# A DIALECT-GEOGRAPHICAL SURVEY OF THE PHONOLOGY OF THE CENTRAL, EASTERN AND SOUTHERN DIALECTS OF TSWANA

A Comparative Analysis

bу

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#### **ABBREVIATIONS**

stands for Ur-Bantu.

В.

- H. stands for Hurutshe.
  > means "becomes".
  < means "derived from".

  ' acute accent mark over a symbol indicates high toneme.
  ' grave accent mark over a symbol indicates low toneme.
   hyphen before or after the form indicates that the form is incomplete.

  \* asterisk before the form indicates that it</pre>
- [ ] square brackets enclose phonetic Tswana symbols or forms.

indicates footnote.

is hypothetical, but after the form it

// oblique brackets enclose phonemic symbols.

#### CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

# CLASSIFICATION, DISTRIBUTION, HISTORY, PURPOSE, AND METHOD OF APPROACH

#### LINGUISTIC CLASSIFICATION

- 1.01 Tswana is a member of the Sotho group of the South-eastern zone of Bantu languages. This zone has been divided by Doke<sup>1)</sup> more or less geographically into five groups as fellows:
- (1) Nguni group, including Zulu, Xhosa and Swazi;
- (2) Sotho group, including Northern Sotho, Southern Sotho, Tswana and Lozi (Kololo);
- (3) Venda;
- (4) Tsonga group, including Ronga, Tonga and Tswa;
- (5) <u>Inhambane group</u>, including Chopi (or Lenge) and Tonga.
- 1.02 The Tswana cluster of dialects has been subdivided geographically by Cole into four divisions which he terms Central, Southern, Northern and Eastern.<sup>2)</sup>
  - (a) The Central division includes the dialects spoken by the Rolong, Hurutshe and Ngwaketse.
  - (b) The Southern division includes the dialects spoken by the Thaping and Tharo.
  - (c) The Northern division includes Western Kwena (of Molepolole), Ngwato and Tawana.
  - (e) The Eastern division includes Kgatla and Bastern Kwena.

Doke, Prof. C.M.: <u>Bantu — Modern Grammatical</u>
 <u>Phonetical and Lexicographical Studies since 1860</u>,
 p. 74.

<sup>2.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, pp. xvi-xvii.

- 1.03 In connection with the above classification we are of the opinion that Western Kwena, being more closely related to Ngwaketse than to Ngwato, should be classified under the Central division; or alternatively, that Ngwaketse should be classified under the Northern division because, as Cole admits, it is more closely related to Western Kwena than to Hurutshe, for example. Similarly, Rolong, being more closely related to Thaping than to Hurutshe, should be classified under the Southern division. Our argument is based on dialectal similarities and differences revealed in chapter 3.
- "language group", "language cluster" and "dialect" according to Doke's definitions of them. (4) For our purpose the term "dialect" will be used "for such ultimate local vernaculars as are recognized by the Native speakers under special names. (5) For example, Hurutshe, Rolong, Kwena, Kgatla, Ngwaketse, Tlhaping, Tlharo and Ngwato are recognized by the Tswana as different dialects having their own characteristics.

#### DISTRIBUTION OF TSWANA TRIBES

#### The Hurutshe

1.05 The Hurutshe are found in the Zeerust district of the western Transvaal. Their main settlements are at Dinokana, Maanwane, Motswedi, Mošane, Suping,

<sup>3.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., p. xvi.

<sup>4.</sup> Doke, Prof. C.M.: The Southern Bantu Languages, pp. 20-21.

<sup>5.</sup> Doke, Prof. C.M.: Loc. cit., p. 21.

Lekubung, Mokgola and Borakalalo. Other small sections of the Hurutshe are found in the Rustenburg district at Koffykraal and in the Ngwato reserve in Botswana. The latter call themselves the Khurutshe.

#### The Ngwaketse

1.06 The Ngwaketse are found in the Ngwaketse reserve in Botswana. Their main settlement is at Kanye.

#### The Kwena

1.07 (a) The Wostern Kwena are found in the Kwena reserve in Botswana. Their main Sottlement is at Molepolole. Of their dialect Prof. Cole remarks as follows:

"Like Ngwaketse of the Central division, to which it is similar in many respects, Western Kwena has traces of Kgalagadi influence." 4)

Unfortunately, however, he does not give examples of such "traces."

1.08 (b) The Eastern Kwena includes the Kwena of Mogopa, Phokeng (Bafokeng), Modimosana and Manamela in the Brits and Rustenburg districts of the Transvaal. Included linguistically under Eastern Kwena are several small groups such as, for example, the Tlhako, Phalane, Po, Phiring, Kubung, Kolobeng, Tloung and Tlhalerwa in the Rustenburg, Lichtenburg and Ventersdorp districts.\* Some of these communities are of Nguni origin, for example the Tlhako and the Po.

<sup>4.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., p. xvii.

<sup>\*</sup> Cf. Breutz, P.L.: The Tribes of Rustenburg and Pilansberg Districts, pp. 175 - 177.

#### The Ngwato

1.09 The Ngwato live in the Ngwato reserve in Botswana. Their chief centre is Scrowe. Van Warmelo says, "The Mangwato proper form a minority amongst the various other tribes under their rule and in that neighbourhood." Of these other tribes, some of which are of non-Tswana origin, we may mention the Birwa, Tswapong, Kaa, Phaleng, Talaota and the Khurutshe, a branch of the Hurutshe of Maanwane in the Zeerust district. The Tlokwa dialect has considerably influenced Ngwato as is evidenced by the substitution of alveolars for laterals, for example tôu for tlôu.

#### The Tawana

1.10 The Tawana live in the Tawana reserve in Botswana. They could be classified with the Ngwato had their dialect not been considerably influenced by the non-Tswana dialects of Ngamiland. Their chief centre is Maung.

#### The Tlokwa

1.11 The Tlokwa are found at Gaberones in
Botswana, and also in the Pilansberg and Rustenburg
districts. They are of non-Tswana origin. Other
sections of the Tlokwa are found in the Northern
Transvaal. These, however, seem to fall under Northern
Sotho.

<sup>5.</sup> Van Warmelo, N.J.: A Preliminary Survey of the Bantu Tribes of South Africa, p. 103.

#### The Malete

1.12 The Malete are found in the Malete reserve in Botswana. Other sections of the Malete are found near Molepolole and in the Zeerust district.

#### The Kgatla

1.13 Referring to the Kgatla van Warmelo says:

"Not least important among the Eastern Tswana is the imposing chain of Kgatla tribes stretching from Schildpadfontein, east of Warmbad to Mochudi in the Protectorate."

The Kgatla may be divided geographically into Western, Central and Eastern divisions.

- (a) The Western division has its principal settlement at Mochudi in Botswana.
- (b) The Central division has its chief settlement at Moruleng in the Pilans-berg district. This division together with the above one are called the Kgatla of Kgafela.
- (c) The Eastern division includes the Kgatla of Mosetlha in the Hammanskraal district, the Kgatla of Mmakau in the Brits district, the Kgatla of Motšha at Skildpadfontein, and the Kgatla of Seabe in the Hammanskraal district.

  Among the Eastern Kgatla there are several small communities which are of

<sup>6.</sup> Van Warmelo, N.J.: <u>A Preliminary Survey of the Bantu Tribes of South Africa</u>, p. 106.

Swazi or Nguni origin, for example, the Hwaduba, the Ndebele and small groups of Shangaans. Some of these non-Tswana tribes, for example, the Hwaduba, have assimilated Kgatla dialect and culture.

1.14 Another section of the Kgatla lives at Mošupa in the Ngwaketse reserve in Botswana. They are called the Kgatla of Mmanaana.

#### The Rolong

- 1.15 Breutz gives the following political divisions of the Rolong: 7)
  - (i) The Rolong of Ratlou of Seitshiro (Barôlông bôô-Ratlôu bôô-Seitshirô) whose chief settlements are at Khunwana in the Lichtenburg district and at Kraaipan and Setlagole to the south-west of Mafeking and at Thaba Nchu in the Orange Free State.
  - (ii) The Rolong of Ratlou of Mariba (Barôlông bôô-Ratlôu bôô-Mariba) who are also called the Rolong of Ratau (Barôlông bôô-Ratau) whose chief Settlements are at Ganyesa, Morokwaneng, Bothithong, Gamorona, Mokgole, Modiakgama, Tlakgameng, Konke, etc., in the district of Vryburg, and at Tshidilamolomo and Phitshane in the district of Mafeking, extending into Botswana. The headquarters of all these branches is Ganyesa in the Vryburg district.

<sup>7.</sup> Breutz, P.L.: The Tribes of Mafeking District, pp. 78-86.

- (iii) The Rolong of Ratlou of Moamogwa (Barôlông bôô-Ratlôu bôô-Moamogwa) who live at Moro-kweng in the Vryburg district and at Khunwana in the Lichtenburg district. They are junior to those at Ganyesa politically
  - (iv) The Rolong of Ratlou of Molale (Barôlông bôô-Ratlôu bôô-Molalê) who live at Tseoge and Kgokgole, west of Ganyesa, and Bethithong, in the Vryburg district. They are also junior to those at Ganyesa.

    N.B. According to Breutz all the Rolong in the Vryburg district call themselves the Rolong of Moamogwa (Barôlông bôô-Moamogwa).
  - (v) The Rolong of Ratshidi (Barôlông bôô-Ratshidi) whose chief settlements are in Mafeking town and district and also at Bodibe in the Lichtenburg district.
  - (vi) The Rolong of Seleka (Barôlông bôô-Seleka) in the district of Mafeking.
  - (vii) The Rolong of Tau of Rapulana (Barôlông bôô-Tau-Rapulana) at Bodibe, Polfontein.
- 1.16 Cole<sup>8)</sup> gives the following four divisions of the Rolong:
  - (i) The Rolong of Tshidi (Barôlông bôôrra Tshidi) whose settlements are mainly in the Mafeking town and district.

<sup>8.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, p. xvi.

- (ii) The Rolong of Rratlou (Barôlông bôôRratlôu) whose chief settlements are at Khunwana, Kraaipan and Setlagole to the south-west of Mafeking.
- (iii) The Rolong of Rrapulana (Barôlông bôôRrapulana) whose main settlements are at
  Lotlhakane and Polfontein to the south-east
  of Mafeking.
- (iv) The Rolong of Seleka (Barôlông bôôSeleka)
  whose main settlement is at Thaba Nchu in
  the Orange Free State.
  - N.B. Breutz calls them the Rolong of Ratlou of Seitshiro (cf. par. 1.14(i) above).
- 1.17 Cole's classification leaves out the Rolong sections in the Vryburg district. In a footnote, however, he says,

"The four sections are named after their founders Tshidi, Rratlou, Rrapulana and Seleka". 9)

Note that he writes  $\underline{rr}$ , as in Rrapulana, where Breutz writes  $\underline{r}$  which is the common pronunciation among most Tswana speaking tribes.

#### The Tlhaping

1.18 According to F.G. Language the first chief of the Thaping was Tholo who separated from the Rolong at Taung. 10) Breutz is of the opinion that he was,

<sup>9.</sup> Cole. Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., ibid.

<sup>10.</sup> Language, F.G.; <u>Herkoms en Geskiedenis van die Tlhaping</u>, (African Studies, 1942, p. 121).

perhaps, the father of Phuduhudu and Phuduhutšwana. He admits, however, that it is not certain because informants differ. 11)

- 1.19 Breutz gives the following political divisions of the Thaping:
  - (i) The Tlhaping of Phuduhndu who are regarded as a senior group. Their main settlements are at Taung in the Cape Province and at Dithakong in the Vryburg district.
  - (ii) The Thaping of Phuduhutswana whose chief settlement is at Thakwaneng in the Vryburg district.
  - (iii) The Tlhaping of Marumo who are at Bothithong in the Vryburg district.
  - (iv) Another section of the Tlhaping lives at Klein Chwaing, west of Vryburg.
- 1.20 Breutz remarks that all the Thaping in the Vryburg district speak Rolong-Thaping dialect of Tswana. This is so because they live more or less together with the Rolong.

#### The Tlharo

- 1.21 Breutz distinguishes the following three political branches of the Tlharo:
  - (i) The Tlharo of Phadima (Batlharo ba ga Phadima) also known as the Tlharo of Khidi, with head-quarters at Kuruman.

<sup>11.</sup> Breutz, P.L.: The Tribes of Vryburg District.

<sup>12.</sup> Breutz, P.L.: Loc. cit.

- (ii) The Tharo of Lothware (Batharo baga Lothware) whose chief settlement is at Heuning Vlei in the district of Vryburg.
- (iii) The Tlharo of Thokwane (Batlharo ba ga Thokwane) at Disaneng in the districts of Mafeking and Postmasburg. 13)
- 1.22 Cole does not give divisions of the Tharo.
  He says, however,

"The bulk of the Tlhware population is settled in the Kuruman district of British Bechuanaland."14)

#### HISTORY OF TSWANA TRIBES

- 1.23 Since there is a fairly extensive literature dealing inter alia with the history of the various Tswana speaking tribes it is not necessary for us to repeat it here. Our investigation in this study is not concerned primarily with their origins and migrations. For full historical accounts of the various Tswana speaking tribes the reader is referred to the works given under Bibliography.
- 1.24 We may mention briefly, however, that according to tradition and the available literature which is, to a great extent, also based on tradition, most Tswana tribes claim that they came originally

<sup>13.</sup> Breutz, P.L.: Loc. cit., p. 21.

<sup>14.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., p. xvii.

from the north, from a land of great rivers and plenty of rain, where the sun during a certain time of the year used to be on their southern side and during another time on their northern side. This statement suggests that they came originally from somewhere in central Africa. 15) Why and when they left that area is not known.

1.25 They also trace their descent, again according to tradition, from a mythological figure called Loê (or Lowê) who came out of a cave after his servant, Matsieng, had informed him that all was clear outside. 16) In some parts of Botswana there are human footprints on flat rocks. These footprints are believed to be those of Matsieng who is also regarded by some Tswana tribes to be their ancestor.

1.26 In their mythology the Tswana refer also to another mythological figure known as Bilê. They say for example, bogologolo iwa ga Bilê (in the olden times of Bilê). It is not certain whether or not this Bilê is the same figure as Loê mentioned in par. 1.24 above. Both figures occur in Tswana mythology. It is most likely that these names refer to one and the same figure.

The Tswana, p. 14.

<sup>15.</sup> Stow, G.W.: <u>The Native Races of South Africa</u>, Chapter XXII;

Breutz, P.L.: The Tribes of Mafeking District, p. 24;

The Tribes of Marico District, p.45;

Schapera, I.: <u>Ditirafalo tsa Merafe ya Batswana;</u> p. 3;

Wookey, A.J.: Dico tsa Secwana, pp. 4 and 24.

<sup>16.</sup> Wookey, A.J.: <u>Dico tsa Secwana</u>, pp. 38 and 43. Breutz, P.L.: <u>The Tribes of Mafeking District</u>, p. 76.

1.27 Most Tswana tribes claim traditionally that they are offshoots of the Hurutshe who are accorded precedence in ceremonial matters and who claim their direct descent from one Malope, son of Masilo. 17)

According to tradition and the available literature it is not certain whether or not the Rolong and the Thaping are also offshoots of the Hurutshe. However, they also claim their descent from Malope mentioned above. This suggests that they must have branched off from the main original Tswana body long before the Hurutshe came to their present habitat, namely Zeerust and Marico districts. In this connection van Warmelo, basing his argument on tradition and the available literature, says,

"We must of course, accept the tradition which explains how the Kwena, Mangwato and Ngwaketse are the offshoots of what originally was one tribe and how the Tawana are a branch of the Mangwato. But whether a similar genealogical relationship exists between the Thaping, Tharo, Rolong, Hurutshe and the other smaller tribes is not at all definitely established, and whatever traditions we have on this point appear to be of doubtful value." 18)

But the relationship between the Tharo and the Hurutshe, both traditionally and according to the available literature, seems fairly well established. The Tharo are an offshoot of the Hurutshe. 19)

<sup>17.</sup> Broutz, P.L.: The Tribes of Mafeking District, p. 76. Wookey, A.J.: Dico tsa Secwana, p. 38

<sup>18.</sup> Van Warmelo, N.J.: A Preliminary Survey of the Bantu Tribes of South Africa, p. 103.

<sup>19.</sup> Breutz, P.L.: The Tribes of Vryburg District, pp. 118-119.

Wookey, A.J.: Dico tsa Secwana, pp. 34-35.

1.28 That the Rolong and the Thaping are also related to the Hurutshe historically is proved by the fact that they too like other Tswana tribes, accord them precedence in ceremonial matters. Breutz says that in the Rolong mythology Lowê was a place where all the Tswana originated. This shows that their traditions are more or less the same as those of the Hurutshe, although, according to them, Loê or Lowê was the name of a place.

#### PURPOSE AND METHOD OF APPROACH

- 1.29 The purpose of this study is to compare Tswana dialects phonetically in order to determine which one is more representative of them all in its sound system, which, therefore, can be selected as the basis for the establishment of literary Tswana. In order to make this comparison one Tswana dialect has been chosen to serve as a basis, that is as a common denominator with which the others are compared. The sound system of this common denominator is first analysed by determining its derivation from Ur-Bantu as postulated by Meinhof. 21)
- 1.30 The Hurutshe dialect, as spoken mainly at Dinokana, Maanwane, Motswedi, Mošane, Suping and Lekubung in the Zeerust district of the western Transvaal, has been selected as a basis for this comparative survey of Tswana dialects as spoken today,

<sup>20.</sup> Breutz, P.L.: The Tribes of Mafeking District, p. 76.

<sup>21.</sup> Meinhof, C. and van Warmelo, N.J.: <u>Introduction</u> to the Phonology of the Bantu Languages.

because, firstly, the Hurutshe are regarded traditionally, by most other Tswana tribes, as the nucleus or parent-stock from which they branched off. Secondly, because the Hurutshe still occupy, more or less, the same geographical area (Lehurutshe) in which they are believed to have lived for many years and from which the other Tswana tribes are believed to have branched off from them. Thirdly, because Hurutshe, being more central and the least influenced by other Bantu languages, can be expected to have retained more sound features and characteristics of the original Tswana speech forms than other Tswana dialects.

1.31 The above reasons for selecting Hurutshe as a basic dialect do not, in any way, overlook or underestimate the fact that, apart from possible internal changes which may have taken place in its sound system over the years, it may have undergone some changes as a result of the influence of other Bantu languages and dialects as a result of modern economic conditions which have, more or less, eliminated tribal boundaries as Moloto points out. 22) People leave their homes to seek employment in the industrial centres where they come into contact not only with other Tswana dialects but also with those of other Bantu tribes, with the result that when they go back home they carry with them new speech forms which they have thus acquired. Another factor which may have introduced new speech forms into Hurutshe is the church which use religious

<sup>22.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: A Critical Investigation into the Standardization of written Tswana, Par. 4.3, unpublished dissertation for the M.A. degree presented at the University of South Africa, Department of Bantu Languages, 1964.

books, such as the Bible, catechisms and hymn books, written in Thaping. To this must be added the influence of school books written in other Tswana dialects, especially among young people.

- 1.32 These "foreign" influences are noticeable in Hurutshe as spoken today. For example, the typical Hurutshe forms for "dog", "ostrich", "milk" and "new" are [ $\hat{n}t$ fw'á], [ $\hat{n}t$ fhw¢], [ $\hat{m}$ âfwì] and [-fwá] respectively; but the forms [ $\hat{m}$ ps'á/ $\hat{m}$ pf'á] or [ $\hat{n}$ tf'á], [ $\hat{n}$ tfh¢], [ $\hat{m}$ âfì] and [-fá] also occur in it. Both forms,  $\underline{Bahurutshe}$  and  $\underline{Bafurutshe}$ , (the latter with a bilabial [ $\Phi$ ]), are used in Hurutshe. Therefore what I regard as Hurutshe in this study is what I consider to be typical Hurutshe sounds or forms.
- 1.33 The derivation of Hurutshe speech sounds from Ur-Bantu is dealt with in chapter 2. Chapter 3 is a comparison of Ngwaketse, Kwena, Kgatla, Rolong, Thaping and Tharo with Hurutshe. The dialects of northern Botswana, for example, Ngwato, are not included in this comparison because they are considerably influenced by other Bantu dialects such as Tlokwa and Kgalagadi. Similarly the Rolong dialect of Thaba Nchu has been left out because it shows influence of Southern Sotho.
- 1.34 In chapter 4 we comment critically on some aspects of the current practical Tswana orthography.

#### ORTHOGRAPHY

- 1.35 In this study I retain Meinhof's orthography 23) in original hypothetical forms only. For Tswana forms I employ the orthography recommended in The Principles of the International Phonetic Association (I.P.A.). In chapter 4 I employ the current practical orthography for Tswana, but I use phonetic symbols in brackets where necessary.
- 1.36 Names of Tswana tribes and dialects are written in the practical Tswana orthography throughout, for example, Thaping, Kwena, Rolong and Kgatla.

<sup>23.</sup> Meinhof, C. and van Warmelo, N.J.: <u>Introduction</u> to the Phonology of the Bantu Languages.

#### CHAPTER II

# DERIVATION OF HURUTSHE SPEECH SOUNDS FROM UR-BANTU

#### UR-BANTU VOWELS

#### Primary Vowels

- 2.01 B.  $\underline{a} > H$ . [a], for example,
  - B. -kana > H. [-xánà] (refuse, deny);
  - B. -kama > H. [-xámà] (milk).
    - B. i > H. [e], for example,
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{lima}}$  > H. [-lema] (plough, hoe);
  - B. -lila > H. [-lela] (cry, weep).
    - B.  $\underline{u} > H.$  [o], for example,
  - B.  $-\underline{luma}$  > H. [-lómà] (bite);
  - B. -tatu > H. [-rárò] (three).

#### Composite Vowels

- 2.02 B.  $\underline{e}$  > H.  $[\epsilon]$ , for example,
  - B. -tema > H. [-rémà] (chop, cut);
  - B. -pela > H. [- $\Phi$ élà] (become finished).
    - B. o > [o], for example,
  - B. -lota > H. [-lóra] (dream);
  - B. -koka > H. [-xóxà] (pull, drag).

#### Close Vowels

- 2.03 B.  $\hat{\mathbf{1}}$  > H. [i], for example,
  - B.  $-\underline{v}$ îna > H. [-bínà] (dance),
  - B. -xîla > H. [-ila] (abstain from).
    - B.  $\hat{u}$  > H. [u], for example,
  - B.  $-t\hat{u}_{na} > H$ .  $[-r\hat{u}_{na}]$  (kill lice);
  - B. <u>-pûlata</u> > H. [-Φúlàrà] (turn one's back, return)

#### Raising of Vowels

2.04 Raised vowels and conditions under which vowels are raised in Tswana have been discussed adequately by Cole. Since his conclusions apply equally well to Hurutshe it is not necessary to repeat his findings.

#### Summary

2.05 As the above comparison shows Hurutshe has seven basic vowels or vowel phonemes,  $\operatorname{Cole}^{2}$  and  $\operatorname{Moloto}^{3}$  also recognise seven vowel phonemes for Tswana although Moloto does not show their derivation from Ur-Bantu.

Cole, Prof. D.T.: Notes on the Phonological Relationships of Tswana Vowels, African Studies, Vol. 8, No. 3, Sept., 1949, pp.109-131; An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, parr. 1.12-1.29.

<sup>2.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: In the works cited.

<sup>3.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: A Critical Investigation into the Standardization of written Tswana, par. 5.7, unpublished dissertation for the M.A. degree, presented at the University of South Africa, Department of Bantu Languages, 1964.

