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The challenges of language assessment in a multilingual environment: The case of Sesotho Language in Two Soweto High Schools.



By

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Dissertation submitted to the Department of African Languages and Linguistics

In fulfilment of the requirements for Master of Art's Degree in Humanities.

Under the supervision of

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The University of the Witwatersrand

School of Literature, Language and Media

15 March 2023

DECLARATION

I declare that this is my own work and that all the sources that I have used in this study have been indicated and acknowledged by means of in-text referencing and in the list of references.

This study has not been submitted previously to any other institution as part of an academic qualification.

Full Name: Monica Lisemelo Mofammere Signature 

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you are very special to me. I also want to thank my other family, the Mofammere family whose support has been tremendous ever since I became part of the family. I want to say thank you for being there for me in good times even in difficult times. You all have a very special place in my heart.

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There is a lump in my throat when I think of my grandmother. She always brought out the best in me through her commendation. I especially treasure those moments when we visited her during the final days of her life. Her eyes always lit up, filled with real joy at catching a sight of us. I dread COVID 19, which robbed her association with her loved ones during the most difficult time of her life when she was hospitalised. It pained me, when we could not visit her as often as we would have liked because of the restrictions. However, we are thankful that we were always there for her, even if it meant just waving at her from a distance. The life lessons I learned from her are too numerous to list, but the most important ones are sympathy, gratitude and optimism. I cherish the love she showed all her grandchildren and her great grandchildren. She was a true lady up to the last day of her life. The 103 years of her life are still not enough, I am looking forward to the time when I will be able to spend time with her forever.

SUMMARY

This study was undertaken upon realising that it is a challenge to assess learners in subjects that they take as Home Languages when they live in a multilingual environment i.e., where many languages are used. This is especially so in big townships such as Southern Western Township (Soweto) where people who speak different languages live together. Many people have moved to Soweto from other parts of the country or from other countries and they are bringing along languages that they speak. In the past, people in different sections of Soweto were placed according to ethnicity and this meant that people who spoke the same language lived together (Christopher, 2004; Makalela, 2013). The main languages that were spoken in Soweto were Sesotho and isiZulu as a result there were sections for isiZulu speaking people and for Sesotho speaking. There were sections that were meant for Xitsonga and Tshivenda. However, after 1994, people became free to live wherever they wanted to, as a result people of different ethnic groups who spoke different languages lived together.

This new development in society brought about new dynamics in the use of language. People in urban areas began to find ways of communicating with one another. In many cases, people became multilingual. Generally, learners who live in these areas also became multilingual. Being multilingual is advantageous because it allows people to interact easily and it fosters cohesion. On the other hand, being multilingual can be a challenge in our education system especially when it comes to assessing Home Languages. Currently, the way that learners who live in a multilingual environment are assessed may disadvantage them. This is because in the present curriculum, learners are expected to produce oral and written work that is of very high standard, free of grammatical errors and does not contain lexicon from other languages. This is a challenge because such learners live in an environment where multiple languages are used and learners pick them up and use them interchangeably on a daily basis.

It has also been noticed that learners from a multilingual environment often use a mixed language during their oral presentations and written class activities as well as their formal assessments, and this leads to poor performance in their Home Languages (Khetoa, 2016). The learners perform poorly because they are expected to use a language that demonstrates strict adherence to the grammatical rules of the language that they take as a Home Language.

Previous studies have been carried out to show how some standard languages such as Setswana, Northern Sotho have been affected by other languages, but there is not much research done on how other languages affect the Sesotho language. One study that has been done on the standard Sesotho language by Ntuli (2016), compares pragmatic language behaviour of Mamelodi Lingo (a non-standard language variety spoken in Mamelodi township) with that of speakers of standard Sesotho. The focus of this study was on the gestures that accompanied the spoken word of speakers of these two languages.

Another study that was done on the standard Sesotho language by Khetoa (2016), looked at linguistic and extra-linguistic factors which affected learners preventing them from attaining very good marks in Sesotho Home Language in grade 12. This study focused on poor performance of grade 12 learners at a Secondary School situated in the Xhariep District in the Free State Province. Sekere (2004) also carried out a study which looked at the language varieties that emerged in the Qwaqwa area because of language contact. The focus of this study was on the Sesotho dialects that are found in Qwaqwa. The study also looked at the spoken and written language as it was used by learners in a number of schools in the area.

The present study looks at the challenges of assessing learners who are multilingual in urban area. The focus is on how Sesotho Home Language learners who live in Soweto are being influenced by other languages spoken in the area and what kind of mistakes they make due to influence from other languages. The study goes further to look at the performance of these learners in their essays.

In the study carried out by Malimabe (2014), it was established that the types of interference observed among learners include, adoptives, code-switching and grammatical errors. It has been established that Sesotho Home Language learners like learners of other standard languages in urban areas experience the types of interference mentioned above.

The study has looked at whether Grade 11 Sesotho learners use lexical items adopted from other languages that are spoken in their communities in the essays that they wrote for their formal School Based Assessment (SBA) task in the second term. The study has established that learners use lexicon from Sepedi, Setswana, and English. The study also discovered that learners coined words from isiZulu, English and Afrikaans in their

written essays. It has also been found that learners make grammatical mistakes in their written activities because they confuse language structures and they end up using other languages' structures in their own Home Languages.

Recommendations to deal with these problems have been put forward so that learners who live in multilingual societies can be assisted because language contact cannot be avoided in multilingual societies.

KEYWORDS

Assessment – An activity or a test given to measure the performance of students (Department of Basic Education, 2012).

Department of Basic Education – The National department responsible for basic education from grade R-12 (Department of Basic Education, 2012).

Heteroglossia – When people use a variety of registers, languages, codes and voices in their daily interactions with other people (Makoe and McKinney, 2014).

Home Language – The language proficiency level that reflect the mastery of interpersonal communication skills required in social situations and the cognitive academic skills essential for learning across the curriculum (Department of Basic Education, 2011)

First Additional Language – It is the language proficiency level that reflects basic intercultural and interpersonal communication skills in social situations and cognitive academics skills essential for learning across curriculum (Department of Basic Education, 2011).

Language contact – When speakers of different languages get in contact with one another resulting in cross influence on the languages they speak (Nordquist, 2020).

Multilingualism – When an individual uses more than one language (Aycard, 2014).

Non-standard language – A language that has not been given an official status (Calteaux, 1996).

Official language – A language that has been given an official status in a country (Brenzinger, 2017).

Plurilingualism – Refers to the repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use (Makoe and McKinney, 2014).

Qualitative data – Data which is collected relying on explanation of phenomenon being investigated rather than on numbers (Creswell, 2014).

Quantitative data – Date which is collected relying on numbers or figures (Creswell, 2014).

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
FAL	First Additional Language
HL	Home Language
SBA	School Bases Assessment
SVO	Subject Verb Object (word order)
SOWETO	Southern Western Township
FET	Further Education and Training

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

According to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS, 2011), learners are expected to do at least two languages as subjects at Further Education and Training (FET) phase. These can be done at a Home Language (HL) level or at First Additional Language level (FAL). Learners who do language at a Home Language level are expected to achieve a very high standard in that language. The way in which learners are assessed in their home languages poses a challenge especially in urban areas such as Southern Western Township (Soweto) where learners speak several languages or live in an area where several languages are used interchangeably daily.

This study looks at how the language taken as a Home Language is affected when learners are multilingual, or they live in a multilingual environment. The focus is on grade 11 learners who do Sesotho as a Home Language in Soweto at two high schools, one located in Naledi and the other one located in Molapo. These two schools were chosen because they are located in the areas which were occupied by people who predominatly spoke Sesotho in the past.

1.2 Background of the Sesotho language

Sesotho, which is sometimes referred to as South Sotho, is one of the more than 500 Bantu languages originating from the Niger-Congo family (Thetso, 2018, Malete 2016 in Oliver, 2016). Sesotho is spoken in Lesotho, and in a number of provinces in the country such as the Free State, Gauteng, North West, the Eastern Cape, Kwa-Zulu Natal and Mpumalanga (Sekere, 2004; Snail, 2011). It is estimated that there are around four million speakers of the language in South Africa and close to two million speakers in Lesotho (Snail, 2011). Many of the speakers of Sesotho language are found in the Free state and Gauteng province.

Prah (2006) points out that the eleven official languages in South Africa can be grouped under four clusters, the Nguni cluster, the Sotho cluster, the Tshivenda cluster and the Xitsonga/XiChangan/XiRonga cluster. Snail (2011) on the other hand groups Tshivenda and Xitsonga under the Nguni Cluster. On the Sesotho cluster, however, scholars speak in unison, they classify Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi or (Sesotho sa Leboa) under one cluster, the Sotho cluster. The

languages in this cluster are treated as three different languages, but Prah (2006) contests that these are dialects of one language which were separated by the missionaries and colonial administrators to facilitate easy administration and Bible translation. Moleleki (1999) concurs, pointing out that Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi languages come from the same ancestor who is Malope therefore, they should be regarded as one family rather that three different languages. Moleleki (1999) points out that during the 13th century, Malope who was a Mohurutshe chief broke away from Barolong somewhere around Ethiopia.

Just as the other Bantu languages follow a certain word order, Sesotho also has a basic word order. It has a subject, verb, and object (SVO) word order but this word order can change depending on the message that the speaker wants to convey (Thetso, 2018; Ntuli, 2016). Bantu languages are also characterised by the noun class system and Sesotho is no exception. Demuth and Ellis (2009) point out that Bantu languages have between 13 and 18 noun class prefixes but Meinhoff (1932) in Thetso (2018) argue that Bantu languages have 22 noun class prefixes. Sesotho has 15 noun class prefixes but 11, 12 and 13 are not included (Thetso, 2018). The table below shows the noun classes found in Sesotho.

Table 1.2.1 Sesotho noun class prefixes

Singular noun class prefix	Plural noun class prefix
1 mo- 1a ɵ 3 mo- 5 le- 7 se- 9 (n-) 15 ho-	2 ba- 2a bo- 4 me- 6 ma- 8 di- 10 di (n) 14 bo-

The above table shows the noun class system used in Sesotho. In this noun class system, the odd numbers are the noun class prefixes in singular form, whereas the even numbers are used for the noun class prefixes in the plural form. The Sesotho grammatical rules require that phrases or sentences should be constructed in such a way that there is an agreement between the subject, the verb and the qualifier depending on whether the subject is in the singular or plural form. Machobane (2010) in

Thetso (2018) points out that noun prefixes are the ones that control the subjectival, the objectival and qualicative concords in a sentence. This is illustrated in the table below.

Table 1.2.2 The noun class prefixes and the relevant concords (agreement morphemes)

Class	Prefix	Noun	Gloss	Subject concord	Possessive	Adjective	
1	mo-	mosadi	woman	o	wa	e mo	
1a	~~ɵ~~						
2	ba-	bana	children	ba	ba	ba ba	
2a	bo-	bommankgane	the bats	ba	ba	ba ba	
3	mo-	mose	dress	o	wa	o mo	
4	me-	mese	dresses	e	ya	e me	
5	le-	lejwe	stone	le	la	le le	
6	ma-	majwe	stones	a	a	a ma	
7	se-	sefate	tree	se	sa	se se	
8	di-	difate	trees	di	tsa	tse n	
9	[n]-	ntja	dog	e	ya	e n	
10	di[n]-	dintja	dogs	di	tsa	tse n	
14	bo-	botswa	laziness	bo	ba	bo bo	
15	ho-	ho ja	to eat	ho	hwa	ho ho	

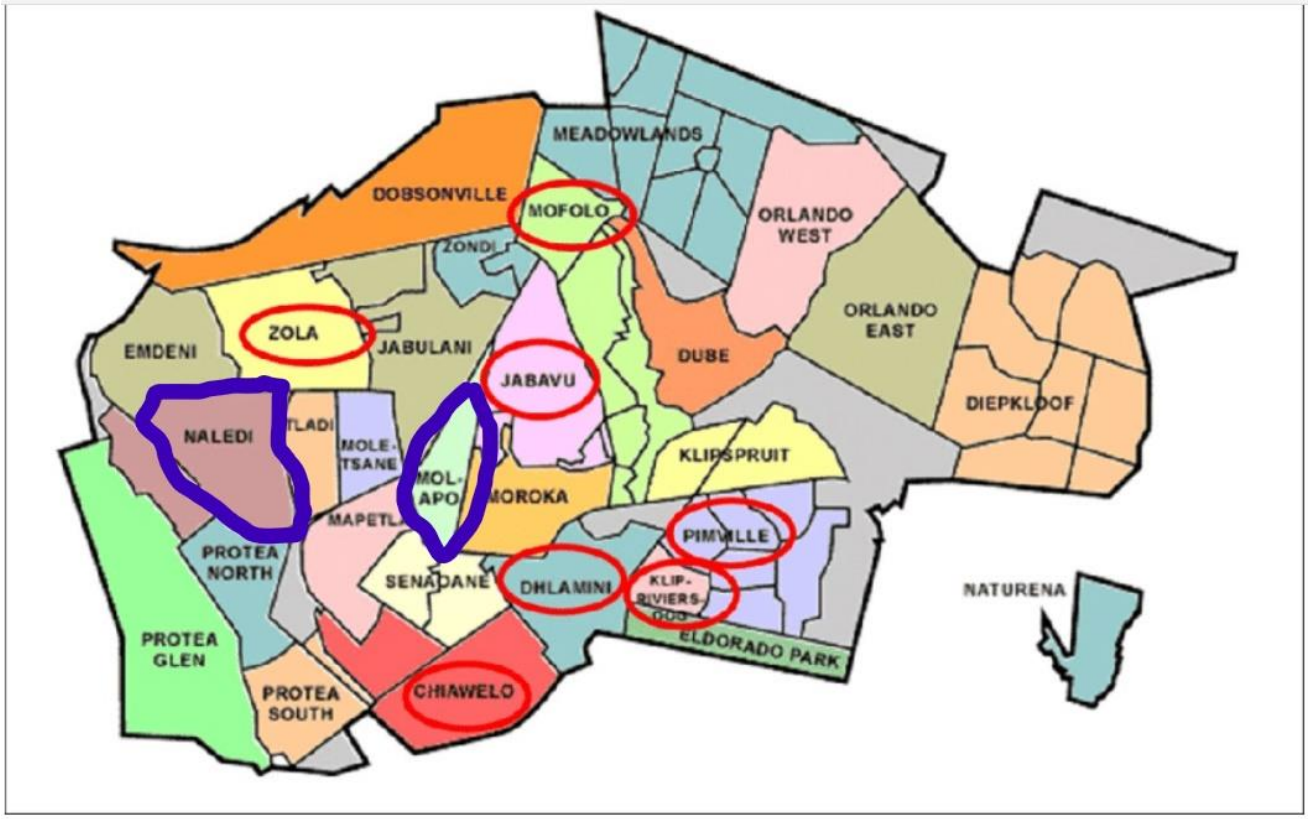
Even though there may be an assumption that there is homogeneity in the speakers of the Sesotho language, some scholars point out that Sesotho has some dialects which are spoken around Harrismith, Bethlehem, Bergville and Tsheseng in Qwaqwa. Some of these dialects are Sekgolokwe and Setlokwa (Snail, 2011; Sekere, 2004). Snail (2011) indicates that Sekgolokwe is a dialect that uses lexicon from both Sesotho and isiZulu. Sesotho is also widely spoken in many of the townships in Gauteng such as Soweto and Katlehong in the East Rand, but for the purposes of this study the focus will be on Soweto which is the area where the investigation takes place.

1.3 Background of Soweto

Southern Western Township (Soweto) came into existence in the 1930s. It began as a squatter camp accommodating people who came to Johannesburg looking for greener pastures but later became home to people who were settled there due to force removals which were carried out by the Apartheid regime. People who were affected by these removals were from places such as Sophiatown, Martindale and Newclare. Many of these people were settled in Meadowlands (Mfusi, 1992).

It was in 1963 when Soweto as a township was established. This township is about 15 km away from Johannesburg and it is located on the southwestern part of Johannesburg hence the name Southern Western Township. Aycard, 2014 points out that in 1955, the Apartheid government applied what was known as the Urban Areas Act of 1923 and the 1950 Group Areas Act and this meant settling people in the townships by ethnicity. Dividing people this way meant that people would also be linguistically segregated. Since Sesotho and isiZulu were dominant languages in Soweto, many of the township sections were mainly divided along these two languages. The following townships were allocated to Sesotho and Setswana speaking people: Moletsane, Tladi, Naledi, Mapetla, Phiri and Molapo. The Nguni speaking people were settled in Zola, Mdeni, Dlamini, Senaoane, Jabulani and White City-Jabavu. Those who speak Xitsonga and Tshivenda were allocated the section of Chiawelo (Aycard, 2014) (see Figure 1.3.3).

Figure 1.3.3: Map of Soweto



Map of Soweto townships. Source. https://www.google.co.za/search?

The above map shows the spatial layout of the township of Soweto where the study was carried out. The areas circled in solid dark blue colour indicate the research site, that is the sections of the township where each of the school that took part in the study is located. These two sections of Soweto are located in the section that was formally allocated for Sesotho and Setswana speaking people. However, the demographics have now changed due to changes that took place in 1994 and due to migration and urbanisation.

Many of the learners who do Sesotho as a Home language in Soweto, live in a multilingual environment because either in the home, they speak more than one language because of inter-ethnic marriages or because people in the neighbourhood speak other languages that they also pick-up and use daily. Some of these learners choose to do Sesotho as a home language not necessarily because they are Basotho by ethnicity but may be the schools within the vicinity of where they live, teach Sesotho as a Home Language or as one of the Home Languages offered. What complicates matters even more, is the fact that Sotho languages that are mutually intelligible namely, Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi are treated as three different languages. If a leaner uses a lexicon from any of these languages even if there is a slight variation in spelling, that learner is marked wrong or penalised. It is

not easy for learners who have never been in an environment where each of these languages from the Sotho cluster are spoken exclusively to differentiate some of the lexicon that are peculiar to either of the three Sotho languages.

1.4 Significance of the study

The study will assist language advisors, subject specialists as well as language teachers in developing teaching methods that will enable Sesotho learners to improve their performance in their Home Language. It will also help them to come up with assessment methods that will accommodate all learners regardless of whether they live in a multilingual environment or not. The study will help curriculum developers to realise that learners are individuals and their circumstances are different, therefore assessment method should be flexible thus taking into consideration each learner's situation in the use of language. It will also help curriculum developers and language policy developers to re-visit the issue of standardization of languages in the Sotho cluster. The issue of standardization of indigenous languages has been a subject of debate among scholars for some time but nothing concrete has emerged from these debates thus far (Prah, 2006). One feels that it is about time that this subject takes centre stage in language policy implementation not just in debates.

1.5 Problem statement

According to the National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (2012), one of the requirements for learners in grade 10-12 to be promoted to the next grade is to achieve a 40% in three subjects one of which is an official language that is taken at Home Language level. A learner should achieve at least 30% on three other subjects. It is also a requirement that a Home Language subject must not be failed in order for a leaner to be promoted to then next grade.

The expectation is that at a Home Language level, learners should produce written work that is of very high standard, that does not contain lexicon from other languages, and which follows the language rules of the language to a higher degree. This becomes a challenge for learners who live in a multilingual environment, since they are exposed to many languages, they use these languages interchangeably on a daily basis, and yet when they get to the classroom, they are expected to stick to one language in their oral or written work.

Wagner et al. (2020) argue that learners in these areas, are not only exposed to what are referred to as 'standard' languages but there are also colloquial varieties which also present a problem when they learn languages at school because they use lexicon from these colloquial languages and this is not

acceptable in the languages that are taken as subjects at schools. Yiakoumetti (2007) in Wagner et al. (2020), adds that many people who speak a number of standard languages are not able to distinguish between the lexicon from many languages that they speak and as a result make mistakes because they confuse these languages.

This confusion does not only present itself in the communities, but also in mass media. On the South African Broadcasting Cooperation (SABC), Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi News share a news bulletin. It is true that the languages alternate, but when it comes to reporting, a reporter can report in Setswana or in Sepedi on what is said to be a Sesotho news bulletin and vice versa. It becomes a challenge for learners because, when they get to school, they are expected to treat these languages as different languages and yet on the news bulletin they are mixed. The expectation is that they should differentiate between these Sotho languages when they present their oral or written work at school.

Due to the factors mentioned above, the poor performance, especially the performance of learners in urban areas or townships, based on their speaking, reading and writing in their Home Languages continues to be a great concern for those in the education sector. Therefore, this study investigates how Grade 11 Sesotho learners are affected by other languages and how these learners are assessed in a multilingual or plurilingual environment and how the type of assessment used, affects their performance. The study also looks at the kind of mistakes that grade 11 learners who do Sesotho as a Home Language make due to influence from other languages.

