsoha...	It was in the morning when I woke up
31. Re ile ra mothabela kaofela	Re ile ra mo thabela kaofela	We were all happy for him.

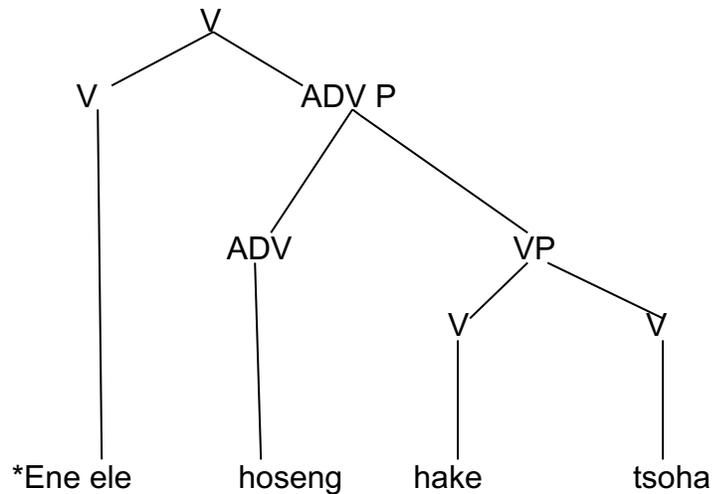
<p>32. Ka thenthetsa joaloka 'm'e ha a ne a sentse a etsa.</p>	<p>Ka thenthetsa joaloka 'm'e ha a ne a se ntse a etsa.</p>	<p>I rejoiced like my mother who had already started rejoicing</p>
<p>33. Hoba lahla ka sebetsa kathata le pele reka fihla mona.</p>	<p>Hoba ke ile ka hla ka sebetsa kathata le pele re ka fihla mona</p>	<p>Because I had already worked so hard even before we could get to this point.</p>
<p>34. Hompots'ahobakeile kamosotla</p>	<p>Ho mpontša hoba ke ile ka mo sotla.</p>	<p>To show me that I brutalized him/her.</p>

In sentence 29, *Hare khutla emong a mpotsa ho rena ke utloa eka ke pasitse*, the words are conjunctively written. The word *ha re* “when we” was written as *hare* “inside”. The present indicative and the subjectival concord are conjunctively written. The conjunctively written words *hare*, *emong* and *ho rena* have distorted the meaning of the whole sentence fully. The acceptable sentence would be *Ha re khutla, e mong a mpotsa hore na ke utloe eka ke pasitse* ‘Upon our return one of them asked if I felt like having passed’.

In sentence 30, *Ene ele hoseng hake tsoha* are written conjunctively, though they make no clear meaning. It would thus be difficult to determine the meaning of a sentence, in which only two words *hoseng* “morning” and *tsoha* “wake up” are written correctly and acceptable in this sentence. The correct morphology of these words is *le ne e le!* ‘it was’. *ele* which means ‘be clear’ is the verb derived from the verb *ela* ‘to be clear’. This verb has no connection with other words in this sentence. In the word */hake/* the present indicative and the concord are also conjoined. *Hake* is the verb derived from the verb *haka* which means ‘to slip from one’s mind or to forget or hook’. Semantically, this sentence is not clear because its surface structure is not clear due to the conjunctively written two words in this sentence. The highlighted word *ene* is non-existent in Sesotho, *ele* and *hake* do exist in Sesotho but are misplaced in this

sentence therefore sentence 30 is fully distorted because in this one sentence one word is non-existent and the other two are misplaced. Syntactically, the adverbs cannot dominate the verbs, nor can it be the head of the phrase; instead, the adverb is an adjunct which is followed by the verb. Therefore, this sentence becomes unacceptable because of the arrangement of its words.

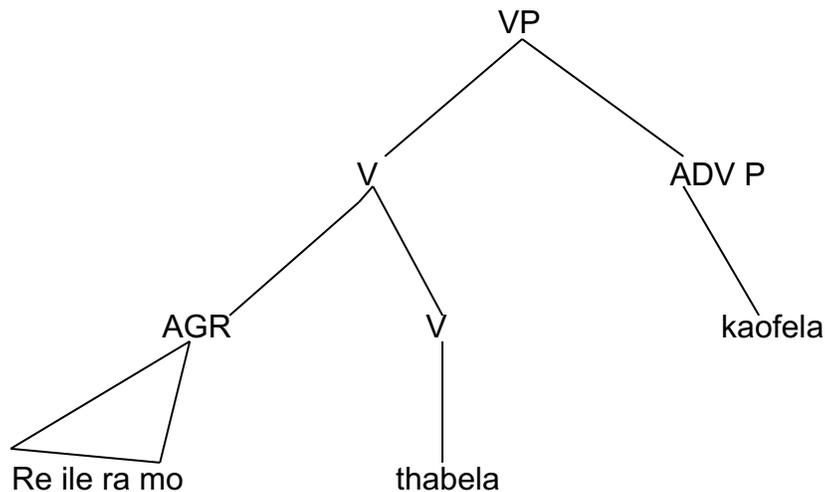
Tree diagram 5.7 unacceptable construction of verbs



In the above tree diagram, there is no relationship between the sentence and its constituents. If *hoseng* 'in the morning' is the head, this implies that *hake* will be its complement, *hake* does not complete any meaning to *hoseng*. This is ungrammatical because selectional steps are not correct and therefore they crash.

In sentence 31, *re ile ra mothabela kaofela*, the subjectival concord and the verb stem are conjunctively written. The subjectival concord and the verb are conjunctively written, thereby affecting the meaning of the whole sentence, this is caused by *Mothabela* non-existing word in Sesotho. The acceptable sentence could be *re ile ra mo thabela kaofela*, 'we were all happy for him/her'.

Tree diagram 5.8 Acceptable arrangement words in Sesotho sentence



In this sentence *thabela* ‘be happy for’ is the head which projects its features to *kaofela* ‘all’.

Thabela merges with *kaofela*.

Sentence 32 above, *Ka thenthetsa joaloka 'm'e ha a ne a **sentse** a etsa*, the construction of this sentence is distorted because of the conjunctively written word *sentse*. *Sentse* “have destroyed” is the verb derived from another verb *senya* “to destroy”. This verb exists in Sesotho, but it has no connection with other words in this sentence. The subjectival concord and the morpheme which indicate tense are conjunctively written. Therefore, this sentence is partially distorted because the first phrase in this sentence is written in an acceptable way and it is also understood but the second phrase which has the verb *sentse* “destroy” has distorted the sentence partially.. The grammatical sentence will be: *Ka thenthetsa joaloka 'm'e ha a ne a se a ntse a etsa* ‘I rejoiced like my mother who had already started rejoicing’

In this sentence *Hoba lahla ka sebetsa kathata le pele reka fihla mona*, the conjunctively written words *lahla* 'lost' and *reka* 'buy' have the meaning of the whole sentence misleading. It is even difficult to translate this sentence. As such, there is no relationship between these two words and other words in this sentence. This sentence has four verb phrases because of this conjunctively written words which do not merge with other words. The sentence is fully distorted with three verb phrases in it. This sentence should be written as: *hoba ke ile ka hla ka sebetsa kathata le pele re ka fihla mona* 'Because I had already worked so hard even before we could get to this point'.

In sentence 34, *Hompots'ahobakeile kamosotla*, this sentence is constructed out of only two words *Hompots'ahobakeile* and *kamosotla*, which have no meaning, the meaning is non-existent. These two words which builds this sentence do not exist in Sesotho. There is no phrase, no head, no complement, and of course, no adjunct. In Sesotho, for example, the noun phrase and verb phrase are independent. The complements and adjuncts should be clearly written. The arrangement of words which are also conjunctively has caused this sentence to be fully distorted with non-existent meaning. In the above sentence, none of the above-mentioned features can be identified. The grammatical sentence should be *ho mpontša hoba ke ile ka mo sotla* 'to show me that I brutalised him/her'.

5.3.2 Disjunctively written Sesotho verbs

Sesotho verb stems are written conjunctively, sentences 35 and 36 show how students write Sesotho verb stems. In Sesotho, the verbal predicate follows the noun phrase. Sometimes the predicate can move before the noun phrase, even if there is movement of phrases in a sentence the meaning of a sentence does not change.

5.10 Disjunctive Sesotho verbs

Source text	Correct version	Translation
35. Ke fihlile mono bolong ho ntse ho	Re fihlile mono bolong ho ntse ho	I arrived at the game while the team from

<p>ba pala ba hona motšeng oa HaRamohapi.</p>	<p>bapala ba hona Motseng Ha Ramohapi.</p>	<p>Ramohapi was the one playing.</p>
<p>36. Thabo ea rona e ile ea bona hala e felile leha ho le joalo.</p>	<p>Thabo ea rona e ile ea bonahala e felile leha ho le joalo.</p>	<p>Our happiness seemed to have come to a gentle stop even when it was so.</p>

The verbs *bapala* ‘play’ in sentence 35 and *bonahala* ‘to be clear’ in sentence 36 have been disjunctively written whereas in Sesotho verb stems are written conjunctively. Since they are written disjunctively, the meaning of the verbs have changed, and automatically the meaning of both sentence have changed. In sentence 35 the meaning of this sentence is partially distorted because the the highlighted words exists in Sesotho but misplaced in this sentence. In sentence 36 the word *bana* exists in Sesotho but *hala* does not exist. Both words have caused both sentences to be partially distorted because the first phrases are not well written. Bagha (2011) clarifies that the meaning of a sentence is characterized by the meanings of the distinct morphemes that make it up and the morphological and syntactic construction of the sentence. In the above sentences, the meaning of individual morphemes *bapala* ‘play’ and *bonahala* ‘to be clear’ have been distorted, thus affecting the morphological structure of the sentences. The syntactic structure of the sentences have changed, and semantically the meaning of the sentence is partially distorted, the sentences have changed. In sentence 35, syntactically the words fit well into the sentence. However, semantically, the words do not convey any meaning. The morphology of such words has affected the meaning of the whole sentence.