Hurutshe vowel phonemes /e/, / $\epsilon$ /, /o/ and /o/ have raised variants [e], [e], [e] and [o] respectively. The following table shows Ur-Bantu vowel symbols and the corresponding I.P.A.<sup>4)</sup> ones which we use for Hurutshe, together with those employed by Cole<sup>5)</sup>:

```
B. H. Cole

1 /i/ with no variant [i] with no variant

1 /e/ with variant [e] [I] with variant [ι]

2 /ε/ with variant [ε] [ε] with variant [e]

3 /a/ with no variant [a] with no variant

4 /o/ with variant [o] [o] with variant [o]

4 /o/ with variant [o] [o] with variant [ω]

4 /u/ with no variant [u] with no variant
```

2.06 Each Hurutshe vowel phoneme may be high or low tonemically. These high and low tonemes are distinctive, for example:

```
[-tl'álà] (be full) and [tl'àlà] (hunger);

[p'élè] (first) and [p'èlè](in front);

[lèbélè] (breast) and [lèbèlé] (plant or grain of corn);

[-Фítlhà] (conceal) and [-Фìtlhà] (arrive);

[xò rónà] (be unbecoming) and [xó ròná]

(to us);

[-tlhólà] (spy) and [-tlhòlà] (create; portend ill-omen; spend the day);

[-búà] (talk) and [-bùà] (flay).
```

<sup>4.</sup> The Principles of the International Phonetic Association.

<sup>5.</sup> Cole, Frof. D.F.: An Introduction to Tswans Grammar.

#### UR-BANTU CONSONANTS

#### Primary Plosives before a

- 2.07 B. k > H. [x]:
  - B. -kama (squeeze) > H. [-xáma] (milk)
  - B. -kana (deny) > H. [-xánà] (refuse, deny); possessive concord of classes 15, 16, 17 and 18, [xá-].
    - B.  $\pm$  > H. [r]:
  - B. -tatu (three) > H. [-rárò] (three);
  - B. -tama (cheek) > H. [lèrámà] (cheek).
    - B.  $\underline{p} > H$ .  $[\Phi]$ :
  - B. -pala (scratch) > H.  $[-\Phi ala]$  (scrape);
  - B.  $-\tan a$  (take out) > H.  $[-ra\Phi a]$  (take out, e.g. honey, clay);
  - B. -pa (give) > H.  $[-\Phi \acute{a}]$  (give); prefix of class 16,  $[\Phi a-]$ .

Thus B. primary plosives  $\underline{k}$ ,  $\underline{t}$  and  $\underline{p}$  before  $\underline{a}$  have become Hurutshe [x], [r] and  $[\Phi]$  respectively.

## Primary Fricatives before a

- 2.08 B.  $\chi$  > H. [-], that is, it disappears as an initial sound of the root, for example,
  - B.  $-\underline{x}_{aka}$  (build) > H. [-axa] (build);
  - B.  $-\frac{yala}{2}$  (spread out) > H. [-ala] (spread out, for example, blanket).

- > H. [j] inside a stem, in which case it is sometimes also discarded, for example,
  - B. -laya (instruct) > H. [-làjà] or
    [-làà] (instruct);
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{taya}}$  (set a trap) > H. [-rájà] or [-ráà] (set a trap, doctor land; tell).
    - B. 1 > H. [1]:
  - B. -lala (stretch oneself on the ground)
     > H. [-lálà] (lie down, sleep, spend the night);
  - B. -pala (scratch) > H.  $[-\Phi ala]$  (scrape).
    - B.  $\underline{v}$  > H. [b]:
  - B.  $-\underline{vava}$  (bitter) > H. [-baba] (be bitter);
  - B. -yaya (devide) > H. [-àbà] (divide, share).

It occurs also in the prefix of class 2, [ba-], and its concords.

Thus B. primary fricative  $\underline{x}$  has either disappeared or become palatal semi-vowel [j] in Hurutshe, while B.  $\underline{1}$  has remained [l] and B.  $\underline{v}$  has become [b].

# Voiceless Palatals before a

- 2.09 B.  $\underline{k} > H$ . [tlh]:
  - B. -laka (cast away) > H. [-látlhà] (cast away);
  - B. -paka (cross) > H. [-Φátlhà] (blind), [lèΦátlha] (twin);
  - B.  $-\underline{kamba}$  (wash) > H. [-tlhàp'à] (wash oneself).

B. 
$$\underline{t} > H$$
. [tlh]:

- $\underline{\text{B.}} -\underline{\text{tanu}} \text{ (five)} > \underline{\text{H.}} \text{ [-tlhánò] (five)};$
- B. -taka (desire) > H. [-tlháxà] (active, wild);
- B. -takuna (chew) > H. [-t1háhúnà] (chew).

Thus both B. voiceless palatals  $\underline{k}$  and  $\underline{t}$  before  $\underline{a}$  have changed to aspirated lateral affricate [tlh] in Hurutshe. One cannot always ascertain, therefore, whether H. [tlh] is derived from B.  $\underline{k}$  or  $\underline{t}$ , since they have become identical, as Meinhof says.<sup>6)</sup>

#### Voiced Palatals before a

- 2.10 B.  $\chi$  > H. [t1']:
  - B.  $-\underline{xa}$  (come) > H.  $[-t1'\hat{a}]$  (come);
  - B.  $lu\chi a$  (leak) > H. [- $lu\chi a$ ] (leak).
    - B. <u>1</u> ?

### Nasals before a

- 2.11 B.  $\underline{n} > H$ . [n]:
  - B. -kana (deny) > H. [-xánà] (deny, refuse);
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{vona}}$  (see) > H. [-bonà] (see).
    - B.  $\underline{m}$  > H. [m]:
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{kama}}$  (squeeze) > H. [-x imes ama] (milk);
  - B. -lima (hoe) > H. [-lèmà] (hoe, plough);
  - B. -luma (bite) > H. [-lóma] (bite).

<sup>6.</sup> Meinhof, C. and van Warmelo, N.J.: <u>Introduction</u> to the Phonology of the Bantu Languages, p. 31.

Thus B. nasals before  $\underline{a}$  have remained unchanged in Hurutshe.

#### YOWEL INFLUENCE ON PRECEDING CONSONANTS

# (i) Consonants before <u>i</u> and <u>u</u>

- 2.12 B. ki > H. [se]:
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{kila}}$  (tail) > H. [mòsélà] (tail);
  - B. -kimbila (go about > H. [-sépélà] (walk);
  - B. <u>ki-lembe</u> (axe) > H. [sèlép'è] (axe); prefix and concord of class 7, [se-]. :
    - B. ti > H. [re]:
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{ti}}$  (tree) > H. [mòré] (tree);
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{kati}}$  (in the middle) > H. [xaré] (in the middle).
    - B.  $p_{\perp} > H$ . [ $\Phi e$ ]:
  - B. -pinda (pass, surpass) > H. [-Φèt'à] (pass, surpass);
  - B. -pima (measure) > H. [-pema] (avoid blows).
    - B. <u>xi</u> > H. [e]:
  - B. -xi (egg) > H. [lèé] (egg);
  - B. -<u>yiva</u> (dove) > H. [lèèbà] (dove); concord of class 9, [e-].
    - B. 1i > H. [le]:
  - B. -lila (weep) > H. [-lèlà] (weep, cry);
  - B. -lilo (fire) > H. [mòlèlò] (fire); prefix and concord of class 5, [le-].

- B.  $\underline{vi}$  > H. [be]:
- B. -yila (boil) > H.  $[-b\hat{e}l\hat{a}]$  (boil);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{yili}}$  (body) > H. [mòbèlè] or [mìmèlè] (body).
  - B.  $\underline{mi}$  > H. [me]:
- B. -mila (sprout) > H. [-mèlà] (sprout, germinate);
- B. -limi (tongue) > H. [lòlémè] (tongue);
  prefix of class 4, [me-].
  - B. <u>ni</u> (see parr. 2.23 and 2.24).
  - B.  $\underline{ku} > H$ . [xo]:
- B.  $-\underline{\text{kula}}$  (grow) > H.  $[-x\acute{\text{ol}}\grave{\text{a}}]$  (grow);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{kulu}}$  (big) > H.  $[-x\delta l \delta]$  (big); prefix and concord of classes 15, 16, 17 and 18, [xo-].
  - B.  $\underline{tu} > H$ . [ro]:
- B. -tuma (send) > H. [-róma] (send);
- B. -tutuma (tremble) > H. [-roroma] (tremble).
  - B.  $\underline{pu} > H$ .  $[\Phi o]$ :
- B.  $-\underline{pupa}$  (fly) > H.  $[-\Phi \delta \Phi \hat{a}]$  (fly);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{punga}}$  (blow) > H.  $[-\Phi \delta k' \hat{a}]$  (blow)
  - B.  $\underline{yu} > H$ . [o]:

concord of classes 1 and 3 [o-], and of second person, singular, [o-].

- B. lu > H. [10]:
- B.  $-\underline{luma}$  (bite) > H. [-loma] (bite);
- B. -luka (plait) > H. [-lòxà] (plait, weave); prefix and concord of class 11, [lo-], and concord of 2nd person, plural, [lo-] (you).
  - B.  $\underline{v}u > H$ . [bo]:
- B.  $-\underline{v}$ umba (mould) > H. [-bóp'à] (mould);
- B.  $-\underline{vuya}$  (return) > H.  $[-b\acute{o}\grave{a}]$  (return); prefix and concord of class 14, [bo-].
  - B.  $\underline{k}$ i > H. [tshe] or [se]:
- B.  $-\underline{paki}$  (below) > H.  $[\Phi atshe]$  (on the ground) H.  $[le\Phi atshe]$  (country).
- B.  $-\underline{xaki}$  (down) > H. [tl'àsé] (down).
  - B. xi > H. [ts'e]:
- B. -ixi (know) > H. [-its'e] (know).
  - B.  $\underline{k}u > H$ . [tlho]:
- B.  $-\underline{kuva}$  (pluck off) > H. [-tlhoba] (pluck off, as feathers).
  - B.  $\underline{yu} > H$ . [tl'o]:
- B.  $-\underline{\text{yula}}$  (leap) > H. [-tl''ola] (leap, jump).
  - B.  $\underline{mu} > H$ . [mo-]:
- B.  $-\underline{lomu}$  (mouth) > H. [molomo] (mouth);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{lemuka}}$  (perceive) > H.  $[-l\not\in\text{m\'ox\`a}]$  (perceive); prefix and objectival concord of class 1, [mo-], and prefix of class 3, [mo-].

- B.  $\underline{nu} > H$ . [no]:
- B. -nungu (porcupine) > H. [nok'6] (porcupine);
- B. -tanu (five) > H. [-tlháno] (five).

Thus B. consonants before  $\underline{i}$  and  $\underline{u}$  follow the same rules when they change into Hurutshe as when they occur before  $\underline{a}$ , with the exception of  $\underline{k}$ ,  $\underline{k}$  and  $\underline{x}$  before  $\underline{i}$ , where they become [s], [tsh] or [s] and [ts'] respectively.

# (ii) Consonants before <u>î</u> and <u>û</u>

- 2.13 B. kf > H. [si]:
  - B.  $-k\hat{1}ta$  (hide) > H. [-sírà] (hide from view, shade);
  - B.  $-k\hat{1}\hat{1}$  (soot) > H. [mosíli] (soot). Cf. [mosímané] (boy).
    - B.  $\underline{t\hat{1}} > H$ . [si]:
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{tila}}$  (grind) > H. [-sìlà] (grind);
  - B.  $-\frac{\text{tiku}}{\text{night}} > \text{H. [bosixo] (night).}$ > H. [ri]:
  - B. mpîtî (hyena) > H. [phírì] (hyena);
  - B. -tike (winter) > H. [marixa] (winter).
    - B. <u>pî</u> > H. [Φi]:
  - B.  $-p\hat{p}\hat{p}$  (darkness) > H. [lè $\Phi$ l $\Phi$ l] (darkness);
  - B. -pîka (hide) > H. [-Dítlhà] (hide, conceal);
    but H. [-Dîtlhà] (arrive).
    - B.  $\underline{\text{y}} > \text{H.}$  [i]:
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{Y11a}}$  (abstain from) > H. [-lla] (abstain from);

- B. -<u>yîko</u> (hearth) > H. [lèísò] (hearth);
  reflexive verbal prefix, for example,
- H. [-ip'5na] (see oneself) < \*-yi-yona.

#### B. 11 > H. [li]:

- B. -kili (soot) > H. [mòsílì] (soot);
- B. -linga (surround) > H. [-lik'a] (surround); prefix and concord of class 10, [li(N)-]

# B. $\underline{v}$ î > H. [bi]:

- B.  $-\underline{v}$ îna (dance) > H. [-bínà] (dance);
- B.  $-\underline{v}$ îmba (stuff) > H. [-bip'à] (cover).

### B. $\underline{k}\hat{u} > H$ . [hu]:

- B.  $-k\hat{u}_{\underline{a}}$  (chest) > H. [sehúba] (chest);
- B.  $-\frac{\text{takûna}}{\text{(chew)}}$  (chew). (Cf. par. 2.14).

# B. $t\hat{u} > H$ . [ru]:

- B.  $-\frac{\text{tû}}{\text{cloud}}$  (cloud) > H. [lèrù] (cloud);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{tûmo}}$  (spear) > H. [lèrúmò] (spear);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{tonda}}$  (instruct) > H. [-rút'a] (teach, instruct).

# B. $\underline{p}\hat{\mathbf{u}} > H$ . $[\Phi \mathbf{u}]$ :

- B.  $-p\hat{u}lo$  (froth) > H. [lè $\Phi\hat{u}l\hat{o}$ ] (froth, foam);
- B.  $-\underline{popû}$  (blind) > H. [ $se\Phi o \Phi u$ ] (blind person). (Cf. par. 2.14).

- B.  $\underline{x}\hat{u} > H. [u]$ :
- B.  $-x \circ y \hat{u}$  (elephant) > H. [tl' $\hat{v}\hat{u}$ ] elephant).

Cf. H. [-ùp'à] (protect by medicine)

< \*-yûmba.

- B. <u>lû</u> > H. [lu]:
- B.  $-l\hat{u}xa$  (leak) > H.  $[-l\hat{u}tl'\hat{a}]$  (leak);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{lelû}}$  (chin, beard) > H. [sèlèlù] (chin).
  - B.  $\underline{v}\hat{u} > H$ . [bu]:
- B.  $-\underline{vula}$  (open) > H. [-bula] (open);
- B. ngûvû (hippopotamus) > H. [k'ùbú] (hippopotamus).
  - B.  $\underline{mi} > H$ . [mi]:
- B. -mina (press nose) > H. [-minà] (blow the nose).
  - Cf. H. [lòmíp'l] (fatty membrane round the bowels).
  - B.  $\underline{ni} > H$ . [n]:
- B.  $-\underline{\text{koni}}$  (shame) > H. [lìtlhợn]

(shame, used in the plural only).

- H. [tlhón] (hedgehog) plural, [litlhón];
- B.  $-\underline{\text{kuni}}$  (fire-wood) > H. [lòxón] (fire wood).

It is also locative suffix, for example,

- H. [pèlón] < \*pelo-nf < [p'èló] (heart);
- H.  $[sèbé<math>\hat{\eta}]$  < \* $\underline{sebe-ni}$  < [sèbé] (sin).

- B.  $\underline{m}\hat{u} > H$ . [mu]:
- Cf. H. [sèmúmù] (dumb person);
  - H. [-xámùtl'à] (press round).

#### B. $\underline{n\hat{u}} > ?$

Thus B.  $\underline{k}$  before  $\underline{\hat{1}}$  and  $\underline{\hat{u}}$  has become H. [s] and [h] respectively; B.  $\underline{t}$  has become H. [s] or [r] before  $\underline{\hat{1}}$  but [r] before  $\underline{\hat{u}}$ ;

B.  $\underline{1}$  has become H.  $[\underline{1}]$  before  $\underline{\hat{1}}$  and  $\underline{\hat{u}}$ , while B.  $\underline{n}$  has become H.  $[\eta]$  before  $\underline{\hat{1}}$ . The other B. Consonants follow the same rules as when they occur before a.

#### The alternation of [Tu] and [hu] in Hurutshe

2.14 In certain Hurutshe forms [Φu] and [hu] alternate, for example,

[-Φúlárà] and [-húlárà] (turn one's back, return);
[-Φúlúxà] and [-húlúxà] (remove from one's place
of residence).

Apparently such forms are derived from different Ur-Bantu roots; that, for example, the above pairs may be derived respectively from \*-pûlata and \*-kûlata on the one hand, and \*-pûlûka and \*-kûlûka on the other. In some Bantu languages, for example, Swahili, Konde, Kongo and Zulu, however, both Ur-Bantu kû and pû have changed to [fu]. It is possible, therefore, that, in some cases, Hurutshe [hu] may be derived from Ur-Bantu pû by the process B. pû >  $[\Phi u]$  > [hu]. On the other hand Hurutshe  $[\Phi u]$  may be replacing [hu] < B. kû

by the principle of analogy with forms derived from Ur-Bantu forms containing  $\underline{p}\hat{u}$ . It is interesting to note that the Hurutshe call themselves either Hurutshe or Furutshe.

#### The Influence of li- on succeeding Consonants

- 2.15 In Hurutshe we find that there are some nouns of class 5, in which the original initial sound of the root is replaced by two alternative sounds, one showing the influence of <u>i</u> of the class prefix <u>li</u>-\*, and the other not. In such cases both forms are used alternatively. The plurals also have two alternative forms on the analogy with the singular forms. In some cases, however, only the forms showing the influence of <u>li</u>- occur. The following are examples of such changes:
  - B. <u>ku</u> > H. [so]:
  - B. li-kumi (ten) > H. [lèsómè] (ten).
  - B. kwa > H. [kxhwa] or [tshwa]:
  - B. <u>li-kwapu</u> (lung) > H. [lèkxhwà $\Phi$ ó] or [lètshwà $\Phi$ ó] (lung);

plural [màkxhwàΦό] or [màtshwàΦό].

- B. ta > H. [ra] or [sa]:
- B. <u>li-tama</u> (cheek) > H. [lèrámà] or [lèsámà] (cheek), plural, [màrámà] or [màsámà];
- B. <u>li-tambo</u> (bone) > H. [lèráp'ò] or [lèsáp'ò] (bone), plural [màráp'ò] or [màsáp'ò].

<sup>\*</sup> Cf. Meinhof, C.and van Warmelo, N.J.: <u>Introduction</u> to the <u>Fhonology of the Bantu Languages</u>, pp. 67 and

- B.  $\underline{\text{te}} > \text{H. [} \underline{\text{fe}} \text{]:}$
- B. <u>li-texa</u> (soft part of bone) > H. [lèsètlà] (edible part of head of a bone).
  - B.  $\underline{to} > [tsho] \text{ or } [ro]:$
- B. <u>li-tompî</u> (blister) > [lètshóphì] or [lèróphì] (blister), plural [màtshóphì] or [màróphì].
  - B. tu > H. [ro], [so] or [tsho]:
- B. li-tuva (opening) > H. [lèròbà], [lèsòbà] or [lètshòbà] (hole, as in a piece of cloth or skin), plural, [màròbà], [màsòbà] and [màtshòbà] respectively.
- B. <u>li-tumbi</u> (old dwelling place) > H. [lèróp'è] or [lèsóp'è] (ruin, old dwelling place) plural [màróp'è] or [màsóp'è].
- B. <u>li-tuyu</u> (paw) > [leróò] or [lètshóò] (paw), plural, [màróò] or [màtshóò].
- B. <u>li-tulo</u> (hunting party) > H. [lètshólò] (hunting party).
  - B. pa > H. [tshwa]:
- B. li-papu (lung) > H. [lètshwà $\Phi$ ó] (lung).
  - B. <u>la</u> > [ts.'a]:
- B. <u>li-langi</u> (sun) > H. [lèts'àts'í] (sun, day), plural, [màlàts!í] or [màts'àts'í].
  - B. <u>li</u> > [ts'e]:
- B. <u>li-lima</u> (a hoeing party) > H. [lèts 'èmà] (people ploughing, or workparty).

- B. 11 > H. [ts'i]:
- B. <u>li-livoko</u> (ford, drift) > H. [lèts'àbòxò]

  N.B. The form [lèlàbòxò] exists in Hurutshe, for a drift, although less commonly used.
  - B.  $\underline{v}e > [be] or [ts'e]:$
  - B. <u>li-vele</u> (breast) > H. [lèbélè] or [lèts'élè] (breast), but H. [lèbèlé] or [lèts'èlé] (plant or grain of corn).
    - B.  $\underline{v}$ o > H. [bo] or [ts'o]:
  - B. <u>li-voko</u> (arm) > H. [lèbóxò] or [lèts'òxò] (arm), plural, [màbóxò] or [màts'óxò].
  - B. li-yongû > H. [lèts'òkú] (red ochre).
    - B. <u>v</u>u > H. [ts'o]:
  - B. <u>li-vumba</u> (pot clay) > H.[lèts'óp'à] (pot clay).

# The Influence of <u>yi-</u> on succeeding Consonants

- 2.16 The following are examples of the influence of B.  $\underline{i}$  of the verbal prefix  $\underline{xi}$ -\* on the initial sound of the root in Hurutshe:
  - B. ka > H. [sa]:
  - B. -yikala (remain) > H. [-sálà] (remain behind);
    - B.  $\underline{ku} > H$ . [kxho]:
  - B. -yikuta (become satisfied) > H. [-kxhórà] (become satisfied, of food);

Zeitschrift für Eingeborenen-Sprachen, Vol.XIV,p. 81 sqq.

<sup>\*</sup> Cf. (i) Meinhof, C. and van Warmelo, N.J.:
Introduction to the Phonology of the Bantu Languages,
pp. 67-68 and 180.
(ii) Eiselen, Dr. W.: Die Veränderung der Konsonanten
Durch ein Vorhergehendes i in den Bantusprachen:

- B.  $\underline{ta} > H$ . [tsha] or [sa]:
- B. -<u>yitaya</u> (flee) > H. [-tshábà] (flee, run away, fear);
- B. -xitaxa (give a name) > H.  $[-\int ája]$  or  $[-\int áa]$  (give a name);
- B. -<u>witava</u> (mix) > H. [-jàbà] (eat, as porridge with relish);
- B. -<u>vitamba</u> (beat) > H. [-Jáp'à](beat, as with a cane).
  - B.  $\underline{te} > H$ . [ $\int \epsilon$ ]:
- B. -yite $\underline{v}$ a (look) > H. [- $\int \hat{c} b\hat{a}$ ] (look);
- B. -xitexa (cut) > H. [-fitl'a] (cut off a piece, e.g. of meat).
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ti}} > \text{H.} [ \int \epsilon ]$ :
- B. -xiting (grin) > H. [-fénà] (grin, as a dog threatening to bite).
  - B.  $\underline{tu} > H$ . [tsho]:
- B. -<u>yituka</u> (be startled) > H. [-tshòxà] (be frightened);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{yitula}}$  (scoop out) > H. [-tshôlà] (dish out food), but H. [-tshólà] (possess).
  - B.  $\underline{k\hat{u}} > H$ . [khu]:
- B. -yikûta (cover) > H. [-khúrúmělà] (cover, as pot with lid)

- B.  $\underline{t\hat{u}} > H$ . [tshu]:
- B. -yitûva (set alight) > H. [-tshùbà] (light up, burn up, set alight), but
  H. [-thùbà] (break).
  - B. pa > H. [tshwa]:
- B. -xipata (seize) > H. [-tshwárà] (seize, catch, arrest).
  - B.  $\underline{v}a > H$ . [tsw'a]:
- B. -yiva (steal) > H. [-útsw'à] (steal);
- B. -yivala (shut) > H. [-tsw'ala] (close).
  - B.  $\underline{v}u > H$ . [ts'o]:
- B. -xivuka (wake up) > H. [-ts'óxá] (wake up);
- B. -yi@ima (hunt) > H. [-ts'ómà] (hunt).
  - B.  $\underline{\text{pio}} > \text{H. [t]ho}$ :
- B.  $-\underline{\text{yipîoma}}$  (stutter) > H. [-t]hómà] (speak a foreign language).
  - Cf. H. [-t]hótlhà] (chew) < \*-yipîoka.