1.6 Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to find out the challenges of assessing writing skills of Sesotho learners who live in a multilingual environment and the language mistakes that these learners make because of influence from other languages that they come in contact with. The study focuses on assessing the essay writing skills of these learners. The study also looks at how the learners' performance is affected by the way they are assessed in their essays. The focus is on summative assessment as it is largely the one that determines whether a learner moves to the next grade or not.

1.7 Rationale

Previous studies have shown that languages have an influence on each other and that multilingualism and language contact have an impact on languages whether standard or non-standard (Calteaux, 1996; Prah 2010). Many of the studies carried out previously, have shown how some standard languages such as Setswana and Northern Sotho have been affected by other languages, but there is not much

research done on how Sesotho language has been affected by other languages, that is why this study is important as it is going to demonstrate how the Sesotho language has been affected by other languages in a multilingual environment.

Another area that has not been given much attention by scholars is the assessment of languages in a multilingual environment. The National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 defines assessment as a process by which data is collected, analysed, interpreted so as to help all stakeholders in education to make informed decisions about the progress of learners. Tulloch et al. (2022) argue that assessment is essential in order to see whether children understand what they are being taught, so that if they do not, changes can be made in the curriculum. Bacquet (2020) argues that assessment is used as a tool of measuring the outcome of the process of learning.

In the current curriculum, learners are expected to perform very well in the languages that they take as Home Languages. Other factors that constraint achieving that high standard such as living in a multilingual environment are not considered when they are assessed. This study focuses on how multilingualism affects Grade 11 learners who do Sesotho as a Home Language and highlights the challenges of assessing learners in a plurilingual environment. The focus is on essay writing, how the rubric is used to mark essays and how it disadvantages learners who live in a plurilingual environment.

1.8 Objectives

- To establish if Grade 11 Sesotho learners in Soweto are multilingual
- To find out how being multilingual affects language assessment of the Grade 11 Sesotho learners
- To identify the common language mistakes made by learners due to influence from other languages
- To look particularly at the way a rubric is used to mark essays and how it impacts learners who live in a multilingual environment.

1.9 Research questions

Main question: What are the challenges of assessing Grade 11 Sesotho learners who live in a multilingual environment?

Research sub questions:

a. How do the Sesotho Home Language teachers administer language assessment in a plurilingual environment?

b. How do other languages influence the performance of Grade 11 Sesotho learners at two High Schools in Soweto?
c. How is the way that the national rubric is being used in marking essays affect the performance of grade 11 Sesotho learners?

1.10 CHAPTER OUTLINE

CHAPTER ONE: Introduction

This chapter details what the curriculum expectation is for learners in their study of Home Languages. The chapter gives the background of Sesotho and the background of Soweto where the investigation takes place. The chapter also discusses the significance of the study, the problem statement and mentions the aims and objectives of the study. Last but not least, the chapter outlines the main research questions and research sub questions.

CHAPTER TWO: Literature Review

This chapter discusses scholarly literature on assessment and assessment types. It looks at what scholars say in relation to assessing multilingual learners in languages that they study as subjects. The chapter also discusses scholarly literature in relation to multilingualism and how it affects leaners in their study of Home Languages. The chapter also looks at language contact and how it influences learners in the languages they study at school. The chapter discusses sociolinguistic issues resulting from multilingualism especially in relation to how these issues impact Home Languages. The chapter also highlights what is lacking in the scholarly literature available thus identifying the knowledge gap that exists in the assessment of languages.

CHAPTER THREE: Methodology

This chapter discusses different research approaches and the research approach that has been used in the study which is mixed method approach. The study gives detail of which research tools were used to collect data how they were used in collecting primary data. In this chapter the theoretical frame work chosen for the study is also discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR: Data analysis

This chapter presents the data collected. The chapter begins by giving details of how quantitative data was collected and then discusses how qualitative data was collected. Then the data is analysed. Tables are used to present qualitative data and then an analysis of the data is provided.

CHAPTER FIVE: Discussion and conclusion

This chapter gives a summary of research findings. It outlines how the research main question and sub questions were answered by the study. The study gives the conclusion reached emanating from the findings of the study. The chapter concludes by giving recommendations and highlighting the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Literature review is a broad overview of research that has been carried out on a certain topic (Denney and Tewksbury, 2013). Creswell (2014) points out that in a literature review, one pinpoints and summarises what other scholars have found with regards to the topic being studied. This is important because it shows that the researcher understands what is already known about the subject of investigation. Highlighting the importance of literature review in research, Chipila (2016) indicates that the purpose of a literature review is for the researcher to find out what is the thinking of other scholars on the subject and what are their ideas and the philosophies. Schreiber and Asner-Self, 2011 in Chipila (2016) argue that a good literature review does not only summarise the work of other scholars, but it also evaluates the work that has been done by the scholars on whose arguments the researcher hopes to rely on. The literature review also gives a critique of the existing knowledge and thus giving the researcher an opportunity to develop his/her own understanding of the matter being investigated (Rossman & Rallis, 2003 in Chipila, 2016; Nayak and Singh, 2021).

This chapter discusses assessment types and assessment tools used in assessing language. It also highlights how the traditional assessment methods used currently affect the performance of multilingual learners. It also provides information on the language situation in South Africa with the focus on multilingualism and language contact especially in urban areas. It looks at how multilingualism and language contact affect learners in languages they choose to study as Home Languages at school. The chapter also looks at the complexity of language ideologies and the utilisation of languages in urban settings. This chapter continues by presenting the challenges of language assessment in such multilingual environments.

2.2 Assessment and its importance in the study of languages

Assessment is an important part of learning because it gives all stakeholders in the education sector feedback of whether the curriculum goals and learning outcomes hoped for are being achieved or not (Mikre, 2010). The National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (2012) defines Assessment as a process of collecting data, analysing, and interpreting it with the aim of helping all stakeholders in education to make informed decisions about the progress of learners. Tulloch et al. (2022) argue that assessment is an essential part of the education process since it helps those involved to see whether students understand what they are being taught, so that if they do not, changes can be made in the curriculum and teaching methods can also be adjusted. Assessment is also used as a way of identifying

the needs of students or learners and documenting their progress so that educators and planners would be able to see if the process of teaching and learning is successful or not (Frank, 2012 in Chandio and Jafferi, 2015). Assessment is also used as one of the determining factors of whether a learner moves to the next grade or level (Bharuthram, 2018). Since assessment serves as a litmus test to indicate whether the learning process has been successful or not, it should be carried out in such a way that it takes into consideration the conditions under which the teaching and learning process takes place. In this way, it will not disadvantage any learner. In the teaching and learning of languages in South Africa, it should be considered that communities differ, in some areas one language dominates while in other areas several languages are used by a speech community, as a result people in that community develop a language repertoire peculiar to that speech community. It would therefore make sense that when learners are assessed this is taken into consideration. However, in the present curriculum, Sesotho learners are expected to produce written work in standard Sesotho with no lexicon from other languages and they are expected to stick to the grammatical rules of the language.

Chandio and Jafferi (2015) point out that there are two types of assessment, formative assessment and summative assessment. Formative assessment is the type of assessment that takes place during the learning process with the aim of checking whether the teaching and learning process is successful in the way it is being carried or not (Bennett, 2011; Dolin et.al, 2018). Bennett (2011) points out that the main purpose of formative assessment is to make a determination of whether educational programmes live up to what they are meant to achieve so that adjustments can be made along the way if weaknesses are observed. Bloom (1969) in Benett (2011) argues that formative assessment needs to provide the necessary feedback and provide information on what corrective steps need to be taken at various stages of the education process. Formative assessment forms part of the instruction process and helps both teachers and learners to see where adjustments need to be made if it is evident that what is being taught is not understood. This kind of assessment is pivotal in the learning process because it assists teachers in deciding how to proceed and what corrective measures should be taken if needs be (Garrison and Ehringhaus, 2007).

Summative assessment on the other hand, is described as the type of assessment that takes place at the end of the learning process. It is carried out as a way of evaluating if learners have grasped what they were taught (Chandio and Jafferi, 2015). Garrison and Ehringhaus (2007) point out that summative assessment is given at certain times to determine the students' knowledge at those set times. These types of assessment can be given at the end of the term, at the end of the session or at the end of the year, the point is they are given periodically. Dolin et al. (2017) argue that the aim of summative assessment is to provide a report on the level at which students are in their learning process, what is it that they know and what is it that they do not know. However, this is not done with the aim of

restructuring the teaching and learning process, rather it is aimed and providing evidence of whether the teaching and learning outcomes were achieved or not. According to Garrison and Ehringhaus (2007), summative assessment is used as a yardstick which determines whether the student reached the required standard at that point in time and whether that student or learner can move to next grade if it is at the end of the year. Ahmed et al. (2019) argues that while summative assessment provides evidence of what the learner was able to grasp in the learning process, it does not indicate what the future progress would be.

In this study, the focus is on summative assessment as it is the one that mainly determines whether a learner moves to the next grade or not. It is therefore pivotal to look at the way that this kind of assessment is carried out since this has a bearing on the future of learners and it can impact their lives either negatively or positively. Outlining some of the types of summative assessments Garrison and Ehringhaus (2007) mention assessments carried by the state, benchmark assessments carried by the districts, end of term or semester examinations etc. Since summative assessment is carried out the at end of a certain interval, this collects data using assessment carried out at in the second term in the school calendar.

In the study of language, learners are expected to acquire language skills that will enable them to understand and to interpret written and visual text correctly and in such a way that it will attain the necessary information from such a text. In order for learners to be able to interpret such text, they need to acquire knowledge of language conventions and grammatical rules of a language which will enable them to produce coherent and cohesive texts (CAPS, 2011). Nndwamato (2017) points out that grammar is pivotal in the learning of languages. However, acquiring important language skills becomes a challenge for Sesotho learners who live in urban areas because there are many languages that they are exposed to. Learners who live in these multilingual environments sometimes find themselves mixing up the grammatical structures of the languages that they have acquired, with the grammatical structures of the languages they do as Home Languages at school. This problem is manifested in their written work such as essays.

When a learner does not have the appropriate grammatical understanding of the language which he or she is assessed in, such a learner will not have a good comprehension of the scenarios presented by texts or questions asked in their assessment tasks. When learners do not understand standard languages that they do as Home Languages fully, this affects their performance (Khetoa, 2016). It is therefore crucial for Sesotho teachers, subject specialists, curriculum developers as well as policy makers to understand these language dynamics in order for them to be able to come up with teaching methods,

language policies and assessment methods that can help learners to overcome this hurdle so that they can perform better in their Home Language.

The issue of language is a complex one, it involves other sectors of society as well as policy makers. Hazeltine (2013) mentions that the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1993, Clause 1 [6] points out that it is the responsibility of the state to implement measures that will ensure that the status of other languages in the country is elevated and should to steps that will facilitate the advancement and use of languages that were marginalised during the apartheid era. To this end, the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) was formed with the purpose of ensuring the well-being of all languages, not just those given an official status, but also the minority languages such as Khoisan as well as foreign languages used significantly in the country (Hazeltine, 2013; Christopher, 2004). In line with the Constitution of the country, a number of efforts have been put in place to encourage and to promote multilingualism in education. Nomlomo (2019) points out that the Department of Education has been given the task of ensuring that all languages are respected, promoting multilingualism and developing the official languages in the country so that they can also be used in academia. Busch (2010) takes this point further by pointing out that language policies should be cognizant of the fact that school is a place where students have diversity of codes and language registers therefore, they should adopt language policies that recognize the heteroglossic resources found within the schools.

Even though the Department of Education has ensured that the languages that have been given the official status are taught as subjects in schools at different levels, the curriculum does not address the issue of assessing multilingual learners especially in their study of languages as subjects. Instead of recognising that learners come to the class rooms with a certain language repertoire and that assessment should be designed in such a way that it accommodates this varying language repertoires, learners are penalised for demonstrating their multilingualism in their oral and written assessment tasks. In Sesotho Home Language, the assessment used does not make provision for learners to express certain ideas in other languages that they know. If a learner uses lexicon from another language in his/her essay, even if the word used conveys the same meaning with a Sesotho word, that learner would be penalised. In line with the national rubric used to mark Sesotho essays, when a learner has used another language lexicon, or has coined a word from another language, the word used is underlined and the code ‘P’ is used to indicate that a wrong word has been used. In this case, ‘P’ stands for ‘puo’. In essence, the marker shows the leaner that he/she has used ‘wrong language’. This does not encourage multilingualism that is provided for in the constitution. Makalela (2016) argues that when a learner has been assessed in a certain language, that learner should be afforded an opportunity to respond in any language. I argue that if a learner has used a lexicon from another language

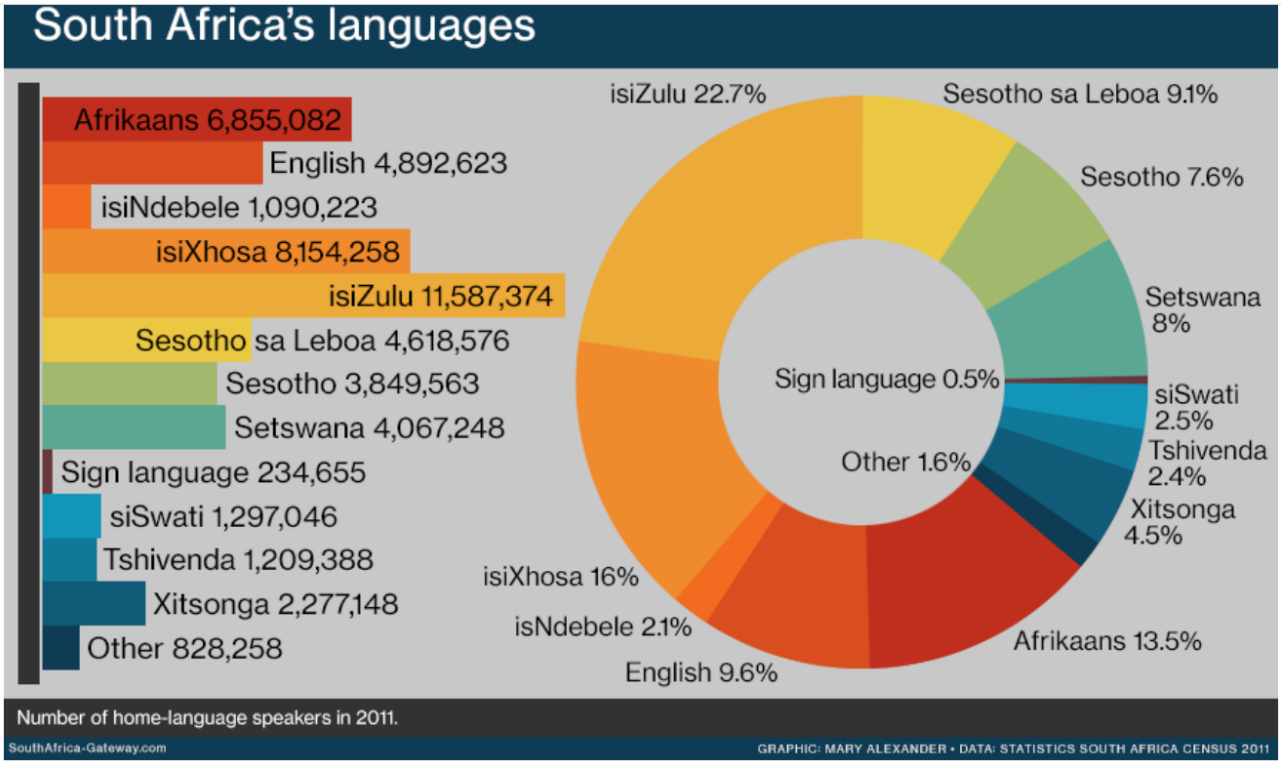
especially an indigenous language which carries the same meaning in the language that a learner is doing as a Home Language, that learner need not be penalised. For me it is ironic that languages are able to adopt lexicon from English and Afrikaans, but they cannot do the same thing when it comes to indigenous languages.

2.3 Multilingualism and its impact on learners in urban areas

As indicated above in the research problem, when speakers of different languages share the same space, there is cross-influence on the languages they use (Aycard, 2014). South Africa is a multilingual country with many languages spoken within its borders. Multilingualism is not only manifested in the community where people live but it is also manifested in the classrooms where learners who speak various languages often share the same class (Oliver, 2011; Gorter and Cenoz, 2017). This point is highlighted by Webb (2010) in Ditsele and Mann (2014) who argues that in urban areas such as Soshanguve and Soweto, people code mix and this code mixing is also observed in the classrooms. Aycard (2014) concurs by pointing out that this is especially the case in urban areas where people from different areas within the country and from other countries live together and mingle on a daily basis. This calls for understanding and use of other languages other than one's mother tongue as a way of facilitating communication.

The National Language Policy Framework (2003), points out that of the more than 25 languages spoken in South Africa, eleven have been granted official status in the constitution. These are isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, siSwati, Sesotho, Sepedi, Setswana, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, English and Afrikaans (see Figure 2.3.1). The process is under way to include South African Sign Language among the languages that have been granted official status. The languages mentioned above, that have been granted official status are also taught at school as either a Home Language or an additional language.

Figure 2.3.1 South Africa's languages



The present curriculum requires that the grammatical structure of a language taught as a subject should be followed and maintained. However, multilingual learners sometimes find themselves mixing up languages and thus making grammatical mistakes in their written work or on their oral activities. This is problematic because it affects their performance in those languages and as a result, they end up performing poorly. What makes matters worse in urban areas is the fact that learners take languages at home language level not necessarily because they are native speakers of that language. They may take the language as a Home Language because their native language is not offered at the school, or because the school closest to where they live offers only certain languages at Home Language level. However, when learners are assessed, these factors are not taken into consideration.

Multilingualism is defined as the practice of using alternately two or more languages, Corson (1990) in Mabiletja (2015) and Calteaux (1994) in Calteaux (1996). Prah (2010) points out that the term is also used to refer to a community where two or more languages are used by people, or where individuals who speak a number of languages live together. The high levels of multilingualism in township communities are the result of urbanisation, inter-ethnic marriages as well as the influx of migrants from neighbouring countries (Calteaux, 1996; Makalela 2013). Prah (2010) concurs, pointing out that when one grows up in such an urban setting where people from all parts of the country or even beyond

the country are invariably thrown together, one is able to pick up and learn, mostly passively the language of neighbours and people one interacts with on a daily basis.

Children usually learn languages of their peers as they play together in an informal setting. Even in situations where pupils learn languages from their school mates, it is more likely that they will pick up these languages as they play together rather than in the classroom (Prah, 2010). This shows that it is very easy and spontaneous for children to learn many languages thereby becoming multilingual. Prah (2016) argues that another reason for the ability of Africans to pick up languages in the urban settings, is that many of these languages have the structure that is almost similar. This can be seen clearly in the Sotho languages that are mutually intelligible and share most of their lexicon.

It is clear then that when people who speak different languages interact with one another on a daily basis, their languages come into contact and cross-influence is bound to occur. This shows that multilingualism goes hand in hand with language contact.

Multilingualism is not unique to South Africa; it is a worldwide phenomenon. Gorter and Cenoz (2017) look at multilingual education and assessment in the United States of America (USA), Canada and the Basque Country. Chipila (2016) points out that one study indicated that Tanzania is counted among the most multilingual countries in the world with approximately 156 languages spoken within its borders. India is another country that is known for its language diversity (Christopher, 2004).

Calteaux (1996) indicates that like many other countries in the world, South Africa is also characterised by language variation and differentiation. Prah (2010) argues that Africans are among some of the most multilingual groups of people in the world. Speaking about multilingualism in West Africa, Lüpke (2010) points out that multilingualism encountered in that part of Africa is mainly between African languages and it contributes to language change through transfer of linguistic material from one language to the other. This shows that multilingualism that leads to language contact, leads to lexical and structural borrowings that affect all areas of language (Lüpke, 2010). Therefore, the extent and limits of structural interferences are contentious. However, when leaners are assessed in their home languages, this situation is not taken into consideration. Learners are expected to write essays in ‘pure’ standard Sesotho language.

King (2018) points out that multilingualism is not a new phenomenon in human history, it has always been there in the world, and that multilingualism in the 21st century is very important, in order for the teaching and learning of languages to be successful, the realities of multilingualism should not be ignored. I concur with King (2018), because multilingualism cannot be ignored as it affects the performance of learners in languages under the current curriculum and assessment.

On this issue Makalela (2015) argues that, when languages are taught, they are treated as if they are separate entities that cannot have influence on the other and yet in real life, languages are fluid and they are very versatile. Wildsmith-Cromarty and Balfour (2019) point out that in the classrooms teachers code-switch but they feel guilty when they do so, because of this 'purist' way of looking at languages. A number of scholars are raising concern on this practice of treating languages as if they have boundaries, or that they are so reclusive that they cannot be affected by other languages (Makalela, 2015; McKinney et al, 2015; Gorter & Cenoz, 2017). The current study demonstrates that even though in the past the so called 'language purity' could be maintained because of the apartheid laws which ensured that people were separated not only by ethnicity but also linguistically, things have changed not just in South Africa but the world over. The researcher joins the calls of scholars who argue that languages should be treated as resources which should be used to enrich not only the process of teaching and learning but also assessment.