5.3.3 Omission of tense markers and subjectival concords in Sesotho sentences

Table 5.11 The omission of tense markers

Source text	Correct version	Translation
37. 'mele o na oa ka la ukoa eka o bobebe	'mele ona oaka ke ile ka utloa eka o bobebe	I felt very light
38. Hobane kela ka sebetsa ka thata hantse ke ithukisetsa hooa tšoara lipapali	Hobane ke ile ka sebetsa kathata ha ke ntse ke itokisetsa ho ea tšoara lipapali	Because I worked so hard while still preparing myself to host the games
39. 'me litsoa joalo se ke iphelletse ke letsoalo	'me li tsoa joalo ke se ke iphelletse ke letsoalo.	And by the time they were released I was numb with fear.
40. Ka nako e telele hakalo	Ka nako e telele hakaalo.	For such a long time.

Lekhotla la Sesotho (1981) and Guma (1971) observed different morphemes which signify tense in Southern Sesotho, /a/ is used for the present tense /-ile/ is used to signify past and perfect tense, while /-tla/ and /tlo/ are used to indicate the future tense. In sentences 37, 38 and 40, the documents have syntactically followed the structure of Sesotho sentences, albeit having omitted only the tense markers 'ile' and the subject concord and the deficient verb stem /-ne/. The omission of the above-mentioned morphemes causes the remaining entities to lose their meaning. In most cases, such an omission is noted among children. In the collected documents, one would not expect to find such usages because at this level, students should be aware of them following their learning of the parts of speech from the lower grades. In these sentences the meaning of the sentences is partially distorted because of the distorted words.

In sentence 40, *Ka nako e telele **hakalo***, the word *hakalo*, which could be written as *hakaalo* (**ditto, how big the thing is**), *hakaalo* is a primitive relative stem. It is placed in the appropriate position in this sentence, with an unacceptable morphology, thus leading to both the ungrammatical sentence and Sesotho orthography therefore the meaning of this sentence is partially distorted.

5.3.4 Substitution of sounds in verbal stem

Table 5.12 Verbal stem substitution sounds

Source text	Correct version	Translation
38. Ke hlile ke tlametse hoba a mohela	Ke hlile ke tlamehile ho ba amohela	I am supposed to welcome them
39. Ho fihlela ke getile.	Hofihlela ke qetile.	Until I am done
40. Ho ne ho gabolane	Ho ne ho qabolana	It was funny
41. 'mele o na oa ka la ukoa eka o bobebe	'mele ona oa ka ke ile ka utloe eka o bobebe..	
42. Ke itukisetsa joalo ho chakela rakhali.	Ke itokisetsa joalo ho chakela rakhali.	
43. Tšitso o boile le Baratang	Tšitso o buile le Baratang.	

In sentence 41, *Ke hlile ke **tlametse** hoba a mohela* the highlighted word *tlametse* 'tie for' derived from the verb *tlama*, 'tie' is the existing verb in Sesotho, like the word *tlamehile* 'must'. The word *tlametse* is misplaced in this sentence, it is syntactically and

morphologically acceptable, but semantically unacceptable, the appropriate verb is *tlamehile*. The word has distorted the whole sentence fully, making it unacceptable: * *Ke hlile e tlametse hoba a mohela* ‘Indeed I have tied because he ...’ the existence of this word in this sentence has made it difficult to translate. The acceptable sentence should be *Ke hlile ke tlamehile ho ba amohela* “I must welcome them.”

In Sentences 42 and 43, *Ho fihlela ke getile ka morao* and *Ho ne ho gabolane* the verbs *getile* and *gabolana* do not exist in the Sesotho orthography. The replaced sound /q/ by the sound /g/ has changed the meaning of the verbs, affecting the meaning of the whole sentence. The morphology of this word has caused the words to be unacceptable; likewise, the semantics of the words in this sentence. The meaning of these words is fully distorted and as the result it has distorted the meaning of the whole sentence.

In sentence 44, the word *utloa* ‘hear’ has been written as *ukoa* the student has replaced the sound /t/ with the sound /k/. Both /t/ and /k/ in the words *utloa* and *ukoa* are stops, it maybe the reason behind this substitution. This substitution has resulted into a production of non-existing word in Sesotho “*ukoa*.” This non-existing word has distort the meaning of the whole sentence fully because this word was suppose to be the one which carries the meaning of this sentence.

As indicated in the previous chapter, the front vowels have been used interchangeably, some as the back vowels. As the result, the substituted vowels twist the noun, the verb or the adverb. The misleading verb, adverb or noun distorts the whole sentence fully. Typical examples are the words *itukisa*, *boile litsibi* and *theko*, which do not fit into the sentences for they have changed their meaning. /u/ and /o/, /i/ and /e/ are vowels each pair share some features. /u/ and /o/ are back semi-close vowels, /i/ and /e/ are front semi-vowels. In the word *itukisa* the sound /o/ has been substituted by the sound /u/. Likewise, the sound /o/ has been used instead of the sound /u/ in the word *boile*. The sound /i/ has been substituted by the sound /e/ in this word *litsibi* and likewise the sound /o/ has been substituted by the sound /e/ in the word *theko*. The sound /o/ has been substituted by the sound /u/ in the word *itukisa*. In the process, different words has been formed. *Boile* and *litsibi* do not exist,

whereas *itukisa* and *theko* exist in Sesotho but do not fit in these sentences therefore they have distorted the meaning of the sentences fully.

5.4 Adverbs

5.4.1 Conjunctively written Sesotho adverbs

As indicated in Chapter Four, Sesotho has three types of adverbs: temporal, locative and manner. The temporal adverbs written in numerals are supposed to be written disjunctively, but some of the students write them conjunctively.

Table 5.13 conjunctively written adverbs

Source text	Correct version	translation
47. Ka la17 Hlakubele ngoahola	Ka la 17 Hlakubele ngoahola.	On the 17 th February last year.

The above sentence shows how students conjunctively write this temporal adverb *ka la 17*. 'on the 17th'. The students have been noted for writing the temporal adverb with the numerals, conjunctively as shown in sentence 47 above. Sesotho does not write adverbial words written conjunctively with numerals. As Bagha (2011:1414) clarifies that the meaning of a sentence is characterized by the meanings of the distinct morphemes that make it up and the morphological and syntactic construction of the sentence. In the above example sentence, the individual morpheme *la17* has no meaning because Sesotho has no morphemes consisting of numbers. This word has rendered the whole sentence semantically unacceptable partially, with the morphological structure of the word unacceptable in Sesotho language.

5.4.2 Disjunctively written Sesotho adverbs

As indicated in Chapter Four, an adverb is the word which describes the predicate, adding something to the verb. With three types: temporal, locative and manner, all adverbial words are written conjunctively. Thetso (2018:21) declares that the phrase has meaning without an adverb because it has no grammatical function, it is elective,

she further indicates that merging the two has no substantial effect. This is to say with or without an adverb the sentence can still have the meaning, an adverb just adds the meaning to the verb.