# The Influence of vi- on succeeding Consonants

2.17 Sound changes due to the influence of the reflexive verbal prefix  $\chi_1^2$ , which is represented by [i] in Hurutshe, are identical with those due to B.  $\underline{ni}$ , cf. parr. 2.23 - 2.29, for example,

[-ikxhóxà] < [-xóxà] (pull) < B. -koka;

[-ithát'à] < [-rát'à] (love) < B. -tanda;

```
[-ìphíthà] < [-Φíthà] (hide) < B. -píka;
[-ìkáxà] < [-áxà] (build) < B. -aka;
[-ìtómà] < [-lómà] (bite) < B. -luma;
[-ìp'ónà] < [-bónà] (see) < B. -yona;
[-ìthàp'ìsà] < [-thàp'à] (wash) < B. -kamba;
[-ìthòlà] < [-thòlà] (create) < B. -tola;
[-ìthàmèlà] < [-tl'àmèlà] (provide for) < B. -yama.
```

## Consonants before e and o

2.18 B. <u>ke</u> ?

B. to > H.  $[r\epsilon]$ :

- B. -tenga (equalise) > H.  $[-r\epsilon k' \hat{a}](\text{buy});$
- B.  $-\frac{\text{tenda}}{\text{tenda}}$  (make) > H.  $[-\text{r}\hat{c}t'\hat{a}]$ (praise);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{tema}}$  (chop down) > H.  $[-r \in \text{ma}]$  (chop).
  - B.  $\underline{pe} > H$ .  $[\Phi \epsilon]$ :
- B.  $-\underline{\text{pela}}$  (end) > H.  $[-\underline{\Phi}\hat{\epsilon}l\hat{a}]$  (end, get finished);
- B. -pepeta (winnow) > H.  $[-\Phi \epsilon \Phi \epsilon r a]$  (winnow).
  - B.  $\underline{\chi}\underline{e} > H$ .  $[\varepsilon]$ :
- B.  $-\underline{\text{yela}}$  (measure) > H.  $[-\hat{\epsilon}l\grave{a}]$  (measure), but H.  $[-\hat{\epsilon}l\grave{a}]$  (flow, as water);
- B.  $\underline{\text{xenda}}$  (go) > H.  $[-\hat{\epsilon}t'\hat{a}]$  (visit, journey).
  - B.  $\underline{1e} > H$ . [ $1\epsilon$ ]:
- B.  $-\underline{lel}\hat{u}$  (chin, beard) > H. [sèlèlù] (chin);
- B.  $-\underline{lembe}$  (axe) > H. [sèlépt] (axe).

- B.  $\underline{\text{ve}} > \text{H. [be]}$ :
- B. -wele (breast) > H. [lèbélè] (breast), but H. [lèbèlé] (grain or plant of corn);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{veleka}}$  (carry on the back) > H.  $[-b\hat{\epsilon}l\hat{\epsilon}x\hat{a}]$  (carry on the back).
  - B.  $\underline{k}e > H$ . [tshe] or [se]:
- B.  $-\underline{\underline{keka}}$  (laugh) > H. [-tshèxà] (laugh);
- B.  $-\underline{k}$ ela (pour) > H. [-tshɛlà] (pour);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{keya}}$  (backbite) > H. [-sébà] (whisper).
  - B. te ?
  - B. <u>we</u> ?
  - B. <u>l</u>e ?
  - B.  $\underline{ne} > H$ . [ne]:
- B.  $-\underline{ne}$  (four) > H.  $[-n\hat{\epsilon}]$  (four) Cf. H.  $[-n\hat{\epsilon}p\hat{a}]$  (aim well).
  - B. me ?
  - B.  $\underline{ko} > H$ . [xo]:
- B.  $-\underline{koka}$  (pull, drag) > H. [-x5xa] (pull, drag);
- B. -kokola (cough) > H. [-xótlhólà] (cough);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{kopf}}$  (palm of the hand) > H. [lex $\oint \Phi$ i] (palm of the hand).
  - B.  $\underline{to} > H$ . [ro]:
- B. -tota (sink) > H. [-ròrà] (roar).

  Cf. [-ròbà] (break).

- B. po > H. [Φo]:
- B. -pola (become cool) > H. [-\$61a] (become cool, recover);
- B.  $-\underline{vop\hat{u}}$  (blind) > H. [ $\hat{s}\hat{e}\Phi\hat{o}\Phi\hat{u}$ ] (blind person).
  - B.  $y_0 > H$ . [5]:
- B. -yota (warm oneself) > H.  $[-\acute{o}r\grave{a}]$  (warm oneself);
- B. -y onda (become lean) > H. [-5ta] (become lean).
  - B. 10 > H. [10]:
- B. -lota (dream) > H. [-lórà] (dream);
- B.  $-\underline{lomba}$  (ask) > H. [-loga] (ask, beseech);
- B. -loya (bewitch) > H. [-loa] (bewitch); but H. [-loa] (become thick, as porridge).
  - B.  $\underline{vo} > H$ . [bo]:
- B.  $-\underline{v}$ ona (see) > H.  $[-b\acute{o}n\grave{a}]$  (see);
- B.  $-\underline{\text{vola}}$  (rot) > H.  $[-b\hat{\text{ola}}]$  (rot).
  - B.  $\underline{ko} > H$ . [tlho]:
- B.  $-\underline{\text{kola}}$  (spy) > H. [-tlhólà] (spy, peep);
- B.  $-\underline{koma}$  (insert) > H. [-tlhoma] (insert).
  - B.  $\underline{to} > H$ . [tlho]:
- B. -tola (produce, give out) > H. [-tlhòlà]

  (create, portend evil omen,

  spend the day).

- B.  $\underline{x}o > H. [tl!s]:$
- B. -xola (anoint) > H. [-tl'.ola] (anoint).
  - B.  $\underline{no} > H$ . [no]:
- B. -nona (become fat) > H. [-nona] (become fat);
- B.  $-y \hat{n}_0$  (tooth) > H. [lèinò] (tooth).

#### B. <u>mo</u> ?

The above examples show that B. consonants before e and o follow the same rules as when they precede a. Cf. parr. 2.07 - 2.11.

#### Consonants before Semi-vowels

- (a) Before y and w
- 2.19 B.  $\underline{kya} > H$ . [sa]:
  - B.  $-\underline{kya}$  (dawn) > H. [-sá] (dawn, become clear); possessive concord of class 7, [sá-].
    - B.  $\underline{tya} > H$ . [tsha]:
  - H. [sètlhàtshànà], diminutive of [sètlhàrè];
  - H. [nátshànà], diminutive of [nárè] (buffalo)
    - < B. natyana < \*nati, <\*nv-ati (buffalo).
    - B.  $\underline{pya} > H$ . [[wa]:
  - B. -pya (new, burn) > H.  $[-\int wai]$  (new, burn).
    - B.  $\underline{xya} > H$ . [ja]:
  - B. -xya (go) > H. [-jà] (go);

possessive concord of classes 4 and 9, [ja-]

- B. lya > H. [dʒa]:
- B. -lya (eat) > H. [-dya] (eat);
- H. [mmedgana] diminutive of [mmele] (body);
- H. [lèbèdʒánà] diminutive of [lèbèlé] (grain or plant of corn).

The sound [dʒ], as Cole points out<sup>7)</sup> varies in pronunciation from [dʒ] to [dj], [ʒ] and [j]. It was probably for this reason that in the older Tswana literature it was represented by the semi-vowel y. For example, Brown used y in his dictionary. He remarked, however, as follows:

"Y, which has a double sound in southern Secwana, seems never to carry with it the sound of 'y' in the English word 'year', but is in every case like unto 'j' in 'joke' in the north."8)

- B.  $\underline{v}$ ya > H. [dʒwa]:
- B.  $-\underline{vyala}$  (sow) > H. [-d3wála] (sow, plant);
- H. [ts'àdgwánà], diminutive of [ts'àbá] (ear);
- H. [bòxódʒwànà] diminutive of [bòxóbè] (porridge).
  - B.  $\underline{nya} > H$ . [na]:
- B. -nya (rain) > H. [-na-] (rain).
  - B. <u>mya</u> ?
  - B. kwa > H. (xwa):

[-róxwà], passive of [-róxà] (curse);

[-lòxwà], passive of [-lòxà] (weave, plait).

<sup>7.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, par. 1. 71.

<sup>8.</sup> Brown, J.T.: Secwana-English Dictionary, p. iv.

Cf. [sèxwàxwà] (frog);
 [sèxwàp'á] (biltong);
 [-xwálálà] (become stiff).

## B. $\underline{kwe} > H$ . [xwe]:

B. -kwe (marriage, bridegroom, father-in-law)
> H. [mòxwé] (son-in-law); [bòxwé] (man's-in-law's place);

possessive pronominal stem, 3rd person, singular,  $[-xw\varepsilon]$ .

Cf. [-xwetl'a] (bleat, as a goat).

B. twa > H. [rwa]:
[-ΦέΦέτνὰ] passive of [-ΦέΦέτὰ] (winnow);
[-Φὸτνὰ], passive of [-Φὸτὰ] (deceive);
[-rwálὰ] (carry) < B. -twala <\*-tu-ala;</li>
[lèrwá] (small red ants).

B. pwa > H. [ʃwa]:
[-lèʃwà] passive of [-lèΦà] (pay);
[-bóʃwà] passive of [-bóΦà] (bind);
[phéʃwànà] diminutive of [phéΦò] (wind).
> H. [tʃhwa]:
[-tʃhwá] (dry up, as water) < B. -pua.</li>

B. <u>pwe</u> > H. [[we]:

Cf. [le]wé] (dirt, filth);

[mo]wé] (meercat);

[se]we]we] (flower);

[le]we] (type of creeping plant).

- B.  $\underline{\text{ywa}} > \text{H. [wa]}$ :
- B. -xwa (fall) > H. [-wa] (fall); possessive concord of classes 1 and 3, [wa-].
  - B. lwa > H. [lwa]:
- B. -lwa (fight) > H. [-lwa] (fight);
- B. -1wala (be ill) > H. [-1wálà] (be ill);
- H. [-balwa], passive of [-bala] (count); possessive concord of class 11, [lwa-].
- B. <u>vwa</u> > H. [dʒwa];
  [k'òdʒwànà], diminutive of [k'òbò] (blanket);
  [sèròdʒwànà], diminutive of [sèròbò] (beer in
  the process of making);
  [-ròdʒwà], passive of [-ròbà] (break);
  [-sédʒwà], passive of [-sébà] (whisper);
- N.B. As possessive concord of class 14, Hurutshe employs [d3a-] more commonly than [d3wa-].
  - B.  $\underline{\text{vwe}} > H$ . [dʒwɛ]:
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{vwe}}$  (stone) > H. [lèdʒwɛ] (stone). Cf. H. [phók'ódʒwe] (jackal).
    - B.  $\underline{k}$ wa > H. [tlhwa]:
  - B.  $-\underline{kwa}$  (white ants) > H. [motlhwa] or [botlhwa] (white ants);

[-látlhwà], passive of [-látlhà] (throw away); [-Фítlhwà], passive of [-Фítlhà] (hide).

B. <u>nwa</u> ? Cf., however:

[-xánwà], passive of [-xánà] (refuse, deny);

[-bónwà] passive of [-bónà] (see);

[mònwànà] diminutive of [mònò] (finger).

B. mwa > H. [ŋwa]:

[ŋwànà] (child) < B. mwana < mu-yana;

[ŋwàxá] (year) < B. mwaka < mu-yaka;

[mòlònwànà], diminutive of [mòlòmò] (mouth);

[-rónwà], passive of [-rómà] (send).

Cf. also [-nwàjà] (scratch).

B.  $\underline{\text{nwe}} > \text{H. [no]:}$ B.  $\underline{\text{mu-nwe}}$  (finger) > H. [mono)\* (finger).

B. mwe > H. [ŋwe]:
[ŋwèlí] (moon, moon-light) < B. mu-yelê (moon);
[ŋwètsî] (daughter-in-law)
[-ŋwèxà] (abscond).

# (b) Before ŷ and ŵ

2.20 B.  $k\hat{y}a > H$ . [sa], causative ending, for example:

[-isa] < -ekŷa;

[-osa] < -ukŷa;

 $[-usa] < -\frac{\hat{u}k\hat{y}a}{2}$ 

<sup>\*</sup> Prof. D.T. Cole (Notes on the Phonological Relation—
ships of Tswana Vowels, African Studies, Vol. 8,
No. 3, Sept.,1949) calls this change of e to c
"vowel breaking". He says, "In this process, we
find that the back vowels u, o, o and c, may interchange with a type of diphthong consisting of w
followed by one of the front vowels i, e, s, s or a.
Thus u interchanges with wi, o with we, and c or c
interchange with ws, we or wa." (p. 123).

- B. <u>tŷa</u> > H. [tsha]:
  [mòrítshànà], diminutive of [mòrírì] (hair);
  [phítshànà], diminutive of [phírì] (hyena).
- B.  $p\hat{y}_a > H$ . [tshwa]: [lè $\Phi$ ltshwànà], diminutive of [lè $\Phi$ l $\Phi$ l] (darkness). [mòrátshwànà], diminutive of [mòrá $\Phi$ è] (tribe).
  - B. <u>χŷa</u> > ?
- B. <u>lŷa</u> > H. [ts'a]:
  [-látsà], causative of [-lálà] (lie down, sleep);
  [-tl'átsà], causative of [-tl'álà] (be full);
  [nálètsànà], diminutive of [nàlèlì] (star);
  possessive concord of class lo, [tsa-].
  - B. <u>vŷa</u> > H. [ts'a]:

    -<u>vŷala</u> (bear young) > H. [-ts'álà] (bear young).
- B. nŷa > H. [na]:

  B. -nŷa (ease oneself) > H. [-nà] (exude);

  Cf. [-‡ènà] (defeat);

  [-sènà] (spoil, waste);

  [nònánè] diminutive of [nòn]
  - B. <u>mŷa</u> ?
- B. <u>kŵa</u> > H. [swa]:

  B. -<u>kŵa</u> (die) > H. [-swá] (die).

  Cf. [bòswá] (inheritance);

  [-swàbà] (wither, be disappointed);

  [lèswálò] (medicine to ensure prosperity or success).

- B. <u>tŵa</u> ?
- B.  $p\hat{w}a > H$ . [tshwa]:
- B.  $-p\hat{w}$ ana (resemble) > H. [-tshwánà] (resemble).
  - B. <u>yŵa</u> ?
  - B. 1%a > H. [tsw'a]:
- B. -lwa (come out) > H. [-tsw'a] (come out).
  - Cf. [sèlètsw'ànà], diminutive of [sèlèlù]
    (chin)

[-bútsw'à](ripen, be well-cooked).

- B.  $\underline{v}\hat{w}a > H$ . [tsw'a]:
- B.  $-\underline{\underline{v}\hat{w}ala}$  (wear clothes) > H. [-tsw'ala] (wear clothes).
  - B.  $\underline{x}\hat{w}a > H$ . [tlw'a]:
- B.  $-y\hat{u}_{x}\hat{v}_{a}$  (hear) > H.  $[-\hat{u}_{t}]$  (hear).
  - B. <u>nva</u> ?
  - B.  $\underline{m}\hat{w}_{\underline{a}} > H$ . [ŋwa]:
- Cf.[mòlànwánà] diminutive of [mòlàmú] (knobkerrie).
  - > H. [nwa]: cf.,
- [-ánwà], alternative of [-ánà] (suck) < B. -yamûa > H. [nwa]: cf.,
- [-nwá] (drink) < B. -mwa < -mua

#### NASAL COMPOUNDS

#### Original Nasal Compounds

- 2.21 B. nk > H.  $[(\eta)kxh]$ :
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{nunka}}$  (stink) > H.  $[-\hat{\eta}kxh\hat{a}]$  (smell).
    - B. nt > H. [th]:
  - B.  $-\underline{ntu}$  (person) > H. [mòthò] (person)
  - Cf. [-bothà] (repose, as cattle after grazing).
  - B.  $\underline{mp} > H$ . [ph]: Cf. [- $\phi$ óphà] (strike, as with the hand).
    - B. ng > H. [k']:
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{tenga}}$  (equalise) > H.  $[-r\hat{\epsilon}k'\hat{a}]$  (buy);
  - B. -punga (blow) > H.  $[-\Phi ok'a]$  (blow, as wind).
    - B. nd > H. [t']:
  - B.  $-\frac{1}{2}$  (follow) > H. [-lat'a] (follow);
  - B.  $-\underline{linda}$  (protect) > H. [-let'a] (wait, guard).
    - B. mb > H. [p']:
  - B. -yumba (mould) > H. [-bóp'à] (Mould);
  - B.  $-\underline{lomba}$  (ask) > H. [-lóp'à] (request, beseech):
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{kimbila}}$  (walk) > H. [-sép'élà] (walk);
  - B. -kumbula (remember) > H. [-xóp'ólà] (remember).

Thus B. original nasal compounds of primary plosives and fricatives are represented in Hurutshe as follows:

- B.  $\underline{nk} > H$ . [kxh];
- B.  $\underline{nt} > H$ . [th];
- B.  $\underline{mp} > H$ . [ph];
- B. ng > H. [k'];
- B. nd > H. [t'];
- B. mb > H. [p'].

There are examples where the nasal is retained inside a polysyllabic stem, for example,

[-thínthà] (shake off);

[-xwant'a] (walk briskly or arrogantly);

[-róńkxhà] (hurt a sore).

As these examples show the <u>n</u> is retained in the penultimate syllable. Cf. Nasal compounds with <u>ni</u> in parr. 2.23 and 2.24.

#### Nasal Compounds before Semi-vowels

- 2.22 B. mpya > H. [tshwa]:

  Cf., [tshétshwànà] diminutive of [tshéphè]

  (springbok).
  - B. mbya > H. [tsw'a]:

    [sèlétswànà] diminutive of [sèlép'è] (axe);

    [mòtlhátswánà] diminutive of [mòtlhàp'é](herd

    of cattle).
  - B. nkwa > H. [kxhwa]:

    Cf., [sèkxhwà] (forest);

    [mòkxhwàphá] (type of aloe);

    [sèkxhwámà] (purse);

    [-róńkxhwà] passive of [-róńkxhà] (hurt a sore place)

- B. <a href="mailto:ntwa">ntwa</a> > H. [thwa]:

  Cf., [-ràthwà] passive of [-ràthà] (split up,
  e.g. wood; strike, as lightning).
- B. mpwa > H. [tʃhwa]:
  Cf., [-Φàtʃhwà] passive of [-Φàphà] (split up wood; keep out of the way);
  [-kxhàtʃhwà] passive of [-kxhàphà] (wave aside; smear floor with cow-dung).
- B. <u>ngwa</u> > H. [kw'a]:
  [-rékwà] passive of [-rék'à] (buy);
  [-rókwà] passive of [-rók'à] (sew).
- B. ndwa > H. [tw'a]:

  [-làtw'à] passive of [-làt'à] (follow);

  [-rátw'à] passive of [-rát'à] (love, like).
- B. mbwa > H. [tʃw'a]

  [-bótʃw'à] passive of [-bóp'à] (mould);

  [-lótʃw'à] passive of [-lóp'à] (request, beseech);

  [mòxótʃw'ànà] diminutive of [mòxóp'ò] (wooden

  eating vessel).
- B. mpŷa > H. [tshwa]:
   [lèΦìtshwànà] diminutive of [lèΦìΦì] (darkness);
   [phàtshwánà] diminutive of [phàphí] (splinter of wood).

- B. ndŷa > H. [ts'a]:

  Cf. [phòts'ánà] diminutive of [phòt'i] (duiker);

  [lòbàts'ánà] diminutive of [lòbàt'í] (plank, door).
- B. mbŷa > H. [tsw'a]:
  [tlhàtsw'ànà] diminutive of [tlhàp'ì] (fish).

  Cf. also [-tlhàtsw'à] (wash) transitive of [-tlhàp'à]

  (wash);
- B. mbwa > H. [tsw'a];
  [lèxátswànà] diminutive of [lèxáp'ù] (water melon);
  Cf. also [lèrátswànà] diminutive of [lèráp'ò] (bone);
  [mòlàtsw'ànà] diminutive of [mòlàp'ò] (valley, river).

## Nasal Compounds with <u>ni</u>-

2.23 Nasal compounds with  $\underline{ni}$  are found with

[-látsw'à] (lick) < B. -lamba (lick).

- (i) nouns of class 9,
- (ii) nouns of class 10,
- (iii) adjectives qualifying nouns of classes 9 and 10,
- (iv) objectival concord, first person, singular.

#### (i) Nouns of class 9:

B.  $\underline{\text{ni-k}} > \text{H.} [(\eta)\text{kxh}]$ : [kxhák'à] (guinea-fowel) < B.  $\underline{\text{ni-kanga}}$  (guinea-fowel); [kxhó $\Phi$ à] (tick) < B.  $\underline{\text{ni-kupa}}$  (tick) [kxhánò] (denial, refusal) < [-xánà] (deny, refuse) < B. -kana (deny).

```
[tsh]:
      > H.
[htshi] (eye-brow, eye-lash) < B. ni-kîve
                           eye-brow. eye-lash).
Cf. [tshimo] (cultivated land) < *ni-kîmu;
[tshimane] collective form of [mosimane] (boy).
[tshíp'l] (iron) < *ni-kîmbî.
[tship!a] (black and white civet cat);
[htshu] (a fowl's crop).
      > H. [kh] before B. \hat{\mathbf{1}} and \hat{\mathbf{u}}:
[khíbà] (apron) < *ni-kîya;
[khúlù] (tortoise) < B. <u>ni-kûlû</u> (tortoise)
[khúmò] (wealth) < [-húmà] (be rich);
[khúlúxò] (removing from one's place of residence)
                          < [-húlúxà].
      B. \underline{ni-t} > H. [(n)th]:
Cf., [thàbà] (mountain);
     [hth5] (wound);
     [thát'\hat{o}](wish) < [-rát'\hat{a}](love);
     [thèlè] (udder);
     [thèthè] (a grub found in kraal manure);
     [thòlá] (a type of plant)
     [thómò] (act of sending) < [-rómà] (send);
     [thìp'á] (knife); < [-rip'a]
     [thùkhú] or [thùkhwí] (civet cat) <
                          B. ni-tûngû);
     [thùp'a] (a thin stick);
     [thúò] (possession) < [-rúà] (rear animals).
```

```
B. ni-p > H. [(m)ph]:
[phàlá] (rooibok) < B. ni-pala (antelope);
[phé\Phiò] (wind) < B. ni-pipo (wind);
[phòk'à] (dew) < [-\Phi oka] (blow, as wind);
[phírì] (hyena) < B. ni-pîtî (hyena);
[phúlùhúlù ] (red buck);
[mph5] (gift) < [-\Phi a] (give);
[phùlò] (pasture) < [-\Phiùlà] (graze).
       B. \underline{\text{ni-}\chi} > \text{H. } [(\eta)k']:
[k'olobe] (pig) < B. ni-yulu\underline{v}e;
[\hat{\eta}k'\hat{u}] (sheep) < B. \underline{ni}-y\hat{u}
[k!álímò] (act of lending) < [-álímà].
       > H. [ts'i] before B. 1:
[hts'i] (fly) < B. ni-y1;
[ts'i\hat{\epsilon}] (locust) < B. \underline{ni-xiye}
Cf. [k'ilò] (abstinence) < [-ilà] < B. -yîla.
       B. ni-1 > H. [(n)t']:
[ht'á] (louse);
[t'èlù] (beard) < B. ni-lelû;
[t'\hat{e}\Phi\hat{o}] (payment) < [-l\hat{e}\Phi\hat{a}] < B. -lipa
       B. ni-y > H. [(m)p']:
[p'64i] (goat) < B. ni-vulî;
[pullà] (rain) < B. ni-\hat{\mathbf{y}}la;
[mp'a] (belly);
[p!\acute{o}n\grave{o}] (scene) < [-b\acute{o}n\grave{a}] < B. -\underline{v}ona
```

B.  $\underline{\text{ni-k}} > \text{H.} [(p)\text{tlh}]$ :

[ $\hat{p}$ tlhá] (point) < B.  $\underline{\text{ni-ka}}$ ;

[tlh $\hat{p}$ ] (hedgehog) < B.  $\underline{\text{ni-konf}}$  (shame).