Globalization and movement of people around the world for various reasons have necessitated moving away from language teaching and assessment methods that treat languages as if they exist in isolation. Many people especially in urban areas, are multilingual and they use more than one language in their daily interactions with other people. Multilingualism was brought about by globalization and movement of people around the world to seek greener pastures or because of conflicts taking place in some countries (Makalela, 2013). Prah (2010) points out that in an urban setting in contemporary Africa, people from all parts of the country and beyond are invariably thrown together. These sentiments are also shared by Makalela (2013) who argues that the social and political changes that were brought about by the new political dispensation of 1994, brought in a new wave of mobility within the country because people were now free to move to any part of the country. The new political environment did not see only rural urban migration from the former Bantustan homelands, but people from neighbouring countries also joined this exodus to urban areas in order to make a living (Makalela, 2013).

This movement of people from the rural areas to the urban areas as well as movement of people from the neighbouring countries has brought a lot of changes in the languages spoken in urban areas especially in the townships. Calteaux (1996) attributes the high levels of multilingualism in the township communities not only to urbanisation, but also to inter-ethnic marriages.

Many of the Sesotho Home Language learners who live in Soweto speak or understand more than one language. The situation in Soweto is just as Prah (2010) puts it, that when one grows up in such an environment, it is easy to pick up and learn the language of neighbours and people one interacts with on a daily basis effortlessly. Prah (2010) points out that this is usually not planned and it is not even

organized; meaning that it happens naturally. This is especially the case among young children who usually pick up the language of their peers easily.

Prah (2010) has observed that when children play together, they learn languages of the children they play with and this is especially the case with African languages because the structure of these languages is similar in a variety of ways. This is true of many of the languages that have been granted official status as different languages in South Africa. The indigenous languages in South Africa form part of the clusters of languages in South Africa are generally mutually intelligible. There is the Nguni cluster and the Sotho cluster. The Nguni cluster comprises of isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele and Siswati while the Sotho cluster comprises of Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi (Christopher, 2004).

Another issue that complicates matters for learners in their study of Sesotho as a Home language is that in the communities where they live, people mix languages when they speak. Sometimes even in the homes where these learners come from languages are mixed because of inter-ethnic marriages.

Being multilingual is an advantage for communication and national cohesion, but it poses a challenge to learners in their study of languages because they tend to mix languages as they speak, and this can extend even into the classroom where mixing of languages is not encouraged in the present curriculum. On this point, Wagner et al. (2020) indicate that children born to families that speak mixed languages naturally pick them up and continue to speak them until they go to school, where they are exposed to standard varieties.

Calteaux (1996) shares the same sentiments, noting that children who grow up in townships often learn colloquial varieties before standard languages, leading to various problems in the teaching of standard language in schools. Ditsele and Mann (2014) argue that the schooling system uses teaching methods that are designed for speakers of standard varieties and that leads to discrepancy between what learners ordinarily speak on a daily basis which is mixed languages; and what they learn at school; which is standard varieties. Some of the language mistakes that learners make in their speaking and written activities are a reflection of the multilingual environment that they come from. From my teaching experience, I have observed that Sesotho learners would use words such as ‘poleke’ which is a word commonly used in spoken language. This is a word derived from an Afrikaans word ‘plek’ which means a place. Learners would also write phrases such as ‘ho dlala bolo’ meaning to play soccer. In this instance, a learner has used a word ‘dlala’ which is derived from isiZulu. These learners would be penalised for using ‘wrong’ language and the words mentioned would be underlined and the code ‘P’ which stands for “Puo,” use of wrong language would be used. I argue that some of these words that are considered to be lexicon from other languages or that are considered as non-standard varieties

could be adopted into the Sesotho language, thus developing the language and increasing its vocabulary.

2.4 Language contact

According to Lehiste (1988) in Calteaux (1996), two or more languages can be said to be in contact when they are used alternately by the same person. Nordquist (2020) defines language contact as the social and linguistic phenomenon by which speakers of different languages live together. Nordquist (2020) continues to argue that language contact is not a homogeneous phenomenon since it may occur between languages which are genetically related or unrelated and speakers may have similar or vastly different social structures, and patterns of multilingualism may also vary greatly.

Calteaux (1996) points out that certain geographical areas in South Africa feature a conglomeration of various languages providing a fertile breeding ground for language contact phenomena. When people who speak different languages live together and interact on a daily basis, they are bound to affect each other mutually. Each language imparts something linguistically to the other, and vice versa (Pettman, 1913 in Calteaux ,1996). This is the situation that we see in urban areas especially the townships. Demuth (2007) attests to this notion by pointing out that there is an increase in borrowing from such languages as English, Afrikaans and isiZulu due language contact.

Scholars who investigate language contact, focus on what happens when people who speak two different languages interact on a daily basis. These scholars argue that even though this part of linguistics is referred to as language contact, languages cannot be in contact by themselves, people who speak the languages are the ones in contact hence they are the ones who pass certain aspects of the language they speak to the other language that they come in contact with. How much each language is influenced by the other is determined by the social dynamics in that community (Aycard, 2014). Van Wyk (1978) in Calteaux (1996) concurs by showing that this language contact phenomena can be simple and easily identifiable when it happens between a language that is traditionally dominant in an area with languages that are spoken in areas that are close by. In a city such as Johannesburg, language contact phenomena are much more complex because a wide variety of linguistic communities flock to the city from many places around the country even from other countries. Language situation in Johannesburg is unique since it could be the only place in South Africa where all the indigenous languages are spoken and where these come into contact with a variety of foreign and Indian languages (Van Wyk, 1978 in Calteaux, 1996).

Aycard (2014) argues that languages may have an influence on the lexicon, syntax, phonology, prosody as well as the semantics of each other. Koopman (1994) in Calteaux (1996) concurs, adding

that these changes could be due to a number of factors such as how close the speakers of the languages are to one another, how those languages are viewed in society, whether they are held at high esteem socially, politically and economically.

Scholarly literature discussed above show that it is not realistic to treat languages as if they are separate entities that cannot overlap (Makalela, 2015; Makoni and Pennycook, 2007 in Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2021; Makoe and McKinney, 2014). Makalela (2015) strongly recommends moving out of what he calls "linguistic boxes" where languages are treated as if they are in different compartments or boxes with boundaries that cannot be crossed. Makoe and McKinney (2014) argue that without an understanding of ideologies that inform language policies and practices, it will be difficult to adopt practices that recognise the full linguistic repertoires of learners and to use them as resources for learning. That is why Makalela (2015) recommends alternative pedagogical approaches in classrooms where learners are multilingual and one such approach is referred to as "translanguaging." According to Mbirimi-Hungwe (2021), translanguaging was coined by Cen Williams in 1996. Mbirimi-Hungwe (2021) points out that Williams came up with this concept to assist Welsh students so that they could be allowed to use English and Welsh in their tasks. Since then, many scholars have recognised the need to shift from restricting the teaching and learning to take place in just one language but to allow other languages space especially when learners can use their multilingualism to make sense of the material they are learning (McKinney et al., 2015; Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2021).

Much of the scholarly literature that encourages acceptance of multilingualism and looking at languages as resources that can be used to understand the material being taught, focus on content subjects (Makoe and McKinney, 2014; McKinney et al., 2015; Mbirimi-Hungwe, 2021). There isn't much literature that focuses on multilingualism in relation to the teaching and learning of languages as subjects, let alone literature that focuses on assessment of languages where multilinguals are involved. This study closes that gap by focusing on multilingualism in the assessment of languages with the focus on Sesotho language. Makalela is one of the scholars who have contributed a lot in the study of multilingualism with the focus on the Sotho languages. He has collaborated with some scholars to look at different aspects of multilingualism and standardization in relation to the Sotho cluster of languages.

Makalela (2009) investigated how mutually intelligible the three Sotho languages are by comparing the reading proficiency of students who were mother-tongue of these languages at a University of Limpopo. The study established that there was a mutual understanding of the text by students across the three varieties of Sotho languages of Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi. It is for this reason that Makalela (2009) came to the conclusion that the orthographies of these Sotho languages can be harmonized.

Sefotho and Makalela (2015) carried out another study in a school in Johannesburg where they looked at whether the existing language boundaries are necessary in multilingual settings in urban areas. Their study focused on the comprehension and rate of reading by grade 4-6 Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi learners. The results of their study showed that there was not much of a difference in comprehension and the rate of reading between learners of these three Sotho languages. Sefotho and Makalela (2015) argue that the results of the study show that the imaginary boundaries that are said to exist between Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi are not valid therefore, it is possible that the orthography of these languages could be harmonized.

The literature discussed above, has demonstrated that the traditional way of looking at languages poses some challenges. In order to overcome the problems of monolinguistic approach to language in the class room especially in the teaching and learning of languages, Gorter and Cenoz (2017) advocate for a holistic approach in language teaching, language learning as well as language assessment. Gorter and Cenoz (2017) also point out that in recent years, some scholars have proposed theoretical and pedagogical practices that encourage moving away from the tradition of language separation, but instead looking for alternative ways of looking at language and language learning. I argue that these alternative ways of looking at language and language learning should also include assessment.

This study shows that the same approach can be applied even in assessment especially of indigenous languages. The study shows that if a learner has used a lexicon from any of the three mutually intelligible Sotho languages; Sepedi or Setswana in his/her essay, he/ she should not be penalised. Makalela (2015) points out that languages should not be treated as if they exist in isolation, as if each language is contained in its own individual box. I argue that this approach to language should extend to language assessment. When assessing learners in languages, it should be born in mind that languages co-exist, they are liquid as a result they influence one another in one way or the other. For example, a Sesotho learner may use the word “hlokofala” (a Sepedi word) instead of the word “hlokahala” a (Sesotho) which means “to pass away.” There is variance in spelling where in Sepedi ‘f’ has been used instead of ‘h’ which is used in Sesotho. However, the use of either word conveys the same meaning. Why should a learner be penalised for using a word that conveys the same meaning but just differs slightly in spelling? In the community where learners live, such words are used interchangeably without even giving it a second thought. I argue that, the current national rubric used in marking essays is out of touch with socio-linguistic changes taking place in society. The rubric has to be designed in a way that would accommodate a multilingual learner as long as what the learner is saying is understood, after all language is used for communication purposes.

2.5 The impact of non-standard varieties

Another challenge that learners face in their study of Home Languages, is the use of other non-standard language varieties that are spoken in urban areas especially by young people. Brookes (2014) argues that in black township areas of South Africa, there is an informal way of talking among the male youth. Kießling and Mous (2004) point out that this phenomenon takes place even in other countries in the African continent. They say young people in urban areas create their own languages in order to set themselves apart from the older generation as well as to bridge ethnic differences. Dorleijn et al. (2015) concur, indicating that youth in urban areas tend to develop their own speech styles which they call Urban Youth Speech Styles (UYSS). In their study, they compared UYSS of young people in Nairobi, Kenya and in the western parts of the Netherlands. They indicate that their study revealed that young people in the Netherlands were mixing lexical and non-lexical material from heritage languages such as Sranan, Berber, Arabic, Turkish, Papiamentu, Cape Verdian, Creole and American English into Dutch. Dorleijn et al. (2015) continue by pointing out that in Kenya, they found out that Sheng has become an UYSS and it deviates from Swahili the main language spoken in the country. Sheng incorporates words taken from such languages as English, Luo, Kikuyu and others.

Schuring (1985) as cited in Calteaux (1996) shows that a non-standard language spoken in Tshwane known as Pretoria Sotho or Sepitori, influenced the use of the standard language in that area. This is particularly the case in schools where learners are expected to adhere to the rules of the standard language they take as a Home Language. Schuring (1985) in Calteaux (1996) indicates that pupils found it difficult to adhere to the use of 'pure' standard language and that they often used colloquial expressions in their formal oral and written work and this is not acceptable in the present curriculum as a result, it led to high failure rate in mother tongue subjects or Home Languages.

In the study that Khetoa (2016) carried out at a school in the Xhariep District to find out both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors constraining meritorious learner achievement in Sesotho Home Language in Grade 12, it was observed that learners struggle to maintain monolingual speech solely because of the experiences they have with languages in the communities they come from. Khetoa (2016) indicates that the lexical items employed in learners' speech indicates that they belong to a community where Sesotho is also influenced by the existence of other languages. He continues to show that in their orals which were meant for formal assessment, learners used a language characterised by multi-codes and loan-words.

This view is also shared by Ditsele and Mann (2014) who say that there is evidence that the use of non-standard varieties of language is on the increase in South Africa. Calteaux (1996) in Ditsele (2014) refers to these language varieties as Black Urban Vernaculars (BUVs). According to Calteaux

(1996), apart from facilitating communication between interlocutors who do not share a common standard language, BUVs function as a mark of urbanisation and are indicators that those who speak them are 'city-wise.' This explains why BUVs are so popular among young people.

Malimabe (2014), observed that pupils in Pretoria spoke *Tsotsitaal,* and that this could possibly influence their use of standard language in class. This was especially the case among the boys. Khetoa (2016) points out that learners in South Africa are in constant contact with languages other than their own, which results in developing codes which they use among themselves when they communicate with one another. Khetoa (2016) continues to show that learners also use already established codes such as *Tsotsitaal* for communication, for acquisition of knowledge or for maintaining certain social identities. Aycard (2014) points out that according to Ntshangase (1993), *Tsotsitaal* is a Non-standard language variety that is Afrikaans based. The word *'Tsotsi'* is a South African word for 'thug' but its origin is not known. On the other hand, *'taal'* is an Afrikaans word meaning language. Ntshangase (1993), in Aycard (2014) sees *Tsotsitaal* as a variety that developed in Sophiatown and larger Western areas of Johannesburg and was brought to Soweto via forced removals of the mid-1950s.

It is clear that Soweto also faces its own linguistic challenges. Ntshangase (1993) in Calteaux (1996) points out that *Tsotsitaal* spoils the language acquisition of the urban children. Another Non-Standard variety that is spoken in Soweto according to Aycard (2014) is what is called *Iscamtho.* He says this seems to be derived from Xhosa-*camtha* which means 'talk volubly.' *Iscamtho* is said to use Zulu or Sesotho as its grammatical base (Ntshangase (1993) in Calteaux (1996), Makhudu (2002) and Ntshangase (2002) in Makalela (2013) describe *Iscamtho* as a hybrid language of the Amalaita criminal network of the early 1950s.

Another characteristic of languages in urban areas is what scholars refer to as code-switching. Das (2012) in Ntuli (2016) defines code-switching as the situation where a speaker uses more alternate between two or more languages in one sentence or in his/her speech. Makalela (2013) mentions the use of another language variety which he calls *Kasi-taal.* He describes this as a language of the location or township. Makalela (2013) says speakers of this language variety, Black South Africans from the townships consider *kasi-taal* to be their mother tongue. He continues to show that he uses the label *'kasi-taal'* to refer to evolved forms of *Iscamtho* and *Flaaitaal* or *Tsotsitaal* in order to account for weakening boundaries between standard languages such as Sotho, Nguni, Afrikaans and English language forms.

It is evident then that learners from townships are not able to maintain 'language purity' according to some scholars, as they live in multi-lingual, multi-ethnic and multi-cultural societies where lingua francas acceptable to all are essential (Calteaux, 1996). Calteaux (1996) goes on to show that it is

inevitable that these language varieties would interfere with the standard language usage. Khetoa (2016) points out that multilingualism is integral to South Africa's existence, and it is a reality South Africans cannot escape.

2.6 Sociolinguistic issues resulting from multilingualism

Nkadimeng and Makalela (2015) carried out a study in two high schools in Soweto which highlights the complex socio-linguistic issues that take place in that Township. They applied a science and mathematical concept called "fuzzy logic" to explain the language and identity situation of multilinguals in Soweto. They use this concept to illustrate that indigenous languages are embedded in one another and that young people in Soweto use this hybrid language as a way of negotiating their identity and ethnicity. Zadeh and Kacprzyk (1992) in Nkadimeng and Makalela (2015) say that the fuzzy logic refers to processes of approximations rather than exactness. Nkadimeng and Makalela (2015) apply this concept to explain the fact that in Soweto, there is a constant disruption of language codes and that at the same time new ones are recreated. They argue that multilingualism has disrupted the orderliness of fixed language standards resulting in the use of hybrid language forms.

Despite all these language challenges that learners face in the multilingual environment in which they live, the present curriculum requires them to maintain a high language proficiency in the language they take as a Home Language. The expectation is that a learner should be able to speak and write the Home Language 'properly' adhering to the set grammatical structure of the language concerned. When leaners are assessed, their linguistic repertoire is not taken into consideration.

I argue that the trajectory has to change in the teaching, learning and assessment of Home Languages. Languages have to be approached holistically and assessment of languages has to follow suit. On this issue, Gorter and Cenoz (2017) encourage the use of translanguaging approach to assessment as well. The use of translanguaging has already been discussed above. Gorter and Cenoz (2017) say the use of this approach, looks at a learner as a multilingual person who uses resources from their whole multilingual repertoire. Shohamy (2011) in Gorter and Cenoz (2011) explains how this could be done by proposing that the learners' use of their multilingual resources should be accepted and their 'mixing of languages' be legitimised instead of resulting in penalties because it is regarded as an effective way of communicating ideas that cannot be expressed in one language. In this way, a language would be regarded as a resource as some scholars advocate (Gorter and Cenoz, 2017).

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, two types of assessment were discussed formative and summative assessment. Formative assessment is used during the learning and teaching process to establish whether learners understand what they are being taught while summative assessment is administered at the end of the learning process as a way of judging whether learners grasped what they were taught or not. The focus of the study has been on summative assessment because the essays that were used to provide primary data for the study form part of summative assessment. The chapter discussed multilingualism which is prevalent in urban areas. Language contact also takes place in urban areas as result there is cross influence between languages and this is reflected in learners' essays. Because they are multilingual, learners in urban areas have been found to mix languages thus breaking the grammatical rules of the languages they study as Home Languages.

The next chapter discusses methodology and theoretical framework.

CHAPTER THREE

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter explains different research approaches such as quantitative research approach, qualitative research approach, and mixed method approach. It explains mixed method approach in-depth since it is the research approach that has been chosen for this study. The chapter also details how purposive sampling procedure was followed in the study and goes on to explain how data was collected. In this chapter, the theory of systems thinking which is the theoretical framework of the study has been explained and applied. Finally, the chapter explains how ethical issues were addressed.

3.1 Mixed Method Approach

Research method refers to the tools and techniques that a researcher uses in carrying out his/her investigation (Walliman, 2010). According to Walliman (2010), just as one would choose appropriate tools when doing different types of practical jobs, it is important that the researcher is able to select the correct tools or approaches in his/her study and find ways of using them effectively. Creswell (2014) points out that there are three approaches that can be used in research namely: quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods approach. Quantitative research approach refers to a research method that relies on numerical data while qualitative research approach seeks to use data that gives an interpretation of a given phenomenon (Mohajan, 2018; Babbie and Mouton, 2001 in Mabiletja, 2015). According to Johnson and Christensen (2000) in Mabiletja (2015), a quantitative approach uses graphs, charts and tables to explain and to analyse the findings of a study while a qualitative research approach uses non-numerical data to reach conclusions in a study. Simply put, quantitative research approach relies on numbers, it provides quantities while qualitative approach relies on words to interpret a given situation or phenomenon thus providing qualities instead of quantity. (Creswell, 2014; Walliman, 2010).

In this study, a mixed method approach is used. A mixed methods approach is a combination of features found in both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Creswell, 2014; Mabiletja 2015). A mixed method approach intergrates aspects of quantitative approach and qualitative approach because doing may help to give a better understanding if a subject under investigation is of a complex nature (Azorín and Cameron, 2010; Guetterman et al., 2015). Creswell (2014) concurs, pointing out that mixed method approach gained popularity among researchers because it helps to balance the weaknesses that may be manifested if only quantitative or qualitative approach is used. Highlighting the benefits of using mixed method approach, Doyle et al. (2016) argues that using a mixed method

approach helps to corroborate, to expand and to complete the findings from quantitative and qualitative methods thus giving a full or comprehensive picture of the phenomena that is being investigated. Elaborating on this issue, Doyle et al. (2016) explain that quantitative data can be dry as it contains just numbers, but when those numbers are combined with explanations derived from qualitative data, it is as if 'dry bones' of quantitative data are given 'flesh,' to paint a clear picture of the phenomena under investigation, thus completing it. Fielding (2012) concurs by indicating that statistical data can be enhanced when a clip from an interview is used to bring the issue under investigation to live.

In this study, questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data. Qualitative data has been collected by analysing the data collected from the questionnaires. Tables were used to indicate the number of languages learners speak or use and learners were categorised according to the languages they use or speak. Data was collected by analysing the essay scripts that learners wrote by counting the number of mistakes that learners have made due to influence from other languages. These mistakes were classified according to the categories into which they fall.