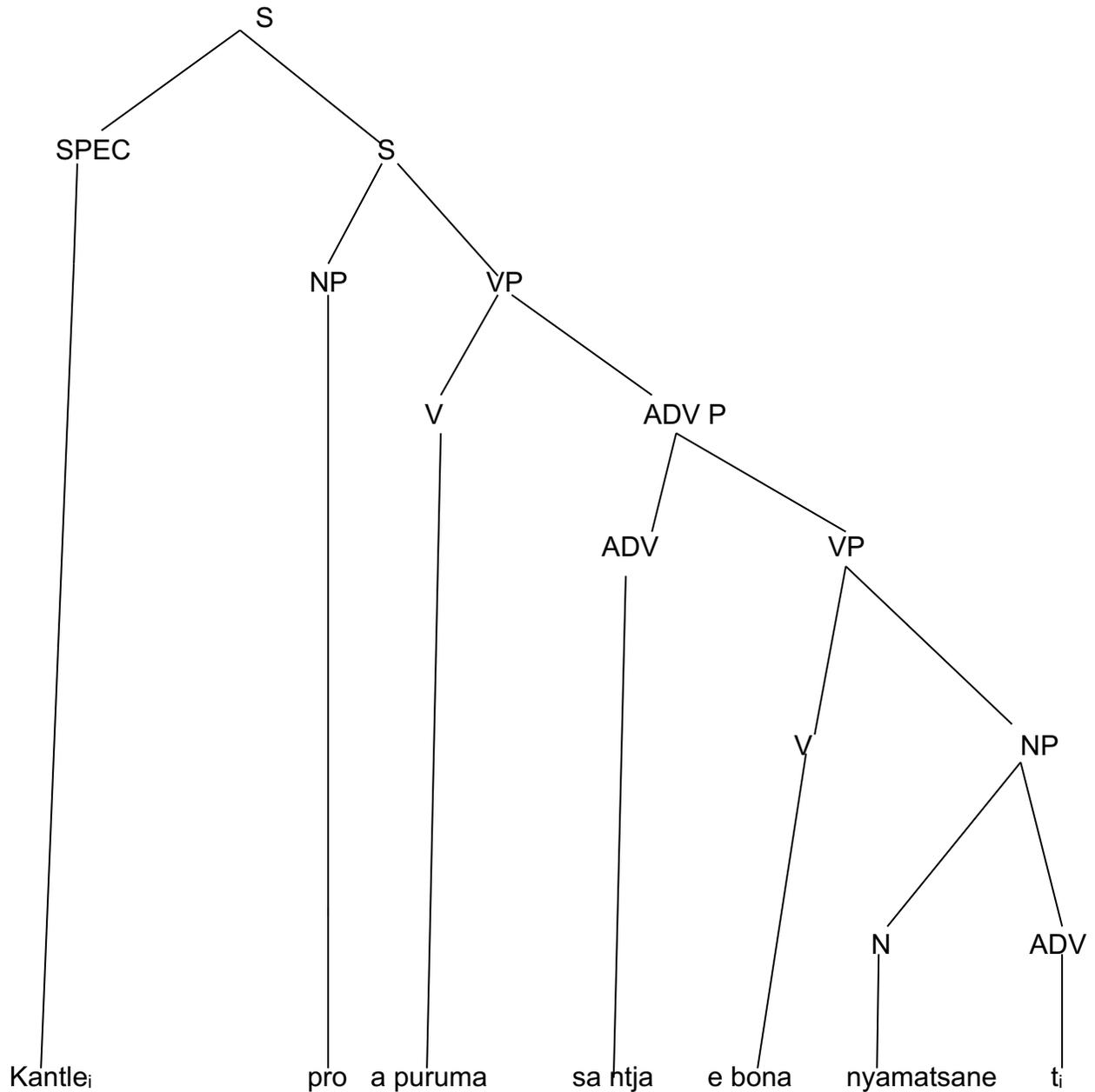
5.14 Disjunctively written adverb

Source text	Correct version	translation
48. Ka ntle a puruma sa ntja e bona nyamatsane.	Kantle a puruma sa ntja e bona nyamatsane	Outside, she was bellowing like a dog seeing its prey.
49. Ke ne ke tšohile hore e sebe ke sebelitse ha mpe.	Ke ne ke tšohile hore e sebe ke sebelitse hampe.	I was so scared that I had not performed well.
50. Ka sebetsa ka thata hantse ke ithukisetsa hooa tšoara lipapali...	Ka sebetsakathata ha ke ntse ke itokisetsa ho ea tšoara lipapali...	I worked so hard while I was preparing myself to host the games.

In sentences 48-50 above, the sentences would still be meaningful without the adjuncts as Thetso (2018:20) remarked that “since adjuncts do not satisfy any features, they are optional... they are hosted within a phrase but have no significant effect. The adjuncts *kantle* “outside”, *hampe* “not well’ and *kathata* “so hard” have been written disjunctively. In the sentences above, the adverbs are written disjunctively which has made the sentences morphologically unacceptable. In sentence 49, the second part of an adverb behaved like the adjectival stem with /tle/ attached to the adjectival concord /n/ in Class 9. In sentences 49 and 50, both adverbs of manner appear after the verbs which they modify. Noted here is that these adverbs derive from the words /be/ and /thata/ which

are the adjectival stem and relative stem respectively. If they are disjunctively written as in the above sentences, they cause confusion. In other words, other adverbial stems are correctly written if they are written disjunctively with the above adverbial prefixes. Unlike in sentences 48 and 49 where the adverbs have completely lost their meaning, in sentence 50, the adverb has changed the meaning. The adverb has changed the word class into a verb. *Ka thata* means 'I plaited', the process of derivation has taken place, but in all the sentences, the meaning is inaccurate. The adverbs are adjuncts and they normally follow the verbs in order to give more information about the verb. Sentence 48 will be used in a tree representation in order to illustrate how adverbs are written and their occurrence in a sentence. In sentence 48, *kantle* 'outside' has been moved from its face-generated position to the position of the SPEC. Therefore, the process of topicalisation has taken place.

Tree diagram 5.9 The adjuncts in Sesotho Sentence



Demuth (1990) posits that Sesotho is a pro-drop language. The author further explains that when the lexical subject is dropped the subject-verb agreement marker (sm) works as the subject of the sentence. In the above sentence, the subject has been dropped even though there is no subject-verb agreement marker. For Akaruese (2015) postulates Topicalization transformation permits some constituents to be moved from their original place to be put in the beginning of the sentence to mark it as topic of the

sentence. Topicalization has taken place in the sentence above. An adverb *kantle* ‘outside’ has been fronted or moved from its initial position to the front of a sentence. This word has been fronted because more emphasis is put on it. The students have disjunctively written this adverb, its morphology has changed and hence its meaning. Langendoen (2003) mentions that addition of adjuncts to heads has no limit like SPECs. *Kantle* ‘outside’ should be added to the head in a noun phrase; instead, it has been moved to the beginning of a sentence. *Kantle* ‘outside’ is an adjunct; it is discretionary, whose attachment to the phrase has no effect; with or without it that phrase conveys its meaning.

5.4.3 The use of abbreviation marks in Sesotho adverbs

Table 5.15 Abbreviation in Sesotho adverb

Source text	Correct version	Translation
51. Ke o behile pela ka mona.	Ke o behiloe pel’a ka mona	I had placed it next to me.

As mentioned before, the abbreviation marks are essential. In this sentence, *Ke o behile **pela ka mona***, *pela ka* is not abbreviated. Because of the lack of that abbreviation mark, the word has changed its word class, and the adverbial phrase has changed to a noun phrase, which does not fit in this sentence. The meaning of this word has changed fully and this has caused the the meaning of the sentence to change partially because the first phrase is meaningful. The acceptable sentence should be *Ke o behiloe pel’aka mona*. “I had placed it next to me.” In this word *pel’aka*, the abbreviation mark represents the deleted /e/ in *pele* and the deleted prefix *ho* and the double /n/ in the absolute pronoun *nna*, in full the word is *pele ho ’na* “next to me”

5.4.4 Substitution of sounds in Adverbs

The students interchangeably or substitute the sounds /u/, /o/, /q/, /g/, /k/, /l/, and /e/ and the past tense morpheme /-ile/ with other sounds. This substitution of sounds affects the words and the whole sentence.

5.16 Sustitution in adverbs

Source text	Corrected version	Translation
52. Li eme ka leqoa li hana ho tšela	Li eme ka Lekoa li hana ho tsela	It was stuck
53. Lelapa le leng ka theko.	Lelapa le leng ka thoko.	A different family aside

In sentence 52 *Li eme ka **leqoa** li hana ho tsela*, the verb *leqoa* derived from the verb *leqa* ‘lick’. the sound /k/ is substituted with the sound /q/. /k/ and /q/ are stops, are voiceless and ejective. Because these sounds have these features, this might be the reason why they are written interchangeably. The sound /k/ as in the noun *Lekoa* “Vaal river” has changed the word class into the verb. In this case, derivation has taken place. *Ka Lekoa* was the adverbial phrase, and the head of the adverbial phrase, with the adverbial prefix *ka*. *Ka leqoa* can neither be the verb phrase nor the adverbial phrase. This is because the verb phrase does not use /ka/ as the prefix. At the same time, the verbs are not used to form the adverbial phrases. This newly formulated adverbial phrase is semantically unacceptable, making the whole sentence semantically unacceptable. The words verb *lekoa* and the noun *theko* exist in Sesotho but do not fit in the sentences above, thereupon causing the meaning of this sentence to be partially misleading.

5.4.5 The omission of sounds in adverbs

Some words in Sesotho cause confusion in the orthography of Sesotho. The verb *fela* “finish” and the adverb-conjunction *feela* “only” are homophonous, that is having similar pronunciation, thus resulting in morphological and semantic confusion.

5.17 ommission of sounds in adverbs

Source text	Correct version	Translation
54. E itse ha ke hlaha fela aba nfofetse.	Eitse ha ke hlaha feela aba nfofetse	Hardly had I arrived and he had attacked me.
55. Fela le teng kea ipotsa na ke ilo phela joang.	Feela le teng kea ipotsa na ke ilo phela joang	At the same time I wonder how I am going to survive.

The adverb *feela* “merely, only” follows the verb and the conjunction *feela* “but, however” joins two clauses. If *feela* (only) is written as *fela*, (finish) it becomes a verb. To illustrate how the misspelling of this adverb-conjunction affects the semantics of the whole sentence, sentence 54 is used as an example. * *E itse ha ke hlaha fela aba nfofetse* in this sentence, the verb *fela* ‘finish’ follows the verbal phrase *e itse ha ke hlaha* ‘when I arrived’, and *fela* is followed by another verbal phrase *aba nfofetse*. Syntactically and semantically, the sentence is ungrammatical, this has been caused by the word *fela* ‘finish’. Both words *fela* and *feela* exists in Sesotho, however, in the above situation *fela* is being misplaced on that ground has caused the meaning of this sentence to be partially unacceptable. In each sentence one phrase is acceptable. In this sentence, *E itse ha ke hlaha feela a ba nfofetse*, ‘Hardly had I arrived he attacked me.’ the conjunction *feela* joins two phrases and the sentence is syntactically and semantically acceptable.