- B.  $\underline{\text{ni-t}} > \text{H. [tlh]}$ :
  Cf., [tlhásè] (spark).
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-y}} > H$ . [(n)tl']:

[tlàlà] (hunger) < B. ni-yala;

[tra i] (lightning) < B. ni-yali

[htlb] (house) < B. ni- $\chi$ u

> H. [ts']:

[ts'èlà] (path, road) < B. ni- $\underline{y}$ ila

- $B. \underline{ni-\underline{l}} > H. [ts]:$  [ts'èbé] (ear) <  $B. \underline{ni-leve}$
- 2.24 Before semi-vowels nasal compounds with <u>ni</u>-are modified as follows:
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-kwa}} > \text{H. [kxhwa]}$ : [kxhwalé] (partridge) < B.  $\underline{\text{ni-kwali}}$ .
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-kwe}} > \text{H.}$  [kxhwe]: Cf. [kxhwelí] (moon, month).
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-twa}} > \text{H.}$  [thwa]: Cf. [thwane] (lynx); [thwale] (one who excels).
  - B. ni-pwe > H. [(n)tfhwe]:
    [ntfhwé] (ostrich) < B. ni-pwe.
    Cf. [ntfhwé] (sweet reed, sugar cane);
    [sètfhwé] (stamina).

B.  $\underline{\text{ni-ywe}} > \text{H.}$  [(ŋ)kw'ɛ]:

[ $\hat{n}$ kw $\hat{\epsilon}$ ] (leopard) < B.  $\underline{ni}$ - $\underline{ywe}$ ;

[kwę̃nà] (crocodile) < B. <u>ni-ywenya</u>

B. ni-lwa > H. [(n)tw'a]:  $[\hat{n}tw'\hat{a}]$  (war) < B,  $-\underline{lwa}$ .

B.  $\underline{\text{ni-}\underline{\text{vwa}}} > \text{H.}$  [ntsw'a]: [htsw'a]\* (dog) < B.  $\underline{-\underline{\text{v}}}$ wa.

B.  $\underline{\text{ni-kwa}} > \text{H.}$  [(n)tlhwa]: Cf. [htlhwá] (larva of white ants); [tlhwárè] (python).

As the above examples show, the nasal is retained before monosyllabic stems but it is dropped before polyllabic stems.

2.25 Before vowel noun stems B. <u>ni</u>-loses its vowel and becomes H. [n-], for example,

[nàmà] (meat);

[nárè] (buffalo);

[nòn] (bird);

[nòká] (river).

#### (ii) Nouns of Class 10

2.26 Nouns of class 10 are the plural forms of nouns of class 9, with the prefix [li(N)-]. As in the case of nouns of class 9, the nasal is retained before monosyllabic stems where it is syllabic, but is dropped before polysyllabic stems, for example,

<sup>\*</sup> With some speakers this form sounds more like [hd3wá].

[likxhák',à] (guinea-fowls) < [kxhák'à];
[lihthó] (wounds) < [hthó];
[lihtʃw!á] (dogs) < [htʃw'á];
[litshímò] (cultivated fields) < [tshímò];
[lip'óts'ò] (questions) < [p'ots'ò].</pre>

# (iii) Adjectives qualifying nouns of classes 9 and 10:

2.27 Adjectives qualifying nouns of classes 9 and 10 undergo the same changes as the nouns, as a result of the influence of the concords used with them. for example,

[kxhólò] < [-xólò] (big) < B. -kulu;

[p'ɛlí] < [-bɛlí] (two) < B. -vali (-vili);

[mp'é] > [-bé] (bad) < B. -vi;

[thárò] < [-rárò] (three) < B. -tatu

2.28 In the above cases the nasal is dropped before polysyllabic stems as in the case of nouns (cf. parr. 2.23 and 2.24) but it is retained before monosyllabic stems, both in the singular and in the plural, for example,

[púlà é mp'é] (bad rain);
[lip'úlà ts'é limp'é] (bad rains);
[tàú é kxhólò] (big lion);
[lit'àú tsé likxhólò] (big lions);
[jk'ú é ntshò] (black sheep);
[link'ú tsé limtshò] (black sheep).

Cf. also the examples in par. 2.21 in which the nasal is retained in the penultimate syllable.

- (iv) Objectival concord, first person, singular:

  2.29 B. ni-, objectival concord, first person,
  singular, loses the vowel in Hurutshe, but retains
  the nasal which is assimilated to the following consonant, becoming [ŋ], [n] and [m] before velar, palatal
  and labial consonants respectively, for example,
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-k}} > \text{H.}$  [ $\underline{\text{nkxh}}$ ]: [ $-\underline{\text{nkxhánà}}$ ] (deny, refuse me) < B.  $-\underline{\text{kana}}$ ; [ $-\underline{\text{nkxhóp'ólà}}$ ] (remember me) < B.  $-\underline{\text{kumbula}}$ .

  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-p}} > \text{H. [mph]}$ : [-\hat{mphá] (give me) < B. -pa; [-\hat{mphét!\hat{\hat{a}}} (pass me) < B. -pinda
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-Y}} > \text{H. [nk']}$ : [-\hat{nk'}]: [-\hat{nk'}] (lend me) < B. -\hat{yalima}; [-\hat{nk'}]\hat{a}] (measure me) < B. -\hat{yela}.
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-l}} > \text{H. [nt']}$ : [- $\hat{\text{nt'ata}}$ ] (follow me) < B. - $\underline{\text{landa}}$ ; [- $\hat{\text{nt'ePa}}$ ] (pay me) < B. - $\underline{\text{lipa}}$ .
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-v}} > \text{H. [mp']:}$  [mpfila] (count me) < B.  $\underline{-\text{vala}}$ ; [mpfna] (see me) < B.  $\underline{-\text{vona}}$ .

- B.  $\underline{\text{ni-}\underline{k}}$  > H. [ntlh]: [- $\hat{\text{htlhaola}}$ ] (separate me) < B. - $\underline{\underline{k}$ ay-ula; [- $\hat{\text{htlhola}}$ ] (spy me) < B. - $\underline{\underline{k}$ ola.
- B.  $\underline{\text{ni-t}} > \text{H. [ntlh]}$ : [ $\hat{\text{ntlhola}}$ ] (create me) < B.  $-\underline{\text{tola}}$ ; [ $\hat{\text{ntlháhúna}}$ ] (chew me) < B.  $-\underline{\text{takû-na}}$
- B.  $\underline{\text{ni-x}} > \text{H. [ntl]}$ .

  [-\hat\text{htlola}] (jump over me) < B. -\frac{\text{xula}}{\text{cm}};

  [-\hat\text{htlomal}] (provide for me) < B. -\frac{\text{xama}}{\text{cm}}.
- 2.30 When [mo-] < B. mu-, prefix of classes

  l and 3, occurs before stems commencing with [b], the

  [o] is clided, and [b] is assimilated to [m], that is

  [mob-] > [mm-] where the first [m] is syllabic. In

  many such cases, however, both assimilated and non-assimilated forms occur in Hurutshe although the former are

  more commonly used, for example,

[mmútl'à] (hare) < \*mobutl'a; [mmú] (soil) < [mòbú]; [mmèlè] (body) < \*mobele; [mmínì] (dancer) < [mobini] < [-bínà]; [mmópî] (one who moulds) < [mòbóp'ì] < [-bóp'à].

2.31 When the prefix [mo-] occurs before stems commencing with  $[\Phi] < B$ . p, dissimilation occurs where  $[\Phi]$  becomes [h], as Cole also points out  $[\Phi]$ , for example,

<sup>9.</sup> Cole, Frof. D.T.: An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, par. 1.84.

[mníkèlà] < [mòΦíkèlà] (running nose, cold); [mnìkò] < [mòΦikò] (gate); [mnínànà] < [mòΦínànà] (handle); [mnáxò] < [mòΦáxò] (food for a journey).</pre>

2.32 When the objectival concord of class 1, [mo-] < B.  $\underline{mu}$ -, occurs before verb stems commencing with [b] and  $[\Phi]$  assimilation and dissimilation respectively take place as indicated in parr. 2.30 and 2.31, for example,

[-mmóna] (see him) < \*-mobóna; [-mmólája] (kill him) < \*-mobólája.

[-mnísa] < [-moΦísa] (burn him/her);
[-mnîtlhèla] < [-moΦitlhèla] (find him/her);
[-mnatlha] < [-moΦatlha] (blind him/her).

## Loan Forms

2.33 Hurutshe has adopted some forms from Afrikaans and English, which, however, are not of interest to us in this study. Cole has given many examples of such forms and a good description of how they are modified phonetically so as to conform to the sound structure of Tswana. 10)

#### Summary

2.34 The following is an etymological summary of Hurutshe consonantal sounds from Ur-Bantu:

<sup>10.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, parr. 4.41 - 4.47.

## 1. Primary Consonants before a

2.35 Plosives: B.  $\underline{k} > H$ . [x]

B. t > H. [r]

B. p > H.  $[\Phi]$ 

2.36 Fricatives: B. x > H. [-] or [j]

B. 1 > H. [1]

B.  $\underline{\underline{y}} > H$ . [b]

2.37 Nasels: B.  $\underline{n} > H$ . [n]

B.  $\underline{m} > H$ , [m]

# 2. Palatals before a

- 2.38 <u>Voiceless Palatals</u>: B.  $\underline{k} > H$ . [tlh]
  - B.  $\underline{t} > H$ . [tlh]
- 2.39 <u>Voiced Palatals</u>: B.  $\underline{x} > H$ . [tl']

B.  $\frac{1}{2} > [ts']$ .

- 3. Semi-vowels:
- 2.40 B. y > H. [j]
  - B.  $\underline{w} > H$ . [w]
  - 4. Nasal Compounds of Primary Consonants
    - (a) Original nasal compounds
- 2.41 B. nk > H. [kxh], [nkxh]
  - B.  $\underline{nt} > H$ . [th], [nth]
  - $B. \underline{mp} > H. [ph], [mph].$

- B. ng > H. [k'], [xk']
- B. nd > H. [t'], [nt']
- B. mb > H. [p'], [mp']

## (b) Nasal compounds of B. ni-

- 2.42 In many cases these are identical with those in (a) above, but differences occur:
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-k}}$  > H. [kxh] [nkxh] 
    > H. [tsh], [ntsh] or [kh], [nkh] before  $\underline{\hat{\mathbf{1}}}$  and  $\underline{\hat{\mathbf{u}}}$ .
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-t}} > \text{H.}$  [th], [nth]
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-p}} > \text{H.}$  [ph], [mph]
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-y}} > \text{H.} [k'], [nk']$ > H. [ts'], [nts'].
  - B. ni-1 > H. [t'] [nt']
  - B. ni-v > H. [p'], [mp']
  - B.  $ni-\underline{k} > H$ . [tlh], [ntlh]
  - B.  $ni-\underline{t} > H$ . [tlh], [ntlh]
  - B.  $\frac{\text{ni-y}}{} > \text{H. [tl']}, [ntl'] > \text{H. [ts']}, [nts']$
  - $\beta$ . ni-1 > H. [ts']
  - (c) Before the semi-vowel w
- 2.43 B.  $\underline{\text{ni-kw}} > \text{H.}$  [kxhw], [nkxhw]
  - B.  $\underline{\text{ni-tw}} > \text{H.}$  [thw], [nthw]

- B.  $\underline{\text{pi-pw}} > H$ . [tʃhw], [ntʃhw]
- B.  $\underline{\text{ni-yw}} > \text{H.} [kw'], [nkw']$
- B.  $\underline{\text{ni-lw}} > \text{H.}$  [t], [ntw']
- B.  $ni-\underline{v}w > H$ . [tfw], [ptfw]

Compounds of mu-with p and y:

- 2.44 B.  $\underline{mu}_p > H.$  [mf]
  - B.  $\underline{mu-v} > H$ . [mm]
  - 5. Vowel Influence on Consonants
    - (a) On primary consonants
- 2.45 B.  $\underline{k} > H$ . [s], [h], [kxh], [kh]
  - B.  $\underline{t} > H$ . [s], [tsh], [f], [tsh]
  - B.  $\underline{p} > H$ . [tshw], [tʃh]
  - B.  $\chi$  > H. [ts']
  - B. 1 > H. [1], [ts]
  - B.  $\underline{v}$  > H. [b], [ts'], [tsw'].
    - (b) On Palatals
- 2.46 B. k > H. [tsh], [se]
  - B.  $\underline{x} > H$ . [ts']
    - (c) On Nasals
- 2.47 B.  $\underline{n} > H$ . [ $\eta$ ]

## 6. Influence of Semi-vowels on consonants

## (a) On primary consonants

- 2.48 B.  $\underline{k} > H$ . [s], [sw], [xw]
  - B.  $\underline{t} > H$ . [tsh], [rw]
  - B.  $\underline{p} > H$ . [[w], [t]hw], [tshw]
  - B. x > H. [j]
  - B.  $\frac{1}{2}$  > H. [d3], [ts'], [tsw'], [lw]
  - B.  $\underline{v}$  > H. [dʒw], [ts'], [tsw']

## (b) <u>On Nasals</u>

- 2.49 B.  $\underline{n} > H$ . [n], [n]
  - B.  $\underline{m} > H$ . [nw], [nw], [nw]

# (c) <u>On Palatals</u>

2.50 B.  $\underline{\underline{k}}$  > H. [tlhw]

B.  $\underline{x}$  > H. [tlw']

## CHAPTER 3

## COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

#### INTRODUCTION

- Thaping and Tharo with those of Hurutshe. This is a synchronic study. Reference should be made to chapter 2 in which the derivation of Hurutshe speech sounds from Ur-Bantu has been determined. We are concerned primarily, in this chapter, with phonetic phenomena, that is with actual pronunciation, and not with morphology and syntax.
- 3.02 It should be borne in mind that there is no Tswana dialect, as spoken today, which can be said to be "pure". The forms given in this comparison, therefore, are those which we consider to be typical for each dialect.
- 3.03 Unless otherwise specified the term Kwena refers to the Kwena dialects of Molepolole, Rustenburg and Brits districts, while the term Kgatla refers to the Kgatla dialects of Mochudi, Moruleng in the Pilansberg district and Mosetlha in the Hammanskraal district.

#### THE VOWELS

3.04 Although the Hurutshe vowel system, as shown in parr. 2.01-2.05, applies to all the other Tswana dialects, yet there are instances of variations in the pronunciation of some of them in certain dialects.

Thus, for example, in Kwena of Molepolole, Ngwaketse, Tlharo, Tlhaping and Rolong the semi-close vowels [e] and [o] before the locative suffix [-n] may be so raised that they become more or less identical with [i] and [u] respectively, for example,

[p'èlún] instead of [p'èlón] < [p'èló] (heart); [mmèlìn] instead of [mmèlèn] < [mmèlè] (body); [ntl'un] instead of [ntl'on] < [ntl'o] (house).

In Hurutshe, Kgatla and Kwena of Rustenburg and Brits districts the vowels [e] and [o] are merely raised to [e] and [o] respectively in such cases. Another difference or variation is found in the pronunciation of the forms for "water" and "bag". In some dialects, for example, Rolong, Ngwaketse and Kwena both forms [mèts'í] and [mèts'é], [kxhèts'í] and [kxhèts'é] respectively occur, while in others, for example, Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, only the forms [mèts'é] and [khèts'é]\* occur. Otherwise Tswana vowels are fairly uniform.

#### CONSONANTS

#### The Stop Explosive Consonants

H. [k']

3.05 The sound corresponding to H. [k'] is [k'] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

 $[-r \in k' \hat{a}]$  (buy),  $[k' \hat{c}] \in L^1$  (tear),

[kík'à] (stamping block), [k'òlòbè] (pig),

[hk'6] (nose) and [hk'ú] (sheep).

In Ngwaketse, as Prof. Cole points out (k') before (i) is sometimes pronounced as (t), for example,

<sup>\*</sup> As pronounced in this dialect.

<sup>1.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, par. 1.37,

## H. [t']

3.06 In all other Tswana dialects the sound corresponding to H. [t'] is [t'], for example,

## H. [p']

3.07 The corresponding sound to H. [p'] is [p'] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[-làp'à] (be tired), [-p'élà] (rock-rabbit), [p'òó] (bull) and [p'úlà] (rain).

#### The Voiced Bilabial Explosive Consonant

## н. [b]

- 3.08 (a) The corresponding sound to H. [b] is [b] in all other Tswana dialects, for example, [-bábà] (be bitter) and [-bónà] (see).
  - (b) In Kgatla of Pilansberg and Hammanskraal districts as well as in Kwena of Rustenburg and Brits districts, however, both the bilabial explosive [b] and the bilabial fricative [β] occur, for example,

[-bábà] and [-βáβà], [-bónà] and [-βónà].

In these dialects the bilabial fricative occurs especially in slow speech.

3.09 Both the bilabial explosive [b] and the bilabial fricative  $[\beta]$  may be replaced by [ts'] in Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla as in Hurutshe (cf. par. 2.15) and by [ts'] or [tj'] in Rolong, Thaping and Tharo in certain nouns of classes 5 and 6, for example,

[lèbélè] or [lèßélè] is sometimes pronounced [lèts'élè] (breast), plural, [màbélè], [màßélè] or [màts'élè];

[lèbóxò] (arm) is sometimes pronounced [lètʃ'óxò] in Rolong, Thaping and Tharo.

The plural is [màbóxò], or [màtʃ'óxò].

#### The Aspirated Explosive Consonants

## H. [kh]

3.10 The corresponding sound to H. [kh] is [kh] in all other Tswana dialects. It occurs normally before [i] and [u], for example,

In Ngwaketse and Kwena of Molepolole the form [sèkhí] is [sètʃhí]. In Kgatla of Hammanskraal district it occurs before all vowels. In Ngwaketse, as Prof. Cole points out<sup>2)</sup>, [kh] before [i] is often pronounced as [tʃh], for example,

[tʃhíbà] instead of [khíbà] (apron).

<sup>2.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., par. 1.40.

#### H. [th]

3.11 The sound corresponding to H. [th] is [th] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[thàrí] (a skin for carrying a child),

[màthé] (saliva).

[-thíbà] (stop, stop up, be overcast, as clouds),

[mòthò] (person),

[thùp'à] (stick).

## H. [ph]

3.12 The corresponding sound to H. [ph] is [ph] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[phàlá] (rooibok), [phírì] (hyena),

[phòló] (ox), [-phúnà] (pierce through, cut open).

## The Fricative Consonants

#### H. [Φ]

- 3.13 (a) The sound corresponding to H. [中] is [中] in Ngwaketse, Kwena of Molepolole and Rolong (see N.B. below) for example, [一中心中à] (fly) and [lè中ì中ì] (darkness).
  - N.B. In Rolong, as spoken today, the sound  $[\Phi]$  alternates with [h]; for example, the above examples are pronounced respectively as follows:

 $[-\Phi \hat{o}\Phi \hat{a}]$  or  $[-h\hat{o}h\hat{a}]$  and  $[l\hat{e}\Phi \hat{o}\Phi \hat{a}]$  or  $[l\hat{e}h\hat{i}h\hat{i}]$ .

Indeed the alternative sound [h] is far more commonly heard than [Φ] as one goes further west of Mafeking, and especially in the Vryburg district, for example, at

Kudunkgwane, Tlakgameng, Ganyesa and Bothithong. This is due to the influence of Tlhaping in which  $[\Phi]$  does not occur (see (b) below).

- (b) The sound corresponding to H. [Φ] is [h] in Thaping and Tharo, for example, [-hòhà] and [lèhìhì] for Hurutshe [-ΦòΦà] and [lèΦìΦì] respectively. Strangely enough one encounters [f] in a few cases in Tharo, for example, in [kà mòfó] or [ká m̂fó] for Hurutshe [ká mòsó] (tomorrow). Prof. Cole also remarks about this.<sup>3)</sup> Perhaps this is due to the influence of other languages.
- (c) In Kgatla and Kwena of Rustenburg and Brits districts both the bilabial fricative [Φ] and the dentilabial [f] occur, for example, [-ΦὸΦὰ] and [-fòfὰ], [lèΦἰΦὶ] and [lèfἰfὰ]. In fact the latter, [f], is far more commonly heard than the former, [Φ], in these dialects, especially in Kgatla of Hammanskraal district.

H. [s]

3.14 (a) The corresponding sound to H. [s] before [a] [s] and [e] is [s] in all other Tswana dialects, for example, [-sálà] (remain), [sèlò] (thing) and [-sèlà] (look for food, as a fowl).

<sup>3.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., par. 1.47.

(b) The corresponding sound to H. [s] before [i] is [s] in all other Tswana dialects, except Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, for example.

[mòsí] (smoke);
[-sírà] (hide from view);
[mòsìmá] (hole);
[bòsíxò] (night);

In Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, however, H. [s] before [i] is [ʃ]. For example, the above forms are pronounced respectively as follows in this dialect:

[mòʃí], [-ʃírà], [mòʃìmá] and [bòʃíhò].

(c) The corresponding sound to H. [s] before [o], [o] and [u] is [s] in Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla, for example,

[lèisò] (hearth);

[lèsómè] (ten);

[-sùmà] (roar, as a river in flood) [lèsòbà] (hole).

(d) In Rolong, Tlhaping and Tlharo H. [s]

before [o], [o] and [u] is [ʃ]. For example,

the above forms are pronounced respectively

as follows in these dialects:

[lèiß], [lèjómè], [lèjùhú] [-jùmà] and

[lòísð], [lèsómē], [lèsùhú] [-súmà] and [lòsòbà]. H. [f]

3.15 The corresponding sound to H. [ $\int$ ] is [ $\int$ ] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[-ʃájà] also pronounced [-ʃáà] (give a name);
[-ʃàbà] (eat porridge with relish);
[-ʃáp'à] (cane or beat);
[-ʃệtl'à] (cut or slice);
[lèʃệtl'à] (edible part of the head of a bone);
[-ʃệnà] (grin) Cf. parr. 2.15 and 2.16.

## H. [x]

- 3.16 (a) The sound corresponding to H. [x] is [x] in all other Tswana dialects (see (c) and (d) below) except Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, for example, [-xánà] (refuse), [-áxà] (build) and [-bóxólà] (bark).
  - (b) In Kgatla of Hammanskraal district the corresponding sound to H. [x] is [h], for example, [-hánà], [-áhà] and [-bóhólà].

    It occurs before all vowels in this dialect.

    It is typical of this dialect that [x] does not occur in its sound system. Strangely enough its two sister dialects, namely, Kgatla of Mochudi and Pilansberg district, employ it.
  - (c) In Ngwaketse and Kwena of Molepolole, however, the sound [x] is replaced by [h] in the perfect forms of verb stems ending in [-xa], for example, [-ts'óhìlè] < [-ts'óxà] (wake up); [-áhìlè] < [-áxà] (build); [-xòròhìlè] < [-xòròxà] (arrive).

This is exceptional because, although it is in accordance with the rule that Tswana [x] does not normally occur before [i], other Tswana dialects do not usually substitute [h] for [x] in such cases.

(d) In Kgatla of Mochudi and Pilansberg district as well as in Kwena of Rustenburg and Brits districts H. [x] is often replaced by [f] or, less commonly,  $[\Phi]$ , for example,

[-lirafala] alternative of H. [-liraxala] (happen);

[phólòfólò] alternative of H. [phólòxólò] (animal).