3.2 Participants

3.2.1 Sampling technique

Sample refers to a small portion of the population or the universe which is selected to represent the whole (Rai and Thapa, 2015; Etikan et al., 2016). When a researcher plans to do research, he/she should find a way of choosing the portion that will form part of his/her investigation. There are several sampling techniques that can be used, but for the purposes of this study, purposive sampling is used. In purposive sampling, the researcher deliberately chooses certain participants because they are the ones who possess the qualities that form the basis of investigation and are also willing to participate in it (Etikan et al., 2016; Etikan and Bala, 2017).

In this research, fifty grade 11 learners who do Sesotho as a Home Language from two schools in Soweto were chosen to take part in the study. Twenty-five learners were chosen from each school. The learners who took part in the study are between the ages of 16 and 20. They were chosen because they live in an urban area where a number of languages are spoken, not just the language that they do as a Home Language at school. Learners were chosen from the same class and they were chosen according to whether they had obtained high, medium and low marks in the School Based Assessment (SBA) that they wrote in the second term.

3.3 Data collection

3.3.1 Use of a questionnaire

Learners from the two schools where the investigation was carried out were given a questionnaire which they were requested to fill in. The purpose of the questionnaire was to determine how multilingual these learners are as the questions asked were to collect data regarding their knowledge and use of language or languages. Among other things, the questionnaire asked learners to state the number of languages that they speak or use. They were also asked to mention the languages they speak with their families and the number of languages they speak when interacting with their friends. This data helped to establish if leaners are multilingual or not.

3.3.2 Primary data

In this study, essays that learners wrote for their second term School Based Assessment (SBA) task were used to provide data. Learners were given different topics of different types of essays to choose from. The essay types included descriptive, reflective, argumentative, narrative and discursive essays. A descriptive essay is the one that gives a description of a phenomenon, that describes something or a person using a language that would give a vivid image of what is being described. A reflective essay is an essay where the writer gives his/he views or opinion about a certain subject. The writer explains how he/she feels about the subject he/she is writing about. An argumentative essay is an essay in which the writer takes one side of an argument, and provides reasons that support his/her stance. A narrative essay refers to the type of essay where the writer gives a narration of events that took place and he/she presents such events in a chronological order. Finally, the discursive essay is the type of essay where the writer presents both sides of an argument. The writer does not take sides, rather he/she argues for both sides in a balanced way (CAPS, 2011).

Learners in School A were given the following topics to choose from: “Botle le bobe ba thuto ya mahala dikolong” (The pros and cons of free education). This is a discursive essay where a learner is expected to argue for both sides in a balanced way. The other topic that learners were given was: “Ho nyoloha ha ditheko tsa mafura a dikoloi le dijo ho baka tshotleho ho baahi ba naha” (The increasing fuel and food prices lead to hardships in the lives of the country’s citizens.” This is an argumentative essay where a leaner is supposed to argue either for or against the topic providing facts that support his/her stance on the issue. Another topic was: “Phepo ya batjha dikolong e lokela ho fediswa” (The school nutrition programme at schools should be abolished). This topic is also an argumentative essay

and learners were expected to demonstrate whether they were for or against the statement. They had to support the side they took with valid points. The last topic that learners chose was: “Ao tjhe! Meharo ya boradipolotiki tshebedisong e fosahetseng ya matlole a ho thusa le ho ntlafatsa phumantsho ya mosebetsi batjheng ba naha” (The politicians’ greed and misuse of funds intended for assisting the country’s youth and for job creation among the youth is a shame!) This is a reflective essay in which a learner was supposed to present their views and feelings about the topic. In this kind of topic, a learner would have to present facts to support his/her views.

Many learners in School A chose the discursive essay and the topic they chose is: “Botle le bobe ba thuto ya mahala dikolong” (The pros and cons of free education). This topic was chosen by 68 percent of the learners. The second most chosen topic is: “Ho nyoloha ha ditheko tsa mafura a dikoloi e dijo ho baka tshotleho ho baahi ba naha” (The increasing fuel and food prices lead to hardships in the lives of the country’s citizens.” This topic was chosen by 20 percent of the learners. The topic that came third is: “Ao tjhe! Meharo ya boradipolotiki tshebedisong e fosahetseng ya matlole a ho thusa le ho ntlafatsa phumantsho ya mosebetsi batjheng ba naha” (The politicians’ greed and misuse of funds intended for assisting the country’s youth and for job creation among the youth is a shame!) Learners who constitute 8 percent, chose the topic. The last topic which was chosen by learners is: “Phepo ya batjha dikolong e lokela ho fediswa” (The school nutrition programme at schools should be abolished). This topic was chosen by only 4 percent of the learners.

In School B, the topics that learners had to choose from were: “Mohlang baahi ba neng ba kena lethathameng la mabenkele ba inkela thepa” (The day when residents took to the shopping malls to loot). This is a narrative essay and learners were expected to narrate a series of events that took place on that day. The second essay which learners in School B chose is: “Re ne re robile monakedi” (We were relaxing/taking it easy). This topic is derived from a Sesotho proverb which means that people were resting or relaxing. The topic could also take an angle of a narrative essay which would require a leaner to narrate an incident that took place when the leaner and someone or other people were relaxing. The last topic that was chosen by learners in School B is: “Letsatsi la la 16 Phuptjane 1976” (The 16th of June 1976). This essay could be written as a narrative essay, where a leaner would narrate events that took place on that day. Since this is an important day in the history of the country, a learner could also write a reflective essay on this topic. If a leaner wrote a reflective essay, he/she would share his/her views or feelings about this day and what it accomplished in the struggle for quality education in the country.

Leaners in School B chose only three topics. The topic that was chosen by many of the learners is: "Mohlang baahi ba neng ba kena lethathameng la mabenkele ba ikela thepa" (The day when the residents took to the shopping malls to loot). This topic was chosen by 56 percent of learners. The reason for this could be because this incident had just taken place and it was still vivid in their minds. The second topic which is; "Re ne re robile monakedi" (We were relaxing/taking it easy), was selected by 24 percent of learners. The last topic chosen by 20 percent of the learners is: "Letsatsi la la 16 Phuptjane 1976" (The 16th of June 1976).

In these kinds of essays, learners are assessed on their creative writing skills, and on the correct use of language. They are also expected to produce essays that have the correct structure. Learners chose different topics and they were marked by their teachers using a national rubric. On the national rubric, an essay is marked out of 50. The criteria used to mark essays is divided into three sections: Dikahare le Moralo (Content and Planning), Puo le Setaele le Tokiso ya diphoso (Language, Style and Editing), and Sebopeho (Structure). Content and planning carry 30 marks, language, style and editing is allocated 15 marks while structure carries 5 marks. All the three criterion used in marking essays are divided into five level descriptors which are: exceptional, skilful, moderate, elementary and inadequate). The five level descriptors are further divided into upper level and lower level sub categories.

According to the national rubric, under the criteria: content and planning; the marker looks at the ideas presented, how they are organised and whether a learner is aware of the purpose of the topic, the audience and the context. Under language, style and editing; the rubric focuses on whether the grammatical rules of the language have been adhered to. The focus is on language use and conventions, spelling, punctuation and grammar. The marker also looks at whether the correct tone, register, style, and vocabulary has been used and whether it is appropriate to the purpose and context. The marker also checks whether editing has been done. In the final criterion that is used when marking essays which is structure, the marker looks at whether the writer has used the correct structure. In this case, the essay should be written in paragraphs and the sentences should be constructed correctly. (See Appendix J).

The keys used when allocating marks on the essays is DM-which stands for Dikahare le Moralo (Content and Planning); PST- which stands for Puo Setaele le Tokiso ya diphoso (Language, Style and Editing) and Seb- which stands for Sebopeho (Structure). On the first criteria, which is 'content and planning' the learner who has produced an outstanding answer that goes beyond what is expected,

which demonstrates high intelligence, which is very well organised and has an introduction, body and conclusion would be allocated 28-30 marks for exceptional work in the upper level and 25-27 would be allocated for the lower level. If a learner's work is considered to be skilful, the learner would be allocated 22-24, and 19-21 for the lower level. For an essay that is considered to be moderate, the learner would be allocated 16-18 and 13-15 for the lower level. An elementary work would earn a learner 10-12 marks and 7-9 for the lower level. When the learner's work is inadequate that learner would be allocated 0-3 marks.

On the second criteria, which is 'language, style and editing' a learner is allocated the highest marks which is 14-15 if his/her work demonstrates that the tone, register, style and vocabulary used is highly appropriate and the language used is grammatically correct and is very impressive. The work should also be virtually free of errors relating to grammar and spelling. The lower level on these criteria, would be 13. When a learner has demonstrated a skilful performance, he/she is allocated 11-12 marks on the upper level and 10 on the lower level. A moderate performance would earn a learner 8-9 marks on the upper level and 7 marks on the lower level. An elementary performance would be allocated 5-6 in the upper level and 4 in the lower level. An inadequate performance would earn a learner 0-3 marks.

On structure, which is the last criterion on the rubric for marking essays, when a learner has structured his sentences and paragraphs in an exceptional way, he/she is allocated 5 marks. An essay that is skilfully written would earn a learner 4 marks while the essay that is moderately structured would be allocated 3 marks. If the essay demonstrates that it has just been elementarily structured it would earn the learner 2 marks and the one that is inadequately structured would be allocated 0-1.

These essays were analysed focusing on the mistakes made by learners due to influence from other languages. These mistakes were identified and circled with a pencil. The total number of mistakes found were counted and the total number of mistakes was written on the script. Mistakes were then classified according to the category into which they fall. Tables were used to analyse the data. This gives a clear picture of how language mistakes made due to influence from other languages impact the performance of learners who live in a multilingual environment in their Sesotho Home Language.

Mistakes that were identified included the use of lexicon from other languages, expressions from other languages such idiomatic expressions or sentence structure that follows the syntax of other languages or the use of concord from other languages. Looking at the use of lexicon from other languages, mistakes identified showed that some learners used some English words such as 'stress' and 'clinic.'

Some Setswana lexicon found in the Sesotho essays include words such as ‘montle’ (meaning beautiful) instead of using the word ‘motle’ in Sesotho. Sepedi lexicon was also found in some of the learners’ essays. For example, some learners used the word ‘dilo’ which means things instead of using the Sesotho word ‘dintho.’ Mistakes that are made by using the wrong orthography were also identified. The orthography is said to be ‘wrong’ because some words are spelled differently in the orthography used in Lesotho. For example: the word money is spelled ‘chelete’ in the orthography used in Lesotho instead of being spelled ‘tjhelete.’ This is a challenge for some learners, and such learners are marked wrong when they have used the orthography used in Lesotho.

Other mistakes identified in learners’ essays are words that have been coined from other languages. Learners coined words from Afrikaans, English and isiZulu. For example, some learners have used the word ‘mara’ which is coined from the Afrikaans word ‘maar’ meaning (but). Leaners who make this kind of mistake are marked wrong because they did not use the Sesotho word ‘empa.’ Some learners coined words from English by adding vowels to the consonants so that a word may take the structure of a Sesotho word or may sound like a Sesotho word thus ‘Sothofying’ it. For example, some learners have coined the word ‘shopo’ from the English word ‘shop’ by adding the vowel ‘o’ to ‘p’ to make it sound like a Sesotho word.

3.4 Theoretical framework

3.4.1 Theory of systems thinking

According to Mononen (2017), systems thinking is based on the notion that people should look at things differently, and that in order to solve problems the context of relationships should be the focus, rather than looking at things in isolation. This theory puts emphasis on looking at matters holistically and shifting from the mechanical way of doing or looking at matters.

While this theory has been applied in design, it can also be applied in languages. This study seeks to demonstrate that there should be a shift from looking at languages in isolation, it should be realised that languages are not rigid, but they are fluid and the society in which they are found is also dynamic. This calls for significant changes in the way a language is defined, taught, learned, and assessed. The context and relationships are of vital importance in determining how languages should be assessed, thus a holistic approach should be used.

Looking at the example given above, a learner has been marked wrong for using the word ‘montle’ which means beautiful. This word is categorised as a Setswana lexicon. The learner was expected to write ‘motle’ which is categorised as a Sesotho lexicon. The difference in this lexicon is just in

spelling, as the word classified as Setswana has ‘n’ and in the Sesotho letter ‘n’ has been dropped. Since the word has the same meaning, and the difference in spelling is so minor, why should the learner be penalised? If the theory of systems thinking is applied, then the categorisation of languages should be re-visited. Sesotho and Setswana are both from the same cluster, the Sotho cluster and they are mutually intelligible. Applying the theory systems thinking would mean that a learner would not be penalised for using a word that has the same meaning even though it has been spelled differently. This would be in agreement with the argument put forward by Moleleki (1999) who points out that the lexicon of the Sotho languages should not be separated as they are actually one language.

3.5 Analysis of data

In this study, thematic analysis method is used to analyse the data. Clarke et al. (2015) define thematic analysis as a method of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns or themes within data. The data is analysed by first looking at the questionnaires so as to establish the language diversity of learners who do Sesotho as a Home Language. Then the essays they have written are analysed and the mistakes that learners make due to influence from other languages are identified. These mistakes are categorised into themes.

3.6 Ethical considerations

Since the study involved human participants, it was imperative that ethical procedures that ensure adherence to ethical standards were followed. To that end, an ethical clearance application was made to the University of the Witwatersrand Human Research Committee (Non-Medical). The research commenced only after the clearance certificate was issued. The clearance certificate number is H22/10/19 (see Appendix A).

Permission to conduct the study was also sought from the school principals of the two schools where the research took place, from the relevant district office and from the Provincial Department of Education.

In order to ensure that participants were treated fairly, they were provided with information sheets that informed them of the objectives of the study and why they were requested to take part. The information sheets also informed them of what their participation would involve and alerted them of the potential negative or positive consequences emanating from the study. This information was provided so that participants and their parents/guardians could decide whether to take part in the study or not.

Participants and their parents/guardians were made aware that taking part in the study was voluntary and that participants could withdraw from the study at any given time when they no longer wish to participate and were informed that they would not suffer any prejudice because of their withdrawal. Participants and their parents/guardians were also made aware that there was no direct benefit emanating from taking part in the study.

Since participants are minors, two information sheets were provided, one for learners and the other one for parents or guardians. Parent/guardian information sheets were translated into Sesotho to address the issue of language barrier. Parents/guardians were also issued with consent forms as a way of ensuring that they allow their children to take part in the study. The consent forms were also translated into Sesotho. Learners who agreed to take part in the study were also given assent forms to fill in.

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter, has explained what purposive sampling is and detailed how it was used to select participants. Mixed method approach which is the method that was used to collect data for the study was explained. Mixed method approach uses both quantitative and qualitative approached in collecting data. Primary data was collected using questionnaire. The data collected showed that most of the participants were multilingual, speaking between three and eight languages. Essays that learners wrote for their term 2 SBA were analysed to provide primary data. The essays were analysed to identify mistakes that learners could have made due to influence from other languages.

The theory of systems thinking has been used for the study. This is the theory which advocates for looking at the phenomena being studied holistically rather than looking at things in isolation. This will help to make adjustments when they are necessary.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

In quantitative data analysis, the researcher seeks to explain and elaborate the patterns and relationships that emerge from the results of the raw data that has been collected by using numbers (Alberts, 2017). In this chapter, the results of the questionnaire that was given to learners with the purpose of establishing how multilingual they are is presented. The chapter also presents qualitative data which was collected by analysing learners' essay scripts. Language mistakes that learners made due to influence from other languages are identified and grouped into categories such as lexicon from other languages, words coined from other languages and grammatical mistakes that are made due to influence from other languages. Tables are used to present quantitative data.

4.1 Questionnaires

A total of fifty learners from two schools were given a questionnaire to fill in where they were asked to indicate the number of languages they use. Twenty-five learners from each school were selected to take part in the study. The learners were asked to state how many languages they speak, how many languages they speak with their family members and how many languages they speak when interacting with their friends. The questionnaire also requested learners to indicate with an 'X' the language they speak with their family and friends from the ones listed on the questionnaire and if the language did not appear on the list, they were requested to mention that language. The languages on the questionnaire are the ones thought to be dominant in Soweto where the study took place. The languages on the questionnaire are Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi, isiZulu, isiXhosa, Xitsonga, Tshivenda, Sesoweto, Tsotsitaal/Setsotsi and Isicamtho. If learners used another language other than the ones mentioned above, they were asked to write that language on the space provided. English and Sign language were not included on the list purposely because it was expected that learners would mention such languages if they used them either at home or with their friends.

Languages that were mentioned by learners that did not appear on the list are Sepitori, Shona and what learners referred to as 'Lingo.' Upon inquiring from the learners as to what this language called Lingo entails, it was established that this is a township language which is sometimes referred to as 'Sekasi' or 'Township language.' Some scholars refer to this language used in many townships as Kasi-taal (Makalela, 2013). Isicamtho is a non-standard variety that some scholars indicate that it is spoken in Soweto, (Aycard, 2014) but none of the learners who participated in this study seem to use the language.

The data is presented in the form of tables. The data from each school is presented separately and then afterwards a table combining the data from both schools is presented. The first school which is situated in Naledi is referred to as School A whereas the other school which is situated in Molapo is referred to as School B.

The tables below present the data collected.

Table 4.1.1 The number of languages spoken by learners in School A

Number of languages spoken	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	
Number of learners who spoke the number of languages	**4**	**7**	**3**	**8**	**0**	**1**	**2**	**0**	
Percentage of learners who spoke the number of languages	**8%**	**14%**	**6%**	**16%**	**0%**	**2%**	**4%**		

The data above shows that many of the learners who took part in the study speak five languages. These learners constitute 16 percent. Learners who speak the highest number of languages are those who speak 8 languages. These learners make up 4 percent of participants. The data has also indicated that learners who speak only 2 languages constitute 8 percent. These are the learners that could be described as not being multilingual for they speak only the two languages that they learn as subjects at school. For the purposes of this study, learners who speak more than two languages are described as multilingual since they use additional languages to the ones that they learn at school. Learners who were found to be multilingual in School A make up 68 percent of participants. It can then be concluded that many of the learners in School A are multilingual.

Table 4.1.2 The number of languages spoken by learners in School B

Number of languages spoken	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	
Number of learners who spoke the number of languages	**4**	**10**	**5**	**4**	**1**	**1**	**0**	**0**	
Percentage of learners who spoke the number of languages	**8%**	**20%**	**10%**	**8%**	**2%**	**2%**	**0%**		

The data from School B indicates that many of the learners speak three languages. These learners constitute 20 percent of learners who took part in the study. Learners who speak the highest number of languages have been found to be the ones who speak seven languages and they make up 2 percent of the learners. Learners who speak only two languages constitute 8 percent of the learners. Learners who were found to be multilingual in School B make up 68 percent of participants. It can be concluded that many of the learners in School B are also multilingual.

Table 4.1.3 The number of languages spoken by learners in both schools

Number of languages spoken	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	
Number of learners who spoke the number of languages	**8**	**17**	**8**	**12**	**1**	**2**	**2**	**0**	
Percentage of learners who spoke the number of languages	**16%**	**34%**	**16%**	**24%**	**2%**	**4%**	**4%**	**0%**	

The above table gives a summary of the data from the two schools combined. The table shows that many of the learners in both schools speak three languages. The percentage of learners who speak three languages is 34 percent. The highest number of languages spoken by learners is 8. School A is the school where learners were found to speak more languages because it is the school where 4 percent were found to speak 8 languages as opposed to School B where 2 percent of the learners were found to

speak 7 languages, 7 being the highest number of languages they speak. It is also in School A where many of the learners have been found to speak 5 languages, therefore it can be concluded that learners who took part in the study in School A are more multilingual than learners who took part in the study in School B. However, the data shows that many of the learners in both schools combined are multilingual since 84 percent of the learners speak more than three languages. Only 16 percent of the learners speak the two languages that they take as subjects at school, namely Sesotho and English.

Table 4.1.4 The number of languages spoken by learners with their family members in School A

Number of languages spoken	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**
Number of learners who spoke the number of languages	**8**	**6**	**7**	**2**	**2**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Percentage of learners	**16%**	**12%**	**14%**	**4%**	**4%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**

The data from the table above shows that in School A, many of the learners only spoke one language with their family members. These learners make up 16 percent of the learners who took part in the study in School A. However, the data shows that a sizable number of learners used three languages for communication in the family. This group constitutes 14 percent of participants in School A. The data also showed that the highest number of languages that learners use for communication in the family setting is five. The data has also demonstrated that 68 percent of learners in School A used more than one language when they communicate with their families and this is a clear demonstration that even in the family setting there is multilingualism.