5.5 Conjunctions

5.5.1 Sesotho conjunctions and their morphology

Andersen (2014) and Gehring (2013) provide different types of conjunctions. Andersen (2014) notes that a subordinating conjunction produces a dependent clause that depends on the rest of sentence for meaning. On the other side Gehring (2013) clarifies that coordinating conjunctions join two equal words, phrases or clauses. Like other languages, Sesotho has both subordinating and coordinating conjunctions *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981) explains that the main function of the conjunction is to join

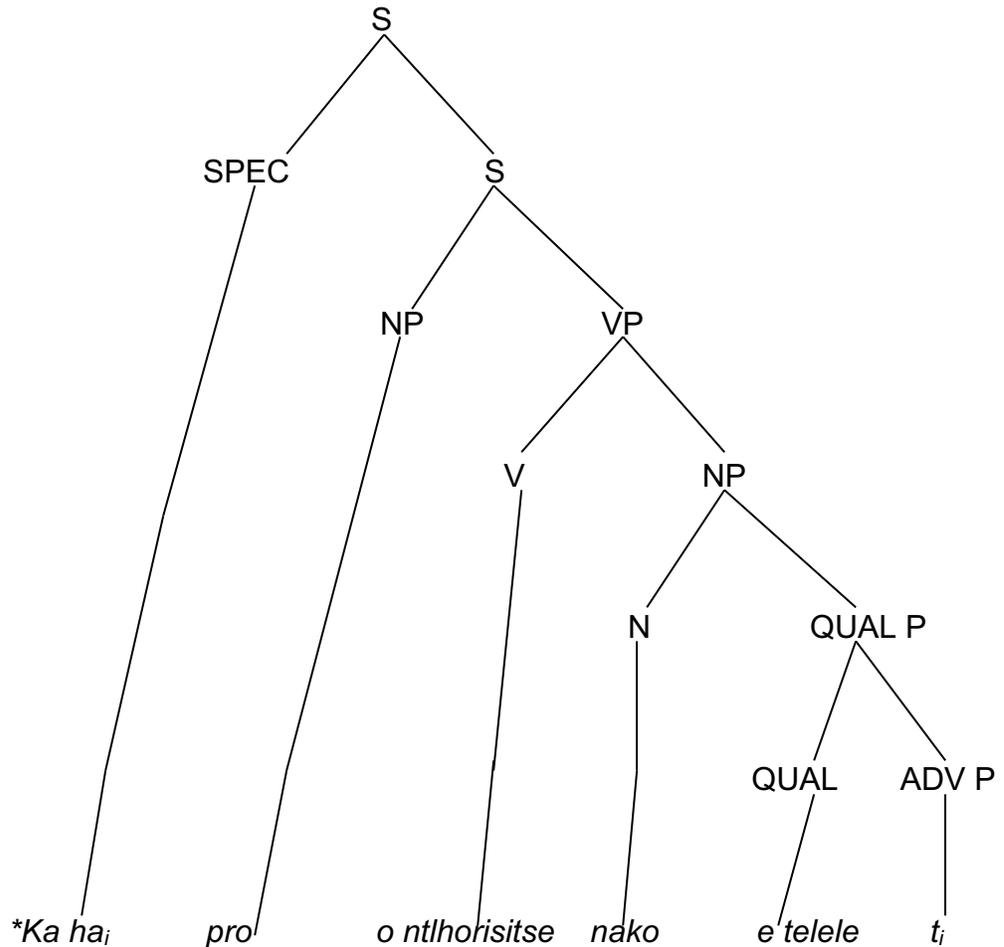
two substantive or two sentences. In Sesotho, the conjunction combines compound, complex and compound-complex sentences.

5.18 Sesotho conjunctions

Source text	Correct version	Translation
56. Ka ha o ntlhorisitse nako e telele.	Kaha o ntlhorisitse nako e telele.	Because he had brutalized me for so long
57. Ke lokela ke ho mo mophutha joalo ka haele ngoanaka	Ke lokela ke ho mo phutha joaloka ha e le ngoan'aka.	I am supposed to protect him because he is my child.
58. E re ka ha e ne ntse e le nako ea mariha...	Erekaha e ne e ntse e le nako ea mariha...	Due to the fact that it was still winter time...

The words in sentences 56-58 are conjunctions. These conjunctions are written disjunctively; as indicated before, all Sesotho conjunctions are written conjunctively. Because of their morphology, they have changed the word class as conjunctions to become locative and manner adverbs as well as the predicative. Sentence 56 is used to show how this disjunctive writing of a conjunction has distorted this sentence. The meaning has changed altogether; so are other sentences. * *Ka ha o ntlhorisitse nako e telele* “* at so and so place he had brutalised me for so long”. This sentence is not acceptable, syntactically the words *ka ha* ‘at so and so’s’ do not fit into this sentence.

Tree diagram 5.10 Disjunctive conjunction



The conjunction has changed word class into the adjunct (adverb); it has moved from its position to the beginning of the sentence, where it no longer serves as a conjuncting word.

In sentence 57, joalo ka is written disjunctively, it should be Joaloka because it is the conjunction. *Joalo* is the manner adverb, *ka* is mostly used as adverbial prefix. Because this conjunction is written disjunctively, its meaning is fully slanted and consequently has twisted the meaning of the whole sentence partially because the first phrase of this sentence is acceptable. In sentence 58, the highlighted word *e re ka ha* is disjunctively written. Each morpheme in this word is not adequate in this sentence. This conjunction should be written conjunctively as *erekaha*. The meaning

of this word is fully erroneous causing the meaning of this sentence to be partially distorted because the last phrase of this sentence is acceptable

5.5.2 The use of both conjunctive and disjunctive writing in the conjunction *hore* and the question word *na*

The question word *na* “whether or if” seemed to be problematic when occurring after the conjunction *hore* “that/ in order that”. Students either conjoin the question word *na* with *hore* or disjoin *hore*; they conjoin the first syllable of *hore* with *na* as in the cases below.

Table 5.19 Diconjunctive and conjunctive writing of *hore* and *na*

Source text	Corrected version	Translation
59. Ha re khutla emong a mpotsa ho rena ke utloa eka ke pasitse	Ha ke khutla emong a mpotsa <i>hore na</i> ke utloa pasitse.	When we came back one of them asked me if I felt like having passed.
60. Ka ba bolella ho reba re emele mabaleng.	Ka ba bolella <i>hore ba re</i> emele mabaleng	I told them to wait for us on the playgrounds.

In sentences 59 and 60 *hore* and *na* have written the highlighted words conjunctively and disjunctively. The conjunctive word */hore/* has been written disjunctively and conjunctively with the question word */na/* and the subjectival concord */ba/* to form new words *ho rena* “to govern” and *ho reba* “to stupify”. The words *ho rena* and *ho reba* exist in Sesotho. These words form part of verb phrase but are not appropriately used

in this sentence. The meaning of this words is fully distorted thus causing the meaning of the whole sentence to be distorted. The newly formed words do not fit into the above sentences, rendering the sentence meaningless. Also glaring in the data is misappropriation of both conjunctive and disconjunctive writing in Sesotho. The phenomenon could be realised in a case where the word should be written disjunctively or conjunctively. Such misappropriation may influence a newly formulated word with a new meaning in either way of the misappropriation. As a result, a sentence having a new meaning results. Taljard and Bosch (2006) compare IsiZulu and Northern Sotho, and they argue that the conclusion to implement either a conjunctive or disjunctive styles of writing was probably steered by an underlying realization that phonological systems of the two languages required different orthographical systems. The orthography of Sesotho in Lesotho is disjunctive like the Northern Sotho orthography. This is because most morphemes in these languages are syllabic and pose no problems for disjunctive writing. With examples cited in the sentences above, it shows in the documents that students have been found unaware of when and how to write the conjunction word *hore* and question word *na* disjunctively or conjunctively.

5.5.3 Omission of sounds in Sesotho conjunctions

5.6 Suffixation of /-nyana/ and /-nang/ in a verb and other parts of speech

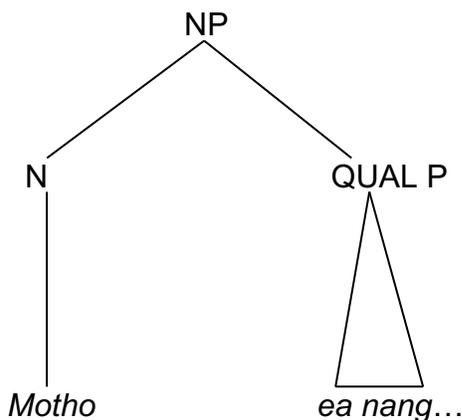
Sesotho has different ways of using affixes: prefixes and suffixes, most of which are used to the nouns and adjectival stem. Guma (1971:70) contends that Sesotho noun diminutives are formed by suffixes. He remarks that noun diminutive suffixes used in Sesotho are /-nyanal/, /-anal/, /-anel/ and /-anyanel/.

Table 5.20 Omission of sounds in conjunctions

Source text	Correct version	Translation
61. Ra botsa hore nang lipapali li qalile.	Ra botsa hore na lipapali li qalile.	We asked if the games had begun.
62. Monanang Tšitso o phoqa Baratang	Mona Tšitso o phoqa Baratang	Tšitso is really patronising Baratang.
63. Baratang a tholanyana a makaletse Tšitso	Baratang a thola-thola a makaletse Tšitso	Baratang went quite silent, for a short time shocked by Tšitso.

In sentence 61 * *Ra botsa hore nang lipapali li qalile* (Unable to translate because of *nang* the relative stem). *Nang* exists in Sesotho, it is used as a relative stem as in the following sentence. *Motho ea nang...* “A person who has...”. In Sesotho *nang* is neither used as a question word nor as the adverbial suffix. The misplacement of this word in sentences 61 and 62 has caused the meaning of these sentences to be distorted.

Tree diagram 5.11 Addition of suffixes



In this tree representation *nang* has served as the qualificative stem (relative). *Ea nang* the relative merges with the noun *motho*. In sentence 61, the word *nang*, is

misplaced. What was the student trying to say? Instead of using the question word *na* “if” as it is without any attachment, the student has changed the question word *na*, by attaching the suffix *-ng* to, thus changing the word completely. The change has affected or lost the meaning of the sentence partially, since *Nang* does not merge with any word in a sentence.