In Kgatla of Hammanskraal district H. [x] is replaced by [h] in all cases as already pointed out [see (b) above). Thus [-lìràhàlà for H. [-lìràxàlà] and [phólòhólò] for H. [phólòxólò].

H. [h]

3.17 (a) In all other Tswana dialects the sound corresponding to H. [h] is [h], for example,

[sèhúbà] (chest, breast, slough);

[-húlúxà] (remove, trek);

[-hùlùà] (stir);

[-húmà] (be rich);

[-húbílà]. [-hwíbílà] or [-híbílà]

(become red).

It occurs normally before [i] and [u], as well as in the forms [-hèmà] (breathe), [há], an alternative of  $[\Phi \hat{a}]$  (if, when),

and in the interjections [hɛ́ɛlá!] or [hɛ́ɛlí] (ho there!) [ɛhɛ̞!] (is that so!) [ahɛ̞!] (that is right! correct!) and the enclitic [-hɛ]. In Tharo, Thaping and to some extent in Rolong [h] has taken the place of H.  $[\Phi]$  (see par. 3.13), by the process B. p >  $[\Phi]$  >  $[\Phi]$  > [h].

- (b) In Kwena of Rustenburg and Brits districts as well as in Kgatla of Mochudi and Pilans-berg district H. [h] is usually replaced by [x] in such forms as [èxé?] (really? is that so?) [àxé!] (yes! that's right!) and the enclitic [-xè].
- (c) In Kwena of Rustenburg and Brits districts as well as in Kgatla of Mochudi and Pilans burg district H. [h] alternates with [Φ] or [f], for example, the forms [sehúbà] (chest), [phúlùhúlù] (rooibok) [mòhúmàxàlì] (lady), [-húlúxà] (remove, trek), [-hùlùà] (stir) and [mòhút'à] (type, kind) are sometimes pronounced respectively as follows in these dialects:

[sèΦúbà] or [sèfúbà], [phúlùΦúlù] or [phúlùfúlù], [mòΦúmàxàlì] or [mòfúmàxàlì], [-Φúlúxà] or [-fùlùà] and [mòΦút'à] or [mòfút'à].

Prof. Cole mentions this alternation of [h] and [f] also, but he refers to Kgatla only.4)

<sup>4.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., par. 1.49.

#### The Lateral Consonants

H. [tl'] The corresponding sound to H. [tl'] is [tl'] in all other Tswana dialects, \* for example, [-tl'à] (come, shall, will). [-tl'álà] (be full), but [tl'àlà] (hunger), [lèwátl'è] (sea); [htl'ò] (house). H. [tlh] 3.19 In all other Tswana dialects the sound corresponding to H. [tlh] is [tlh], for example, [-tlhàbà] (stab, stick, slaughter, rise, as the sun); [-tlhola] (create, portend ill-omen, spend the day); [bòtlhá] (sour, bitter, acid). H. [1] The corresponding sound to H. [1] is [1] in 3.20 all other Tswana dialects, for example, [-lálà] (lie down, sleep, spend the night), [-lèmà] (hoe, plough), [-lómà] (bite). This sound does not normally occur before [i] and [u] in all Tswana dialects, except (i) when it follows syllabic [1], for example, [-llisa] for H. [-lelisa] (cause to cry), [molli] for H. [moleli] (one who cries); (ii) in the interjective [li-li-li-li-li-'] (used especially

by women when cheering) which is encountered in all

Tswana dialects, including Hurutshe.

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;other" Iswana dialects of course include only those under discussion in this study. Ngwato employs [t'] for [tl'] and [th] for [tlh]. (Cf. par. 1.08).

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[-llà] for H. [-lèlà] (cry),
[-bólèlà] for H. [-bólèlèlà] (tell),
[-lìròllà] for H. [-lìròlòlà] (undo),
[-phátlàllà] for H. [-phátlàlàlà] (disperse,
scatter)

## The Vibrant Consonants

H. [r]

3.22 (a) The sound corresponding to H. [r] is [r] in all other Tswana dialects (see (b) below), for example,

[-rát'à] (like, love), [màrínínì] (gums),
[lèrù] (cloud), [-rè] (say) and [rè-] (we).
When followed by another [r] it is syllabic
in all Tswana dialects, for example,
[rrá] < [ràrá] (father).

(b) In Tharo and Thaping H. [r] is replaced

by [h] or [tʃh] in certain cases, for example,

[hè-] and [hè-] for H. [re-] and [ra-]

(we) respectively,

[hàrá] for H. [ràrá] or [rrá] (father),

[-lìhà] for H. [-lìrà] (do, work),

[tʃhòná] for H. [ròná] (we, us).

Cole mentions [-lìhà] as an alternative

pronunciation of [-lìhà] in Tharo.5)

<sup>5.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., par. 1.53.

I was not able to detect it in the field, however. But it does indicate the development of [-lìhà] from [-lìrà]. In Tharo, however, the form [-lìà] for H. [-lìrà] in which [r] is dropped, also occurs in the place of [-lìhà].

(c) [r] may be replaced by [s] or [tsh] in Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla as in Hurutshe (see par. 2.15) and by [ʃ] or [tʃh] in Rolong, Thaping and Tharo, in certain nouns of class 5. Thus, for example, in Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla, including Hurutshe, the following forms occur;

[lèròbà], [lèsòbà] or [lètshòbà] (hole, as in a piece of cloth);

[lèróp'è] and [lèsóp'è] (ruin); [lèráp'ò] and [lèsáp'ò] (bone).

On the analogy of the forms for the singular the plurals also have alternative forms. For example, the plurals of the above forms are:

[màròbà], [màsòbà] and [màtshòbà];
[màróp'è] and [màsóp'è];
[màráp'ò] and [màsáp'ò]

(d) In Rolong, Thaping and Tharo the above forms are pronounced respectively as follows: [lèròbà], [lèjòbà] and [lètjhòbà], plural:

[màròbà], [màsòbà] and [màtshòbà];

[lèróp'è] and [lèsóp'è], plural:

[màróp'è] and [màsóp'è];

[lèráp'ò] and [lèsáp'ò],

plural:

[màráp'ò] and [màsán'ò]
But the forms [lèsáp'ò] and [màsáp'ò]
also occur in these dialects.

Indeed in these dialects [r], [s] and [ʃ] alternate in some forms. Some speakers show preference to the one or the other. Thus, for example, in Rolong of Mafeking and district [r] occurs mostly in the plural forms while [s], [ʃ] or [tʃh] occurs in the singular forms mostly, for example,

[lèsáp'ò] (bone), plural, [màráp'ò],
[lèsámà] or [lèsámà] (cheek), plural [màrámà],
[lèsóp'è] (ruin), plural [màróp'è],
[lètshóò] (paw), plural [màróò].

In Rolong of Ganyesa, Tlakgameng and Kudunkgwane in the Vryburg district, how-ever, [r] is normally retained before [a] in the singular as well as in the plural forms, for example,

[lèrámà] (cheek), plural [màrámà], [lèráp'ò] (bone), plural [màráp'ò].

H. [1]

3.23 In all other Tswana dialects the sound corresponding to H. [1] is [1] which occurs before the vowels [i] and [u] only, for example,

[-lìrà] (do, work), [màlí] (blood), [bòlálù] (pus) and [khúlù] (tortoise).

In Tharo, Thaping and Rolong of Vryburg district [1] is replaced by [r] in [tshítshírì] for H. [tshítshílì]. I could not get other examples of such replacement, however.

## The Nasal Consonants

H. [m]

- 3.24 (i) The corresponding sound to H. [m] is [m] in all other Tswana dialects, for example, [màlà] (bowels), [-mèlà] (germinate, sprout).
  - (ii) When followed by another [m], when an intervening vowel is elided, it is syllabic in all Tswana dialects, for example, [mmá] (mother). This occurs also when [mo-] is prefixed to stems beginning with [b] in which case [-o-] is elided and [b] assimilated to [m], for example,

Both the short and the long forms occur, although the former are more commonly used.

(iii) When [mo-] is prefixed to stems beginning with  $[\Phi]$  or [f], except in Thaping

and Tharo, dissimilation occurs in all other Tswana dialects, including Hurutshe, in which case  $[\Phi]$  or [f] becomes  $[\hbar]$  for example,

[mma] < [moΦama] or [mofama] (part),
[mmaxo] < [moΦaxo] or [mofaxo] (food
for a journey),</pre>

[-mhîtlhèlà] < [mòΦìtlhèlà] or [mòfìtlhèlà]
(find him)

< [-Dìtlhèlà] or [-fìtlhèlà] (find on arrival).

In Thaping and Tharo where H.  $[\Phi]$  is [h] we cannot speak of dissimmilation. What happens, however, in these dialects is that [h] becomes voiced [h] in such cases, for example, [hhama] < [mohama], i.e. where [o] is elided.

H. [n]

3.25 The corresponding sound to H. [n] is [n] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[-nà] (rain);

[nàmà] (meat);

[-bónà] (see).

When followed by another [n] it is syllabic in all Tswana dialects, for example,

[mòńnà] < [mònónà] (man),

[-ńnà] (sit), [hná] (I, me),

[ńnàk'é] (my younger brother or sister).

This occurs also in some applied forms of certain verb stems ending in [-na], where, by assimilation,

the [1] of the suffix  $[-\epsilon la]$  becomes [n] and  $[\epsilon]$  is elided. This occurs in all Tswana dialects, for example,

 $[-b\acute{o}n\grave{a}] < *-\underline{bonena} < [-b\acute{o}n\grave{e}] < [-b\acute{o}n\grave{a}]$  (see),

[-xánnà] < \*-xangna < [-xánèlà] < [-xánà] (refuse, deny).

H. [Ja]

3.26 The sound corresponding to H. [n] is [n] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[-nálà] (marry); [-nàts'à] (despise); [-bònà] (wink); [lènórà] (thirst); [nònánè] (bird).

J.27 In all Tswana dialects, including Hurutshe, syllabic [p] occurs before non-syllabic [p], for example,

[-hnáts'à] (despise me); [-hnáné] (small).

H. [ŋ]

3.28 The sound corresponding to H. [ŋ] is [ŋ] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[ŋàk'à] (doctor); [-ŋàp'à] (scratch); [-ŋóŋórèxà] (complain, be discontented).

J.29 In all Tswana dialects, including Hurutshe, syllabic [ŋ] occurs before non-syllabic [ŋ], and before [k'], [kh] and [kxh] or [kh] in Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, and when it is the final sound, for example,

```
[-nnáp'à] (scratch me);
[nk'ú] (sheep);
[nk'ó] (nose);
[-nkhúmìsà] (enrish me);
[nkxhó] (clay-pot);
[-nkxhámèlà] (milk for me).
```

The last two examples are pronounced [nkhó] and [-nkhámèlà] respectively in Kgatla of Hammanskraal district.

Examples of syllabic final [ŋ] are the following:

[lènòn] (vulture);

[lén] (when?)

[thàbèn] < [thàbà] (mountain).

#### The Semi-vowels

H. [w]

3.30 The sound corresponding to H. [w] is [w] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[-wa] (fall), [nawa] (bean), [wena] (you).

It occurs also in the following cases:

(i) To represent labialization of consonants for example,

[-lwálà] (be ill); [-rékw'à] < [+rék'à] (buy).

- (ii) In the passive suffix [-íwà].
- (iii) In the possessive concord of classes 1 and 3 [-wa],

H. [j]

3.31 The sound corresponding to H. [j] is [j] in all other Tswana dialects. It occurs mainly before [a], [o], [o] and sometimes [ε], for example, [-jà] (go); [jòná] (it); [jó] (this), [-jè] as in [ó jè] (you should go); [ja-], possessive concord of casses 4 and 9.
As a medial sound it is sometimes omitted in speech in all Tswana dialects, also in Hurutshe, for example, [-ts'àmàjà] or [-ts'àmàà] (walk); [-bólàjà] or [-bólàà] (kill).

#### The Affricative Consonants

- H. [ts']
- 3.32 (a) The sound corresponding to H. [ts'] before [a],

  [e] and [s] is [ts'] in all other Tswana

  dialects, for example,

  [-bóts'à] (ask), [ts'èlà] (path, road),

  [ts'èbé] (ear)

  It occurs also in diminutive forms of nouns

and adjectives ending in [-li] and [-t'i]
in all Tswana dialects, for example,

[náléts'ànà] < [nálélì] (star);

[lòbàts'ánà] < [lòbàt'í] (door);

[-t'ílòts'ànà] < [-t'ílòlì] (black

and white).

(b) The sound corresponding to H. [ts'] before [o], [c] and [u] is [ts'] in Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla, for example,

```
[ts'òná] (they, them);
[p'óts'ò] (question);
[-ts'ómà] (hunt);
[-ts'ólà] (undress);
[-ts'ùbùtl'à] (shake violently);
[-ts'ùbàlàlà] (as a bird flying with wings spread).
```

- (c) In Rolong, Thaping and Tharo H. [ts'] before [5], [6] and [u] is [tʃ'], for example, the forms given in (b) above are pronounced respectively as follows in these dialects: [tʃ'òná], [p'ótʃ'ò] [-tʃ'ómà], [-tʃ'ólà], [-tʃ'ùbùtl'à] and [-tʃ'ùbàlàlà].

# H. [tʃ']

The corresponding sound to H. [tʃ'] is [tʃ'] in all other Tswana dialects, for example, [bòtʃ'àràrà] (sourness, bitterness), [phàtʃ'ánà] < [phàt'é] (skin mat).</p>

## H. [tsh]

3.34 (a) The corresponding sound to H. [tsh] before [a], [ε] and [e] is [tsh] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[-tshábà] (run away, fear);
[-tshèlà] (pour);
[tshétl'ò]\* (honey bird);
[lètshá] (lake);
[-tshélà] (cross, live);
[mòtshè] (pestle);

It occurs also in diminutive forms of nouns ending in [-re] and [-ri] in all Tswana dia-lects, for example,

[sètlhàtshànà] < [sètlhàrè] (tree, medicine);

[mòrítshànà] < [mòrírì] (hair).

- (b) H. [tsh] before [o], [o] and [u] is [tsh] in

  Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla, for example,

  [-tshòlà] (dish out food);

  [lètshólò] (hunting party);

  [-itshók'à] (persevere, restrain oneself);

  [tshúk'úlù] (rhinoceros);

  [-tshùbà] or [-tshùmà] (light, e.g.

  candle, burn).
- (c) In Rolong, Thaping and Tharo H. [tsh] before [o], [o] and [u] is [tsh]. For example, the forms given in (b) above are pronounced respectively as follows in these dialects:

<sup>\*</sup> Pronounced [tsh¢tl'ó] in Kgatla.

[-ltshók'à], [-tshòlà], [lètshólò], [tshúk'úlù] and [-tshùbà] or [-tshùmà].

(d) H. [tsh] before [i] is [tsh] in all other Tswana dialects with the exception of Kgatla of Hammanskraal district where it is [tʃh], for example,

[htfhi] for H. [htshi] (eye-lash).

## H. [tsh]

3.35 The corresponding sound to H. [tsh] is [tsh] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[tjhak'á] (battle axe);

[sètʃhàbà] (tribe);

[-tshémòxà] (break loose) which in Kgatla of
Hammanskraal district is [-pshámòhà] or
[-pshámòhà];

[-t,fhótlhà] (chew);

[-tshámà] (speak a foreign language);

[mòtshòtshònònò] (comet, shooting star).

See par. 2.16.

## H. [kxh]

3.36 (a) The corresponding sound to H. [kxh] is [kxh] in all other Tswana dialects, except Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, for example,

[kxhák'à] (guinea-fowl), [-nkxhà] (smell),
[kxhèts'é] or [kxhèts'í] (bag),
[-kxhólà] (pluck off),
[kxhòmó] (cow).

This sound does not normally occur before [i] and [u] except in the perfect forms of verb stems ending in [-kxha] in Hurutshe, Rolong, Thaping, Tharo and Kgatla of Mochudi and Moruleng, for example,

[-rónkxhìlè] < [-rónkxhà] (hurt); [-kxhílè] < [-kxhá] (pluck off).

(b) In Ngwaketse and Kwena of Molepolole, however, in the perfect forms of such verb stems it becomes [kh], for example,

 $[-r\acute{o}\acute{n}khil\grave{e}] < [-r\acute{o}\acute{n}kxh\grave{a}]$  (hurt);  $[-khil\grave{e}] < [-kxh\acute{a}]$  (pluck off).

(c) In Kgatla of Hammanskraal district the corresponding sound to H. [kxh] is [kh], for example,

[khák'à] for H. [kxhák'à];
[-ŋkhà] for H. [-ŋkxhà];
[khệts'è] for H. [kxhèts'e];
[-khólà] for H. [-kxhólà];
[khòmó] for H. [kxhòmó].

It is typical of this dialect that [kxh] does not occur in its sound system. Cf. par. 3.16 (b).

3.37 In Kwena of Brits district one hears peculiar contracted forms such as, for example,

[kxhíts'è] and [kxhériàló] or [kxhéllàló] for the normal forms [xà k'é íts'è] (I do not know) and [xà k'é rìàlo] (I do not say so) respectively.

## H. [d3]

- 3.38 (a) The corresponding sound to H. [dʒ] (< B. l in lya) is [dʒ] in Ngwaketse, Kwena of Molepolole, Rolong, Thaping and Tharo. As in Hurutshe (cf. par. 2.19) it varies in pronunciation so that it is sometimes heard as [ʒ], [dj] and, less commonly, [j], for example, [-dʒá], [-ʒá] or [-djá] (eat); [lèbèdʒánà], [lèbègánà] or [lèbèdjánà] diminutive of [lèbèlé] (corn plant or grain).</p>
  - (b) In Kgatla and Kwena of Rustenburg and Brits districts it tends to be replaced by [t∫'], for example, [-tʃ'á] (eat); [lèbètʃ'ánà].
  - (c) In Kwena of Rustenburg and Brits districts
    H. [dʒ] is often replaced by [j] in certain forms in which the [j] is sometimes dropped, for example,

[jáànón] or [áànón] for H. [dʒáànón]
(now);

[sèjànà] or [sèànà] for H. [sèdʒànà] (utensil).

#### LABIALIZED CONSONANTS

## Labialized Explosives

H. [kw']

3.39 The sound corresponding to H. [kw'] is [kw'] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[kw'àlí] (mouth organ),

[-kw'álà] (write) and

[kw'á] (there, at).

N.B. In Kgatla of Hammanskraal district H. [-kw'álà] is [-nwálà].

H. [tw']

The sound corresponding to H. [tw'] is [tw'] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[htw'a] (fight, war);

[-rátw'à] < [-rát'à] (love);

[-latw'a] < [-lat'a] (follow).

H. [thw]

3.41 In all other Tswana dialects the corresponding sound to H. [thw] is [thw], for example,

[-thwálà] (find a lost property and take it not knowing its owner);

[thwánè] (lynx).

It occurs also in the passive forms of verb stems ending in [-tha], for example,

[-ràthwà] < [-ràthà] (chop, thunder, as lightning).

## Labilized Laterals

H. [lw]

3.42 The sound corresponding to H. [lw] is [lw] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[-lwa] (fight); [-lwala] (be ill).

N.B. H. [lwá-], possessive concord for class 11, is [lwá-] in all other Tswana dialects except Kgatla and Kwena of Rustenburg and Brits districts where it is [lá-].

## H. [tlw']

3.43 In all other Tswana dialects the sound corresponding to H. [tlw'] is [tlw'], for example,

[-útlw'à] (hear, feel);

[-tlw'áɛlà] (get accustomed to, be tame).

It occurs also in:

(i) passive forms of verb stems endingin [-tl'a] for example,

[-lètlw'à] < [-lètl'à] (allow, permit); [-bàtlw'à] < [-bàtl'à] (seek, look for).</pre>

(ii) diminutive forms of nouns ending in
[-tl'o] and [-tl'o], for example,
 [htlw'ana] < [htl'o] (house);
 [sekhutlw'ana] < [sekhutl'o] (corner).</pre>

#### H. [tlhw]

3.44 The corresponding sound to H. [tlhw] is [tlhw] in all other Tswana dialects, for example, [tlhwárè] (python),

[mòtlhwá] or [bòtlhwá] (small white ants found in antheaps),

[htlhwa] (larva of flying ants);

[-látlhwa] < [-látlha] (throw away);

[-Φátlhwa] or [-hátlhwa] < [-Φátlha] or [-hátlha]

(to blind).

## Labialized Fricatives

H. [sw]

- 3.45 (a) The sound corresponding to H. [sw] is [sw] in Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla, for example, [-swá] (die); [bòswá] (inheritance); [-swàbà] (wither, be disappointed); [lèswé] (dirt); [-swèú] (white).
  - (b) In Rolong, Thaping and Tharo the corresponding sound to H. [sw] is [sw]. For example, the above forms are pronounced respectively as follows in these dialects:

    [-swá], [bòswá], [-swàbà], [lèswé] and [-swèú].

That is H. [sw] before [a] and [ $\epsilon$ ] is represented by [ $\int w$ ] in these dialects.

H. [ʃw]

3.46 (a) The corresponding sound to H. [ʃw] is [Φs], also pronounced [Φsj] or [Φʃ], in Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla, for example, [-Φsá], [-Φsjá] or [-Φʃá] for H. [-ʃwá]

(burn new),

[lèΦsè], [lèΦsjè] or [lèΦʃε] for

H. [lèʃwè] (type of creeping plant);
[sèΦsèΦsè], [sèΦsjèΦsjè] or [sèΦʃèΦʃè]

for H. [sèʃwèʃwè] (flower);
[màΦsì], [-màΦsjì] or [màΦʃì] for H.

[màʃwì] (milk);
[-bóΦsà], [-bóΦsjà] or [-bóΦʃà] for

H. [-bóʃwà] < [-bóΦà] (tie, fasten),
[-ráΦsà], [-ráΦsjà] or [-ráΦſà] for

H. [-ráʃwà] < [-ráΦà] (take out, e.g.

honey or pot clay),
[-lèΦsà], [-lèΦsjà] or [-lèΦſà] for

H. [-lèʃwà] < [-lèΦà] (pay).

N.B. The more palatal sound [-Φʃ] occurs

mostly in Kgatla.

- (b) In Rolong, Thaping and Tharo the corresponding sound to H. [sw] is (i) [s] in some cases, and (ii) [sw] in passive forms of verb stems ending in [-ha] for H. [-Φa], for example,

H. [hw]

This sound occurs before [i] in (i) the adjectival stem [-hwibilù], an alternative of [-húbilù] and [-híbílù] (red), and (ii) the verb stem [-hwibilà], an alternative of [-húbílà] and [-híbílà] (become red) in all Tswana dialects, except Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, in which only [-híbílù] and [-híbílà] occur. Cf. par. 3.50.

H. [khw]

3.48 This sound occurs before [i] especially in the adjectival stem [-khwíbílù], an alternative of [-khúbílù] and [-khíbílù] (red) in all other Tswana dialects, except Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, in which the latter only occurs. The forms such as [khúkhwànè] (beatle) and [-khwápà] (knock) occur in all Tswana dialects including Hurutshe; but there is a tendency to replace [khw] by [kxhw] in their pronunciation except in Kgatla of Hammanskraal district. Cf. par. 3.59.

#### Labialized Vibrants

H. [rw]

3.49 The corresponding sound to H. [rw] is [rw] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[-rwálà] (carry, put on hat, shoes, watch);
[lèrwá] (small red ants);

[borwá] (south).

It occurs also in passive forms of verb stems ending in [-ra], for example,

[-16rwa] < [-16ra] (dream).

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H. [1w]
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3.50 This sound occurs before [i] and is found only in the form [mònálwì] < [-pálwà] (get married) in all Tswana dialects, also in Hurutshe, as an alternative of [mònálìwá] (bride).

#### Labialized Nasals

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H. [nw]
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3.51 The sound corresponding to H. [nw] is [nw] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[-nwá] (drink);

[-xánwà] < [-xánà] (refuse, deny).