Table 4.1.5 The number of languages spoken by learners with their family members in School B

Number of languages spoken	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**
Number of learners who spoke the number of languages	**19**	**1**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	
Percentage of learners	**38%**	**2%**	**4%**	**4%**	**2%**	**0%**	**0%**		

The table above indicates that many of the learners in School B used only one language in the family setting. These learners constitute 38 percent of learners who participated in the study in School B. Just as in School A, the highest number of languages spoken by learners with their families in School B is five. Learners who speak five languages with their family members make up 2 percent of participants. In School B, only 24 percent of learners used more than one language when communicating with their family members. This shows in School B the level of multilingualism in the family setting is lower than in School A.

Table 4.1.6 The total number of languages spoken by learners with family members in the two schools

Number of languages spoken	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**
Number of learners who spoke the number of languages	**27**	**7**	**9**	**4**	**3**	**0**	**0**	**0**	
Percentage of learners	**54%**	**14%**	**18%**	**8%**	**6%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	

Looking at the table above which combines data from the two schools it is observed that many of the learners in the two schools speak only one language with their family members. These learners make

up 54 percent of learners who took part in the study. The highest number of languages that learners from both schools speak with their family members is five. Learners who speak five languages with their family members make up 6 percent of participants. One interesting observation is that even though many of the learners speak only one language with their family members, still a sizable amount of them speaks more than one language when communicating with their family members. Learners who use more than one language to facilitate communication with their family members make up 46 percent. This is an indication that the level of multilingualism within the family circle is still high among participants in the two schools.

Table 4.1.7 The number of languages spoken by learners with their friends in School A

Number of languages spoken	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**
Number of learners who spoke the number of languages	**7**	**4**	**8**	**2**	**2**	**0**	**1**	**1**	**0**
Percentage of learners	**14%**	**8%**	**16%**	**4%**	**4%**	**0%**	**2%**	**2%**	**0%**

The above table indicates that many of the learners who took part in the study in School A speak 3 languages when they communicate with their friends. The data shows that the highest number of languages that learners in this school speak with their friends is 8. Only 14 percent of participants in School A pointed out that they speak only one language with their friends. The data from the table above demonstrates that learners in School A use the highest number of languages in communicating with their friends. This data supports what Prah (2010) has observed, that when children play together with their friends that is when they pick up their friend's language. The data indicates that the highest number of languages that participants in both schools use when communicating with their families is 5 and yet the highest number of languages they use in communicating with their friends is 8. This shows that participants use a wide variety of languages to facilitate communication with their friends and they demonstrate high level of multilingualism on this front.

Table 4.1.8 The number of languages spoken by learners with their friends in School B

Number of languages spoken	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**
Number of learners who spoke the number of languages	**12**	**8**	**2**	**2**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Percentage of learners	**24%**	**16%**	**4%**	**4%**	**2%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**	**0%**

The table above indicates that many of the learners who took part in the study in School B speak 1 language when they communicate with their friends. These learners make up 24 percent of participants in School B. The data also shows that the highest number of languages that learners in School B speak with their friends is 5. This number is low when compared with School A where the highest number of languages that learners there speak with their friends is 8. It is for this reason that one concludes that learners in School A have demonstrated higher level of multilingualism than learners in School B.

Table 4.1.9 The total number of languages spoken by learners with their friends in the two schools

Number of languages spoken	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**
Number of learners who spoke the number of languages	**19**	**12**	**10**	**4**	**3**	**0**	**1**	**1**	**0**
Percentage of learners	**38%**	**24%**	**20%**	**8%**	**6%**	**0%**	**2%**	**2%**	**0%**

The table above indicates that a high number of learners who took part in the study in the two schools speak only one language with their friends. These learners make up 38 percent of participants. However, the table shows that many of the learners speak more than one language when communicating with their friends. The data demonstrates that learners who make up 62 percent

communicate with their friends in more than one language. This is a clear indication that there is indeed a high level of multilingualism in Soweto among grade 11 Sesotho learners.

Table 4.1.10 Languages and the number of learners who speak them in School A

Language	**Number of learners who use the language**	**Percentage of learners who use the language**
Setswana	8	16%
Sepedi	2	4%
isiZulu	15	30%
isiXhosa	3	6%
Xitsonga	1	2%
Tshivenda	1	2%
Sesoweto	12	24%
Tsotsitaal/Setsotsi	5	10%
Isicamtho	0	0%
Lingo	0	0%
Sepetori	1	2%
Shona	0	0%

The data collected in School A shows that many of the learners who took part in the study speak isiZulu. Learners constituting 30 percent of participants indicated that they speak isiZulu. The second language that is spoken by a high number of learners in School A is Sesoweto or isiSoweto (Webb, 2010 in Ditsele and Mann, 2016; Mokgwathi, 2011). Sesoweto literally means ‘a language of Soweto’. In Sesotho, just like in Setswana and Sepedi, a language name is prefixed by Se-, so in this case, the prefix se- has been affixed to the word Soweto to give it the form of a language name (Ditsele and Mann, 2016). Sesoweto is a non-standard variety spoken by some people in Soweto especially young

people. However, data from the study indicated that some learners speak Sesoweto with their family members thus demonstrating that some adults also speak this variety. Mokgwathi (2011) describes isiSoweto or Sesoweto as a variety that mixes Setswana, isiZulu and other languages that are used by people who speak different languages in Soweto.

Another language that appeared to be spoken by grade 11 Sesotho learners who took part in School A is Setswana. The data showed that learners who constitute 16 percent of participants speak this language. The other languages that are spoken by learners who took part in the study in School A are Setsotsi/Tsotsitaal which is spoken by 10 percent of participants, isiXhosa which is spoken by 6 percent, Sepedi is spoken by 4 percent of participants and Sepitori which appears to be spoken by 2 percent of participants.

Table 4.1.11 Languages and the number of learners who speak them in School B

Language	**Number of learners who use the language**	**Percentage of learners who use the language**
Setswana	5	10%
Sepedi	2	4%
isiZulu	12	24%
isiXhosa	1	2%
Xitsonga	1	2%
Tshivenda	0	0%
Sesoweto	13	26%
Tsotsitaal/Setsotsi	5	10%
Isicamtho	0	0%
Lingo	1	2%
Sepetori	0	0%
Shona	1	2%

The data presented in the table above shows that in School B Sesoweto comes top as the language that is spoken by many of the grade 11 Sesotho learners. Learners who make up 26 percent speak Sesoweto. The language that comes second in School B is isiZulu which is spoken by 24 percent of participants. Setsotsi/Tsotsitaal comes third with 10 percent of the learners who took part in the study showing that it is one of the languages that they speak. Each of the other four languages namely; isiXhosa, Xitsonga, Shona and Lingo, are spoken by 2 percent of participants. In School B none of the learners indicated that he/she speaks Tshivenda, Isicamtho and Sepitori.

Table 4.1.12 Languages and the total number of learners who speak them in the two schools

Language	**Number of learners who use the language**	**Percentage of learners who use the language**
Setswana	13	26%
Sepedi	4	8%
isiZulu	27	54%
isiXhosa	4	8%
Xitsonga	2	4%
Tshivenda	1	2%
Sesoweto	25	48%
Tsotsitaal/Setsotsi	10	20%
Isicamtho	0	0%
Lingo	1	2%
Sepitori	1	2%
Shona	1	2%

The key finding from the data obtained from the two schools is that Sesotho grade 11 learners in the two schools are multilingual. The findings show that IsiZulu is the language that is spoken by many of

the learners. This language is spoken by 54 percent of participants. Sesoweto comes second with 48 percent of learners claiming to speak the language. Setswana came at number three as one of the languages spoken by grade 11 Sesotho learners in the two schools. Sepedi and isiXhosa both came at number four as each of them is spoken by 8 percent of the participants. Xitsonga is the fifth language that is spoken by participants in the two schools combined. Learners who make up 4 percent have indicated that this is one of the languages they use in communicating with others. The following languages; Tshivenda, Lingo, Sepitori and Shona are each spoken by 2 percent of participants in the two schools. None of the leaners mentioned Isicamtho as one of the languages that they speak. The fact that many of the learners are multilingual could explain why in their essays they make a number of grammatical mistakes such as using the wrong concord which is explained in detail in 4.5 below.

4.2 Analysis of learners' essays

Table 4.2.1 Number of language mistakes due to influence from other languages found in learners' essays in School A

Number of mistakes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Number of learners who made the mistakes	0	4	2	4	7	3	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
Percentage of learners who made the mistakes	0%	8%	4%	8%	14%	6%	2%	0%	2%	2%	0%	0%	0%

In the data presented in the table above, it is observed that many of leaners in School A made 7 language mistakes due to influence from other languages in their essays. These learners constitute 14 percent of participants. Eight percent of the learners made 1 and 3 mistakes respectively. Learners that make up 6 percent made 5 language mistakes while 2 percent of participants made 6, 8 and 9 mistakes. The highest number of language mistakes due to influence from other languages that were made by leaners in School A is 9. No learner was found to have made no language mistake.

Table 4.2.2 Number of language mistakes due to influence from other languages found in learners' essays in School B

Number of mistakes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Number of learners who made the mistakes	7	5	4	3	1	1	1	2	0	0	1	1	1
Percentage of learners who made the mistakes	14%	10%	8%	6%	2%	2%	2%	4%	0%	0%	2%	2%	2%

The table above presents data indicating the number of language mistakes which learners made due to influence from other languages. The data shows that many of the learners did not make any language mistakes due to influence from other languages. These learners constitute 14 percent of participants. Learners who make up 10 percent of the learners in School B only made one language mistake due to influence from other languages. Leaners who made 3 mistakes come at number three, and these learners make up 6 percent of participants in School B. The equal number of learners made 4, 5, 6, 10, 11 and 12 language mistakes. Each of the number of mistakes just mentioned, was made by 2 percent of participants. It is interesting to note that even though many of the learners in School B did not make language mistakes due to influence from other languages, it is also in this school where the highest number of language mistakes were made. It is observed that the data from the school shows that 2 percent of participants made 12 mistakes, which is the highest number of mistakes made.

Table 4.2.3 The total number of language mistakes due to influence from other languages found in learners' essays in the two Schools

Number of mistakes	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Number of learners who made the mistakes	7	9	6	7	8	4	2	2	1	1	1	1	1
Percentage of learners who made the mistakes	14%	18%	12%	14%	16%	8%	4%	4%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%

The table above presents the number of mistakes that were made by learners from both schools combined. The data shows that many of the learners made 1 language mistake due to influence from other languages. Learners who made one language mistake due to influence from other languages make up 18 percent of total participants. Learners who constitute 16 percent made 4 language mistakes due to influence from other languages. Next is the group of learners who made 3 language mistakes, this group of participants constitute 14 percent of participants. The other group of learners made 2 language mistakes and these ones make up 12 percent of participants. The rest of the learners made 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 language mistakes due to influence from other languages. Each of the number of mistakes just mentioned, was made by 2 percent of participants who took part in the study in the two schools combined.

Table 4.2.4 Analysis of learners' performance in School A

Rating code	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Number passed	Number failed
Percentage	80-100	70-79	60-69	50-59	40-49	30-39	0-29		
Description of competence	Outstanding achievement	Meritorious achievement	Substantial achievement	Adequate achievement	Moderate achievement	Elementary achievement	Not achieved		
Number of learners who obtained	4	12	3	4	0	2	0	23	
Percentage of learners	16%	48%	12%	16%	0%	8%	0%	92%	8%

The table above presents the data of how learners performed in their essays in School A. The data shows that 92 percent of learners in this school passed their SBA task in essay writing. Leaners who did not pass constitute 8 percent of participants. The data also shows that 16 percent of learners obtained between 80 and 100 percent and that is an outstanding achievement. Many of the learners in School A achieved between 70 and 79 percent. However, it is concerning that 8 percent of the learners did not pass in the essays that they wrote. While their performance is not entirely based on the mistakes they made due to influence from other languages, these mistakes contributed to their poor performance.

Table 4.2.5 Analysis of learners' performance in School B

Rating code	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Number passed	Number failed
Percentage	80-100	70-79	60-69	50-59	40-49	30-39	0-29		
Description of competence	Outstanding achievement	Meritorious achievement	Substantial achievement	Adequate achievement	Moderate achievement	Elementary achievement	Not achieved		
Number of learners who obtained	0	4	3	11	3	3	1	21	4
Percentage of learners	0%	16%	12%	44%	12%	12%	4%	84%	16%

The data from the table above shows that in School B many of the learners got between 50 and 59 percent. This is adequate achievement but it is not impressive considering that this is a formal task. Learners are expected to perform better in their formal tasks as they are not given under examination conditions which in most cases make learners nervous. None of the learners in School B obtained between 80 and 100 percent which is an outstanding achievement. The data reveals that only 84 percent of the learners in School B passed their essay writing task. Learners who make up 16 percent did not pass. This is very concerning because the percentage of learners who did not pass is higher in School B.

Table 4.2.6 A combined analysis of learners' performance in the two schools

Rating code	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Number passed	Number failed
Percentage	80-100	70-79	60-69	50-59	40-49	30-39	0-29		
Description of competence	Outstanding achievement	Meritorious achievement	Substantial achievement	Adequate achievement	Moderate achievement	Elementary achievement	Not achieved		
Number of learners who obtained	4	16	6	15	3	5	1	44	6
Percentage of learners	8%	32%	12%	50%	6%	10%	2%	88%	12%

The data above shows that only 88 percent of learners who took part in the study in the two schools combined passed their essay SBA task. The data also indicates that learners constituting 12 percent did not pass. These are the learners who obtained less than 40 percent. Many of the learners who participated in the study obtained between 50 and 59 percent. This is just an adequate performance. The pass percentage in Home Languages at FET Phase is 40 percent whereas the pass percentage in other subjects is 30 percent.

Clearly, the standard set for Home Languages is higher than the standard set for the other content subjects. Two percent of the learners who did not pass their task, are the ones who have been found to have made the most language mistakes observed. They made eleven and twelve mistakes respectively. The data also shows that only 8 percent of the learners who took part in the study in both schools combined obtained marks above 80 percent. The learners who obtained high marks still made language mistakes due to influence from other languages. They made between 2 and 4 mistakes. This means that their marks on language were reduced. If they had not made such mistakes maybe they could have performed even better.

It is concerning that not all learners passed their essay task because if a learner fails a Home Language, he/she cannot progress to the next grade. One of the pass requirements in the FET Phase is that a Home Language should be passed in order for a leaner to pass.

4.3 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

Language mistakes made by learners due to influence from other languages have been grouped into three categories; lexicon and proverbs from other languages, words coined from other languages, and grammatical mistakes. Lexicon from other languages has been grouped into three categories. These

categories comprise of lexicon from the English language, Setswana and Sepedi lexicon. Words coined from other languages have also been divided into three groups. The first group is made up of words coined from English, the next group is that of words coined from Afrikaans and the last group comprises of words coined from isiZulu. The data is presented in the form of tables. The data from each school is presented separately. The first school is referred to as School A whereas the second school is referred to as School B. It is interesting to note that even though some learners indicated that they use languages such as isiXhosa, Xitsonga, Tshivenda and Shona, lexicon from these languages does not appear in their essays.

The tables below list lexicon from other languages that was found in the Sesotho essays that grade 11 learners wrote for their formal assessment.

Table 4.3.1 English lexicon found in learners' essays in School A

English lexicon	Sesotho word/expression
▪ Celebrity ▪ stress ▪ territory ▪ built ▪ government ▪ 100% pass rate ▪ Africa ▪ Cancer ▪ taxi rank ▪ feeding scheme ▪ text book ▪ rubber bullet ▪ late ▪ drugs ▪ supermarket ▪ Municipal Hall ▪ Afrikaans Medium Decree ▪ resources	▪ motho ya tsebahalang/kgalala ▪ kgatello ya maikutlo ▪ sebaka ▪ ho aha ▪ mmuso ▪ baithuti ba pasa kaofela/ ba pasa ka diperesente tse l00 ▪ Afrika ▪ kankere/mofetshe ▪ renkeng ya ditekesi/ moo ditekesi di palamelwang ▪ lenane la phepo dikolong ▪ buka ▪ dikulo tsa rabara ▪ ho fihla ka morao ho nako ▪ dithethefatsi ▪ lebenkeleng le leholo ▪ Holong ya Motse/Holong ya Mmasepala ▪ Molao wa hore batho ba rutwe ka Seafrikanse ▪ disebediswa

The table above presents English words or English phrases which learners in School A used in their essays. It was observed that learners used these words or phrases in their sentences as they are, they did not modify them.

Table 4.3.2 English lexicon found in learners' essays in School B

English lexicon	Sesotho word/expression
▪ public schools ▪ commission ▪ bursary ▪ pen ▪ advantage ▪ television ▪ communicate ▪ council ▪ pandemonium ▪ Apartheid ▪ petrol ▪ tear gas ▪ mall ▪ looting ▪ lodge ▪ the Boers ▪ South Africa ▪ School fees	▪ dikolo tsa mmuso ▪ komishene ▪ tjhelete ya dihlapiso ▪ pene ▪ monyetla ▪ thelevishene ▪ ho buisana ▪ lekgotla ▪ pherekano ▪ Kgethollo ya mmala ▪ peterole/mafura a makoloi ▪ kgase e llisang mahlo/ e fahlang ▪ lethathama la mabenkele ▪ ho inkela thepa/ho utswa thepa ▪ sebaka sa baeti ▪ Maburu ▪ Afrika Borwa ▪ Tjhelete ya ditefello tsa sekolo

The table above presents English words or English phrases which learners in School B used in their sentences. Just as in School A, learners in School B used the above English words or phrases as they are, they did not make any modifications on them.

Table 4.3.3 Setswana lexicon found in learners' essays in School A

Setswana lexicon/proverb	Sesotho word/expression	Meaning in English
▪ Montle ▪ banyana ▪ bone ▪ seemo ▪ feditse ▪ tswelela ▪ tlhokofala ▪ mafelelong ▪ tshipi ▪ oketsa ▪ ho ema nokeng (go ema nokeng) ▪ ho didimala ▪ ho palelwa ▪ jaaka	▪ motle ▪ banana ▪ bona ▪ boemo ▪ qetile ▪ ntshetsapele ▪ hlokahala ▪ qetellong ▪ tshepe ▪ eketsa ▪ ho tshehetsa/thusa ▪ ho thola/ho se bue ▪ ho hloleha ▪ jwaloka	▪ beautiful ▪ girls ▪ them ▪ situation ▪ finished ▪ continue ▪ die ▪ at the end ▪ iron ▪ increase ▪ to help ▪ to be silent/to keep quiet ▪ to be unable ▪ like/as/such as

The table above presents Setswana lexicon that was found in the essays that learners wrote in School A. The data shows that learners in this school used Setswana words, phrases as well as proverbs. It is observed that words and phrases were taken as they are, they were not modified. However, the proverb was modified because the learner used 'ho' ema nokeng instead of 'go' ema nokeng which would be the correct construction in Setswana. The learner used 'ho' in the Sesotho sentence which is a noun class prefix for class 15 in Sesotho (Demuth and Ellis, 2009).

Table 4.3.4 Setswana lexicon found in learners' essays in School B

Setswana lexicon/proverb	Sesotho word/expression	Meaning in English
▪ baagi ▪ gonne ▪ bone ▪ oketsa ▪ jaanong ▪ gape ▪ tlhokofala ▪ ditena ▪ tshipi ▪ oketsa	▪ baahi ▪ hobane ▪ bona ▪ eketsa ▪ jwale ▪ hape ▪ hlokahala ▪ ditene ▪ tshepe ▪ eketsa	▪ residents ▪ because ▪ them ▪ increase ▪ now/then ▪ again ▪ to pass away ▪ bricks ▪ iron ▪ increase

▪ go ema nokeng ▪ tirong ▪ botlhale ▪ bosigo ▪ ho boifa (go boifa)	▪ ho tshehetsa/thusa ▪ mosebetsing ▪ bohlale ▪ bosiu ▪ ho tshaba	▪ to help/to assist/to support ▪ at work ▪ wise/clever/intelligent ▪ at night ▪ to be scared/afraid

In the table above, Setswana lexicon that was found in the essays that learners wrote in School B is presented. The data shows that some learners in School B used Setswana words, phrases as well as proverbs. It is observed that words were taken as they are, they were not modified. However, some phrases and a proverb were modified to match Sesotho sentence construction. For example, one learner used the Setswana proverb 'go ema nokeng,' which means to assist or to help or to support. However, the learner modified the proverb by using the Sesotho noun class prefix for class 15 which is 'ho' instead of using the Setswana form which would be 'go' ema nokeng. What this learner matches what was done by another learner in School A. In another example a learner has used the phrase 'ho boifa' which means 'to be afraid of' or 'to be scared'. The correct Setswana sentence construction would be 'go boifa'. The learner modified the phrase by using 'ho' which takes the Sesotho sentence construction.