In sentence 62, the word *monanang* should be the word *mona*. The word *mona* ‘here’ can be treated as the demonstrative-locative-adverb because it shows the place where the object is; it also points to where the object is. Sesotho does not have *nang* as one of the suffixes. Hence, the word is distorted fully and affects the construction of the whole sentence as the meaning is partially distorted. Because the demonstrative-locativeadverb *mona* is an adjunct, with or without it the sentence *Tšitso o phoqa baratang* “Tšitso is patronising Baratang” still has a meaning. It would be better if it was left out instead of suffixing it with *nang*. *Lekhotla la Sesotho* (1981) indicates that locatives which are demonstratives can be prefixed with *ko-* as in *koo*, *koana*, *koano* and others which are not prefixed with *ko-* are *moo*, *mola*, and *mane*. In all these locative adverbs, there is no suffixation of *-nang*.

In sentences 63, * *Baratang a tholanyana a makaletse Tšitso*, the word in this sentence *tholanyana* does not exist in Sesotho, the verb *thola* should not be suffixed with diminutive suffix, this suffix is used to nouns and adjectival stem. The suffixation of this verb by the diminutive suffix has caused this verb to be distorted hence the meaning of the whole sentence. It is even difficult to translate the whole sentence. The correct sentence should be *Baratang a thola-thola a makaletse Tšitso* “Baratang paused, being shocked by Tšitso.” According to Guma (1971), verbal radicals can be reduplicated in three different ways: the radical is reduplicated together with its simplex extension, the radical and its simplex extension is reduplicated and an *-e-* is infix; lastly, the first two syllables of the radical are pre-fixed to the full radical. The student could have at least one of the above to show how silence was portrayed by Baratang.

5.6 Sound strengthening

As indicated in the previous chapter, the morphophonemic process of strengthening takes place when the reflexive prefix /i/ and the OC /n/ and /m/ are attached to the verbs. The table below shows how the students have used them.

Table 5.21 sound strengthening

Source text	Correct version	Translation
64. Che le teng khau ea nlokela	Che le teng khau ea ntokela	I deserve to be praise
65. O ile a njoetsa hore ena ka chebo ea hae o bona ke nna mohloli	O ile a ntjoetsa hore eena ka chebo ea hae o bona ke 'na mohloli.	He told me that he/she suspects that I am the winner
66. Tšitso o oa nrata	Tšitso o oa nthata	Tšitso loves me
67. Ke kopa u ntsoarele o nrappelle	Ke kopa u ntšoarele o nthappelle	I am asking for forgiveness and your prayer
68. Hona ebe ha a nhloea na?	Hona ebe ha a ntlhoea na?	Does he not hates me?
69. Tsohle tseo ke li entsoeng li nsoabisa	Tsohle tseo ke li entsoeng li ntšoabisa	All what happened to me make me feel ashamed

In sentences 64-69 the highlighted words are verbs, the objectival concords are prefixed to them, and consequently the morphophonemic process takes place. In all the documents where /n/ is prefixed the strengthening of sounds did not take place. Syntactically, the verbs have been used ungrammatically by the target students. Morphologically, the verbs *nlokela*, *njoetsa*, *nrata*, *nrappelle*, *nhloea* and *nsoabisa* are

unacceptable. The meaning of these words is partially distorted because the verbs involved can still be identified but this have led to semantically unacceptable sentences and words.

After the attachment, the following verbs should read as follows:

Lokela + /n/ should be Ntokela the sound // has strengthen to /t/ // / > /t/.

Joetsa + /n/ should be ntjoetsa the sound /j/ has strengthen to /tj/ /j/ > /tj/.

Rata + /n/ should be nthata the sound /r/ has strengthen to /th/ /r/ > /th/.

Rapelle + /n/ should be nthapelle the sound /r/ has strengthen to /th/ /r/ > /th/.

Hloea + /n/ should be ntlhoea the sound has strengthen to /tlh/ /hl/ > /tlh/

Soabisa + /n/ should be ntšoabisa the sound has strengthen to /tš/ /s/ > /tš/.

After the attachment of the OC of the first-person singular, the students did not change any sound, nor did the process of strengthening take place. The sounds were written as if there is no attachment of the OC.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed how conjunctive and disjunctive writing, omission, addition and substitution affect the meaning of a sentence in Sesotho. In cases where such processes obtain, the sentences become distorted, with the meaning being lost. In other cases, even the structure of the whole sentence is affected.

CHAPTER 6 :FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Introduction

This study investigated the changes found in the orthography of Sesotho. The aim of this study is to find the changes in found in Sesotho orthography, and the nature of these changes. The theories employed are Minimalist Programme, Mophological theory and the Semantic theory. The theories helped to identify how the words are formulated and how the sentences are constructed and whether the words and sentences constructed still maintain the rules of Sesotho orthography. The study was conducted at three selected high schools in Thaba-Tseka, the scripts were collected from Grade 11 students. The study employed document analysis to analyse the data.

6.1 Summary of the Main Findings

The data was collected from the grade 11 students and the study finds out that, students were taught Sesotho orthography as expected but but because of the influences they have from the outside they make some mistakes which seems to be common in all three schools. The students write some syntactic categories in unacceptable ways. Some are written conjunctively for instance, the adjective, e.g *e mong*, *e 'ngoe*, subjectival concords and verb stem *mo thabela* and the temporal adverbs build with numerals *La 17*. Lekhotla la Sesotho (1981) indicates that the above words should be written disjunctively. They become semantically unacceptable if they are written conjunctively. Some syntactic categories have been written disjunctively as against Sesotho orthography. The students write disjunctively some nouns, conjunctives, the demonstrative, the enumerative, adverbs and verbs. For example, Nouns: *leloko*, *bahlanka*, Conjunctions: *erekaha*, *kaha*, demonstrative: *enoa*, enumerative: *efe*. Adverb: *kantle*, verbs: *bonahala*. Kathekiso et al (2009) explain that words that are demonstratives, conjunctions enumerative and adverbs are written conjunctively. They syntactically write them in the write position but morphologically wrong. The students have the problem of writing the conjunction *hore*, they write it disjunctively and conjunctively with the words that follow it, for example. *hore na*, *hore ba* they write it as *ho rena* or *ho reba* respectively. Students use some affixes in the

way they are not accepted in Sesotho. For example they use diminutive suffix *-nyana* in the verb instead of the nouns. They also attach a new suffix *-nang* which does not exist in Sesotho in demonstrative-adverb *mona* and in other demonstratives. Wittgenstein (1953) in non-referential theory of meaning says the meaning of the word is explained by its use in the language, this means if the students use these suffixes in such a way that they are not used in Sesotho, they are meaningless. They make mistakes like omitting subjectival concord *ke* and the tense marker *ile* in phrases like *ke ile ka...* and write it as *ke la*. The students have a problem of using the abbreviation mark correctly in words like, *'m'e*, *'me 'm'ae*, *ntat'ae*, *'na 'ngoe*, it is either they misplace the abbreviation mark or they leave it out altogether. The students interchangeably use the sounds /q/, /g/ and /k/. They do not know when and how to use these sounds. In the possessive *abo*, the students add the sound /h/ which in turn changes the word class and become an adverb *habo*.

6.2 Limitations of the study (Problems encountered)

As a mountainous district, Thaba-Tseka always experiences cold weather with regular snowfall in winter. Reaching out to the target schools at this time of the year is not that easy, since the schools are closed. Initially the intention was to collect scripts from Grade 10 students but because of Covid-19, the teachers were not comfortable to give Grade 10 scripts because they did not attend school properly because of the pandemic rather they opted for Grade 11 scripts instead.

Some of the anticipated problems for this study include obtaining permission from the education office as the process might take long. The letter asking for permission should go through different offices or stages for approval by the authorities concerned. In the same way, obtaining information from the target students' examinations caused some inconvenience for teachers because they wanted to mark their scripts immediately after the examinations despite having the purpose of the study explained to them by the researcher. Besides, shifts of classes due to the Covid-19 pandemic have impacted on the access to the students' scripts for data collection, by prolonging the period for data collection.

6.4 Suggestions for Further Research (Recommendations)

NCDC should encourage teachers to teach *sebopeho-puo* 'Sesotho grammar' in schools and it should be awarded at least 50% marks in the examinations, this is because without *sebopeho-puo* students will never write the orthography of Sesotho correctly. Students should strongly be taught how to write different syntactic categories: the substantive, qualificative, and parts of the predicate. There should be more workshops for teachers regularly, which will equip them with tools that will help them on how to teach Sesotho. Parents should be encouraged to speak Sesotho correctly when they are with students at home. Government should be encouraged to have and evaluate language policy time and again. The policy should be enforced. The media, that is, all Lesotho radio stations, TV Lesotho and all newspapers be advised to employ experts who will edit their articles, the news, and speech before they can go in public. This is because people especially the youth take what is said in radio stations and newspapers as correct. Speech made by government officials be edited by Sesotho linguistic experts before they can be read in public. Parliamentarians and senators be encouraged to speak Sesotho in a proper way.

6.5 Conclusion

Sesotho is Basotho's heritage, their pride and part of their culture. It needs to be protected, with what the study have found and with what have triggered this study, it shows that Sesotho orthography is in danger. This study is triggered by an unacceptable usage of Sesotho orthography in the social media and an unacceptable Sesotho spoken by the youth. To prevent the already existing problem to continue, these are the recommendations to help and to stop the already existing problem.