## H. [nw]

The sound corresponding to H. [nw] is [nw] in all other Tswana dialects, for example, [-ánwà] which in Hurutshe means "suck", but passive of [-ánà] (suck) in the other Tswana dialects.

#### H. [ŋw]

3.53 The corresponding sound to H. [ŋw] is [ŋw] in all other Tswana dialects, for example,

[ŋwàná] (child);
[ŋwàli] (moon, moonlight);
[-ŋwàjà] or [-ŋwàà] (scratch);
[-róŋwà] < [-rómà] (send);
[-lèŋwà] < [-lèmà] (hoe, plough);
[lèrúŋwànà] < [lèrúmò] (spear);
[mòlòŋwànà] < [mòlòmò] (mouth);
[mòlàŋwánà] < [mòlàmú] (knob-kerrie).

H. [ŋŋw]

The sound corresponding to H. [nnw] is [nnw] in all other Tswana dialects. It occurs in the passive forms of verb stems ending in [-na]. Its alternative in such cases is [nw] which, however, is less commonly used, for example,

[-sénnwa] or, less commonly [-sénwa] < [-séna] (spoil, waste),

[-lèk'annwa] or, less commonly, [-lèk'anwa] < [-lèk'ana] (make equal, measure).

In nearly all Tswana dialects, but especially in Kgatla, the passive forms of such verb stems are sometimes formed by [nw], for example,

[-sépwa] < [-sépa] and [-lek'apwa] < [-lek'apa].

#### Labialized Affricatives

H. [tsw']

3.55 (a) In Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla the corresponding sound to H. [tsw'] is [tsw'], for example,

[-tsw'à] (come out);

[-bútsw'à] (ripen, be well-cooked),

[-tsw'álà] (put on clothes),

[-tsw'àlà] (close),

[-útsw'à] (steal),

[-látsw'à] (lick),

[bòlètsw'à] (bird-lime),

[lèntsw'é] (voice).

It occurs also in diminutive forms of nouns ending in -lu, for example,

[lìt'ệtsw'ànà] < [lìt'ệlù] (beard); [bòlátsw'ànà] < [bòlálù] (pus).

In diminutive forms of some nouns in which the final consonant is [b] or [p'] it occurs as an alternative of [bz], [bj] or [bʒ], and [ps'], [psj] or [pʃ'] in these three dialects, for example,

[ts'èbzánà], [ts'èbjánà], [ts'èbjánà] or
 [ts'ètsw'ánà] for H. [ts'èdjwánà]
 < [ts'èbè] (ear);</pre>

[sèléps'ànà], [sèlésj'ànà], [sèléps'ànà]
or [sèlétsw'ànà] for H. [sèlétsw'ànà];

[tlhàps'ànà], [tlhàpsj'ànà], [tlhàps'àna]
or [tlhàtsw'ànà] < [tlhàp'ì] (fish);

[mòxóps'ànà], [mòxópsj'ànà], [mòxópʃ'ànà]
or [mòxótsw'ànà] for H. [mòxótʃw'ànà]
< [mòxóp'ò] (wooden eating vessel);</pre>

[lèráps'ànà], [lèrápsj'ànà], [lèráps'ànà]
or [lèrátsw'ànà] < [lèráp'ò] (bone);</pre>

[lèxáps'ànà], [lèxápsj'ànà], [lèxáps'ànà]
or [lèxátsw'ànà] for H. [lèxátsw'ànà]
< [lèxáp'ù] (water melon).</pre>

(b) In Rolong, Thaping and Tharo the corresponding sound to H. [tsw'] is [t∫w'], for example,

[-tsw'à] for H. [-tsw'à] (come out)

[-bútsw'à] for H. [-bútsw'à] (ripen, be well cooked);

[-tsw'álà] for H. [-tsw'álà] (put on clothes);

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[-tfw'àlà] for H. [-tsw'àlà] (close);
   [-útsw'à] for H. [-útsw'à] (steal);
   [-látsw'à] for H. [-látsw'à] (lick);
   [bòlètsw'à] for H. [bòlètsw'à] (bird-line);
   [lèntsw'é] for H. [lèntsw'é] (voice, word).
In these three dialects [t[w'] occurs consis-
tently in all passive forms of verb stems
ending in [-ts'a] and [-p'a] as well as in
diminutive forms of nouns ending in [-lu],
[-p'e], [-p'e], [-p'i], [-p'o], [-p'o]
and [-p'u], for example,
   [-bítsw'à] for H. [-bítsw'à] < [-bíts'à]
        (call);
   [-bótsw'à] for H. [-bótsw'à] < [-bots'a]
        (ask);
   [lìt'ètsw'ànà] for H. [lìt'ètsw'àna] <
        [lìt'èlù] (beard);
   [mòtlhàtsw'ánà] for H. [mòtlhàtsw'ánà]
       < [motlhap'é] (herd, flock);
   [sèlétsw'ànà] for H. [sèlétsw'ànà] <
        [sèlép'è] (axe);
   [tlhàtsw'ànà] for H. [tlhàtsw'ànà] <
        [tlhap'i] (fish);
   [mòxót∫w'ànà] for H. [mòxót∫w'ànà] <
        [mòxóp'ò] (wooden eating vessel);
   [mòlàt∫w'ànà] for H. [mòlàtsw'ànà] <
        [mòlp'b] (ravine).
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#### H. [tshw]

3.56 (a) In Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla the corresponding sound to H. [tshw] is [tshw], for example,

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[lètshwà fo] or [lèkxhwà fo] (lung),
       [-tshwárà] (seize)
       [-tshwana] (resemble, be like).
       [-khútshwàné] (short),
       [-phatshwa] (black and white),
       [-tshwena] (worry, trouble).
    It occurs also in diminutive forms of some
    nouns in which the final consonant is [\Phi]
    or [ph] in these dialects, for example,
       [mòrátshwànà] < [mòrá⊅è] (tribe);
       [le\Phi itshwana] < [le\Phi i\Phi i] (darkness);
       [phétshwànà]* < [phé\Phiò] (wind)
       [phótshwànà] < [phó\Phiù] (eland);
       [lèΦàtshwánà] < [lèΦàphá] (section, part);
       [tshétshwànà] < [tshéphè]
       [lòphàtshwánà] < [lòphàphí] (splinter
                                   of wood).
(b) In Rolong, Tlhaping and Tlharo the corre-
    sponding sound to H. [tshw] is [tshw], for
    example,
       [lèt\inthwàhó] for H. [lètshwà\Phió] (lung);
       [-t∫hwárà] for H. [-tshwárà] (seize);
       [-tshwánà] for H. [-tshwánà] (resemble);
       [-khút∫hwàné] for H. [-khútshwàné] (short);
       [-phàtshwà] for H. [-phàtshwà] (black and
            white);
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trouble).

[-t∫hwệɲà] for H. [-tshwệɲà] (worry,

<sup>\*</sup> The form [phéΦsànà] or [phéΦ∫ànà] also occurs in Kgatla.

It occurs also in diminutive forms of nouns in which the final consonant is [h] or [ph] in these dialects, for example, [mòrát∫hwànà] < [mòráhè] : H. [mòráΦè] (tribe);

[lèhìtʃhwànà] < [lèhìhì] : Η. [lèΦὶΦὶ]
(darkness);

[phétshwànà] or [phéswànà] < [phéhò]:

H. [phé $\Phi$ ò] (wind);

[phótshwànà] or [phóswànà] < [phóhù]:
H. [phóΦù] (eland):

[lèhàt∫hwánà] < [lèhàphá] : H: [lèΦàphà] (section);

[tshétshwànà] < [tshéphè] (springbok);
[lòphàtshwánà] < [lòphàphí] (splinter
of wood).

# H. [tʃw']

3.57 (a) The corresponding sound to H. [tʃw'] is [ps'] in Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla. This sound, [ps'], varies in pronunciation to [psj'], [pʃ'], [psw'] or [pʃw'] in these three dialects, for example, [mps'á], [mpsj'á] or [mpf'á] for H. [htʃw'á] (dog);

It occurs also in passive forms of verb stems ending in [-p'a], for example,

[-bóps'à], [-bópsj'à], [-bóps'à],

[-bópsw'à] or [-bópsw'à] for H.

[-bótsw'à] < [-bóp'à] (mould);

[-lóps'à], [-lópsj'à], [-lóps'à],
 [-lópsw'à] or [-lópsw'à] for H.
 [-lótsw'à] < [-lóp'à] (beg, besech)
[-lùps'à], [-lùpsj'à], [-lùps'à],
 [-lùpsw'à] or [-lùpsw'à] for H.
 [-lùtsw'à] < [-lùpà] (smell out).

It occurs also in diminutive forms of some nouns in which the final consonant is [p'], as an alternative of [tsw'] (cf. par 3.51(a)), for example,

- [sèléps'ànà], [sèlépsj'ànà] or [sèléps'ànà]
  alternatives of [sèlétsw'ànà] for
  H. [sèlétsw'ànà] < [sòlép'è] (axe);
- [mòxóps'ànà], [mòxópsj'ànà] or [mòxóps'ànà]
  alternatives of [mòxótsw'ànà] for
  H. [mòxótsw'ànà] < [mòxóp'ò]
  (wooden eating vessel);</pre>
- [lèxáps'ànà], [lèxápsj'ànà] or [lèxáps'ànà]
  alternatives of [lèxátsw'ànà] for
  H. [lèxátsw'ànà] < [lèxáp'ù]
  (water melon).
- (b) The corresponding sounds to H. [tʃw'] are (i) [tʃ'] and (ii) [tʃw'] in Rolong, Thaping and Tlharo.
  - (i) [tʃ'] occurs, for example, in[htʃ'á] for H. [htʃw'á] (dog);

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and in passive forms of verb stems ending
in [-p'a] and [-ts'a], for example,
   [-bót w'a] for H. [-bót w'a] < [-bóp'a]
         (mould):
   [-l 	imes t 	imes w'a] for H. [-l 	imes t 	imes w'a] < [-l 	imes p'a]
         (beg, beseech);
   [-b\delta t \le a] for H. [-b\delta t \le a] < [-b\delta t \le a]
        (ask);
   [-let_{fw}] for H. [-let_{fw}] < [-let_{fw}]
        (cause to cry).
It occurs also in diminutive forms of nouns
in which the final consonant is [1] or [p']
in these three dialects, for example,
   [lèxòtsw'ànà] for H. [lèxòtsw'ànà] <
        [lèxòlù] (thief);
   [mòtlhàtſw'ánà] for H. [mòtlhàtsw'ánà]
        < [motlhap'é] (herd, flock);
   [sèlétsw'ànà] for H. [sèlétsw'ànà] <
        [sèlép'è] (axe);
   [tshítfw'ànà] for H. [tshítsw'ànà] <
        [tshíp'i] (iron);
   [mòxótʃw'ànà] for H. [mòxótʃw'ànà] <
        [mòxóp'ò] (wooden eating vessel);
   [mòlàtʃw'ànà] for H. [mòlàtsw'ànà] <
        [molap'o] (ravine);
   [lèxátsw'ànà] for H. [lèxátsw'ànà] <
        [lèxáp'ù] (water melon).
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# H. [tshw]

3.58 (a) In Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla the corresponding sound to H. [tʃhw] is [psh] or [psjh] or [pʃh], for example,

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[-pshá] or [-p∫há] for H. [-t∫hwá]
             (dry up, as water);
        [-mpshá] or [-mpshá] for H. [-htshwá] (new):
        [mp̀shɛ̞́] or [m̀pʃhɛ̞́] for H. [p̀tʃhwɛ̞́] (ostrich);
        [mpshe] or [mpshe] for H. [ntshwe] (sweet
             reed):
        [sèpsh¢] or [sèp∫h¢] for H. [sèt∫hw¢]
             (drought, stamina);
       [-pshètl'à] or [pshetl'a]* for H. [-tshwètl'à]
             (crush, break to pieces);
       [-pshèxà] or [-pʃhèxà] for H. [-tʃhwèxà]
             (be purged).
    In passive forms of verb stems ending in [-pha]
    it is [psh] or [pshw] [pshw] in these dialects,
    for example.
       [-kxhàpshà], [-kxhàpshwà], [-kxhàpshà] or
             [-kxhapshwa] for H. [-kxhatshwa] <
             [-kxhàphà] (wave aside, or smear floor
            with cow dung);
       [-$opsha], [-$opshwa], [-$opfha] or [-$opfhwa]
            for H. [-\Phi \acute{o}t]hw\grave{a} < [-\Phi \acute{o}ph\grave{a}] (strike,
            as with the hand).
(b) In Rolong, Thaping and Tharo the corre-
    sponding sound to H. [tshw] is [tsh], for
    example,
       [-t \int h \hat{a}] for H. [-t \int h w \hat{a}] (dry up as water);
       [ht/hé] for H. [ht/hwé] (ostrich);
       [htshe] for H. [htshwe] (sweet reed);
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[sètʃhɛ̞] or [sètʃhánè] for H. [sètʃhwɛ̞]

(stamina or drought);

<sup>[-</sup>tʃhệtl'à] for H. [-tʃhwệtl'à] (crush).

<sup>\*</sup> Pronounced [-pshàtl'à] or [-pshàtl'à] in Kgatla.

But in passive forms of verb stems ending in [-pha] it is represented by [tjhw] in these dialects, for example,

[-kxhàtʃhwà] for H. [-kxhàtʃhwà] < [-kxhàphà] (wave aside, smear floor with cow dung)

[-Φόtſhwà] for H. [-Φόtſhwà] < [-Φόphà] (strike, as with the hand).

## H. [kxhw]

3.59 (a) The corresponding sound to H. [kxhw] is [kxhw] in all other Tswana dialects, except Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, for example,

> [lèkxhwàlé] (partridge); [sèkxhwámà] (purse); [mòkxhwá] (manner, cústom) [kxhwèlí] (moon, month).

(b) In Kgatla of Hammanskraal district H. [kxhw] is [khw] for example, the forms in (a) above are pronounced respectively as follows in this dialect:

[lèkhwàlé], [sèkhwámà], [mòkhwá] and [khwèlí]

# H. [d3w]

3.60 (a) The corresponding sound to H. [dʒw] is(i) [dʒw] and (ii) [dʒ] in Rolong, Tlhaping and Tlharo.

(i) In these three dialects [dʒw] occurs in passive forms of verb stems ending in [-ba], for example,

[-ròdʒwà] < [-ròbà] (break);

[-sédʒwà] < [-sébà] (whisper)

[-árádʒwà] < [-árábà] (answer).

(ii) In these three dialects [dʒ] occurs in other forms, for example,

[-dʒálà] for H. [-dʒwálà] (sow,

plant);

[bòdʒàń] for H. [bòdʒwàń] or

[bódʒàń]\* (grass);

[bòdʒàlwá] for H. [bòdʒwàlá] or

[bòdʒàlwá]\* (beer);
[dʒáànóħ] for H. [dʒwàànóħ] or
[dʒáànóħ]\*(now).

In diminutive forms of nouns, however, both [dgw] and [dg] are used alternatively in these three dialects, for example,

[ts'èd3wánà] or [ts'èd3ánà] for H.

[ts'èd3wánà] diminutive of [ts'èbé]

(ear);

[phók'ód3we] or [phók'ód3e] for H. [phok'od3we] (jackal);

[lèdʒwè] or [lèdʒè] for H. [lèdʒwè] (stone).

<sup>\*</sup> Both forms occur in Hurutshe.

(b) The corresponding sound to H. [dgw] is [bz] in Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla. This sound [bz], varies in pronunciation to [bj], [bg] and less commonly [bzw] [bjw] or [bgw] in these three dialects, for example,

[-ròbzà], [-ròbjà], [-ròbzwà], [-ròbzwà], [-ròbjwà] or [-ròbzwà] for H. [-ròdzwà] < [-ròbà] (break);

[-sèbzà], [-sébjà], [-sèbʒà], [-sébzwà],

[-sébjwà] or [-sébʒwà] for H.

[-sédʒwà] < [-sébà] (whisper);

[-árábzà], [-árábjà], [-árábzwà]
[-árábjwà] or [-árábzwà] for H.
[-árádzwà] < [-árábà] (answer);

[-bzálà], [-bjálà] or [-bʒálà] for H. H. [-dʒwala] (sow, plant);

[bzàń] or [bzàé], [bjàń] or [bjàé],
[bʒàń] or [bʒàé] for H. [bòdʒwàń] or
[bòdʒàń] (grass);

[bzàlwá], [bjàlwá] or [bʒàlwá] for H. [bòdʒwàlá] or [bòdʒàlwá] (beer);

[bzáànóù], [bjáànóù], [bʒáànóù] for H. [dʒwáànóù] or [dʒáànóù] (row);

[ts'èbzánà], [ts'èbjánà] or [ts'èbʒánà]\*

for H. [t'èdʒwánà] diminutive of

[ts'èbé] (ear);

[k'òbzànà], [k'òbjanà] or [k'òbjànà] for
H. [k'òdjanà] diminutive of [k'òbò]
(blanket);

<sup>\*</sup> The form [ts'èts'wánà] also occurs in these three dialects.

[phok'obze], [phók'obje] or [phók'obze]

for H. [phók'ódzwe] (jackal);
[lebze], [lebje] or [lebze] for H.
[ledzwe] (stone);

N.B. In the above examples the forms with [bz] are the ones commonly heard in these three dialects.

## SUMMARY

3.61 In the following tables the symbol [ ] indicates variant pronunciation, and the symbol / indicates sounds occurring as substitutes before certain vowels.

Kwena A and Kwena B refer respectively to the Kwena dialects of Molepolole on the one hand, and of Rustenburg and Brits districts on the other.

Kgatla A and Kgatla B refer respectively to the Kgatla dialects of Mochudi and Pilansberg district on the one hand and Hammanskraal district on the other.

TABLE 1

### NASAL CONSONANTS AND SEMI-VOWELS

Hurutshe	m	n	ŋ	ŋ	j	W	nw	<sub>JiW</sub> l)	ŋW	ຫຼາ <sub>ພ</sub> 2)
Ngwaketse	m	n	ŋ	ŋ	j	W	ВM	лw	ŊW	ŋŋw
Kwena	m	n	'n	ŋ	j	W	Ж	Jim	ŊW	ŊŊw
Kgatla	m	n	'n	ŋ	j	W	nw	JïW	ŋw	ŋŋw
Rolong	m	n	n	ŋ	j	W	nw	JīW	ŋw	'nйм
Tlhaping	m	n.	Jì.	ŋ	Í	W	IJM	ŋw	ŋw	ŊŊW
Tlharo	m	n	'n	D.	j	W	nw	лw	ŊW	ŋŋw

## TABLE 2

# STOP AND ASPIRATED EXPLOSIVE CONSONANTS

Hurutshe	k <sup>t</sup>	ቲ፣	p †	ъ	kh <sup>3)</sup>	th	ph	kw'	tw *
Ngwaketse	k'	t'	p'	р	kh	th	ph	kw '	tw†
Kwena A	k'	t'	p,	b	kh	th	ph	lcw <sup>1</sup>	tw'
Kwena B	k '	t'	p'	b [β]	] kh	th	ph	kw †	tw'
Kgatla A	k ¹	t i	p¹	ъ	kh	th	ph	kw '	tw†
Kgatla B	k¹	t; t	p †	ъ [β	] kh	th	ph	kw '	tw'
Rolong	k†	ti	p'	d	kh	th	ph	kw'	tw'
Tlhaping	$k^{t}$	t١	p t	Ъ	kh	th	ph	k.w t	tw'
Tlharo	$k^{\dagger}$	<del>†</del> ,	p i	b	kh	th	ph	kw i	tw i

<sup>1.</sup> Before [a].

<sup>2.</sup> Before [a] and [e].

<sup>3.</sup> Before [i] and [u].

TABLE 3

#### FRICATIVE CONSONANTS

Hurutshe	Φ	ន	sw	<sub>(</sub> 3)	<sub>ſw</sub> 4)	x	xw5)	<sub>ћ</sub> 6)
Ngwaketse	$\Phi$	ន	SW	ſ	Φs[Φsj, Φʃ]	x	xw	h
Kwena A	Φ	ន	SW	ſ	Φε[Φεj, Φʃ]	x	XM	h
Kwena. B	Φ[f]	ន	sw	ſ	Φs[Φsj, Φʃ]	x	WΧ	h
Kgatla A					Φs[Φsj, Φʃ]			h
Kgalta B	Φ[f]	s/ʃl)	sw	\$	Φອ[Φຣj, Φ∫]	h	hw	h
Rolong	φ[h]	s/ʃ <sup>2)</sup>	ſw	ſ	S	x	wx	h
Tlhaping	h	s/ʃ <sup>2</sup> )	∫W	ſ	ſ	x	wx	h
Tlharo	łı	$s/\int^2)$	∫W	ſ	S	x	WX	h

#### TABLE 4

#### LATERAL AND VIBRANT CONSONANTS

```
(8<sub>WL</sub>
                                  <sub>1</sub>7)
                             1
                                                      tlhw
                       tlh
Hurutshe
               ቲጊ '
                                             tlw'
                                                              lw
Ngwaketse
               tl'
                       tlh
                             1
                                  1
                                             tlw'
                                                      tlhw
                                                              lw
                                                                    lw
                                                                           ľW
Kwena
               tl!
                       tlh
                             1
                                  1
                                             tlw'
                                                      tlhw
                                                              1.W
                                                                    ±w
                                                                           \mathcal{X}^{M}
Kgatla
               tl'
                       tlh
                             1.
                                  1
                                             tlw'
                                                      tlhw
                                                              lw
                                                                    \pm w
                                                                           \Upsilon W
               tl'
Rolong
                       tlh
                             1
                                  Ţ
                                             tlw'
                                                      tlhw
                                                              Ίw
                                                                    "Lw
                                                                           l'W
               tl^{1}
                             1
Tlhaping
                       tlh
                                  1
                                             tlw'
                                                      tlhw
                                                              lw
                                                                    1.w
                                                                           w.r
                             1
Tlharo
               t1
                       tlh
                                  Ţ
                                             tlw'
                                                      tlhw
                                                              1 w
                                                                    \pm w
                                                                           \Upsilon W
```

<sup>1.</sup> Before [i].

<sup>2.</sup> Before [9] [0] and [u].

<sup>3.</sup> Before [a].

<sup>4.</sup> Before [a].

<sup>5.</sup> Before [a].

<sup>6.</sup> Before [i] and [u].

<sup>7.</sup> Before [i] and [u].

<sup>8.</sup> Before [i].

TABLE 5

#### AFFRICATIVE CONSONANTS

Hurutshe	ts'	tjf	tsh	tʃh	kzh	<b>d3</b>	tsw¹	tſw'	dЗм	tshw	t∫hw	haba
Ngwaketse	ts¹	tʃ'	tsh	tſ'n	kzh	d3	tsw	pa'[paj',pʃ', paw', pʃw']	bz[bj,bʒ,bzw, bjw, bʒ/]	tshw	peh[pjh.pshw, pjhw]	STAN
Kwena A	ts†	tʃ¹	tsh	t∫h	kxh	<b>43</b>	tsw¹	ps'[psj'.pʃ'. psw',pʃw']	bz[bj,bg,bzw, bjw, bgw]	tshw	psh[p]h.pshw.	kxhv
Kwena B	÷ំS <sup>†</sup>	tj t	tsh	tſ'n	kxh	tʃ'	tsw¹	ps'[psj',pʃ', psw',pʃw']	bz[bj,b3,bzw, bjw,b3w]	tshw	psh[p]h.pshw. p]hw]	kThir
Kgatla A	ts'/tʃ' <sup>1)</sup>	tſ'	tsh/tJh <sup>l)</sup>	tſh	kxh	<b>Ե</b> Ր՝	tsw'	ps'[psj',pʃ', psw', pʃw]	bz[bj,b3,bsw, bjw, b3w]	tshw	psh[p∫h.pshw, p∫hw]	Exhw
Kgatla B	ts'/tʃ' <sup>1)</sup>	tʃ'	tsh/tʃh <sup>l)</sup>	t∫h	kh	tʃ¹	tsw'	ps'[psj', p[', psw',p[w]	bz[bj,b3,bzw, bjw,b3w]	tshw	psh[p]h.pshw, p]hw]	Khv
Rolong	ts <sup>,2)</sup> /tʃ <sup>,3)</sup>	tŗ!	$tsh^2)/tJh^3$	t∫h	kxh	d3	tʃw'	tʃw'/tʃ'	d3w[d3]	tjhw	tsh[tshw]	kwhw
Ilhaping	ts <sup>2</sup> )/tʃ <sup>3</sup> )	tj.'	$tsh^2)/tJh^3$	t∫h	kxh	d3	tʃw¹	t[w'/t['	d3w[d3]	tjhw	tjh[tjhw]	kxhv
Tlharo	ts,2)/tJ,3)	tʃ¹	tsh <sup>2)</sup> /tʃh <sup>3)</sup>	tjh	kxh	đз	चे∫भ'	tjw'/tj'	d3w[d3]	tjhw	t[h[t[hw]	kahw

<sup>1.</sup> Before [i].