Table 4.3.5 Sepedi lexicon found in learners' essays in School A

Sepedi lexicon	Sesotho word/expression	Meaning in English
▪ selo ▪ rutisa ▪ thopya (thopa) ▪ Pefo ▪ Lethabo ▪ tsena sekolo ▪ maswika ▪ gapeletsa (gapeletša) ▪ ho dira ▪ lefaseng ▪ mafaseng ▪ ge batho ▪ ho sepela ▪ dilo	▪ letho ▪ ruta ▪ hlola ▪ kgalefo ▪ thabo ▪ kena sekolo ▪ majwe ▪ qobella/hatella ▪ ho etsa ▪ lefatsheng ▪ mafatsheng ▪ ha batho ▪ ho tsamaya ▪ dintho	▪ nothing ▪ teach ▪ conquer ▪ anger ▪ happiness ▪ attending school ▪ stones ▪ force ▪ to do ▪ on the earth ▪ in other countries ▪ when people ▪ to walk ▪ things

The table above presents Sepedi words and phrases which were found in learners' essays. Many of the words and phrases were not modified. The observation is that in some instances the spelling may have

not been the correct Sepedi spelling but the word would be a Sepedi word. For example, one learner used the word ‘gapeletsa’ instead of (gapeletša). Another example is the word ‘thopya’ which was used instead of the word ‘thopa’ which is the correct Sepedi spelling.

Table 4.3.6 Sepedi lexicon found in learners’ essays in School B

Sepedi lexicon	Sesotho word/expression	Meaning in English
▪ selo ▪ rutisa ▪ thopya (thopa) ▪ Pefo ▪ Lethabo ▪ E feela (eupša)	▪ letho ▪ ruta ▪ hlola ▪ kgalefo ▪ thabo ▪ empa	▪ nothing ▪ teach ▪ conquer ▪ anger ▪ happiness ▪ but

The data presented in the tables above shows that many of the words adopted from any of the languages belonging to the Sotho cluster namely; Setswana or Sepedi (Sesotho sa Leboa) are adopted as they are, learners just substitute the Sesotho word with either a Setswana or Sepedi word. It is in a few instances where the spelling was changed to match the Sesotho spelling. This data shows that in most cases learners are not able to distinguish between the lexicon of the language they are learning as a Home Language which is Sesotho and the lexicon of the other sister languages namely; Sepedi and Setswana. It may be that they consider such words as just synonyms. The examples above, show that some English words are also used to substitute Sesotho words. This could be because learners lacked the Sesotho vocabulary.

4.4 Coined words/adoptives

Some learners coin or adopt words from other languages by modifying them so that they follow the grammatical structure of the Sesotho language. Some learners have adopted Afrikaans, English and isiZulu words but these words have been Sothofied. For example; the Afrikaans word-plek- which has been modified to poleke when used in Sesotho is a typical example of how learners use the adoptives or coined words. The vowels-o- and -e- were added to the consonants-p-and-k- to give them the Sesotho sound and to take the Sesotho spelling. The same thing has been done with English words where the vowels are generally used to ‘Sothofy’ the English word. For example, a learner may take an English word mask and add the vowel /e-/ to the consonants /s-/and /k-/ to ‘Sothofy’ it.

The tables below list some of the words learners coined from other languages.

Table 4.4.1 Words coined/adopted from English in School A

Coined word	Original word/phrase	Sesotho word/expression
▪ phasele ▪ diclinic ▪ ekhonoming ▪ bajetheng ▪ principale ▪ dichips ▪ dilawyara ▪ phasa ▪ shopong ▪ diguerilla ▪ shota ▪ ditoileteng ▪ tlelaseng ▪ maseke	▪ parcel ▪ clinics ▪ in the economy ▪ budget ▪ principal ▪ chips ▪ lawyers ▪ pass ▪ at the shop ▪ guerrilla ▪ short of ▪ at the toilets ▪ in class ▪ mask	▪ sephuthelwana ▪ ditliliniki ▪ moruong ▪ tshebediso ya tjhelete ▪ mosuwehlooho ▪ ditjhipisi ▪ babuelli ba molao ▪ ho atleha ▪ lebenkeleng ▪ balwanedi ba tokoloho ▪ ho haellwa ▪ matlwaneng ▪ phaposing ▪ semonkwana

The table above presents words which learners in School A coined or adopted from English. The learners used different strategies to 'Sothofy' the words. In some cases, they changed the spelling to take the form of Sesotho words, in some cases they changed the words so that phonetically it would sound like a Sesotho word. For example, one learner adopted the English word 'parcel' and changed it to the word 'phasele.' This learner has used the Sesotho spelling with the English sound. The learner realised that the English produce the bilabial sound [pʰ] and used the same sound in Sesotho by writing it as 'phasele.' In Sesotho [ph] is a bilabial sound [pʰ]. In some cases, the learner just changed the spelling to the Sesotho spelling while the word is pronounced in exactly the same way. For example, one learner adopted the word 'lawyers' and wrote it as 'dilawyara' in Sesotho. This learner used the prefix 'di-' indicating that the word is in plural form and then changed the spelling 'law**yer**' to 'law**yara**' in order to take the Sesotho spelling.

Table 4.4.2 Words coined/adopted from English in School B

Coined word	Original word/phrase	
▪ lata ▪ fenishara ▪ gavamente ▪ banto education ▪ economi ▪ strouku ▪ granta	▪ late ▪ furnisher ▪ government ▪ bantu education ▪ economy ▪ stroke ▪ grant	▪ ka morao ho nako/ho ba morao nakong ▪ thepa ya ka tlung ▪ mmuso ▪ thuto ya batho ba batsho ▪ moruo ▪ ho shwa lehlakore ▪ tjhelete ya dithuso

Table 4.4.3 Words coined/adopted from Afrikaans in School A

Coined word	Original word/phrase	Sesotho word/expression	Meaning in English
▪ tura ▪ betere ▪ mara ▪ rasa ▪ patala	▪ duur ▪ beter ▪ maar ▪ geraas ▪ betaal	▪ theko e hodimo ▪ e molemo ▪ empa ▪ ho baka lerata/ho hlodiya ▪ lefa	▪ expensive ▪ better ▪ but ▪ to make noise ▪ to pay

The above table shows that learners in school A adopted some words from the Afrikaans language by changing the spelling of such words to match the Sesotho spelling. Generally, most of the words they adopted, have already been adopted in spoken Sesotho. Learners could have used these words in their written essays because they are not aware that they are not considered as formal written language.

Table 4.4.4 Words coined/adopted from Afrikaans in School B

Coined word	Original word/phrase	Sesotho word/expression	Meaning in English
▪ jara ▪ kolomaka ▪ poleke ▪ skolo ▪ patala	▪ jaar ▪ skoon maak ▪ plek ▪ skool ▪ betaal	▪ selemo ▪ ho hlwekisa ▪ sebaka ▪ sekolo ▪ lefa	▪ year ▪ to clean ▪ place ▪ school ▪ to pay

The words presented in the table above were found in the essays of learners in School B. Just like in School A, learners adopted words from the Afrikaans language by changing the spelling to match the Sesotho spelling. For example, in the word ‘plek’ the learner just added vowels to the consonants so that the word can take the Sesotho spelling. Some of the words are generally used in spoken language, so it could be that learners were not aware that they are not considered as formal written language.

Table 4.4.5 Words coined/adopted from isiZulu in School A

Coined word	Original word/phrase	Sesotho word/expression	Meaning in English
▪ tlametse ▪ mokgolo ▪ ho phumella ▪ ho hlala ▪ ho yehla	▪ kumele ▪ iholo ▪ ukuphumelela ▪ dlala ▪ ukuyehla	▪ tlamehile/tshwanetse ▪ moputso ▪ ho atleha ▪ ho bapala ▪ ho fokotseha/ho theoha	▪ have to/must ▪ salary/wage ▪ to succeed ▪ to play ▪ to decrease

The above table presents words that learners in School A adopted from isiZulu. In some cases, learners changed the spelling of the isiZulu word that they have adopted yet the word is still pronounced the same way. For example, a learner has adopted the word ‘dlala’ to play and spelled it ‘hlala’ in Sesotho.

In some instances, the phrase where an isiZulu adoptive is used, it is changed to take the Sesotho sentence construction. For example, a learner adopted the isiZulu phrase ‘ukuyehla’ and changed it to ‘ho yehla’ in Sesotho. In this case, instead of using the prefix /uku-/ which is an isiZulu way of constructing phrases, the learner used the Sesotho way of constructing sentences by using /ho-yehla.

Table 4.4.6 Words coined/adopted from isiZulu in School B

Coined word	Original word/phrase	Sesotho word/expression	Meaning in English
▪ a solwe ▪ hlakana ▪ ho phumella ▪ ho hlala ▪ ho bala	▪ ukusola ▪ ukuhlangana ▪ ukuphumelela ▪ dlala ▪ ukufunda	▪ a qoswe ▪ ho kopana ▪ ho atleha ▪ ho bapala ▪ ho ithuta	▪ to be accused ▪ to meet ▪ to succeed ▪ to play ▪ to study

The above table presents words that learners in School B adopted from isiZulu. Just like in School A, learners in School B changed the spelling of the adopted words so that the spelling follows the Sesotho way of spelling words. In some cases, however, learners adopted an isiZulu word which conveys a different thought in Sesotho. For example, some learners adopted the isiZulu phrase ‘ukufunda’ which means ‘to study’ and used it in Sesotho as ‘ho bala.’ The context in which they used this phrase conveys the isiZulu meaning not the Sesotho meaning because in Sesotho ‘ho bala’ means ‘to read’ not to study. This means the leaner was writing in Sesotho but was thinking in isiZulu.

4.5 Grammatical mistakes

Each language has grammatical rules and standards that learners are expected to adhere to (Malimabe, 2014). In their written work, such as essays learners are expected to use the correct word order or syntax and to use the correct concord. Norris (2017) defines a concord as a noun modifier and points out that such modifiers, should be in line with certain features of the noun they are written or used in conjunction with such as gender or number. Nndwamato (2017) argues that subject agreement or concord plays a very important part in language competency. A concord can connect a subject and a verb and it needs to be used in such a way that a sentence makes sense. Sesotho like many Bantu languages uses a noun class system where nouns are classified using numbers. Van de Velde (2019)

points out that odd numbers are used for singular nouns whereas even numbers are used for nouns that are in the plural form. For example, in Sesotho the prefix for class 1 is /mo-/ this means that nouns which begin with /mo-/ (words that refer to human beings) fall. Then class 2 will be the plural form of such nouns and the prefix of nouns falling under class 2 is /ba-/. Following this noun classification, in a sentence, the concord that connects a verb and a noun should be in agreement. For instance, in a sentence where a noun from class 1 is used, then the concord that connects the noun with the verb would be /o/. A typical example: Monna o ja nama (a man eats meat). The correct concord here is /o/. The same sentence in the plural form would be: Banna ba ja nama (men eat meat). Because the noun is in the plural form, so is the concord. The concord has been changed so that it can agree with the plural form of the noun.

However, in the Sesotho essays that learners wrote in their assessment, some of the Sesotho grammatical rules were not adhered to. In some instances, the concord used was wrong. Some of these mistakes gave an indication that they are the result of influence from other languages. The tables below list some of these grammatical mistakes.

4.5.1 The use of wrong concord in School A

- Moithuti **o** mong le **o** mong- the correct phrase would be – moithuti **e** mong le **e** mong. The learner has used the wrong concord in this case. This concord would be correct in Sepedi. It is observed that the learner has used the concord -o- with the word ‘moithuti’ which has the prefix mo-. This word is from Class 1 < mo- so the correct concord in this case would be ‘e’.
- Motho **o** ba fang- the correct phrase would be- motho **ya** ba fang.
- E mong **ya** baithuti – the correct phrase would be- e mong **wa** baithuti.
- Le **e** meng **ya** matitjhere- the correct phrase would be- le **a** mang **a** matitjhere
- Dikatiba tsa mmala oo **o** seng wa sekolo- the correct phrase would be- dikatiba tsa mmala oo **e** seng wa sekolo.

4.5.2 The use of wrong concord in School B

- Bana ba mme **o** le **ngwe**- the correct phrase would be- bana ba mme **a** le **mong.** The learner has used the wrong concord. The correct concord to go with 'mme' is 'a' not 'o' and 'mong' not 'nngwe'.
- Ha se mang le mang **o** ka qetang dithuto tsa hae- the correct phrase would be- ha se mang le mang **ya** ka qetang dithuto tsa hae.

4.5.3 The use of wrong locative in School A

- **Mo** skolong- The use of the locative 'mo' is not correct in Sesotho. In Sesotho, the suffix -ng denotes locative when it is affixed to a word such as 'sekolo'. The leaner did not have to use 'mo' sekolong because -ng is sufficient to indicate that the action is taking place at school.
- E **ko** Rockville- the correct phrase would be- **e** Rockville, the use of locative 'ko' in Sesotho is not necessary.

4.5.4 The use of wrong locative in School B

- Ba nka thepa **kwa** mabenkeleng- the correct Sesotho phrase does not require the addition of the locative-kwa.
  The learner has already used the suffix-ng at the end of the word 'mabenkele' thus indicating that the action took place at the shops (mabenkeleng). Addition of locative-kwa is influenced by Setswana which uses -kwa as a locative. For example, in the phrase 'kwa magodimong' (in the heavens) the word 'kwa' is used as a locative. In Sesotho 'mahodimong' would be used and the suffix-ng would have been enough to indicate that the writer is referring to the place of heaven.
- Ba feta le **ko** Ibhongo Secondary School- the correct phrase in Sesotho would be- ba feta le Sekolong se Bohareng sa Ibhongo. Referring to the name of the school is enough to show that the people went pass this particular school.

Other grammatical mistakes are due to the use of the 'wrong' orthography. As has been explained above, if a learner uses the orthography used in Lesotho, where there is variation from the one used in South Africa, that learner would be penalised.

Table 4.5.5 Use of wrong orthography in School A

'Wrong' orthography	Correct orthography	Meaning in English
▪ **C**helete ▪ Se**ch**abeng ▪ **'**me ▪ **Ch**ankaneng ▪ H**o**eletsa ▪ O ka se **c**ho ▪ Fahl**oa** ▪ ho **ch**esa ▪ **e**a hae ▪ ba**ch**a ▪ k**h**athala ▪ bah**o**ebi ▪ **l**ibanka tse kholo	▪ **tj**helete ▪ se**tj**habeng ▪ **mm**e ▪ **tj**hankaneng ▪ h**we**letsa ▪ o ka se **tj**ho ▪ fahl**wa** ▪ ho **tjh**esa ▪ **y**a hae ▪ ba**tj**ha ▪ k**g**athala ▪ bah**w**ebi ▪ **d**ibanka tse kgolo	▪ money ▪ nation ▪ mother ▪ prison ▪ shout ▪ you cannot say ▪ got into his/her eye ▪ it was hot ▪ his/hers ▪ youth/young people ▪ tired ▪ business people ▪ big banks

Table 4.5.6 Use of wrong orthography in School B

'Wrong' orthography	Correct orthography	Meaning in English
▪ thuto ya **L**ipalo ▪ ho sebe**l**isoa ▪ matsoalloa ▪ **l**ipuo ▪ **e**a temo ▪ k**h**utla ▪ lik**h**apha ▪ **l**ipampiri ▪ mafube**l**u ▪ mots**o**alle	▪ thutho ya **D**ipalo ▪ ho sebe**d**iswa ▪ matswallwa ▪ **d**ipuo ▪ **y**a temo ▪ k**g**utla ▪ dik**g**apha ▪ **d**ipampiri ▪ mafube**d**u ▪ mots**w**alle	▪ Maths/Mathematics ▪ making use of/using ▪ natives/citizens of ▪ languages ▪ of agriculture ▪ return ▪ tears ▪ papers/documents ▪ red ▪ friend

▪ **l**iphahlo ▪ ba fu**o**a ▪ **e**ena	▪ **d**iphahlo ▪ ba fu**w**a ▪ **y**ena	▪ clothes ▪ they were given ▪ him/her

The tables above list some of the words that learners have been penalised for because the orthography or spelling they used is considered wrong. Such words would be underlined and the code ‘mn’ which stands for ‘mongolo o fosahetseng’ (See appendix H) meaning use of ‘wrong orthography’ would be used when marking the essay. This is problematic because the meaning of the words is the same but the missionaries who designed the orthography of the indigenous languages decided to use different orthography. What makes this matter even more complicated and confusing for learners is that there is no consistency even in society when it comes to orthography. For example, the current affairs programme on Channel 2 of the South African Broadcasting Cooperation (SABC 2) is called ‘Leihlo la Sechaba.’ The correct orthography for the name of this programme would be ‘Leihlo la Setjhaba.’ The name of this current affairs programme uses the same orthography that learners are penalised for in their essays.

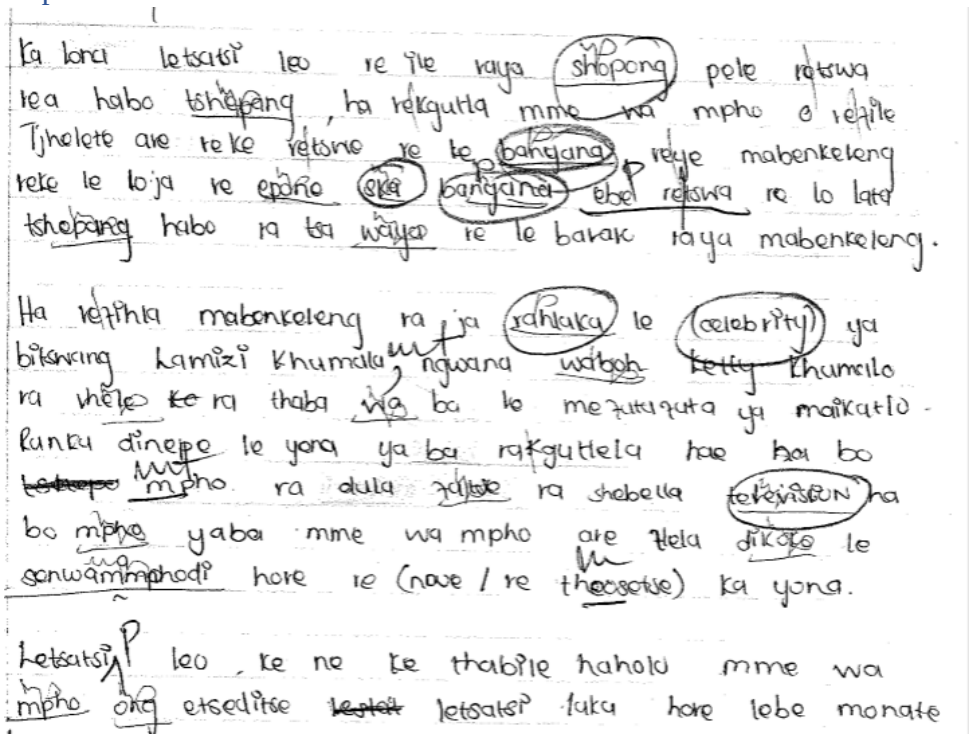
Many of the Sesotho names and Surnames also use this orthography. It therefore becomes a challenge for grade 11 Sesotho learners to know where to draw the line.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter presented the data collected in the study. The data collected using questionnaires was analysed quantitavely. The findings established that many of the learners from the two schools are multilingual as more than 80 percent of them speak more than three languages. Some of the learners speak up to eight languages. The chapter presented some of the languages that learners use and the mistakes that learners make due to influence from other languages. These mistakes include using lexicon from other languages. Leaners were found to have used English, Setswana and Sepedi lexicon in their essays. Some of the mistakes that they made were using adoptives from English, Afrikaans and isiZulu. A sample of these mistakes is seen in the snapshot below.

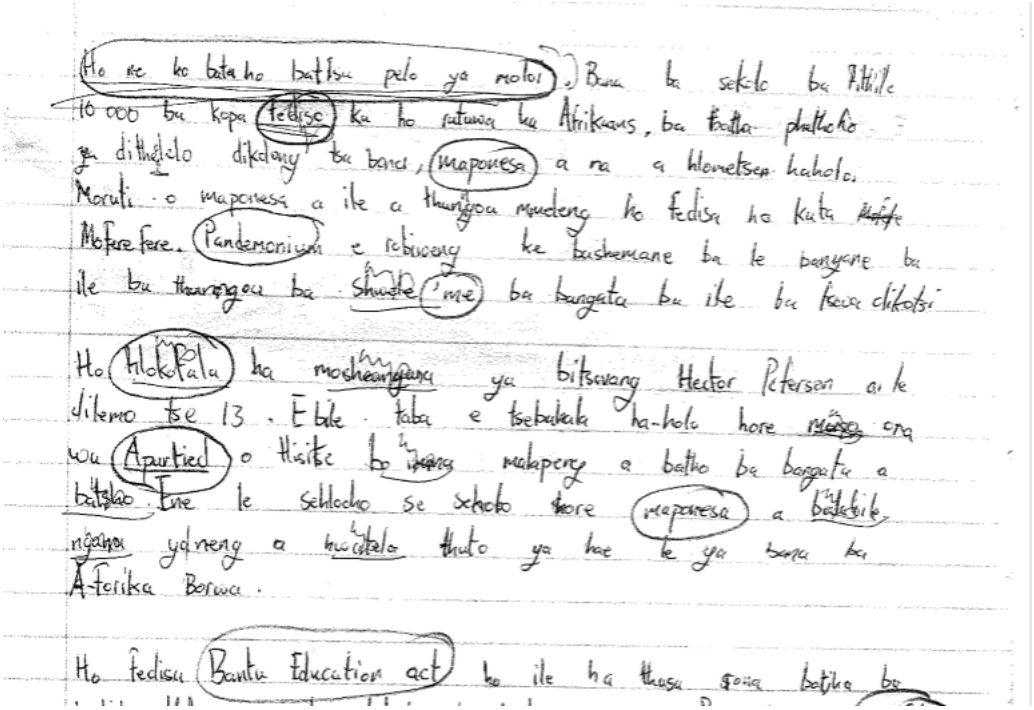
Some samples of learners' essays showing some of the mistakes they made.