References

- Andersen, A. 2014. *Sentence Types and Functions*. San José State University Writing Center. www.sisu.edu/writingcenter
- Adomako, K. 2008. *Vowel Epenthesis and Consonant Deletion in Loanwords: A Study of Akan*. Unpublished master's Dissertation. University of Tromsø: Norway
- Adosi, C. M. 2020. *Qualitative Data Collection Instruments: The most challenging and easiest to use*. Institute for Education Planning and Administration. University of cape Coast. <https://www.researchgate>
- Agha, A. 2007. *Language and Social Relations*. New York: Cambridge University press.
- Akaruese, C. U. 2015. *Topicalization and Passivisation in the English Language*. African Journals Online Vol 7 No. 2 www.ajol.info
- Akhtar, I. 2016. *Research Design*. Research in Social Science: Interdisciplinary Perspectives. <https://www.researchgate.net>
- Al-Horais, N. 2013. *The Minimalist Program and its New Insight to the Concept of Universal Grammar*. Journal of Universal language Vol. 14 No. 2 Pp 79-112
- Al Khattab, E. R. 2018. *Vowel Harmony: an Historical Account*. Advances in Language and Literary Studies Vol. 9 No. 1 Pp 106-109
- Allison, I. O. 2017. *Vowel Deletion and Insertion in Úwù*. Journal of Language and Education. Vol. 3 No. 2 Pp 19-29 accessed on the 17/04/20 from <https://www.ssrn.com/>
- Alshenqeeti, H. 2014. *Interviewing as a Data collection Method: A Critical Review*. English Linguistics Research. Vol 3 No 1 Pp 39-45
- Anderson R. 2007. *Thematic Content Analysis (TCA) Descriptive Presentation of Qualitative Data* <https://www.wellknowingconsulting.org>.

- Anderson, W. N. & Kotže P. 2006. *Finite State Tokenization of an Orthographical Disjunctive Agglutinative Language: The verbal segment of Northern Sotho*. Accessed 2nd August 2019 <https://www.aclweb.org>anthology>
- Antindogbé, G. 2013. *A Grammatical Sketch of Mòkpè (Bakweri) Bantu A20*. African Study Monographs, sup Vol 45 No. 5. Pp 163 accessed on the 22/04/20 from <https://repository.kulibkyoto->
- Apuke, O. D. 2017. *Quantitative Research Methods: A Synopsis Approach*. Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Vol 6 No. 11 Pp 40-47
- Arkadiev, P. and Klamer, M. 2016 *Morphological Theory and Typology* (2nd revised version) Institute of Slavic Studies of the Russian Academy of Sciences. Leiden University. <https://www.researchgate.net>
- Aro, M. & Wimmer H. 2003. *Learning to read: English in Comparison to Six More Orthographies*. Applied Psycholinguistics Vol. 24. No.4 Pp 621-635
- Aronoff, M. & Fudeman, K. 2011. *What is Morphology*. Blackwell Publishing
- Azizi, E., & Sadighi, F. 2015. *Minimalist Program and Ease Language Acquisition: Investigating Chomsky's Uniformity, Simplicity and Economy*. The IAFOR International Conference on Education. Dubai. <https://pdfs.semantics.org/39f8/a8339e6e70d9fc535dfa0d36687170c439f.pdf>
Accessed on the 29/01/20
- Bagha, K. N. 2011. *A Short Introduction to Semantics*. Journal of Language Teaching and Research. Vol2. No. 6 Pp 1411.1419.
- Banda, F. 2008. *Orthography Design and harmonization in Development in Southern Africa*. Open Space for a Journal Vol 2 No. 3 Pp 39-48
- Beauchamp, T. L. and Childress, J. F. 1994. (4th ed). *Principles of Biomedical Ethics*. New: Oxford University Press

- Bowen, G. A. 2009. *Document Analysis as a Qualitative Research method*. Qualitative Research Journal. Vol. 9 No. 2 pp 27-40
- Boyatzis, R. E. 1998. *Transforming Qualitative Information: Thematic Analysis and Code Development*. Sage Publications. Inc.
- Brahma, A. 2021. *Word Formation in Dimasa*. Journal of the Southeast Asian Linguistics Society. Vol. 4 No.1 Pp i-xviii
- Brooks, P. and Kempe V. (eds) 2014. *Encyclopedia of Language Development*. London: SAGE reference
- Burns, N. and Grove, S. K. 2001. *The Practice of Nursing Research, Conduct, Critique, and Utilization* 4th edition, W. B. Saunders Company Philadelphia
- Burton, D. and Bartlett, S. 2005. *Practitioner Research for Teachers*. London: SAGE
- Bussetto, L., Wick W. and Gumbinger 2020. *How to Use and Assess Quality Research Methods*. Neurological Research and Practice. Vol 2 No. 14 Pp 1-26
- Chanda, V. M. 2002. *Orthography Planning Across Languages and countries: some Thought and Proposals*. In Banda F. (ed) *Language Across Border* Cape Town: CASAS Pp 27-50
- Chomsky, N. 1965. *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. 1975. *Studies on Semantics in Generative Grammar*. Mouton: The Hague Paris
- Chomsky, N. 1995. *The Minimalist Program*. The MIT Press: Cambridge
- Cohen, L. Manion, L and Morrison, K. 2007. *Research Methods in Education* (6th) London: Routledge
- Cook, M. J. 2016. *How does Learning about Affixes (prefixes and suffixes) help English Language Learners (ELLS) Understand the Meaning and use of Affixes*. School of education student capstone. Theses and

Dissertations. Accessed on the 12/06/20 from
<https://digitalcommons.hamline.edu>

Creemers, A., Don, J. and Fenger P. 2018. *Some affixes are roots, others are heads*.
Natural Language and Linguist Theory. Vol. 36 No. 1 Pp 45-84.

Crystal, D. 2008. *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. USA: Blackwell Publishing.

Daglish S. L., Khalid, H. and McMahon, S. A. 2020. *Document Analysis in Health Policy
Research: the READ approach*. Health Policy and Planning. Pp 1424-1431

Daries, M. A. and Probert, T. 2020. *A linguistic analysis of spelling errors in errors in
Grade 3 isiXhosa home-language learners*.

Dawood, H.S. A & Atawneh, A. 2015. *Assimilation of Consonants in English and
Assimilation of the Definite Article in Arabic American*. Research Journal of
English and Literature Vol. 1 No.4 Pp 1-15

Demuth, K. 1988. *Unifying Organizational Principles in the Development of
Orthographic Conventions*. Workshop on orthography. Maputo. Retrieved on the
07/02/20. <https://www.orthographyclearinghouse.org>

Demuth, K. (1990). *Subject, topic and the Sesotho passive*. Journal of Child Language,
Vol. 17 No. 1 Pp 67–84.

Demuth, K. 2007. *Sesotho Speech Acquisition*. Pp 526-538 <https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu>
accessed on 13/032021

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y.S. 2005. *Introduction: The Discipline and Practice of
Qualitative research*. In Denzin, and Lincoln (eds), *The SAGE handbook of
qualitative research* (3rd ed) Pp 1-32 Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln Y.s. 2011. *The SAGE handbook of Qualitative Research*.
London: SAGE

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln Y. S. (Eds). 2013. *Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative
Material*. London: SAGE

- de Schryver, G-M. and Gauton R. 2002. *The Zulu Locative Prefix ku-revisited: a Corpus-Based Approach*. Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies Vol 20 Pp 201-220
- Deumert, A. and Vandebussche, W. 2003. *Standard Languages: Taxonomies and Histories*. Monash University: Australia accessed on the 12/06/20 from <https://www.semanticscholar.org>
- Devlin, J.T., Jamison, H. L. Matthews and Gonnerman, L. M. 2004. *Morphology and Internal Structure of Words*. McClelland, James (ed) Pittsburgh: Carnegie Mellon University
- de Vries M. 2005. *Merge: Properties and Boundary Conditions*. <https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu>
- Donaldson, C. 2017. *Orthography, Standardization, and Register: The case of Manding*. GSE Graduate Student Research 2. Accessed from <https://repository.upenn.edu/gse-22/05/20>
- Ezzy, D. 2002. *Qualitative Analysis: Practice and Innovation*. London: Routledge.
- Fábregas, A. 2020. *Infixes: Right in the Middle*. <http://www.academia.edu> accessed 28/12/2020
- Fernandes, G. 2019. *Missionary and Subsequent in Africa*. Cambridge World History of Lexicography. John C, 658-681 (ed) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/9781316827437.032>
- Finegan, E. 2007. *Language, Its Structure and Use*. (5th edition) Canada: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Fishman, J. A. 2001. *Language Policy: Linguistic Perspectives*. International Encyclopedia of Social and Behavioral Sciences. Accessed on the 11/06/2020 from <https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/social-sciences/language>
- Flick, U. 2014. *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*. (5th ed) London: SAGE Publications Ltd