<sup>2.</sup> Sefore [a],  $[\epsilon]$ , [e] and [i].

<sup>3.</sup> Before [o], [o] and [u].

#### CLASSIFICATION OF TSWANA DIALECTS

In the light of our findings in the foregoing paragraphs the Tswana dialects under discussion (see par. 1.32) may be classified phonologically into four divisions, namely, (1) Hurutshe, (2) Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla of Mochudi, (3) Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, and (4) Rolong, Tlhaping and Tlharo.

#### Main Characteristics

- 3.63 Hurutshe is characterised by the employment of, for example,
  - (i) [s], [ts'] and [tsh] before [o],
     [o] and [u] as in [sòná] (it),
     [lòsó] (death), and [-sùp'à]
     (point);
  - (ii) [sw], [tsw'] and [tshw] before [a],
     [ε] and [i] as in [-swá] (die),
     [-swèlà] (die for, at), [mòswí]
     (deceased), [-tswâ] (come out)
     and [-tshwánà] (resemble);
  - (iii) [fw], [tfw'], [tfhw] and [dʒw] as
     in [-fwá] (new, burn), [-bófwà]
     (be fastened), [màfwì] (milk);
     [htfw'á] (dog), [-bótfw'à] (be
     moulded); [htfhwé] (ostrich),
     [-kxhàtfhwà] (be smeared, be
     waved aside); [-ròdʒwà] (be broken),
     [-dʒwálà] (sow, plant).

- 3.64 Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla are characterised by the employment of, for example,
  - (i) [s], [ts'] and [tsh] before [o],
     [o] and [u] as in Hurutshe
     [sòná], [lòxó] and [-sup'a].
  - (ii) [sw], [tsw'] and [tshw] before [a]
    [ε] and [i] as in Hurutshe.
  - They differ from Hurutshe, however, (iii) in the employment of such compounds as, for example,  $[\Phi s/\Phi sj/\Phi f]$ , [ps'/psj'/psw'/psw'], [psh/psh/ pshw/pfhw], and [bz/bj/b3/bzw/bjw/ bgw] as in  $[-\Phi s \acute{a}/-\Phi s \acute{a}/-\Phi f \acute{a}]$  (new) [-bó@sà/-bó@sjà/-bó@sà/ burn); -bóΦswà/-bóΦ∫wà] (be fastened); [maΦsì/maΦʃì] (milk); [mps'á/mpsj'á/ mpf'á] (dog); [-bóps'à/-bópsj'à/ -bópſ'à/-bópsw'à/-bópſw'à] (be moulded); [mpshe/mpshe]; [-kxhapsha/ -kxhàp∫hà/-kxhàpshwà/-kxhàp∫hwà ] (be smeared, be waved aside); [-robza/-robja/-robza/-robzwa/ -ròbjwà/-ròbgwà] (be broken).
- 3.65 Kgatla of Hammanskraal district is further characterised by the employment of, for example,

- (i) [ʃ], [tʃ'] and [tʃh] before [i]
   where the other dialects employ
   respectively [s], [ts'] and [tsh],
   and
- 3.66 Rolong, Thaping and Tharo are characterised by the employment of, for example,
  - (i) [f] before [o] [o] and [u];
  - (ii) [[w] before [a] and [e];
  - (iii) [tʃ'] and [tʃh] before [o], [o] and [u];
  - (iv) [h] in the place of Hurutshe  $[\Phi]$ ;
  - (v) like Hurutshe they employ [tfw'],
     [tfh] and [dgw].

#### CHAPTER 4

# REVIEW OF THE CURRENT PRACTICAL TSWANA ORTHOGRAPHY

#### INTRODUCTION

4.01 In this chapter we shall review critically the current practical Tswana orthography with a view to offering suggestions and recommendations for its improvement on the basis of the evidence presented in chapter 3. Although it is not within our scope to give an historical account of the development of Tswana orthography in this study, it is necessary to review briefly some recommendations that have been made.

#### THE 1937 ORTHOGRAPHY

4.02 The 1937 Tswana orthography , which was agreed upon at a representative conference held in Johannesburg in April, 1937, recommended, inter alia, that in the interests of uniformity, certain dialectal variants in pronunciation, such as, for example, ps, pš, psh, pšh, bi, by, fs and fš, should not be employed in written Tswana. This was a good recommendation. Unfortunately, however, this orthography was not consistent because it permitted the employment of other alternative dialectal variants such as for example, s and š, ts and tš, tsh and tšh. Therefore Moloto concludes rightly as follows:

<sup>1.</sup> Lestrade, G.P.: A Practical Orthography for Tswana, (reprinted from Bantu Studies, Vol. XI, No. 2, June, 1937).

"The great service of this conference was largely negative, as seen on page 142 of the said pamphlet."2)

In support of this fact, Sandilands says,

"The would-be universal and official system hastily decided upon in 1937 obviously left many things in a highly unsatisfactory state, and bore, within its exaggerations and inconsistencies, the seeds of its own decay."3)

- 4.03 The 1937 orthography recommended the retention of the disjunctive system of word-division hitherto followed in Tswana. It was thus conservative. It failed, however, to provide for symbolization of click sounds, as Prof. Cole also points out, 4) which though not a characteristic of Tswana, are encountered in it. It must be admitted, however, that, with its short-comings, this orthography was indeed an attempt to create order out of the confusion which still exists.
- 4.04 Prof. Cole employs the 1937 Tswana orthography in his work<sup>5)</sup> with some modifications in the symbolization of certain sounds, especially the semiclose vowels. He discourages the employment of dialectal variants for the sake of standardization of written Tswana (see par. 4.11) and makes provision for the representation of click sounds which the 1937

<sup>2.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: <u>A Critical Investigation into the Standardization of Written Tswana</u>, par. 1.38 (unpublished discrtation for a Master's Degree, 1964).

<sup>3.</sup> Sandilands, A.: Introduction to Tswana, p. vii.

<sup>4.</sup> Cole, D.T.: An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, par. 1.5.

<sup>5.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: ibid.

orthography had ignored. But, causing still more confusion, he departs from this orthography in that he employs the conjunctive system of word-division according to Prof. Doke's theory that a word in Bantu has one penultimate stressed syllable. Prof. Cole's approach is of course scientific; but we are concerned here with practical orthography which must, however, be realistic and consistent.

4.05 As far as standardization of literary Tswana is concerned, since there are many dialectal variations in pronunciation, Prof. Cole's point of view is that it should be based on one or more closely related Tswana dialects. In accordance with this sound principle he bases his work on the dialects of Rolong, Hurutshe and Ngwaketse which he groups together geographically as the Central division of Tswana dialects because they "show the least evidence of influence by other Bantu languages, and must therefore be regarded as the most typical." He therefore writes, for example,

<u>tšôna</u> (they), -<u>tšhoga</u> (be frightened),
-<u>botšwa</u> (be moulded) <u>lešomê</u> (ten),
ntša (dog) and <u>-ša</u> (burn, new)

in preference to dialectal variants <u>tsôna</u>, <u>-tshoga</u>, -<u>bopsa</u> or <u>-bopša</u>, <u>lesomê</u>, <u>ntšwa</u> or <u>mpsa</u> or <u>mpša</u> and -<u>šwa</u> or <u>-fsa</u> or <u>-fša</u> respectively.

<sup>6.</sup> Doke, Prof. C.M.: <u>Textbook of Zulu Grammar</u>, par. 54.

<sup>7.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., p. xvi.

<sup>8.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: Loc. cit., p. xix.

4.06 Strangely enough, however, there are differences in the pronunciation of the above forms even in Rolong, Hurutshe and Ngwaketse. Typically they are pronounced respectively as follows:

Rolong: <u>tšôna</u>, <u>-tšhoga</u>, <u>-botšwa</u>, <u>lešomê</u>, <u>ntša</u> and <u>-ša</u>;

Hurutshe: <u>tsôna</u>, -<u>tshoga</u>, -<u>botšwa</u>, <u>lesomê</u>, <u>ntšwa</u> and -<u>šwa</u>;

Ngwaketse: <u>tsôna</u>, <u>-tshoga</u>, <u>-bopsa</u>, <u>lesomê</u>, <u>mpsa</u> and -<u>fsa</u>.

From this comparison it is obvious that Prof. Cole is inclined more towards Rolong than either Hurutshe or Ngwaketse. In his latest publication he employs Rolong. (9) We agree with him, however, in choosing one or more closely related dialects as a basis for written standard Tswana, and in following the recommendations of the 1937 Tswana orthography in discouraging the employment of what he calls "heterorganic compounds", (10) for example, fs, fš, bj, by, ps, pš, psh and pšh, although Moloto is not in favour of basing written Tswana on any one particular dialect (cf. par. 4.13).

#### OFFICIAL ORTHOGRAPHY

4.07 The present official Tswana orthography is that recommended by the Department of Bantu Education. 11)

<sup>9.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T. and Mokaila, D.M.: A Course in Tswana.

<sup>10.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, par. 1.75.

<sup>11.</sup> Tswana Terminology and Orthography No. 2, (Department of Bantu Education, 1962.)

This orthography makes several important modifications on the 1937 orthography. In the first place it abolishes the use of the diacritic sign (^) over the vowels @ and o, except in those cases "where there is likely to be confusion with different words having identical spelling, or otherwise in the interests of clarity" 12) in general literature; but that in scientific works, such as grammars and dictionaries, it should be used. In the second place it permits the employment of dialectal variants in written Tswana "in those cases where there are variations in pronunciation."13) In this respect it makes matters worse as it does not cause confusion only but also encourages each Tswana dialect to develop its own type of literary medium, a thing which is undesirable and which, if allowed, can cause chaos.

4.08 With reference to this orthography Moloto remarks rightly as follows:

"This orthography, however, lays down the broad principles of representation of sounds, and does so excellently. Within its framework though, there is in fact possibility for alternant forms to thrive. For instance, as to the alternants by/bi/jw (p.15) we are told that by is 'completely disregarded', but that 'In such cases either bi or jw may be used according to dialect, e.g. biang or jwang, robja or rojwa, tsebja or tsejwa? We take the cue from a point such as this, believing sincerely that 'according to dialect' was a sug-

<sup>12.</sup> ibid., p. 13.

<sup>13.</sup> ibid., p. 15.

gestion to the Tswana people themselves to select their standard form."14)

Although it is stated specifically that "The examples quoted herein are drawn almost exclusively from Northern Sotho, as most of the changes agreed upon affect Northern Sotho rather than Tswana," they are misleading since they appear in a terminology-list intended for Tswana. This orthography, therefore, does not aim at standardization of literary Tswana, but it gives guidance only for the spelling of Tswana speech forms as they are encountered in the various dialects. If it is intended for general use by writers it can do more harm than good.

#### THE CRUX OF THE PROBLEM

should be employed to represent Tswana speech sounds but which one of a given pair or group of alternative dialectal forms should be accepted as standard for literary Tswana and which ones should be eliminated. This is the crux of the whole problem of standardization of literary Tswana. For example, which one of the alternative dialectal forms mpsa, mpša, mpya, ntšwa and ntša should be recommended for purposes of standardization of Tswana orthography, and on what basis should such a choice be made? The 1937 Tswana orthography had tried to answer this question, but it

<sup>14.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 4.12.

<sup>15.</sup> Tswana Terminology and Orthography No. 2, p. 11.

failed because of its weakness (cf. par. 4.02), while the recommendations of the Department of Bantu Education ignored it (cf. par. 4.07). The result is that a wrong impression has been created that one should write according to one's own pronunciation, or that one's particular dialect, as a medium of communication, is as good as any other dialect, which fact is, of course, correct, but which is quite a different thing from a language as a literary medium of communication.

4.10 If choice is to be left to writers we shall find, for example, that, from the alternative forms for "dog", given in par. 4.09 above, Rolong, Thaping and Tharo will prefer ntša, Hurutshe will prefer ntšwa, while Ngwaketse, Kwena and Kgatla will prefer either mpsa or mpša, which cannot not be permitted.

#### MOLOTO'S APPROACH

4.11 Moloto's findings have led him to the conclusion that there are two groups of Tswana writers. The one group represents those who employ alternative dialectal forms indiscrimately. Such writers he calls "centralists, since they centralise all dialects." 16) The other group comprises those writers who are inclined more or less to favour those speech forms occurring in their particular dialects. Such writers he calls "Sectionalists, since they have been sectional in their choice of speech patterns." 17) He points out, however, that "Sectionalists" are inconsistent with themselves in that, while they are sectional they employ

<sup>16.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: <u>A Critical Investigation into the Standardization of Written Tswana</u>, par. 4.6 (unpublished dissertation for a M.A.Degree, 1964).

<sup>17.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 4.7.

also other forms which are characteristic of other dialects so that they too tend to centralise. He points out further that authors are not consistent even in the spelling of the same form. He concludes rightly as follows: "That teachers accept and employ (rightly, in the absence of a ruling) all sounds they hear, all of which should be of interest for descriptive linguistics, a selection only of which is of interest for a practical orthography." This means that the position is indeed chaotic, and under such circumstances there can be no standard written Tswana.

4.12 With reference to Tucker who adopted Rolong as standard for Tswana because the Rolong are the most important branch of the Tswana, 20) Moloto remarks as follows:

"We cannot see how historical eminence becomes synonymous with linguistic precedence, unless we are carrying out a linguistic imperialism." 21)

From this statement it is clear that Moloto is totally against basing literary standard Tswana on any particular dialect because, perhaps, this may not be acceptable to speakers of other Tswana dialects. He argues, "Since there is no political paramountcy and no economic or industrial precedence among the Tswana, there will be no dialect to treat preferentially." 22)

<sup>18.</sup> Moloto, B.S.: Loc. cit., par. 4.10(b).

<sup>19.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 4.10(d).

<sup>20.</sup> Tucker, A.N.: The Comparative Phonetics of the Suto-Chuana Group of Bantu Languages, p. 10.

<sup>21.</sup> Moloto, B.S.: Loc. cit., par. 5.1.

<sup>22.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 1.64.

It is unfortunate that tribal affiliations should transcend scientific linguistic considerations. We see nothing wrong with Tucker or any proposal to base literary Tswana on any particular dialect provided that such a dialect is representative of the other dialects and that it is fairly uniform in its sound system. It makes standardization much easier in that way.

4.13 Moloto rejects both centralism and sectionalism (cf. par. 4.11), the former because it lacks consistency and uniformity, and the latter, which includes, for example, Tucker and Prof. Cole (cf. par. 4.12) because it is tribalistic. In accordance with Gleason who says.

"A second and ultimately more important effect is to produce a new literary language which is not merely a reflection of any single dialect, but a composite of many," 23)

he comes to the conclusion that standardization of literary Tswana should be based on a "selectivist orthography" which cuts across all dialectal considerations, and which he defines as follows:

"A Selectivist orthography is one in which a choice of speech patterns is made on other than dialectal grounds." 24)

By "a choice of speech patterns" he means that if, for example, the form for "milk" occurs in the various Tswana dialects as mafsi, mafši, mašwi and maši, one

<sup>23.</sup> Gleason, H.A.: An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics, revised Edition, par. 26.5.

<sup>24.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 5.2.

only of these variant forms should be chosen as standard for written Tswana. To give yet another example: One only of the alternative forms mpshê, mpšhê, ntšhwê and ntšhe should be chosen.

4.14 As a basis according to which a choice of speech patterns should be made Moloto gives an excellent but arbitrary formula. He says that forms to be chosen should be those on the pattern palatal + bilabial + terminative vowel (pbv). 25) this formula, therefore, from the two series of forms for "milk" and "ostrich" given in par. 4.13 above, mašwi and <u>ntšhwê</u> respectively will be chosen. is a sound principle; but we do not see the reason why Moloto should not be in favour of applying it to the formation of passive forms of verb stems and diminutive forms of nouns as well. In these cases he recommends the long forms with the suffixes -iwa and -ana or -nyana respectively, for example, -lefiwa and not -lešwa (be paid); kobônyana and not kojwana, both diminutive forms of kobo (blanket). 26) Both the forms -leswa and kojwana are formed in accordance with his formular, from which he should not have departed.

4.15 Our point of view is that, in the case of passive and diminutive formations both the long and the contracted forms should be accepted in our orthography because they are both a characteristic of Tswana. If a contracted form is employed, however, it should be the one according to the formula referred to in par. 4.14

<sup>25.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 4.32.

<sup>26.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 4.32(b) and (c).

above. For example, from the series -bopsa, -bopswa, -bopsa, -botswa and -bopiwa, all alternative passive forms of -bopa (mould), both -botswa and -bopiwa should be allowed, and from the series kobjana, kobwana, kojwana and kobonyana, the last two should both be accepted. It is interesting, however, to note that Moloto is not totally opposed to the employment of contracted forms because he says, "If a contracted form must be used, let it be on either one, but one at a time, of the two patterns p+wa or b+p+v, thus:

abja or aiwa, alafša or alašwa tlhopšha or tlhotšhwa, gapša or gatšwa."27)

Unfortunately he allows alternative contracted forms here contrary to his point of view. We maintain that in this case those forms on the pattern p+wa (i.e. palatal sound plus -wa) only should be allowed in literary Tswana, for example, -aiwa, -alašwa, -tlhòtšhwa and -gatšwa.

We wish to point out here that this choice agrees with Cole's recommendation that heterorganic compounds should not be employed in written Tswana (see par. 4.06).

4.16 Apart from the inconsistency referred to in the foregoing paragraph, Moloto must be congratulated in applying his selectivist principle successfully. His selectivist orthography is based on phonemic principles according to which non-distinctive variations occurring in the spoken language should not be reflected in the written language, and that, therefore, one symbol or a group of symbols only should be employed to represent them. Thus to and to are non-distinctive in, for example, tsôna and tšôna. Therefore in such cases tsôna should be accepted in written Tswana. But as in saba (eat with a relish) is

<sup>27.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 5.21(b)

distinctive since the form -saba does not, to my know-ledge, exist in Tswana. In this way he is able to make a selection of those sounds or forms which he recommends for standardization of literary Tswana.

4.17 A selectivist orthography raises a serious question: On what basis should one form be preferred to another? On what basis, for example, should -<u>šwa</u> (new) be preferred to either -<u>fsa</u> or -<u>ša</u>? To say that -<u>šwa</u> is preferred because it is on the pattern <u>p+b+y</u> (i.e. <u>palatal + bilabial + terminative vowel</u>) is arbitrary and not convincing. On what basis should the form <u>ntšhwê</u> (ostrich) be selected rather than <u>mpshê</u> or <u>mpšhê</u> or <u>ntšhê</u>? It is for this reason that we are not in favour of a selectivist orthography because it is arbitrary.

# HURUTSHE AS BASIC DIALECT FOR STANDARDIZATION OF TSWANA ORTHOGRAPHY

- 4.18 We maintain that standardization of literary Tswana should be based on one dialect which can be found to be not only uniform in its sound system but also fairly well representative of, at least, the majority of the other Tswana dialects.
- 4.19 Our analysis of the derivation of Hurutshe speech sounds from Ur-Bantu in chapter 2 and our comparative analysis in chapter 3 leave no doubt but that the typical sound system of Hurutshe is not only considerably uniform but also fairly well representative of most other Tswana dialects. Its sounds are on the whole limited to a minimum, adequate to express Tswana. It has no redundant alternative sounds as we find, for example, in Kgatla. This is not surprising. It is so

<sup>28.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc.cit., parr. 4.30, 4.32 and 5.19-5.20.

because it is geographically more central than other Tswana dialects, and therefore, it is the least influenced by other Bantu languages. We, therefore, recommend that standardization of literary Tswana be based on Hurutshe. This does not mean that, by so doing, we shall be "carrying out a linguistic imperialism", as Moloto may accuse us (cf. par. 4.12). We are concerned not with tribal political supremacy or paramountcy among the Tswana but with linguistic considerations which, in a scientific study such as this, must transcend the boundaries of tribal or political affiliations. It makes standardization much easier when a representative dialect is chosen as the basis.

- 4.20 Fortunately, as we have seen in parr. 1.26 and 1.29, the Hurutshe are regarded traditionally by most other Tswana tribes as their senior tribe. This fact, though of secondary importance here, should mitigate any feelings of estrangement among speakers of other Tswana dialects if Hurutshe is chosen as basic dialect for literary Tswana. What is of primary importance to us, however, is that the problem of standardization of literary Tswana should be approached objectively. It is in this spirit that we recommend Hurutshe, convinced that it offers the best solution.
- 4.21 We may remark here that Moloto's recommendations, though based on selectivism, are in fact typical Hurutshe forms as revealed in chapter 2.

  Indeed as one examines them one cannot help concluding that they are based on typical Hurutshe although he does not admit it. He is in fact supporting our

standpoint that standardization of Tswana orthography should be based on Hurutshe. This will become clear when we come to evaluate his recommendations in the following paragraphs.

#### THE VOWELS

4.22 Moloto recognises 7 vowel phonemes in Tswana, namely, /a/,  $/\epsilon/$ , /e/, /i/, /o/, /o/ and /u/; and that each of the phonemes  $/\epsilon/$ , /e/, /o/ and /o/ has a variant  $[\epsilon]$ ,  $[\epsilon]$ ,  $[\epsilon]$  and  $[\epsilon]$  respectively, thus making a total of 11 vowel phones. <sup>29)</sup> These are the same as we have noted for Hurutshe (cf. par. 2.05). But for the practical Tswana orthography he accepts 5 vowel symbols, namely  $\underline{a}$ ,  $\underline{e}$ ,  $\underline{i}$ ,  $\underline{o}$  and  $\underline{u}$  since, we presume, they have been officially recommended (see par. 4.07). While we agree with him we must point out that this is unfortunate because  $\underline{e}$  and  $\underline{o}$ , as recommended, each represents two contrasting vowel phonemes, as in, for example,

-tshela [-tshélà] (cross) and -tshela [-tshèlà] (pour).

noka [nòká] (river) and

noka [nòkà] (hip.

This is a good example of an orthography being a matter of convention. It is argued that in such cases as the above the context will show which phoneme is used.

4.23 We accept Moloto's recommendations as to which vowel symbols should be used in such forms where

<sup>29.</sup> Molete, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 5.7.

there are dialectal variations in pronunciation, <sup>30)</sup> for example, <u>podi</u> and not <u>pudi</u> (goat) (< B. -<u>mbulî</u>), <u>metsi</u> (phon.: mètsi) and not <u>metse</u> (water (< \* <u>ma-yingi</u>), <u>ntlong</u> and not <u>ntlung</u> (at the house). Although he does not give hypothetical original forms his recommendations in this respect are logical.