Sample 1



In the above sample, the language mistakes that learners have made due to influence from other languages have been circled. In the above script, a learner has used the word 'shopo' which is coined from the English word 'shop'. The other English words used are 'celebrity' and 'television.' The learner has also used a Setswana word 'banyana' instead of a Sesotho word 'banana' which means girls.

Sample 2



Some of the mistakes made by a learner in sample 2 above include using a Sepedi word ‘hlokofala’ instead of a Sesotho word ‘hlokahala’ which means ‘to pass away.’ The learner has alsp used an English phrase ‘Bantu Education Act’ instead of writing ‘Molao o laolang Thuto ya Batho ba Batsho.’

Other grammatical mistakes identified included using wrong concord, wrong locative due to influence from other languages. Learners have been found to have used what is considered as wrong orthography because it is the Sesotho orthography used in Lesotho. These mistakes that they made were highlighted in the chapter and presented in tables.

The next chapter presents conclusion and discussion of the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

5. 1 Introduction

This study looked at the challenges of assessing the writing skills of Sesotho learners who live in a multilingual environment. The study sought to establish if learners who do Sesotho as a Home Language in Soweto are multilingual and how being multilingual affects their written work. The study also focused on the challenges that learners who are multilingual face in adhering to the high standard set for them in the languages they take as Home Languages. This was done by identifying the language mistakes that learners make due to influence from other languages. This chapter gives a summary of the study findings and recommendations.

5.2 Summary of findings

The main research question of the study is: What are the challenges of assessing grade 11 Sesotho learners who live in a multilingual environment? The research sub questions are: How do the Sesotho Home Language teachers administer language assessment in a plurilingual environment? How do other languages influence the performance of Grade 11 Sesotho learners at two High Schools in Soweto? And finally, how is the way that the national rubric is being used in marking essays affect the performance of grade 11 Sesotho learners? The findings of the study are presented below.

5.2.1 Multilingualism

In order to answer the main research question which is: What are the challenges of assessing grade 11 Sesotho learners who live in a multilingual environment? It had to be established whether learners who do Sesotho as a Home Language in Soweto are multilingual or not. To that end, a questionnaire was used. In the questionnaire learners were asked to indicate how many languages they spoke or used. The understanding was that in order to say that a learner is multilingual, that learner would be able to use three or more languages. This is because the learners who took part in the study already use two languages, Sesotho and English which they take at Home Language level and First Additional Language level. The study found out that in both schools combined, 84 percent of learners are multilingual. These learners use between three and eight languages. The study also established that other than Sesotho and English which they already study at school, they also use Setswana, Sepedi,

isiZulu, isiXhosa, Xitsonga, Tshivenda, Sesoweto, Tsotsitaal/Setsotsi, Shona, Sepetori and 'Lingo.' In the questionnaire, the researcher had listed languages that were thought to be dominant in the sections of Soweto township where the study was carried out i.e., Naledi and Molapo. However, the data revealed that some learners use other languages as well. Two percent of the learners indicated that they use Shona, which is a language mainly spoken in Zimbabwe. This is an indication that people from other countries are moving to urban areas such as Soweto, thereby bringing with them a wealth of languages.

The other two percent of learners mentioned that among the languages they use is Sepetori. According to Schuring (1985) in Wagner et.al (2020), Sepitori is a mixed language made up of a Sekgatla dialect of Setswana as well as Sepedi, English and Afrikaans. This language is spoken mainly in Tshwane, in the Gauteng province (Wagener et.al, 2020; Ntuli, 2016). The fact that in Soweto there are learners who speak Sepitori, also confirms what some scholars have pointed out as indicated earlier in the study that urban areas are becoming a melting pot of languages (Makalela 2013, Prah, 2010; Mfusi, 1992). Another two percent of learners mentioned 'Lingo' as one of the languages they use. Some people refer to this 'Lingo' as 'Kasi' language or (Sekasi) simply put, township language. Sekasi is a Sesotho or Setswana word which has been formed by affixing the prefix se- to the Afrikaans word 'lokasie' which means location, which is ana area reserved for Africans (Aycard, 2014).

One of the research sub questions was how do the Sesotho Home Language teachers administer language assessment in a plurilingual environment? The research established that the teachers follow the national curriculum which uses CAPS document as a guideline on how to assess learners in their Home Languages. CAPS document has no provision for allowing learners to use more than one language in their assessment tasks.

Another research sub question which had to be answered by the study was: How do other languages influence the performance of grade 11 Sesotho learners in the two High Schools in Soweto? The results of the study showed that learners are influenced by other languages because they adopt lexicon from other languages. The study also found out that learners in both schools coined words from English, Afrikaans and isiZulu. They coined these words by changing their morphological structure. In some cases, they would add vowels to the consonants so that the words could take the morphological structure of Sesotho language. It was however established that when it comes to languages that fall into the Sotho cluster, many of the words were borrowed and used without changing their morphological structure.

The fact that learners use a variety of languages in their daily lives makes it difficult for them to stick to one language in their written assessment. This is a challenge because the current curriculum requires that leaners follow the grammatical rules of the languages they take as Home Languages to a very a high degree. Among other things the national rubric that is used to mark their essays, requires that learners should be penalised if they use a lexicon from other languages in their essays. The lexicon they have used would be underlined and the code 'P' would be used to indicate that they have used 'the wrong language' (see Appendix H). This happens even if the meaning of the word used is understood or the word varies slightly in spelling with the word a learner is expected to use.

For example: In Table 4.3.2 which lists Setswana lexicon that was found in the essays written by learners the word 'montle' which means beautiful, was used. A Sesotho word with the same meaning is 'motle', the difference is just the letter 'n'. I argue that, a leaner should not be penalised in this incidence because the message the learner has communicated is the same. Language is used for communication purposes, and in this case, it has served its purpose. Assessing learners using the set standard is problematic because it does not take into consideration the learners' circumstances. Lok et.al (2015) in Bacquet (2020) propose that assessment should be aligned to leaners' knowledge and experience rather than to be based on a predetermined standard. The findings of this study have shown that learners draw lexicon from a variety of languages that they come in contact with in a variety of ways.

5.2.2 Lexicon from other languages

The findings from the study have shown that learners use lexicon from other languages such as English, Setswana and Sepedi. In some cases, learners have used English words as they are but, in some instances, they have modified the words by changing their spelling to match that of Sesotho language thus adopting those English words. In most cases Setswana and Sepedi words have been used to substitute Sesotho words. The tables above, show lexicon from the three languages that was found in the essays written by grade 11 learners. Leaners could have used these words because they lacked Sesotho vocabulary for such words or because they thought these words were synonyms, especially in the case of Setswana and Sepedi words. Whatever the case may be, this is an indication that languages have an influence on each other and they can no longer be treated as if they are not fluid.

The last sub question of the study is: How is the way that the national rubric is being used in marking essays affect the performance of grade 11 Sesotho learners? The study found out that the national rubric has stipulated criteria that is to be used in marking essays. The criteria require that learners should use the correct language and should follow the grammatical rules of the language to a very high standard. If they fail to reach that standard, they are penalised and their performance drops. The rubric has no room to accommodate multilingual learners who may use another language repertoire that they possess.

The Department of Basic Education which is the custodian of the curriculum in the country, needs to come up with assessment methods that take learners' circumstances into consideration. Learners who live in urban areas are held to the same standard with learners who live in an environment where the use of the language favours them. For example, leaners who do Sesotho Home Language and who live in an area where Sesotho is dominant or where Sesotho is spoken as the main language are at an advantage when the criteria used to assess them is the same as the criteria used to assess learners who live in a multilingual environment.

5.2.3 Coined words/adoptives

The study has established that some learners coin words using lexicon from other languages. They adopt these words in Sesotho by either adding vowels to certain consonants so that the words can sound like Sesotho words or so that they take Sesotho spelling, thus they 'Sothofy' them. For example: Tables 4.4.1 and 4.4.2 show some of the English words which learners adopted into Sesotho. For instance, some learners used the word 'principala' which is derived from the English word 'principal.' The learner added the vowel -a at the end of the word to give it a Sesotho spelling. Another example is the word 'mara' which is coined from the Afrikaans word 'maar'. In this case, a leaner removed -a in the middle and added -a at the end of the word to give it a Sesotho spelling.

5.2.4 Grammatical mistakes

The other finding from the study is that other languages tend to have a grammatical influence on the Sesotho language. Some learners confuse the concord used in Sesotho and that which is used in other languages and they get penalised for using the wrong concord. Some learners also used the Setswana locative 'mo' and 'ko' and they lost marks in the process.

5.2.5 The use of 'wrong' orthography

The use of 'wrong' orthography was observed in many of the learners' essays. As it is demonstrated in Tables 4.5.5 and 4.5.6 above, some learners struggle to differentiate between the orthography used in Lesotho and the one used in South Africa. As indicated above in the Literature Review, the orthography of the indigenous languages was designed by the missionaries who settled in different parts of our country and in different countries on the continent. Some of the differences between the orthography used in Lesotho and South Africa is seen in the following examples:

Lesotho orthography	South African orthography
▪ li- ▪ ch- ▪ 'me ▪ Joa- ▪ Soa-	▪ di- ▪ tjh- ▪ mme ▪ jwa- ▪ swa-

The question that should be asked is whether this different orthography serves any purpose in society at present. If not, why should society stick to such differing orthography for one language? Society is dynamic, so is language. I argue that the dynamics in society should also be reflected in language. Leaners cannot be expected to express themselves in a certain way when they interact with people in society and yet when they get to the classroom, they are expected to express themselves differently. Other languages should be used to enrich the Sesotho language, not to be treated as taboo. I share the sentiments of Ditsele (2014) who argues that Sepitori, a non-standard language used in Tshwane, could be used to enrich Setswana and Sepedi languages. I propose that instead of viewing the use of lexicon from other languages, especially other standard languages as something that should be discouraged and frowned upon, ways should be found of using those languages to enrich Sesotho language.

Using other languages to enrich a language would not be something new. Van Gelderen (2014) points out that even though English is Germanic in origin, almost half of its lexicon is derived from other languages that it came in contact with such as Latin, French and Scandinavian languages. It is interesting to know that words like mile, street, kitchen, wall and wine were borrowed from Latin into Germanic and were eventually adopted into English. Other English words which have been loaned from Scandinavian are anger, bait, call, carp, guess, ill, meek, mistake, sister, skill, rift, sky, snub, take, weak, odd, seem, wrong, till, want, scrape and ransack (Van Gelderen, 2014).

As it can be observed from the findings of this study, society is already finding ways of modifying the language to meet their needs. What is left is for curriculum developers to follow suit. It cannot be that the constitution of the country encourages multilingualism but the curriculum on the other hand hinders multilingualism by using assessment methods that discourage multilingualism. This can be achieved by finding ways to tap into the vast linguistic resource that learners already have in the form of linguistic repertoire that they already possess. To that end, many scholars recommend harmonization or standardisation of languages that belong to the same cluster such as the Nguni and Sotho cluster (Prah, 2006; Roy-Campbell, 2006; Makalela, 2009). Nikolovski (2015) points out that standardization refers to designing or searching for common orthography, coming up with grammatical rules that could be encompassing for all the languages that are standardized. While some people who are opposed to standardization of languages come up with all excuses in the world to justify why it would not be possible for indigenous languages to be standardized, there are examples of languages which were able to achieve standardization despite their wide variety. Roy-Campbell (2006) points out that Chinese has over 400 regional variation and dialects, it has grammatical and vocabulary difference and yet its formal written form has been standardized. The same goes for English which has a wide variety of dialects ranging from British English, American English, Australian English, Jamaican English, Nigerian English, Zimbabwen English, the list can go on, but there is one standard of formal written English.

I argue that the cluster of Sotho languages has more similarities than differences, therefore it could be standardized, and this would make life easy for learners in urban areas. Standardization of languages in the Sotho cluster would not compromise their performance especially when they undergo summative assessment such as the final examination.

5.2.6 Analysis of learners' performance

One of the sub questions that the study sought to answer was: How do other languages influence the performance of Grade 11 Sesotho learners at two High Schools in Soweto? While the performance of the learners in their essays in this study was not based solely on the mistakes that learners made due to influence from other languages, those mistakes did affect their performance. In the findings of this study, 12 percent of learners failed the assessment and only 8 percent of the learners obtained above 80%. Many of the language mistakes due to influence from other languages in this study were made by learners who failed. This observation proves that mistakes that learners make due to influence from other languages affect their performance in their Home Languages. The learner who performed very

poorly, is the one who made 12 language mistakes due to influence from other languages. Other grammatical mistakes are not included in these findings as the focus was on the influence of other languages.

5.2.7 Limitations

The study was limited in its scope as the focus was only on how the writing skills of learners are affected by being multilingual. The study only focused on essay writing, but it could have painted even a clearer picture if other writing skills as well as other language skills such as orals were also included in the study. The study has also been limited in that it did not look at other grammatical mistakes that learners who live in urban areas make so that it can be established as to what extend influence from other languages affect the performance of learners. The study was also carried out in just two schools, widening the scope by comparing data from urban areas that are characterised by multilingualism and areas where the dominant language is Sesotho could also paint a better picture of to what extend is the learners' performance affected by multilingualism. This would assist in coming up with assessment methods that are tailored for all learners, no matter where they live.

5.2.8. Future recommendations

Further studies in how other languages could be used to enrich Sesotho language would help in the development of the language. Furthermore, studies on standardization of indigenous languages should continue. Attempts have been made in the past, but the fact that implementation has not yet happened should not deter scholars in pursuing this noble course which will help in strengthening indigenous languages especially Sesotho language.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICS CERTIFICATE

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Mofammere

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE PROTOCOL NUMBER: H22/10/19

PROJECT TITLE The challenges of language assessment in a multilingual environment: The case of Sesotho Home Language in Two Soweto High Schools

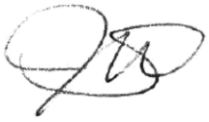
INVESTIGATOR(S) Mrs M Mofammere

SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT School of Literature, Language & Media/

DATE CONSIDERED 21 October 2022

DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE Approved
Risk Level: Minimal

EXPIRY DATE 30 November 2025



DATE 01 December 2022 CHAIRPERSON

_____

(Professor J Watermeyer)

cc: Supervisor : Dr K Theledi

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and ONE COPY returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House,
University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to submit an amendment of the protocol to the Committee. I agree to completion of a regular progress report. For Minimal and Low studies, this is due

annually on 31 December. For Medium and High Risk studies, this is due twice annually on 30 June and 31 December.

_____ _____/_____/_____

Signature Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Participant Information Sheet

Good day

My name is Monica Mofammere. I am a Masters of Arts student in the School of Literature, Language and Media at the University of the Witwatersrand, under the supervision of Dr Kgomotso Theledi. I am conducting a research on assessment of multilingual grade 11 learners in their Sesotho Home Language. The title of the research project is "The challenges of language assessment in a multilingual environment: The case of Sesotho Home Language in two High Schools in Soweto."

I am inviting you to participate in the study by answering a questionnaire and allowing me to use the essay you wrote as part of the School Based Assessment (SBA) in term 2 in my research project. Copies of your essay will be made and used in the study.

The scripts will be kept safely in a safe locked with a code and will be kept for three years. Only the researcher and the supervisor will have access to the data.

During the research activity, I will ask for some personal information that you will provide by answering a questionnaire on your language usage and knowledge.

The information collected will be treated confidentially, and your identity will be anonymous because you are not going to be asked to write your name on the script. You will be given a code that will be used to differentiate your script from that of other learners. Individual privacy will be maintained in all published and written data resulting from the study.

Taking part in the research study is voluntary, you do not have to take part. You can stop taking part in the study at any time. You do not have to answer any questions if you do not want to. You will not get any direct benefits if you choose to join the research study. You will not lose any services, benefits or rights you would normally have if you decide not to join. Taking part in the research study will not be of any cost to you and you will not be paid for being in this research study.

The risks for this research study are no more than what happens in everyday life. If you do not feel comfortable answering some of the questions on the questionnaire, you may withdraw.

If you have any questions during or afterwards about this research study, feel free to contact me or you can contact my supervisor on the details listed below. If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical procedures of this research study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, email hrecnon-medical@wits.ac.za.

The researcher: Monica Mofammere

Supervisor: Dr Kgomotso Theledi

APPENDIX C: PARENT/GUARDIAN INFORMATON SHEET

Parent/Guardian Information Sheet

Good day

My name is Monica Mofammere. I am a Masters of Arts student in the School of Literature, Language and Media at the University of the Witwatersrand, under the supervision of Dr Kgomotso Theledi. I am conducting a research on assessment of multilingual grade 11 learners in their Sesotho Home Language. The title of my research project is: "The challenges of language assessment in a multilingual environment: The case of Sesotho Home Language in two High Schools in Soweto."

I am inviting your child to participate in the study by answering a questionnaire and allowing me to use the essay he/she wrote as part of the School Based Assessment (SBA) in term 2, in my research project. Copies of his/her essay will be made and used in the study.

The scripts will be kept safely in a safe locked with a code and will be kept for three years. Only the researcher and the supervisor will have access to the data.

During the research activity, I will ask for some personal information that your child will provide by answering a questionnaire on his/her language usage and knowledge.

The information collected will be treated confidentially. Individual privacy will be maintained in all published and written data resulting from the study.

Taking part in the research study is voluntary, your child does not have to take part. He/she can stop taking part in the study at any time. Your child does not have to take a part if he/she does not want to. He/she will not get any direct benefits if he/she joins the research study. He/she will not lose any services, benefits or rights he/she would normally have if he/she does not to join. Taking part in the research study will not be of any cost to your child and he/she will not be paid for being in this research study.

The risks for this research study are no more than what happens in everyday life. If your child does not feel comfortable answering some of the questions on the questionnaire, he/she may withdraw.

If you have any questions during or afterwards about this research study, feel free to contact me or you can contact my supervisor on the details listed below. If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical procedures of this research study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, email hrecnon-medical@wits.ac.za.

The researcher: Monica Mofammere

Supervisor: Dr Kgomotso Theledi

APPENDIX D: PARENT/GUARDIAN INFORMATON SHEET (SESOTHO)

Pampiri e Fanang ka Tlhahisoleseding ho Motswadi/Mohodisi

Dumela Motswadi/Mohodisi

Lebitso la ka ke Monica Mofammere. Ke moithuti ya etsang Kgerata ya Masters Lefapheng la Dingolwa, Dipuo le Bophatlalatsi Univesithing ya Witwatersrand, tlasa botataisi ba Ngaka Kgomotso Theledi. Ke etsa dipatlisiso ka mathata a bang teng ha ho hlahlojwa baithuti ba etsang Puo ya Sesotho sebakeng seo ho buuwang dipuo tse ngata. Sehlooho sa projeke ya ka ya boithuto ke: "Diphephetso tsa ho Hlahloba Puo Dibakeng tseo ho Buuwang Dipuo tse Ngata: Mathata a ho Hlahoba Puo ya Sesotho Dikolong tse Pedi tsa Soweto."

Ke kopa hore ngwana wa hao a be le seabo boithutong bona ka hore a arabe dipotso tse ngotsweng leqetshwaneng la dipotso le ho mpha tumello ya ho sebedisa moqoqo oo a o ngotseng e le karolo ya tlhahlobo e etswang kotareng ya bobedi, boithutong ba ka. Ke tla etsa dikopi tsa moqoqo o ngotsweng ke ngwana wa hao mme ke o hlahlobe e le karolo ya boithuto.

Dikopi tsa moqoqo di tla bolokwa ka hloko seifing e tla notlelwa ka khoutu. Ke mmatlisisi le motataisi wa hae feela ba tla bona dikopi tsa moqoqo le dintlha tse bokelletsweng. Di tla bolokwa nako ya dilemo tse tharo.