- Firth, J. R. 1951. *General Linguistics and Descriptive Grammar*. Transactions of the Philological Society Vol. 50 No. 1 Pp 69-87 <https://doi.org>
- Gayo, H. and Widodo, P. 2018. *An Analysis of Morphological and Syntactical Errors on the English Writing of Junior High School Indonesian Students*. International Journal of Learning Teaching and Educational Research. Vol. 17 No. 4 Pp 58-70
- Goswami, U., Ziegler, J. C., Dalton, L. and Schneider, W. 2003. *Nonword Reading Across Orthographies: How Flexible is the Choice of Reading units?* Applied Psycholinguistics Vol. 24 No. 2 Pp 235-247 Accessed on the 11/06/2020 from www.researchgate.net>
- Goundar, P. R. 2017. *The Characteristics of Language Policy and Planning Research: An Overview*. Socio linguistic-interdisciplinary Xiaoming Jiang Intech open. Accessed on the 11/06/2020 from <https://www.intech>
- Guma, S.M. 1971. *An Outline Structure of Southern Sotho*. Shuter and Shooter: Pietermaritzburg.
- Guthrie, M. 1948. *The classification of the Bantu languages*. The International African Institute by the Oxford University Press: Oxford
- Harwell, M. R. 2011. *Research Design in Qualitative /Quantitative/Mixed methods*. The SAGE hand book for Research in Education; Pursuing Ideas as the Keystone of Exemplary Inquiry. <https://dx.doi.org>
- Harya, T. D. 2016. *Language Change and Development: Historical Linguistics*. Premise: Journal of English Education Vol 5 No 1 Pp 103-117
- Hasanah, A. A. 2014. *An Analysis on the English Affixation Usage in News Column of Jakarta Post Newspaper on Monday and Sunday Editions* Vol 31 Pp 337-338. Cirebon <https://core.ac.uk>
- Haugen, E. 1966a. *Language Conflict and language Planning: The Case of Modern Norwegian*. Cambridge, MA Harvard University Press

- Hornstein, N., Nunes, J. & Grohmann, K.K. 2005. *Understanding Minimalism*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyman, L. M. 2003. *Segmental Phonology from the Bantu Languages*. Routledge. <https://www.routledgehandbooks.com> accessed on the 12/03/2021
- Igwenagu, C. 2016. *Fundamentals of Research Methodology and Data Collection*. LAP Lambert Academic Publishing
- Jansen, D. and Warren, K. 2020. *What (Exactly) Is Research Methodology? A plain-Language Explanation and Definition*.
- Johnson, R. B. and Christensen, L. 2014. *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed approaches* (5th ed) Los Angeles: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Johnson D. C. (2013) *What is Language Policy? In: Language Policy. Research and Practice in Applied Linguistics*. Palgrave Macmillan: London accessed on the 11/06/20 from <https://link.springer.com>
- Kabir, S. M. S. 2016. *Methods of Data Collection. Basic Guidelines for Research*. Curtin University Pp 201-320. <https://www.researchgate.net>>
- Katamba, F. 1993. *Morphology*. Macmillan Press LTD: London
- Kathekiso, J., Matia, M. and Ramaili M. 2005. *Letlotlo Buka ea 2*. Longman: Lesotho
- Kathekiso, J., Matia, M. and Ramaili M. 2009. *Letotolo*. Longman: Lesotho
- Kerlinger F. N. Lee H. B. (eds) 2000. *Foundations of Behavioral Research* 4th edition Wasworth / Thomson
- Khan, T. 2016. *IsiZulu Adoptives from English and Afrikaans: An Optimality Theory analysis*. Thesis . University of Witwatersrand. Johannesburg.

- Khweyane, M. A. 2014. *The Influence of the Dialect Sepulana on the Learning of Sepedi at Sabie Circuit, Mpumalanga Province, South Africa*. Dissertation. Limpopo: University of Limpopo.
- Kielmann, K., Cataldo, F. and Seeley, J. (2012). *Introduction to Qualitative Research Methodology: A Training Manual*, produced with the support of the Department for International Development (DfID), UK, under the Evidence for Action Research Programme Consortium on HIV Treatment and Care (2006-2011) . <http://www.dfid.gov.uk>
- Kivunja, C. 2017. *Understanding and Applying Research Paradigms in Educational Contexts*. International Journal of Higher Education Vol 6 No. 5 Pp 41 <http://ijhe.sciedupress.co>
- Kothari, C. R. 2004. *Research Methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Delhi: New age International (p) Limited Publishers
- Krippendorp, K. 2004. *Content Analysis: An Introduction to its Methodology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Land, S. J. 2015. *Reading isiZulu: Reading Process in an Agglutinative Language with a Transparent Orthography*. Thesis Pietermaritzburg.
- Langendoen, D. T.2003. *Merge*. University of Arizona www.researchgate.net
- Language Manual 11 1996. *Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)* <https://www.livelingua.com>
- Leedy, P. D. and Ormrod, J. C. 2005. *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. Prentice Hall. Saddle River, <http://www.worldcat.org>
- Lekhotla la Sesotho 1981. *Sebopeho-puo sa Sesotho 1*. Mazenod: Mazenod Book Centre
- Lekhotla la Sesotho 1984. *Sebopeho-puo sa Sesotho 11*. Mazenod: Mazenod Book Centre
- Lekgoko, O. and Winskel, H. 2008. *Learning to Read Setswana and English: Cross-Language Transference of Letter Knowledge, Phonological Awareness*

- and Word Reading Skills. Perspectives in Education Vol 26 (4)*
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/299022350> accessed on the 15/03/20
- Levers M. D. 2013. *Philosophical Paradigms, Grounded Theory, and Perspectives on Emergence*. SAGE Open: SAGE
- Linneberg, M. S. and Korsgaard, S. 2019. *Coding Qualitative data: a Synthesis Guiding the Novice*. <https://researgate.net>
- Lo Bianco, J. 2010. *Language Policy and Planning*. In Hornberger, N.H. and Mckay S. L. (eds) *Sociolinguistics and language education*. Pp 143-176. Clevedon GBR: Multilingual Matters. From https://www.researchgate.net/publication_on_the_11/06/2020
- Lockyer, D. 2014. *The Emotive Meanings and Functions of English 'diminutives' interjections in Twitter posts*. *Journal of Theoretical Linguistic*. Vol 11. No 2. Pp 68-89 <https://www.skase.sk/Volumes/>
- Louwrens, L.J. and Poulos, G. 2009. *The Status of the Word in Selected Conventional writing Systems - The Case of Disjunctive Writing*. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*. Vol 24. No. 3 Pp 389-401
- Mack, N., Woodsong, C., Macqueen, K. M., Guest, G. Namey E. 2005. *Qualitative Research Methods: A data collector's Field Guide*. North Caroline: USAID
- Madigoe, M. W. 2003. *Syllable Structure Processes in Northern Sotho. A Linear and Non-linear Phonological Analysis*. Dessertation University of Stellenbosch
- Mahlangu, K. S. 2015. *The Growth and Development of isiNdebele Orthography and Spelling (1921-2010)* Dessertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria
- Majid, U. 2018. *Research Fundamentals: Study Design, Population and Sample Size*. URNCST
- Makoa, M. F. 2007. *An Analysis of Phonological Processes in Some Sesotho Affixes and Verbal Extentions*. Unpublished Dissertation. National University of Lesotho

- Malatji, E. J. 2019. *The Impact of Social Media in Conserving African Languages amongst Youth in Limpopo Province*. Dissertation. University of Limpopo
- Malete, E. N. 2008 *The Syntax and Morphology of the Negative Morphemes /sa/ in Sesotho*. Macrolinguistics. Learned press Pp 105-126
<https://www.researchgate.net>
- Manyau, T. A. 2007. *The State of French in Lesotho: Local "ownership" as the only Viable Way Forward*. A multidisciplinary Journal of Arts, Social and behavioural Sciences. Vol 5 No 2 pp 129-144
- Masowa, A. M. 2016. *The Forms and Functions of Negation in Sesotho*. Master of Arts dissertation. University of the Free State
- Matlosa, L. 2017. *Sesotho Orthography Called into Question: The case of Some Sesotho Personal Names*. Nomina Africana Vol. 32 No.1 Pp 51-58
- Matsoso, L. M. 2001. *Lesotho's National Language Policy in the Silent Voices of Ethnic Minority Language Basotho*. A study funded by the Educational Research Network of Eastern and Southern Africa (ERNESA)
- Mayor, M. 2009. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. England: Pearson Longman
- Mayring, P. 2004. *Qualitative Content Analysis*. In U. Flick, E. von Kardoff and I. Steinke (eds) *A Companion to Qualitative Research*. London: Sage
- Mbah, B. M. 2012. *Circumfixation: Interface of Morphology and Syntax in Igbo Derivational Morphology*. IOSR Journal of Humanities and social Science (JHSS) Vol 5 No. 6 Pp 01-08 accessed on the 10/03/21 www.iosrjournals.org
- McCormack, A. 2006 *A Further Look at Conjunctive and Disjunctive Forms in Setswana*. ZAS papers in Linguistics 43, Pp 123-141 accessed on the 27 July 2019. [citeseerx.ist.psu.edu>viewdoc>download](http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download)
- Mishra, S. B. and Alok, S. 2017. *Handbook of Research: A Compendium for scholars and Researchers*. New Delhi: Educreation Publishing <https://researchgate.net>