#### SEMI-VOVELS

4.24 We agree with Moloto that the semi-vowel  $\underline{w}$  should be used only where it is significant, or distinctly heard in the spoken language as, for example, in

-<u>wa</u> (fall) (< B. -<u>yua</u>)
-<u>lwa</u> (fight) (< B. -<u>lua</u>)
-<u>lwala</u> (be ill) (< B. -lu-ala),
-<u>nwa</u> (drink) (< B. -<u>mûa</u>),

<u>mowa</u> (air) (< \*-<u>mu-yua</u>) and

<u>wêna</u> (you);

and that it should not be used where it is not generally heard as, for example, in -boa (return) (< B. -vuya), even though in this latter case, in comparison with the above forms, its use would be justified because B.  $\underline{u} + \underline{a} > Tswana -wa$ .

4.25 With reference to the semi-vowel <u>v</u> it is unfortunate that Moloto should make a sweeping statement that, "This symbol need in fact never be used in rendering the Absolute Pronoun, and the Demonstrative." This statement must be qualified. The semi-vowel <u>v</u> is distinctly heard in the spoken language, in the demon-

<sup>30.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., parr. 4.15 - 4.19.

<sup>31.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 5.16.

strative for the 1st person, singular, yô, as in <u>motho yê</u>, and in the Absolute Pronoun for class 9, for example, nku yôna. We recommend that it be used in these cases. He is correct, however, in recommending that it should not be used with the Absolute Pronoun, 3rd person, singular, ena (he), and the Demonstratives  $\hat{g}$  (this one) and  $\hat{g}$  (that one) 32) because it is not normally pronounced in the spoken language in these cases. He says, further, "Intervocallically it should not be used, even when clearly articulated,"33) as in, for example, <u>losea</u> or <u>lesea</u> (baby) and -lôa (bewitch). Here we agree with him because it is not normally distinctly pronounced. We may qualify his statement as follows: That the semivowel y, should not be used between the vowels e and a, <u>i</u> and <u>a</u> and <u>o</u> or <u>ô</u> and <u>a</u>, as in, for example, <u>lesea</u>, -dia (delay) and -lôa. It is not normally heard in these cases.

4.26 Moloto raises an interesting but logical point in recommending that such forms as -tsamaya (walk), -baya (place) and -tsaya take) should be written without the semi-vowel, as -tsamaa, -baa and -tsaa respectively, 34) because it falls away in their derived forms such as, for example -tsamailê, -tsamaêla and -tsamaisa, -bêilê and -tsêre or -tsêilê. While it is true that the forms such as -tsamaya, -baya and -tsaya are sometimes heard without the semi-vowel, even in Hurutshe, we feel that it should be retained because,

<sup>32.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., ibid.

<sup>33.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., ibid.

<sup>34.</sup> Moloto, B.S.: Loc. cit., ibid.

firstly, it is normally, clearly heard in nearly all Tswana dialects, and, secondly, an orthography being a matter of convention, it is used by most, if not all, Tswana writers so that it has become accepted as the norm. For these reasons we feel that we have to be conservative in some cases. We may point out further that the form for "go" is -ya (< B.-xia) in Tswana; but some of its derived forms are -ilê, -isa and -êla in which the semi-vowel has fallen away. Could we, therefore, say that -ya should be written without the semi-vowel as -a because the semi-vowel is dropped in its derived forms? That would not be acceptable. We, therefore, recommend that, for practical purposes, the following forms, for example, be regarded as standard:

-<u>ya</u> (go), but its derivatives as  $-\hat{e}$ la, -<u>isa</u> and -<u>ilê</u>

- -bolaya (kill), but -bolaana, -bolaêla, -bolaisa and -bolailê;
- -<u>tsamaya</u> (walk), but -<u>tsamaèla</u>, -<u>tsamaisa</u> and -<u>tsamailê</u>;
- -boya (place), but -baana, -bêêla, -bêisa and -bêilê;
- -<u>tsaya</u> (take), but -<u>tsaana</u>, -<u>tsêêla</u>, -<u>tsêisa</u> and -<u>tsêre</u> or -<u>tsêilê</u>;
- -<u>lava</u> (instruct), but -<u>laana</u>, -<u>laêla</u> and -<u>lailê</u>.

  Prof. Cole remarks as follows:

"Although so closely resembling vowels in their quality and manner of production, the semi-vowels function solely as consonants in the sound structure of Tswana." 35)

<sup>35.</sup> Cole, Prof. D.T.: An Introduction to Tswana Grammar, par. 1.62.

Hence our recommendation that the semi-vowel be retained in such cases.

#### DIALECTAL VARIANTS

- In the case of certain dialectal variant forms, such as, for example, -fsa, -fša, -fya, -ša and -šwa (new, burn) Moloto recommends -šwa because it is formed in accordance with his formula pby, that is, palatal + bilabial + terminative vowel (see par. 4.14). This method is unsatisfactory because it is arbitrary. We recommend -šwa because it is a typical Hurutshe form, since we take Hurutshe as the basic dialect for standar-dization of literary Tswana.
- 4.28 In Chapter 2 we saw that
  - B. -pya (burn) > Hurutshe  $-\underline{swa}$  (burn);
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{pya}}$  (new) > Hurutshe  $-\underline{\tilde{\text{s}}\text{wa}}$  (new);
  - B. -pwa (dry up) > Hurutshe -tšhwa (dry up);
  - B. <u>li-pwe</u> (dirt) > Hurutshe <u>lešwè</u> (dirt);
    \*<u>ki-pwepwe</u> (flower) > Hurutshe <u>sešwêšwê</u> (flower);
  - B. <u>mbwa</u> (dog) > Hurutshe <u>ntšwa</u> (dog);
     \*<u>mpungumbwe</u> (jackal) > Hurutshe <u>phokojwê</u> (jackal);
  - B. mbwe (stone) > Hurutshe <u>lejwê</u> or <u>lentswê</u> (stone, mountain);
  - B. mpwe (ostrich) > Hurutshe ntšhwê (ostrich);

According to these derivations, therefore,

(i) from the series -<u>fsa</u>, -<u>fša</u>, -<u>fva</u>, -<u>ša</u> and
 -<u>šwa</u> (burn, new) we take the Hurutshe form
 -šwa (< B. -<u>pva</u>);

- (ii) from the series  $-\underline{psha}$ ,  $-\underline{psha}$ ,  $-\underline{pva}$ ,  $-\underline{tsha}$  and  $-\underline{tshwa}$  (dry up) we take the Hurutshe form  $-\underline{tshwa}$  (< B.  $-\underline{pwa}$ );
- (iii) from the series <u>leswê</u> and <u>lešwê</u> (dirt)
  we take the Hurutshe form <u>lešwê</u> (< \*<u>li-pwe</u>);
- (iv) from the series <u>sefsêfsê</u>, <u>sefšefšê</u>, <u>sefvêfvê</u>, <u>sešešê</u> and <u>sešwêšwê</u> (flower) we take the Hurutshe form <u>sešwêswê</u> (< \*ki-pwepwe);</p>
- (v) from the series mpsa, mpša, mpya, ntša and ntšwa (dog) we take the Hurutshe form ntšwa (< B. -mbwa);</p>
- (vi) from the series phokobje, phokobye, phokoje and phokojwe (jackal) we take the Hurutshe form phokojwe;
- (vii) from the series <u>lebjê</u>, <u>lebyê</u>, <u>lejê</u>, <u>lentswê</u>,

  <u>lentšwê</u> and <u>lejwê</u> (stone) we take both the

  Hurutshe forms <u>lentšwê</u> (hill, mountain) and

  <u>lejwê</u> (stone) (B. <u>li-mbwe</u>);
- (viii) from the series mpshe, mpšhe, mpyhe, ntšhe and ntšhwe (ostrich) we take the Hurutshe form ntšhwe (phon. ntshwe) (< B. mpwe);
- (ix) from the series <u>mpshê</u>, <u>mpšhê</u>, <u>mpyhê</u>, <u>ntšhê</u> and <u>ntšhwê</u> (sweet reed ) we take the Hurutshe form <u>ntšhwê</u> (phon. <u>st[hwe</u>) (< B. <u>mpwe</u>);
- (x) from the series sepshê, sepšhê, sepyhê, setšhê and setshwê (stamina) we take the Hurutshe form setšhwê (phon. set[hwe) (< \*ki-mpwe);</p>

- (xi) from the series -pshatla, -pšhatla, pyhatla and -tšhwètla (crush) we take the Hurutshe form -tšhwêtla (phon. -t[hwetla).
- 4.29 In the same way as we have done in paragraph above we shall give a few more examples:
  - B. -ywala (sow) > Hurutshe -iwala (sow, plant);
  - B.  $-v\hat{u}-ala$  (dress) > Hurutshe -tswala (dress, especially round the loins);
  - B.  $-\underline{p\hat{u}}$ -ana (resemble) > Hurutshe  $-\underline{tshwana}$  (resemble).
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{pû-ata}}$  or  $-\underline{\text{yipata}}$  (seize) > Hurutshe  $-\underline{\text{tshwara}}$  (seize);
  - B. <u>li-papu</u> or <u>li-kwapu</u> (lung) > Hurutshe <u>letshwafo</u> or <u>lekgwafo</u>.

#### Therefore,

- (i) from the series -bjala, -byala, -jala and -jwala (sow, plant) we take the Hurutshe form -jwala (< B. -ywala);
- (ii) from the series -<u>tšwala</u> and -<u>tswala</u> (dress) we take the Hurutshe form -<u>tswala</u> (< B. -<u>y</u>wala);
- (iii) from  $-\frac{t\tilde{s}hwana}{t}$  and  $-\frac{tshwana}{t}$  (resemble) we take the Hurutshe form  $-\frac{tshwana}{t}$  (< B.  $-\frac{t\tilde{s}hwana}{t}$ );
- (iv) from -tšhwara and -tshwara (seize) we
   take the Hurutshe form -tshwara (< B.-pŵana);</pre>

- (v) from <u>letšhwafo</u>, <u>letshwafo</u> and <u>lekgwafo</u>

  (lung) we take both the Hurutshe forms

  <u>letshwafo</u> (< B. <u>li-papu</u>) and <u>lekgwafo</u>

  (< \*<u>li-kwapu</u>).
- (vi) from the series <u>bjalwa</u>, <u>bvalwa</u>, <u>iwala</u> and <u>bojalwa</u> (beer) (< B. <u>vu-yalwa</u>) we take <u>bojalwa</u>. Moloto recommends <u>jwala</u>; but although both forms <u>jwala</u> and <u>bojalwa</u> occur in Hurutshe we recommend the form <u>bojalwa</u> (because it retains the final syllable <u>-lwa</u> of the B. root <u>-yalwa</u>.
- 4.30 In the formation of passive forms of certain verb stems we have noticed in Chapter 2 that
  - B. -tovwa (< -tova) > Hurutshe -roiwa (< -roba)

    (be broken);
  - B. -<u>vumbwa</u> (< -<u>yumba</u>) > Hurutshe -<u>botšwa</u> (< -<u>bopa</u> (be moulded);
  - B.  $-\underline{\text{yikampwa}}$  (<  $-\underline{\text{yikampa}}$ ) > Hurutshe  $-\underline{\text{kgatšhwa}}$  (<  $-\underline{\text{kgapha}}$ ) (be smeared with cowdung, be waved aside);
  - B. -pampwa (< -pampa) > Hurutshe -fatšhwa (< -fapha) (be cut lengthwise, e.g. wood).

In such cases we take typical Hurutshe forms, for example, -rôjwa, and not -rôbjwa, -rôbja, -robywa or -rôbya; -botšwa, and not -bopsa, -bopša, -bopswa and -bopšwa. As we have already pointed out (see par.4.15) the long passive form of the verb stem with the suffix -iwa, for example, -rôbiwa and -bopiwa should be retained also. In fact Hurutshe prefers this long form

in many cases, for example,

 $-b\hat{e}siwa$  (be put on fire)  $< -b\hat{e}sa$ ,

 $-\underline{\text{fisiwa}}$  (be burnt) <  $-\underline{\text{fisa}}$ ,

-<u>lesiwa</u> (be let loose) < -<u>lesa</u>.

Moloto also recommends it to avoid contracted forms which result in variant dialectal forms. (See par. 4.15).

- 4.31 In the formation of diminutive forms of certain nouns we have noticed in Chapter 2 that
  - B. -nguvwana (< -nguvo) > Hurutshe kojwana (small blanket) < kobô;
  - B. -<u>ki-lembŷana</u> (< -<u>ki-lembe</u>) > Hurutshe <u>selêtswana</u> (small axe) < <u>selêpê</u>;
  - B. <u>mu-tapŷana</u> (< <u>mu-tape</u>) > Hurutshe <u>moratshwana</u> (small tribe) < <u>morafe</u>;
  - B. <u>mu-kumbwana</u> (< <u>mu-kumbu</u>) > Hurutshe

    <u>mogotšwana</u> (small wooden eating vesel)

    < <u>mogopo</u>.

In such cases we take typical Hurutshe forms, for example,

<u>kojwana</u>, and not <u>kobjana</u>, <u>kobyana</u> or <u>kojana</u>;
<u>selêtswana</u>, and not <u>selêpsana</u>, <u>selêpšana</u> or <u>selêtšwana</u>;

mogotšwana, and not mogopsana, mogopšana,

mogopswana, mogopšwana or mogotswana.

4.32 The Hurutshe forms given in paragraphs
above are the same as those recommended by Moloto.

It is not necessary, therefore, to resort to selectivism or any other formula in deciding which forms should be

accepted for literary Tswana as he does. Typical Hurutshe offers the best solution which can make standardization of Tswana orthography very easy.

4.33 We wish to comment briefly on the sound represented by i [dg]. Moloto recommends that when it is preceded by a nasal sound, for example, the objectival concord, 1st person, singular, n-, it should be written tš because it is now voiceless as a result of this nasal sound,  $^{36}$ ) for example, -nt§a (eat me) and -ntšela (eat for me), instead of -nja [-nd3a] and -njela [-ndgela] respectively. According to my findings in Hurutshe and Ngwaketse, however, the sound i remains unchanged normally even in this case. It is true, as we have already pointed out (see par. 3.38) that the pronunciation of this sound, [d3], varies in different dialects. In fact in some dialects, for example, Kgatla of Hammanskraal district, it does not exist even without the nasal, its place being taken by  ${ t t ilde{ t s}}$   $[{ t t ilde{ t t}}],$  for example,

Variations in pronunciation occur even in one and the same dialect, for example, the form <a href="https://example.com/nts/wa">nts/wa</a> (dog) is sometimes heard pronounced as <a href="https://example.com/njwa">njwa</a> [nd3wá] (< B. <a href="mbwa">mbwa</a>) among some Hurutshe speakers, which, of course, is how it should be pronounced if it was not because of the nasal, as for example,

 $-\frac{r\hat{o}_{jwa}}{r\hat{o}_{jwa}}$  [- $r\hat{o}_{jwa}$ ] <  $-\frac{r\hat{o}_{jwa}}{r\hat{o}_{jwa}}$  (break) (< B.  $-\frac{r\hat{o}_{jwa}}{r\hat{o}_{jwa}}$ ).

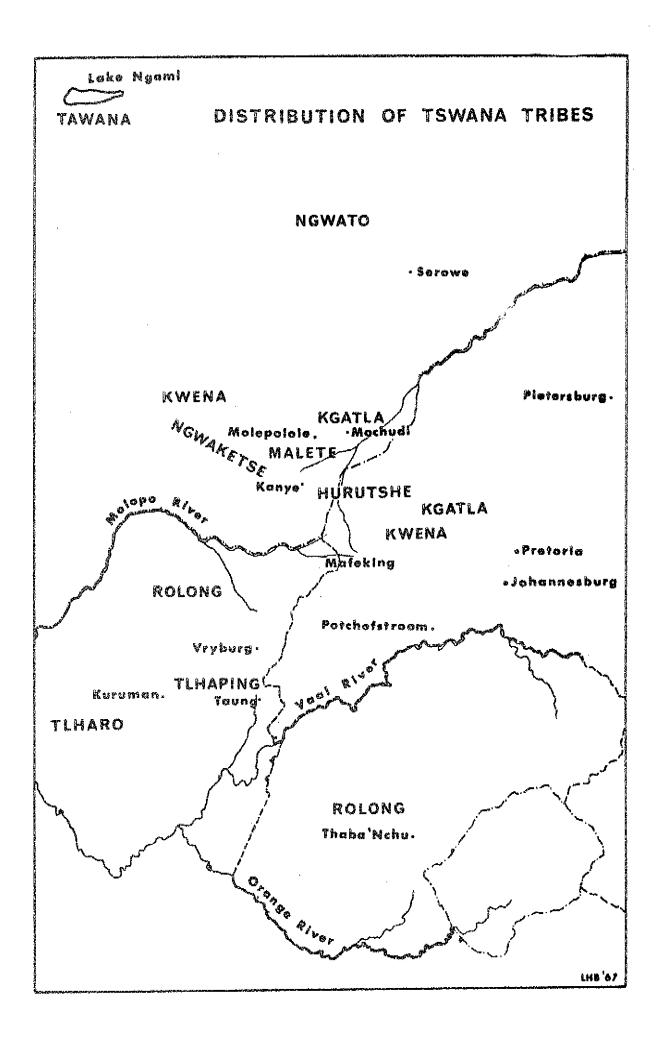
<sup>36.</sup> Moloto, E.S.: Loc. cit., par. 4.30 (iii).

Therefore, since the sound j in -ja [-d3á] (eat) (< B. -lia) remains unchanged in -nja [-hd3á] and -niêla [-hd3élà] in Hurutshe which we take as our basic dialect, we feel that it should be retained in standard written Tswana even when it is preceded by a nasal sound. We say so because it is heard among some speakers of Tswana. It is for this reason, we presume, that Cole employs it even when preceded by a nasal sound. Another reason is that writers have come to accept it as standard.

- 4.34 We accept the form  $\underline{i\hat{o}}$  [d $\underline{3}\hat{o}$ ] demonstrative for class 14, and not  $\underline{b\hat{o}}$  [b $\hat{o}$ ], because  $\underline{i\hat{o}}$  is the Hurutshe form. Similarly we accept  $\underline{j}$ wa- [d $\underline{j}$ wa-] (< B.  $-\underline{y}$ wa), possessive concord for class 14, and not  $\underline{b}$ a- or  $\underline{j}$ a-; and  $\underline{l}$ wa- possessive concord for class 11 and not  $\underline{l}$ a-.
- 4.35 Regarding the problem of word-division we accept the disjunctive system, as Moloto does, simply because it has long been followed in Tswana. We admit that this is conservatism. But an orthography is a matter of convention. What is important is that the disjunctive system must be applied consistently.
- 4.36 In conclusion we wish to record our appreciation of Moloto's well-considered suggestions and recommendations. Although we differ from his approach, we admit that his work is not only thought-provoking but it is also commendable.

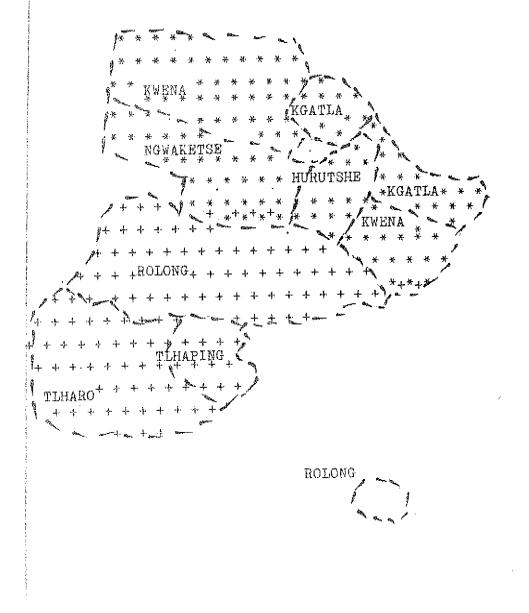
## APPENDIX

Maps showing the Distribution of Tswana Tribes and Dialects.



TAWANA

NGWATO



Map 2 showing the distribution of [s]/[ʃ], [ts']/[tʃ'], [tsh]/[tʃh] before [o], [o], [u] and [w] respectively, as in [sòná]/[jòná] (it), [lòsó]/[lòʃó] (death), [bòsùlá]/[bòʃùlá] (bad), [-swá]/[-ʃwá] (die), [ts'òná]/ [tʃ'òná] (they), [-ts'ómà]/[-tʃ'ómà] (hunt), [-ts'ùbùtl'à]/ [-tʃ'ùbùtl'à] (shake violently), [-tsw'à]/[-tʃw'à] (come out), [p'óntshd]/[p'óntʃhò] (show), [-tshòxà]/[-tʃhòxà] (be frightened), [tshúk'úlù]/[tʃhúk'úlù] (rhinoceros), [-tshwárà]/ [-tʃhwárà] (seize).

<sup>\* \* \* : [</sup>s], [ts'], [tsh]

<sup>+ + + : [</sup>ʃ], [tʃ'], [tʃh]

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Map 3 showing the distribution of [tʃhw]/[psh/pʃh]/[tʃh] as in [htʃhwé]/[mpshé/mpʃhé]/htʃhé] (ostrich), [htʃhwè]/[mpshè/mpʃhè]/[htʃhè] (sweet-reed), [sètʃhwé]/[sèpshé/sepʃhe]/[sètʃhé] (stamina).

<sup>\* \* \* : [</sup>tjhw]

<sup>=</sup> = : [psh/psh]

<sup>+ + + \* [</sup>ts]

Map 4 showing the distribution of [dʒ]/[tʃ'] as in [-dʒá]/[-tʃ'á](oat), [mmèdʒànà]/[mmètʃ'ànà] diminutive of [mmèlè] (bqdy).

\* \* \* : [dʒ]

+ + + : [ts\*]

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Map 5 showing the distribution of [d3w]/[d3]/[bz] as in [-d3wálà]/[-d3álà]/[-bzálà] (sow), [k'òd3wànà]/[k'òd3ànà]/[k'òbzànà] diminutive of [k'òbò] (blanket), [-ròd3wà]/[-ròbzà] passive of [-ròbà] (break).

\* \* \* : [dʒw]

= = = : [d3]

+ + + : [bz]

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Map 6 showing the distribution of  $[[w]/[f]/[\Phi s/\Phi f]]$  as in  $[-[w a]/[-f a]/[-\Phi s a/-\Phi f a]$  (burn, new).

\* \* \* : [[w] + + + : [[] = = = : [@s/@f] TAWANA  ${\tt NGWATO}$ 

Map 7 showing the distribution of [tʃw']/[tʃ']/[ps'/pʃ'], [tʃhw]/[tʃh]/[psh/pʃh] as in [jtʃw'á]/[jtʃ'á]/[mps'á/mpʃ'á] (dog), [-bótʃw'à]/[-bóps'à/-bópʃ'à] passive of [-bóp'à] (mould), [-tʃhwá]/[-tʃhá]/[-pshá/-pʃhá] (dry up, as water).

\* \* \* : [tjw'], [tjhw] + + + : [tj'], [tjh]

= = = : [ps'/pf'], [psh/pfh]

Map 8 showing the distribution of [x]/[h], [xw]/(hw], [kxh]/[kh], [kxhw]/[khw] as in [-xóxà]/[-hóhà] (pull), [-xwàht'à]/[-hwàht'à] (walk briskly), [kxhòmó]/[khòmó] (cow), [sèkxhwámà]/[sèkhwámå] (purse).

\* \* \* : [x], [xw], [kxh], [kxhw]

= = = : [h], [hw], [kh], [khw]

Map 9 showing the distribution of  $[\Phi]/[f]/[h]$  as in  $[1e\Phi]\Phi]/[1ef]/[1eh]/[1eh]$  (darkness).

\* \* \* : [Φ]

= = = : (f)

+ + + : [h]

Map 10 showing the distribution of [s]/[ʃ], [ts']/[tʃ'], [tsh]/[tʃh] before [i], as in [mòsí]/[mòʃí] (smoke), [ts'ìè]/[tʃ'ìè] (locust), [mòtshìtshí]/[mòtʃhìtʃhí] (swarm of bees).

\* \* \* : [s], [ts'], [tsh]
= = : [ʃ], [tʃ'], [tʃh]

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