Nakong ya dipatlisiso, ke tla botsa ngwana wa hao dipotso tseo ke tla kopa a di arabe pampiring ya dipotso tse mabapi le tsebo ya hae ya dipuo le tshebediso ya tsona.

Dintlha tse bokelletsweng nakong ya diphuputso di tla bolokwa e le lekunutu. Ha ho na ho bolelwa lebitso la ngwana kae kapa kae dipatlisisong tse ngotsweng ha ho bokellwa ditlha tsa boithuto le ha ho phatlalatswa diphetho tsa dipatlisiso.

Ngwana o nka karolo boithutong bona ka boithaopo mme ha a qobellwe ho nka karolo. A ka kgetha ho ikgula ka nako efe kapa efe haeba a se a sa batle ho nka karolo. Ha ho na molemo o tobileng oo ngwana a tla o fumana ka lebaka la ho nka karolo boithutong bona. Ha ho na ditshebeletso tseo a tla sitwa ho di fumana, ebile ha ho na ditokelo tseo a tla di amohuwa hobane a sa nke karolo dipatlisisong. Ngwana a ke ke a lefiswa letho hore a nke karolo boithutong, ho feta moo, le yena ha a na ho lefuwa bakeng sa hore a nke karolo.

Boithutong motho a ka hlahelwa ke kotsi e neng e ka nna ya mo hlahela neng kapa bophelong ba letsatsi le letsatsi. Haeba ngwana wa hao a utlwa a sa phutholohe ho araba dipotso tse ding pampiring ya dipotso o lokolohile hore a ka ikgula boithutong bona.

Haeba o na le dipotso Nakong ya boithuto le ka mora bona, o lokolohile hore o ka ikopanya le nna kapa motataisi wa ka o sebedisa ditsela tsa ho ikopanya le rona tse bontshitsweng ka tlaase mona. Haeba o na le tletlebo ka hore na ho latetswe ditsela tse loketseng tse bontshang Mekgwa e Loketseng ya ho Etsa Boithuto bo Amanang le Batho o ka ikopanya le Kominti ya Univesithi e Shebaneng le Dipatlisiso tse Etswang ka Batho (Tse sa Amaneng le Phekolo), Nomoro ya mohala: +27(0) 11 717 1408, emeile: hrecnon-medical@wits.ac.za.

Ke a leboha.

Mmatlisisi: Monica Mofammere
Motataisi: Dr Kgomotso Theledi

APPENDIX E: PARENT/GUARDIAN CONSENT FORM

PARENT/GURADIAN CONSENT FORM

Research title: The challenges of language assessment in a multilingual environment: The case of Sesotho Home Language in two High Schools in Soweto

Name of researcher: Monica Mofammere

I ……agree that my child participate in this research project.

Name of the
child…….

I agree to the following:

The research study was explained to me, I understand what this study is about. YES NO

I understand that my child can volunteer to take part in the study. YES NO

I agree that the essay he/she has written and the questionnaire he/she has answered may be used by the researcher in their research report. YES NO

I agree that my child's participation will remain anonymous (his/her name will not be used

by the researcher in their research report) YES NO

…… (Signature)

…… (Name of parent/guardian)

…… (Date)

…… (Signature)

…… (Name of researcher)

…… (Date)

APPENDIX F: PARENT/GUARDIAN CONSENT FORM (SESOTHO)

FOROMO YA MOTSWADI/MOHODISI YA TUMELLO

Sehlooho sa Dipatlisiso: Diphephetso tsa ho Hlahloba Puo Dibakeng tseo ho Buuwang Dipuo tse Ngata: Mathata a ho Hlahoba Puo ya Sesotho Dikolong tse Pedi tsa Soweto

Lebitso la Motho ya etsang dipatlisiso: Monica Mofammere

Nna ……ke fana ka tumello ya hore ngwana wa ka/ngwana eo ke mo hodisang a be le seabo dipatlisisong tsena.

Lebitso la ngwana……...

Ke a dumela hore:

Ke hlaloseditswe hore na patlisiso ke ya eng, ebile ke utlwisisa se batlisiswang. E TJHE

Ke a utlwisisa hore ngwana wa ka/eo ke mo hodisang a ka ithaopela ho ba le seabo dipatlisisong. E TJHE

Ke a dumela hore moqoqo wa hae le pampiri ya dipotso eo a e arabileng di sebediswe ke mmatlisisi tlalehong ya hae ya dipatliso. E TJHE

Ke a dumela hore ho se ke ha tsebahala hore ngwana wa ka/ eo ke mo hodisang o bile le seabo dipatlisisong tsena (lebitso la hae ha le na ho bolelwa tlalehong e ngotsweng ke mmatlisisi) E TJHE

…… (Mosaeno)

…… (Lebitso la motswadi/mohodisi)

…… (Letsatsi)

…… (Mosaeno)

…… (Lebitso la mmatlisisi)

…… (Letsatsi)

APPENDIX G: LEARNER ASSENT FORM

LEARNER ASSENT FORM

Research title: The challenges of language assessment in a multilingual environment: The case of Sesotho Home Language in two High Schools in Soweto

Name of researcher: Monica Mofammere

I ……agree to participate in this research project.

I agree to the following:

The research study was explained to me, I understand what this study is about. YES NO

I understand that I can volunteer to take part in the study. YES NO

I agree that the essay I have written and the questionnaire I have answered may be used by the researcher in their research report. YES NO

I agree that my participation will remain anonymous (my name will not be used by the researcher in their research report) YES NO

…… (Signature)

(Name of participant)

……(Date)

…… (Signature)

(Name of researcher)

……(Date)

APPENDIX H: LEARNER QUESTIONNAIRE

Questionnaire to be completed by Grade 11 learners Sesotho learners

1. Name of the learner…..……
2. Gender: ……..…….
3. How old are you? ……
4. Where do you stay? ……..…
5. When did you start doing Sesotho as a Home Language? ……..
6. How many written formal assessments do you do per term? ……
7. How do you perform in your written assessments? ……
8. If you have just moved to Soweto where did you stay before? …….……
9. Which of the following languages do you speak at home with your family? Put a mark **[X]** next to the one/the ones you speak.
   Sesotho……...Setswana…… Sepedi ……... isiZulu ……... isiXhosa……. Xitsonga
   Tshivenda…...Sesoweto…… Tsotsitaal/Setsotsi…… Isicamtho…….
   Other (Mention it) …….
10. Which one/s do you speak with your friends?
    Sesotho……...Setswana…… Sepedi…… isiZulu ……... isiXhosa……. Xitsonga
    Tshivenda……Sesoweto……... Tsotsitaal/Setsotsi……. Isicamtho ……
    Other (Mention it) ……
11. How many languages do you speak? ……
12. Do you find Sesotho Home Language easy or difficult? ……
    On the scale of 1-10 how would you rate it? 1 being very easy, 10 being very difficult.
    ……..
13. If you find Sesotho Home Language difficult, what do you think should be done to make it easier? …….
    …….…….
    …….……

    ……

APPENDIX I: NATIONAL RUBRIC FOR MARKING SESOTHO HL ESSAYS

KAROLO YA A: RUBURIKI YA HO LEKANYETSA MOQOQO – (MATSHWAO A 50) SESOTHO PUO YA LAPENG (HL) - SLKT

Makgetha a ho lekanyetsa		Phihlello e babatsehang	Phihlello e supang bokgoni	Phihlello e mahareng	Phihlello ya motheo feela	Phihlello e haellang
DIKAHARE LE MORALO Tshekatsheko ya sehlooho: tlhophiso ya mehopolo le dintlha, kelohloko ya baamohedi ba ditaba, maikemisetso le maemo	Boemo bo hodim	**28–30**	**22–24**	**16–18**	**10–12**	**4–6**
		-nehelano e bontshang kutlwisiso e babatsehang ya sehlooho e supang bokgoni bo ikgethang -mehopolo e bontsha boqhetseke, e phepetsa monahano, mme ke e sutsitseng -e hlophisitswe hantle ka tsela e ikgethang/babatsehang, mme e momahane ka tshwanelo ho kenyeditswe selelekela, mmele le qetelo	-nehelano e ralehileng hantle haholo -mehopolo e tsamaellana le sehlooho ka botlalo, e a kgahlisa mme e na le bopaki ba mehopolo e sutsitseng -o hlophisitswe hantle haholo ka tsela e ikgethang, mme o momahane ka tshwanelo ho kenyeditswe selelekela, mmele le qetelo	-nehelano ke e kgotsofatsang ditlhokeho -mehopolo e momahane ka tsela e kgotsofatsang le e kgodisang -o hlophisitswe ka tsela e utlwisisehang, mme o momahane ka tshwanelo ho kenyeditswe	-nehelano e momahane mona le mane -mehopolo ke e seng ya boiqapelo, mme e sa hlakang -ho na le bopaki bo seng bokae ba tlhophiso le momahano ya nehelano	-nehelano e tswile lekoteng ho hang -mehopolo ke e sa tsepamang e dubakaneng -ha e utlwahale, mme dintlha di a phetakakwa -ha e a hlophiswa ka tshwanelo le momahano ha e yo
Matshwao a: 30				selelekela, mmele le qetelo		
	Boemo bo tlas	**25–27**	**19–21**	**13–15**	**7–8**	**0–3**
		-mosebetsi o tswileng matsoho le ha o haellwa ke dintlha tse ikgethang tsa moqoqo o babatsehang -mehopolo ke e sutsitseng mme e bontsha boqhetseke -o hlophisitswe hantle ka tsela e bontshang bokgoni, mme o momahane ka tshwanelo ho kenyeditswe selelekela, mmele le qetelo	-Nehelano e radilweng hantle -mehopolo ke e loketseng, mme e thahasellisang -o hlophisitswe hantle ka tsela e ikgethang, mme o momahane ka tshwanelo ho kenyeditswe selelekela, mmele le qetelo	-nehelano e a kgotsofatsa le ha e sa hlaka mona le mane -mehopolo e momahane le ho kgodisa ka tsela e mahareng -ho na le tlhopiso le momahano e itseng ho kenyeleditswe le selelekela, mmele le qetelo	-nehelano boholo e tswile lekoteng -mehopolo ha e a momahana ka tshwanelo, mme e a lahlehisa -nehelano ha e na bopaki ba tlhophiso le momahano	-boiteko ha bo yo ba ho arabela sehlooho -mehopolo e tswile lekoteng ka ho phetahala, ha e a nepahala -nehelano ha e a tsepama sehloohong, mme e dubakane
PUO, SETAELE LE TOKISO YA DIPHOSO Sehalo, rejisetara, setaele, tlotlontswe ke tse lokelang		**14–15**	**11–12**	**8–9**	**5–6**	**0–3**

sepheo/tshusumetso						
le maemo Kgetho ya mantswe Tshebediso ya puo le tlwaelo, matshwao a ho bala le mopeleto	Boemo bo hodim	-sehalo, rejisetara, setaele le tlotlontswe di loketse sepheo ka tsela e babatsehang, baamohedi ba ditaba mmoho le maemo -tshebediso ya hae ya puo e a ikgetha, mme e bontsha boitshepo ka tsela e tsotehang -o sebedisitse sehalo se matla, mme se susumetsang ka tsela e ikgethang -o batla o hloka diphoso tsa puo le tsa mopeleto -o radilwe ka bokgoni bo tsotehang.	-sehalo, rejisetara, setaele le tlotlontswe di loketse sepheo, baamohedi ba ditaba mmoho le maemo haholo -tshebediso ya puo e matla, mme ho sebedisitswe sehalo se loketseng ka nako tsohle -boholo ba mosebetsi ha o na diphoso tsa tshebediso ya puo le mopeleto -o radilwe hantle ka tshwanelo	-sehalo, rejisetara, setaele le tlotlontswe di loketse sepheo, baamohedi ba ditaba mmoho le maemo -tshebediso ya puo ke e loketseng, mme e fetisa moelelo ka tshwanelo -puo ya bonono ke e loketseng, mme e sebedisitswe ka tshwanelo -sehalo se sebedisitswe ka tshwanelo: -o radilwe ka tsela e mahareng feela	-sehalo, rejisetara, setaele le tlotlontswe ha di a lokela sepheo, baamohedi ba ditaba mmoho le maemo -puo e sebedisitswe feela ka tsela ya motheo -sehalo mmoho le moelelo o hlahiswang ke tema ke tse sa lokelang -ho sebedisitswe tlotlontswe ya motheo feela	-puo e sebedisitsweng ha se e utlwisisehang -sehalo, rejisetara, setaele le tlotlontswe ha di a lokela baamohedi ba ditaba, sepheo le maemo -tshebediso ya tlotlontswe e haellang haholo hoo nehelano e sa utlwisiseheng
Matshwao a: 15	Boemo bo tlas	**13**	**10**	**7**	**4**	
		-tshebediso ya puo ke e sefutho, mme e susumetsang sehalo sa tema -o batla o hloka diphoso tsa puo le tsa mopeleto -o radilwe ka bokgoni bo tsotehang	-tshebediso ya puo ke e nepahetse, mme e loketseng maemo -sehalo ke se matla, mme se loketseng -ho na le diphoso tse seng kae tsa puo le tsa mopeleto -o radilwe hantle	-tshebediso ya puo ke e kgotsofatsang le ha ho na le ho sa tsamaelane mona le mane -ka kakaretso sehalo ke se loketseng le ha puo ya bonono e le e haellang	-puo ke ya motheo feela, mme e sebedisitswe ka tsela e haellang -popeho ya dipolelo ke e tshwanang e se nang motswako -tlotlontswe e haella haholo feela	
		5	**4**	**3**	**2**	**0–1**

SEBOPEHO Makgetha a tema: popeho ya dipolelo le kgodiso ya diratswana le bolelele bo hlokehang **Matshwao a: 5**		-kgodiso ya sehlooho ke e babatsehang -katoloso ya dintlha ke e ikgethang -dipolelo le diratswana di bopilwe ka tsela e ikgethang	-dintlha ke tse loketseng, mme tse hodisang sehlooho -momahano e bopilweng ke e supang bokgoni -dipolelo le diratswana di loketse nehelano, mme di fapafapanngwa ka tshwanelo	-dintlha tse loketseng di hodisa sehlooho ka tsela e mahareng -dipolelo le diratswana di bopilwe ka tsela e mahareng -moqoqo o ntse o hlahisa moelelo	-tse ding tsa dintlha ke tse utlwahalang -dipolelo le diratswana di na le diphoso -moqoqo o a utlwisiseha le ha o le diphoso	-dintlha tsa bohlokwa di a haella -dipolelo le diratswana tse hlahisitsweng ke tse fosahetseng -moqoqo ha o na moelelo o lebeletsweng

APPENDIX J: NATIONAL RUBRIC FOR MARKING ESSAYS (ENGLISH)

ASSESSMENT RUBRIC FOR ESSAY – HOME LANGUAGE [50 MARKS]

Criteria		Exceptional	Skilful	Moderate	Elementary	Inadequate
CONTENT AND PLANNING (Response and ideas) Organisation of ideas for planning; Awareness of purpose, audience and context **30 MARKS**	**Upper level**	**28–30**	**22–24**	**16–18**	**10–12**	**4–6**
		-Outstanding/Striking response beyond normal expectations -Intelligent, thoughtprovoking and mature ideas -Exceptionally well organised and coherent, including introduction, body and conclusion	-Very well-crafted response -Fully relevant and interesting ideas with evidence of maturity -Very well organised and coherent, including introduction, body and conclusion	-Satisfactory response -Ideas are reasonably coherent and convincing - Reasonably organised and coherent, including introduction, body and conclusion	-Inconsistently coherent response -Unclear ideas and unoriginal -Little evidence of organisation and coherence	-Totally irrelevant response -Confused and unfocused ideas -Vague and repetitive - Unorganised and incoherent

	Lower level	**25–27**	**19–21**	**13–15**	**7–9**	**0–3**
		-Excellent response but lacks the exceptionally striking qualities of the outstanding essay -Mature and intelligent ideas -Skilfully organised and coherent, including introduction, body and conclusion	**-**Well-crafted response -Relevant and interesting ideas -Well organised and coherent, including introduction, body and conclusion	**-**Satisfactory response but some lapses in clarity -Ideas are fairly coherent and convincing -Some degree of organisation and coherence, including introduction, body and conclusion	**-**Largely irrelevant response -Ideas tend to be disconnected and confusing -Hardly any evidence of organisation and coherence	-No attempt to respond to the topic -Completely irrelevant and inappropriate -Unfocused and muddled

ASSESSMENT RUBRIC FOR ESSAY – HOME LANGUAGE [50 MARKS] (continued)

Criteria		Exceptional	Skilful	Moderate	Elementary	Inadequate
LANGUAGE, STYLE AND EDITING Tone, register, style, vocabulary appropriate to purpose/effect and context; Word choice; Language use and conventions, punctuation, grammar, spelling **15 MARKS**	**Upper level**	**14–15**	**11–12**	**8–9**	**5–6**	**0–3**
		-Tone, register, style and vocabulary highly appropriate to purpose, audience and context - Exceptionally impressive use of language - Compelling and rhetorically effective in tone -Virtually error-free in grammar and spelling - Very skilfully crafted	-Tone, register, style and vocabulary very appropriate to purpose, audience and context - Language is effective and a consistently appropriate tone is used - Largely error-free in grammar and spelling -Very well crafted	-Tone, register, style and vocabulary appropriate to purpose, audience and context -Appropriate use of language to convey meaning -Tone is appropriate - Rhetorical devices used to enhance content	-Tone, register, style and vocabulary less appropriate to purpose, audience and context - Very basic use of language -Tone and diction are inappropriate -Very limited vocabulary	-Language incomprehensible -Tone, register, style and vocabulary not appropriate to purpose, audience and context - Vocabulary limitations so extreme as to make comprehension impossible
		13	**10**	**7**	**4**	

	Lower level	-Language excellent and rhetorically effective in tone -Virtually error-free in grammar and spelling -Skilfully crafted	-Language engaging and generally effective - Appropriate and effective tone -Few errors in grammar and spelling -Well crafted	-Adequate use of language with some inconsistencies -Tone generally appropriate and limited use of rhetorical devices	-Inadequate use of language -Little or no variety in sentences -Exceptionally limited vocabulary	
STRUCTURE Features of text; Paragraph development and sentence construction **5 MARKS**		**5** -Excellent development of topic -Exceptional detail - Sentences, paragraphs exceptionally	**4** -Logical development of details -Coherent -Sentences, paragraphs logical, varied	**3** -Relevant details developed -Sentences, paragraphs well-constructed -Essay still makes sense	**2** -Some valid points - Sentences and paragraphs faulty -Essay still makes some sense	**0–1** -Necessary points lacking -Sentences and paragraphs faulty -Essay lacks sense

		well-constructed				

APPENDIX K: Codes and percentages for recording marks

Codes and percentages for recording and reporting

Rating code	Description of competence	Percentage
7	Outstanding achievement	80-100
6	Meritorious achievement	70-79
5	Substantial achievement	60-69
4	Adequate achievement	50-59
3	Moderate achievement	40-49
2	Elementary achievement	30-39
1	Not achieved	0-29

APPENDIX L: KEY FOR MARKING ESSAYS

MATSHWAO A SEBEDISWANG HO
BONTSHA DIPHOSO HA HO TSHWAUWA
MOQOQO SENOTLOLO SA HO TSHWAYA:
SEKALA SA HO TSHWAYA MOQOQO
MATSHWAO: {50}

Makgetha a Tekanyetso	Matshwao	Senotlolo / dikgutsufatso
Dikahare le Moralo **Puo, Setaele le Tokiso ya diphoso** **Sebopeho**	**30** **15** **5**	**DM =** **PST =** **Seb =**
Matshwao ohle	**50**	

Tataiso bakeng sa ho tshwaya ditema

Batshwayi ba etse tse latelang ha ba tshwaya:
Ho sehellwe lentswe kapa polelo e fosahetseng mola ho be ho bontshwe mofuta wa phoso ka hodima lentswe / polelo ka tshebediso ya matshwao a latelang:

- **/** bakeng sa ho arola mantswe a ngotsweng a kopantswe empa a lokela ho arohana;
- **-,+** bakeng sa ho kopanya mantswe a arohantsweng empa a ngolwa a kopane;
- **Mn** bakeng sa mongolo (orthography) o fosahetseng;
- **Mp** bakeng sa mopeleto o fosahetseng;
- **Mt** bakeng sa tshebediso e fosahetseng ya matshwao a puo,

kapa ho ngotswe letshwao moo le sa hlokeheng teng;

- **P** bakeng sa tshebediso ya puo ka tsela e fosahetseng / e sa amoheleheng kapa eo e seng ya setlwaedi; o bakeng sa lentswe kapa karolwana ya lentswe le/ e siilweng pakeng tsa mantswe a mang;

- ***//*** bakeng sa ho qala seratswana se setjha / ho arola diratswana