- Moeketsi, V. S. M. 2014. *The Demise of Sesotho Language in the Democratic South Africa and its Impact on the Socio-Cultural Development of the Speakers*. J. Sociology. Soc. Anth, Vol 5 No. 2 Pp 217-224
- Mohasi, L. and Mashao, D. 2014. *Phonetization for Text-to-speech Synthesis in Sesotho*. <http://www.researchgate.net>
- Molepo, L. N. 2014. *The Designation of Language Naming: Sepedi/Sesotho sa Leboa*. Mini Dissertation. University of Limpopo
- Morly R. L. 2018. *Is phonological Consonant Epenthesis Possible? A series of Artificial Grammar Learning Experiments* <https://www.asc.ohio>
- Munyadziwa, M. A. and Nncwango, M. 2021. *Promoting the Use of Indigenous Languages on Social Media*. International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science. Volume V Issue V.
- Nfila, B. I. 2002. *Standard in Setswana in Botswana*. Dissertation. Pretoria: university of Pretoria. <http://hdl.handle.net/2263/28678> accessed on the 06/02/20
- Nkosi, D. M. 2008. *Language Variation and Change at Soshanguve High School*. Dessertation. Pretoria:University of South Africa.
- Nordquist, R. 2019. *What are Derivational Morphemes?* Thought co. thoughtco.com/derivational-morpheme-words-1690381
- Nurse, D. and Philipson, G. 2019. *Common Tense-aspect Markers in Bantu*. Journal of African Languages and Linguistics. <https://www.researchgate.net>
- Nxumalo, M. 1993. *Diminutives in isiZulu*. Master of arts in African Languages. Dissertation University of Johannesburg. <https://ujcontent.uj.za/vital/access/manager/index?site>
- Oberheu, N. M. 2012. *English Orthography and Phonetics: The Basics*. Colorado State University. <https://www.nicholeoberheu.com> pp 1-10

- Onwuta, G. C. and Ojinuka, N. H. 2018. *A Case for Circumfixation in English*. FAHSANU Journal of the Arts/Humanities. Vol. 1 No. 1 Pp 1-12 accessed on the 10/03/21 www.researchgate.net
- Owen, G. T. 2014 *Qualitative Methods in Higher Education policy Analysis: Using Interviews and Document analysis*. The Qualitative Report Vol 19 Article 52 Pp 1-1 <http://www.nova.edu>
- Nowell, L. S., Norris, J.M. White, D. E., and Moules N. J. 2017 *Thematic analysis: Striving to meet the Trustworthiness Criteria*. International Journal of Qualitative Methods. Vol 16 No 1 Pp 1-13 SAGE
- Pandey, P. and Padey M. M. 2015. *Research Methodology: Tools and Techniques*. Romania: Bridge Center
- Pâquet G. S 1965. *Our Southern Sesotho Orthography*. Mazonod: The Catholic Centre.
- Patton, M. Q. and Cochran, M. 2002. *A Guide to Using Qualitative Research Methodology*. Medicins sans Frontiers. <https://alnap.org>
- Pham, L. 2018. *A review of key paradigms: Positivism interpretivism and Critical inquiry*. University of Adelaide. <https://researchgate.net>
- Pretorius, R., Berg, A., Pretorius L. And Viljoen B. 2009. *Setswana Tokenisation and Computational Verb Morphology: Facing the Challenge of a Disjunctive Orthography*. accessed on the 12th October 2019. <https://www.aclweb.org/anthology/W09-0710.pdf>
- Probert, T. & De Vos, M. 2016. 'Word Recognition Strategies Amongst isiXhosa/English Bilingual Learners: The Interaction of Orthography and Language of Learning and Teaching'. Reading & Writing Vol. 7 No. 1 a84 accessed on the 14/09/19 <https://dx.doi.org/10.4102/rw.v7il.84>
- Probert, T. N. 2019. *A Comparison of the Early Reading Strategies of isiXhosa and Setswana First Language Learners*. SAJCE. Vol 9 No1 Pp 1-12. http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=s2223-

- Rabale, k. 2020 Personal communication.
- Ramadan, S. M. and Ababneh, I. 2013. *Theories of Semantics: Merits and Limitations*. Arab English Journal. Vol 4 No. 3 Pp 308-316
- Ramphobole, M. and Morolong, M. 2009. *Meso 4*. Mcmillan;Maseru
- Ramscar, M. 2013. *Suffixing, Prefixing and the Functional order of Regularities in Meaningful Strings*. Vol 46 No. 4 Pp 377-396. Serbian Psychological Association University of Tübingen:Germany. <https://www.sfs.uni-luebingen.de>>
- Rosenberg, S. and Weisfelder, R. F. 2013. *Historical Dictionary of Lesotho*. Maryland: Scarecrow Press Inc. accessed on the 13/02/20. <https://www.books.google.co.ls>
- Schiffman, H. F. 1996. *Linguistic Culture and Language Policy*. London: Routledge.
- Schneider, K. P. and Strubel-Burgdorf, S. 2011. *Diminutive –let in English*. universität Bonn: Germany. <https://www.skase.sk/volumes>
- Sekere, N. B. 2004. *Sociolinguistic Variation in Spoken and Written Sesotho: A case of Speech Varieties in QwaQwa*. Dissertation. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Setaka, M. 2018. *Corpus-based Lexicography for Sesotho*. Dissertation. University of Pretoria.
- Shafiee, S. 2014. *Semantics: The Analysis of Meaning*. Islamic Azad University.
- Siegel, D. 1979. *Topics in English Morphology*. New York: Garland
- Sipra, M. A. 2013. *Impact of English Orthography on L2 Acquisition*. English Language Teaching. Vol.6 No.3 Pp 116-124
- Smarkman, D. 2012. *The Definition of the Standard Language. A survey in Seven Countries*. International Journal of the Sociology of Language. Pp 25-58. Laiden University Accessed on the 02/05/20 <https://www.semanticscholar.org>

- Songxaba, S. L. and Sincuba, L. 2019. *The Effect of Social Media on English Second Language Essay Writing with special reference to WhatsApp*. Reading and Writing Vol 10 No 1 a179 Pp 1-7 <https://doi.org/10.4102/rw.v10i.179>
- Spencer, A. 1994. *Morphological Theory and English*. Links & Letters1, (71-84) University of Essex.
- Spolsky, B. 2005. *Language Policy*. In Cohen, J. McAlister K. T, Rolstad, K., MacSwan, J. (eds) Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press. From www.lingref.com/isb/4/1681SBA.PDF
- Steriopolo, O. 2013. *Diminutive affixes in the number domain: A Syntactic Variation in Blaszczak Joanna* (ed) Questions and Answers in Linguistics. Vol.1 No. 2 Pp 33-55 University of Wroclaw:Poland
- Stewart, W. 1968. *A Sociolinguistic Typology for Describing National Multilingualism*. In Joshua Fishman (ed) Readings in the sociology of language. The Hague: Mouton
- Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. 1990. *Basics of Qualitative Research*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE
- Strauss, A. and Corbin, J. 2015. *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded theory*. London: SAGE
- Taherdoost, H. 2016. *Sampling Methods in Research Methodology;How to Choose a Sampling Technique for Research*. International Journal of Academic Research in Management. (IJSRM) Vol 5 No 2 Pp 18-27.
- Taljad, E. & Bosch S. E. 2006. *A Comparison of Approaches to Word Class Tagging: Disjunctively vs. Conjunctively Written Bantu Languages*. Nordic Journal of African Studies. Vol 15 No. 4: Pp 428-442
- Taraldsen, K. T., Medova, L. T. and Langa, D. 2018. *Class Prefixes as Specifiers in Southern Bantu*. Natural Language and Linguistic Theory. <https://www.researchgate.net>

- Tashakkri, A. and Teddlie (eds) 2010. *Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research*. Los Angeles: SAGE
- Thamaga, L. J. 2012. *IsiNdebele Influence on Sepedi Learners around Dennilton Region in Limpopo Province*. Dissertation. Pretoria U University of Pretoria.
Accessed on the 11/02/20 from <https://www.citeseerx.ist.psu.edu>
- Thetso, M. L. 2018. *The Distribution and interpretation of the Qualificative in Sesotho*. Dissertation. University of South Africa
- Thoahlane A. B. 1970. *Orthographical Rules Together with the Report of the Conference on Sesuto Orthography 1906*. Morija: Morija Sesuto Book Depot.
- Thobejane, L. N. 2017. *The Impact of Social Media on the Development and Promotion of Indigenous African Languages: A Case of the Rural University*. A Dissertation. University of Venda
- Thomas. 1939. *Aspects of English Negation*. John Benjamins Publishing, 2005.
- Tucker, A.N. 1949. *Sotho-Nguni Orthography and Tone-Marking*. Cambridge University press. Pp 200-224 accessed from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/609073> JSTOR
[on the 10/12/19](#)
- Unubi, A. S. 2016. *Conjunctions in English: Meaning, Types and Uses*. International Journal of Social Science and Humanities Research. Vol. 4 No. 3 Pp 202-213
- Umera-Okeke, N. 2007. *Exploring Affixation in English*. African Research Review. Vol 1 No 3. Pp 9-35. Accessed on the 01/06/20 from <https://www.ajol.info>
- Vaismoradi, M. and Snelgrove, S. 2019. *Theme in Qualitative Content Analysis and Thematic Analysis*. Forum: Qualitative Social Research. Vol 20 No 3
<http://dx.doi.org>
- Van Maanen, J. 1979. *Reclaiming Qualitative Methods for Organizational research: A Preface*. Administrative Science Quarterly. Vol. 24 No. 4 Pp 520-526.
- Wittgenstein, L. 1953. *Philosophical Investigations*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell

- Wulandari, H. 2019. Sound Assimilation in Amanatun Dialect of UAB METO. International Journal of Humanity Studies. Vol. 3 No.1 <https://doi.org>
- Zerrouki, T. and Balla, A. 2009. *Implementation of Infixes and Circumfixes in the spellcheckers*. National Institute of Computing INI Algiers. www.elda.org
- Zolberg, A.R. 2001. *Language Policy: Public Policy Perspectives*. International Encyclopedia of Social and Behavioral Sciences. Accessed on the 11/06/2020 from <https://www.sciencedirect.com/topics/social-sciences/language>
- Zwart, J. 1998. *The minimalist Program*. J. Linguistics. 15: Pp 213-226. United Kingdom:Cambridge University Press. <http://www.semanticscholar.org> accessed on the 10/12/19 <https://en.wikipedia.org>